

**Needs Analysis of English Language Competences in Vocational
Senior Secondary Education in Mainland China:
A Mixed Methods Inquiry**

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements of the degree of
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Abstract

Needs Analysis of English Language Competences in Vocational Senior Secondary Education in Mainland China:

A Mixed Methods Inquiry

Submitted by

ZHAO, Wen

for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education at the Chinese University of Hong Kong in September 2010

This study provides a detailed description and interpretation of the needs analysis (NA) of learners' English language competences carried out at senior secondary vocational schools in mainland China since understanding learners' language learning needs and their motivation to participate in language learning are essential in curriculum development. The study draws on both quantitative and qualitative mixed-method NA practices of using multiple sources and multiple methods in the data collection. The complete data include: (1) around 700 participants at three vocational schools in the particular city studied; (2) about 20 hours of recorded and unrecorded data of classroom observation at three vocational schools, a series of interviews with six teachers and 23 students at three vocational schools, as well as interviews with two inspectors, six graduate vocational school students, and a joint venture general manager; and (3) document analysis of the new National Vocational English Syllabus (NVES) issued by the Ministry of Education, along with textbooks currently in use at vocational senior secondary schools.

Information gained through various sources and methods have been used to reveal the perceived deficiencies of needs through both target situation analysis (TSA) and present situation analysis (PSA). The identified needs were then prioritized according to their immediacy to learners, with the underlying causes of the language competence discrepancies further explored and interpreted. Possible solutions were then suggested for future implementation of the vocational English curriculum in the senior secondary

vocational education context. The research findings of the current study have indicated that learners in general have low language learning motivation and inadequate language competences; there exist language competence discrepancies regarding learners' learning needs, teachers' teaching needs, and learning resources and facilities provided at school; there are positive relationship between learners' motivation and language competences; and many factors contribute to the current language competence deficiencies, among which motivational factors figure more prominently. The results of the study can be of value to educators and researchers involved in developing and redesigning language curriculums at various levels, in particular to teachers, curriculum developers as well as to researchers in vocational education.

中國大陸中等職業教育英語語言能力的需求分析：

混合方法探究

摘要

瞭解學習者的語言學習需求和他們參與語言學習的動機對於課程的開發極為重要。本研究對中國大陸中等職業學校學生的英語語言能力的需求分析進行了較為詳細的描述與解釋。本研究採取了量化與質化相結合的混合研究方法，通過採用多種資訊來源和多種不同的方法來收集資料，進行需求分析。本研究的收集的數據資料包括：（1）對某市三所職業學校700名左右參與者的調查研究；（2）對三所職業學校大約20小時的錄音與非錄音的課堂觀察，對三所職業學校6名教師和23名學生的系列訪談，以及對2名教研員、6名職業學校的畢業生和一名外企總經理的系列訪談；（3）對教育部最新頒佈的《中等職業學校英語教學大綱》的文本分析和對中等職業學校目前所採用教材的分析。

來自多個管道和透過多種方法所獲取的資訊通過採用目標情境分析和目前情境分析來找出所存在的需求差距，並對所發現的需求按照對學習者學習的優先性來進行排序，然後對造成差距的原因進行進一步的探究與解釋，最後對中等職業教育情境下的未來職業英語課程的實施提出了建議。本研究的成果顯示學生總體的語言學習動機低，語言能力不足，學生的語言能力在學習者的學習、教師的教學、學校所提供的學習資源和設備等三個方面均存在需求缺欠，學習者的學習動機與語言能力之間存在著正相關，除動機這一主要因素外還有許多因素導致了學習者目前語言能力的缺欠。本研究的成果對各種不同層次開發和設

計語言課程的教育工作者和研究人員，尤其是從事職業教育的教師、課程開發人員和研究人員，都具有一定的參考價值。

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Abbreviations

- ACTFL: American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages
- AMTB: Attitude/Motivation Test Battery
- CALL: computer-assisted language learning
- CAQDAS: computer assisted qualitative data analysis software
- CCCCP: Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party
- CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment
- CLA: communicative language ability
- CLT: communicative language teaching
- CMT: Classical Measurement Theory
- CNP: Communication Needs Processor
- COLT: Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching
- EAP: English for Academic Purposes
- EBP: English for Business Purposes
- EE: Extended English
- EEC: European Economic Community
- EFL: English as a foreign language
- ELP: European Language Portfolio
- ELTDU: English Language Teaching Development Unit
- EOP: English for Occupational Purposes
- EQF: European Qualification Framework
- ESL: English as a second language
- ESP: English for Specific/Special Purposes
- EST: English for Science and Technology
- EVP: English for Vocational Purposes
- Flint: Foreign Language Interaction
- FOCUS: Foci for Observing Communications Used in Settings
- GE: General English

GNVQ: General National Training Framework
GSSUGE: General Senior Secondary Unified Graduation Examination
IRE/F: Initiation-Response-Evaluation/Feedback
IRT: Item response theory
IQAS: International Qualifications Assessment Service
ISCED: International Standard Classification of Education
KSA: knowledge, skills and attitudes
KSCs: knowledge, skills and competences
L2: second language
LC: language competence
LSP: Language for Specific Purposes
MOE: Ministry of Education
MOLSS: Ministry of Labor and Social Security
NA: needs analysis
NTF: National Training Framework
NVES: National Vocational English Syllabus
NVQs: National Vocational Qualifications
OP: observation protocol
PSA: present situation analysis
RQ: research question
SES: social economic status
SILL: strategy inventory for language learning
SLA: second language acquisition
SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TBLT: task-based language teaching
TSA: target situation analysis
TVE: technical and vocational education
VE: vocational education
VESL: vocational English as a second language
VET: vocational education and training

Chapter 1 Research Background

Vocational education (VE), which has the same meaning as the term *technical and vocational education* (TVE) used by UNESCO (Zhao & Lu, 2007), has been playing a key role in national economic development and global competition. Almost all national governments have commissioned to introduce policy reforms in the area of vocational education (Bünning, 2007; Cooke, 2005; Mayer & Solga, 2008) because it is generally believed that VE can provide learners with knowledge, skill and attitudes (KSA) required for the workplace. Moreover, VE can expand learners' employment choices and effective participation in society (Bünning, 2007; Psacharopoulos & Loxley, 1985). In recent years, VE in mainland China has been on the government's agenda to expand VE at secondary and tertiary levels and to train a large pool of a well-educated skilled workforce with portable general competences for the economic boom (MOE, 2008, 2009).

Unfortunately, VE has acquired a degree of negative stigma and has been viewed as second-rank education (Lai & Lo, 2008), a "blind alley", and a dumping ground for academic failures (Schulte, 2003, p. 228) both at home and abroad. Vocational graduates are usually deemed to have a dim future, ending up in low-social-status and low-paid jobs with only a slim chance of proceeding to tertiary education. The negative image prevents many promising school learners from entering the field of VE. Moreover, as research indicates, there are discrepancies between the school curriculum and workplace requirements (Psacharopoulos & Loxley, 1985; OECD, 1992), with criticisms of the mainstream school curriculum and workplace requirements (Chang, 2002; Saul, 1998; Zemsky, 1994) as being isolated from each other (Cheung & Lewis, 1998). The workplace requires "their workers to be adaptive, work independently, be responsible and possess a desire to improve, as well as the ability to learn" (Lai & Lo, 2008, p. 194). The vocational school curriculum is in general based on learning formal abstract rules and isolated facts, and in being removed from the world of work, and learners' future working life (Bünning, 2007).

The lack of fit between the current realities and the target vision hinders the transition from school to work (Asian Development Bank Institute, 2006). This further works as an impetus for curriculum change to bridge the gap and narrow the discrepancies between the education system and the workplace (Cheung & Wong, 2006). To increase their chances for employability and transferability, learners of vocational education need to possess a good foundation of basic knowledge in languages and mathematics, practical and social skills and positive attitudes, as well as the ability to learn, to think and act independently, creatively and responsibly (Bünning, 2007). It is therefore argued that more appropriate balanced curriculums need to be developed to address these issues (Cheung & Wong, 2006).

In tandem with the international curriculum reform trend from a subject-centered curriculum to a more learner-centered and competence-based curriculum in the field of VE, vocational English curriculums at home have been undergoing changes. The newly revised National Vocational English Syllabus (NVES) was endorsed and released by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in 2009, focusing on competence-based English language teaching, learning and assessment. As Taba (1962) long ago indicated, any curriculum needs to start with needs analysis (NA) of learners and their learning needs so that an understanding of the actual and target needs of learners in terms of language competences will enable a more appropriate and balanced school curriculum to bridge the gap between school and work.

1.1 Introduction

The central argument of the current study involves conducting a needs analysis (NA) of learners' English language competences in the field of senior secondary VE in mainland China. In this chapter, the macro contextual background for the research is laid out at the outset for a basic understanding of the current status of senior secondary VE. The contextual description leads to the purpose statement of the current study, along with three research questions. Then the significance of the current study and the structure of the whole thesis are introduced, followed with a final summary of the chapter. Two terms – *learners* and *students* – will be alternatively used throughout the

thesis.

1.2 Background to the Study

This section first begins with an introduction of the vocational senior secondary education in mainland China and VE in the educational system. Among the three branches of senior secondary VE, the focus of the current study – vocational senior secondary education – is specified, its program set-up presented, and a historical overview described. The section provides a panoramic view of the context, on the basis of which the current research has been conducted.

1.2.1 Vocational Education in China

The section starts with a historical account of VE in China. Following the historical overview, VE in the educational system is then introduced. As a key component of educational structure, it is important to situate VE in the educational system as a whole and to delineate where it stands and how it is related to other levels and fields of education. To this end, VE is presented as part of a unified classification system – the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED, 1997).

1.2.1.1 Historical Overview of VE in China

Although the concept of “vocation/profession” has long existed, its modern meaning and conception were established only during the 20th century. The term “*VE*” (*zhiye jiaoyu*) with its current connotation evolved from the term “*industrial education*” (*shiye jiaoyu*), which was borrowed from Japan after its modernization movement. Yao Wendeng, an educator in Shanxi Province, is believed to have first adopted the term around 1904 (Liu, 1997, p. 136). Before the introduction of industrial education, there existed in China a long tradition of training craftsmen. The transition from industry education to VE took place with the establishment of the Chinese Society of Vocational Education (*zhonghua zhijiao she*) by Huang Yanpei in 1917 (Liu, 1997; Schulte, 2003), with Huang and his society advocating “*vast vocational educationalism*” (*da zhiye jiaoyu zhuyi*) (Zhao & Lu, 2007). During the period from 1913 to 1933, VE developed in accordance with the political and economic situations.

Since 1949, the founding of the People's Republic of China, VE became part of the Constitution. During the 1950s and early 1960s, many vocational schools were set up in response to social and economic development needs, which later formed the general structure of technical and vocational education (TVE) in China (Yang, 1993). During the ten-year Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), VE came to a halt with the majority of vocational schools converted into general senior secondary schools. By 1976, less than 2% of students were enrolled in senior secondary VE. In 1978, the *Decision on the Reform of the Educational Structure (guanyu jiaoyu jiegou gaige de jue ding)* (Yang, 1993) was released. The 1978 National Conference on Education was a milestone in stressing the importance of TVE for economic development and providing a platform for the VE expansion at elementary, secondary, and tertiary levels (Cooke, 2005; Yang, 1993).

Since the 1980s, the government has released a series of policies and documents to promote the development of VE. In 1985, the Ministry of Education (MOE) issued the *Decision on the Reform of the Education System (guanyu jiaoyu tizhi gaige de jue ding)* (MOE, 1985; Shi & Englert, 2008) – one of the most important educational landmarks in China's educational reform, initiating a massive expansion of the senior secondary VE system. The aim of the 1985 *Decision* was to balance secondary mainstream and VE with an enrollment of 50% of eligible senior secondary learners into VE within five years by means of introducing a system of pre-employment training and encouraging enterprises, technical departments of government, individuals, and communities to set up vocational and technical education institutions on their own or in cooperation.

A series of policies and measures for developing VE were issued after the *Decision* in 1985 (Lumby & Li, 1998), with VE in China experiencing a sustaining development in the following decade. In 1990, about 47.75% learners were enrolled in different types of senior secondary VE with an increase of 42.4% in comparison with 1980 (Yang, 1993). In 1991, the National Conference of Technical and Vocational Education was held in Beijing, with the release of the *Resolution of Devoting Major Efforts to*

Develop Technical and Vocational Education (dali fazhan jishu yu zhiye jiaoyu de jueding) (Yang, 1993). The conference examined the achievements and problems in the previous years and set up guidelines for the next 5-10 years.

By 1992, the much propagated goal of 50% of students being admitted into vocational senior secondary educational institutions was achieved. Apart from attempts to raise the quality of VE itself, educational policies were issued to develop higher VE, so that choosing the VE path would no longer be perceived as a dead end (Schulte, 2003). The *Outline for Reform and Development of Education in China (zhongguo jiaoyu gaige yu fazhan gangyao)* (Yang, 1993; Shi & Englert, 2008) was issued in 1993, declaring an increase in the government's financial input. The *Outline* moreover proposed that 60-70% of eligible learners should be admitted into senior secondary VE with a further emphasis on the quality rather than the quantity of VE. The emphasis on educational quality was reiterated in the document *Decision about Deepening the Reform of Education and Boosting the Quality of Education (guanyu shenhua jiaoyu gaige yu tigao jiaoyu zhiliang de jueding)* (MOE, 1999).

In 1996, the *Vocational Education Law (zhiye jiaoyufa)* was enacted to establish a comprehensive VE system after nine-year compulsory education, aiming at enacting occupational standards, implementing a certification system and encouraging industry's participation in training. It was the first piece of legislation on VE since the founding of the People's Republic of China. From 1995 to 1999, the number of students in VE increased from 41.56 million to 76.35 million with the number of students in senior secondary VE increasing from 32.1% to 49.9% of the senior secondary cohort (RPT, 2008, p. 233). Enrollment into VE reached its peak in 1999, and then it suffered a sharp decline. The causes underlying the decrease were due to "a lack of financial resources, a shortage of professional teachers, poor quality curriculum and unsatisfactory career opportunities" (Lai & Lo, 2008, p. 193).

Since the new millennium, three important national conferences and conventions on VE have been held from 2002 to 2005, with the release of a series of policies and measures to speed up the development of VE. In 2002, the Fourth National Vocational

Education Conference was held with the *Decision on the Strong Promotion of Vocational Education Reform and Development (guanyu dali tuijin zhiye jiaoyu gaigeyu fazhan de jueding)* issued by the National Congress (RPT, 2008). The *Decision* proposed to develop a modern VE system with a tendency towards market and employment. In 2004, the CCCCP (Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party) on VE released the *Decision on the Strong Development of Vocational Education (guanyu dali fazhan zhiye jiaoyu de jueding)*, focusing on VE at senior secondary level and its relevance to the workplace (Yang, 2005, 2006). This was the first time that both social needs and market needs (Li & Lumby, 2005), along with “employment-guided, and service-oriented” principles being stressed (MOE, 2004). Given this state of affairs, in 2004 the government proposed that 10 billion yuan be invested to substantially expand technical and vocational education (TVE) with a view to cultivating a much bigger pool of highly-skilled and well-qualified workforce (MOE, 2004; Yang, 2006).

In 2005, there marked “a transition in China, in which public policy towards education underwent a system-wide change” (Yang, 2006, p. 3). The overall requirements for educational development were articulated from the perspective of three key strategic points, viz., strengthening the development of compulsory education, adjustment of the development of professional/vocational education, and upgrading the development of higher education. Enrollment into senior secondary VE reached 7.5 million in 2005, with the enrollment rate maintained at the same standard in 2006 (Yang, 2006).

In 2007, the *Eleventh Five-year Plan Outline of the Development of Vocational Education (shiyiwu zhiye jiaoyu fazhan guihua gangyao)* (MOE, 2007) restated the significance of VE, requiring approximately 50% of school teaching hours to be devoted to practical skills training. A ratio of 3:3:4 was proposed, with the three main components of the general vocational curriculum comprising general knowledge, vocational knowledge and practicum. Enrollment into senior secondary VE reached 8 million, a 0.5 million increase in comparison with the 2006 figure (RPT, 2008, p. 234).

In late 2008, a document was issued, outlining eight key aspects in VE and stressing

curriculum and pedagogical reform (MOE, 2008). This was followed in 2009 by the *Guiding Principles on Developing Teaching Plans for Vocational senior secondary schools (guanyu zhiding zhongdeng zhiye xuexiao jiaoxue jihua de zhidao yuanze)* (MOE, 2009a), with the statement of eight comprehensive guidelines for curriculum making and implementation and pedagogical administration. Along with the guiding principles, the importance of cooperation between school and employers, the flexibility of learning scheme and the work experience schemes were reiterated. The document also urged the provincial and local administrations to make their own guiding principles in accordance with the national ones to promote the quality of vocational education.

In 2010, the *Outline of the National Medium- and Long-Term Plan of Educational Reform and Development (guojia zhong chang qi jiaoyu gaige yu fazhan guihua gangyao)* (*Draft for Soliciting Opinions*) was issued (<http://www.sina.com.cn>), reiterating the protruding importance of developing VE, in particular, the importance of the fast development of VE towards the country, of motivating the initiatives of industries and enterprises, and of enhancing the attraction of VE. All of the efforts aim at developing VE as well as other types and levels of education to facilitate China's transfer from a nation with great manpower towards a nation with great human resources.

1.2.1.2 VE in the Educational System

The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), as a most authoritative multi-purpose system, was originally designed by UNESCO in the early 1970s to facilitate the international compilation and comparison of educational statistics within individual countries and across countries internationally. It is now known as ISCED 1997 as it was approved by the UNESCO General Conference at its 29th session in November 1997. ISCED 1997 presents standard concepts, definitions and classifications along two cross-classification variables, namely levels of education and fields of education. According to ISCED 1997, education "is understood to involve organized and sustained communication designed to bring about learning"

(p.9), and the classification of the levels of education is undertaken in a taxonomic framework (ISCED 1997, p18) shown in Figure 1.1.

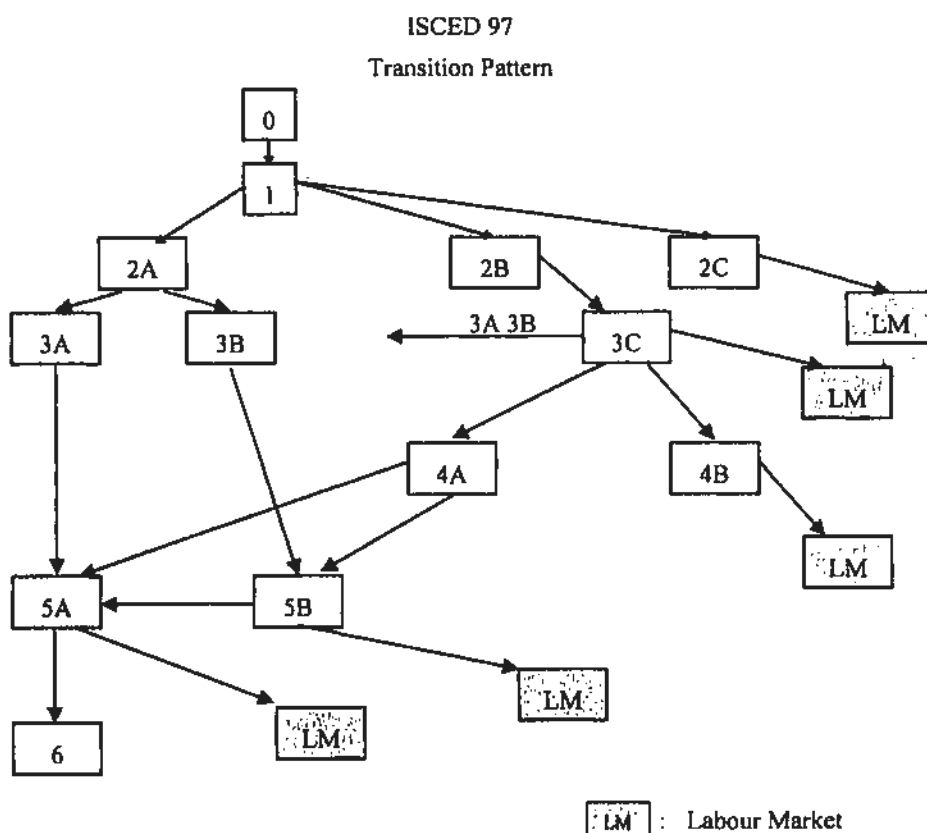


Figure 1.1 Levels of education

According to ISCED 1997, the levels of education around the world can be roughly classified into 6 levels:

Level 0 is defined as pre-primary education.

Level 1 refers to primary education or first stage of basic education.

Level 2 refers to lower secondary or second stage of basic education, which includes three sub-classified dimensions. ISCED 2A is general education linked to Level 3 and programs on this level are primarily theoretically-oriented; ISCED 2B is pre-vocational or pre-technical education directed towards Level 3C and programs on this level are mainly practically-oriented.; ISCED 2C are vocational or technical education, with programs on this level mainly related with “the practical skills, know-how and understanding necessary for employment in a particular

occupation or trade or class of occupations or trades” (ISCED 1997, p.26). Along with the nine-year compulsory education in China, there exists junior secondary vocational education

Level 3 refers to (upper) secondary education, which has the same subcategories as Level 2. ISCED 3A is general education and programs, designed to provide direct access to ISCED 5A; ISCED 3B is prevocational or pre-technical education, with programs designed to provide direct access to ISCED 5B; ISCED 3C is vocational or technical education, with programs designed directly leading to ISCED 5A or 5B, the labor market, ISCED 4 programs or other ISCED 3 programs. VE in mainland China roughly corresponds to ISCED 3B and 3C, but has its own unique structure and characteristics, which is dealt with in the next section (see Section 1.2.1.3).

Level 4 refers to post-secondary non-tertiary education.

Level 5 refers to the first stage of tertiary education. The programs at this level do not lead directly to an advanced research qualification. The higher vocational education in mainland China corresponds to ISCED 5B, which can further lead to ISCED 6.

Level 6 refers to second stage of tertiary education, with the programs leading to an advanced research qualification. In mainland China, ISCED 6 incorporates two types of programs, ISCED 6A and 6B, with the latter including vocation-oriented qualification.

As indicated in Figure 1.1, ISCED is more formally education oriented, with its focus on qualities, in particular on levels and scopes, of the educational program rather than as a framework for expressing or measuring the skills level of an individual in assessment (Goullier, 2008). In Europe, the European Qualification Framework (EQF) (Commission of the European Communities, 2005, 2006) has been developed in recent years, which is more relevant with learning taking place in both formal and informal settings towards lifelong learning.

1.2.1.3 VE System in China

The educational system in mainland China consists of two parts: basic education and higher education. In 1986, the National People’s Congress legislated a nine-year general compulsory education. The nine-year compulsory education includes primary and junior secondary education in the mode of 6+3 or 5+4 (years), with children starting school at the age of six or seven. The general educational structure can be clearly demonstrated in Table 1.1 adapted from the International Qualifications Assessment Service (IQAS) country education profile–People’s Republic of China (2005, p. 13).

Table 1.1 The basic educational system in mainland China

...				
12	General Senior		Specialized Senior	Skilled Workers School
11	Secondary	Vocational Senior	Secondary School	
10	School	Secondary School		
9	Junior Secondary School		Junior Secondary School	9-Years School
8				
7				
6	Primary School		Primary School	
5				
4				
3				
2				
1				

At the end of nine-year compulsory education, learners in general sit for an exam - the General Senior Secondary Unified Graduation Examination (GSSUGE), the watershed between general and vocational senior secondary education. VE, equivalent to the ISCED 3B and 3C (see Figure 1.1), consists of three types of schools: vocational senior secondary schools (*Zhongdeng Zhiye Xuexiao*), specialized senior secondary

schools (*Zhongdeng Zhuanke Xuexiao*), and skilled workers schools (*Jigong Xuexiao*). The three types of post-compulsory vocational schools appears similar, but differ greatly in terms of curriculums, links to industry, their orientation towards work and affiliation (Biermann, 1999), as shown in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2 Types of vocational schools

Types	Establishment	Orientation	Patterns
Skilled workers schools	1950s	Manufacturing sector	Pattern 1 : 3 years Pattern 2: 1-2 years
Specialized senior secondary schools	1950s	Manufacturing, technology & management sectors	Pattern 1: 3-4 years Pattern 2: 1-2 years
Vocational senior secondary schools	1980s	Manufacturing, agriculture & service sectors	Pattern: 3 years

1.2.1.3.1 Skilled Workers Schools

Skilled workers schools (*Jigong Xuexiao*), which is also called technical workers schools, were established in the early 1950s after the former Soviet model to train skilled workers (Biermann, 1999). Unlike the other two types, this mode of educational system is not directly under the jurisdiction of the MOE (Ministry of Education), but has been under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Labor and Social Security (MOLSS) since 1978. This type of education mainly specializes in technical skills training for the manufacturing industry. Skilled/technical workers schools involve two patterns, with Pattern One consisting of three years of full time study for junior secondary graduates, and Pattern Two involving one or two year(s) of full time study for senior secondary students. "According to the guidelines jointly published by the Ministry of Personnel and the State Education Commission (now MOE) in 1986, the aim of skilled workers schools is to train mid-level skilled workers" (IQAS 2005, p. 60). Upon graduation, learners receive a certificate of graduation, and a mid-level occupational qualification certificate, with technical certification programs incorporated into the school curriculum.

1.2.1.3.2 Specialized Senior Secondary Schools

Specialized senior secondary schools (*Zhongdeng Zhuanke Xuexiao*) were also established in the early 1950s after the Soviet model to train technicians, with the objectives of preparing intermediate level skilled workers for the manufacturing, technology, and management sectors. Until about 1985, over half of students enrolled at specialized senior secondary schools were graduates from senior secondary schools. This type of education is administered by the regional or local educational authorities. Due to the decrease of student enrollment in recent years, two major patterns are in operation. Pattern 1 consists of three or four years of study for junior secondary graduates in both general and specialty subjects, and part of the courses overlap with the courses for vocational senior secondary schools; Pattern 2 includes one or two years of study in specialty subjects for senior secondary graduates. Upon graduation, learners may receive both a certificate of graduation and a mid-level occupational qualification certificate related to their intended occupation.

1.2.1.3.3 Vocational Senior Secondary Schools

Vocational senior secondary schools (*Zhongdeng Zhiye Xuexiao*) were established in the 1980s according to the *Decision On Formulating Vocational Senior Secondary School (Three-Year System) Curriculum (guanyu zhiding zhongdeng zhiye xuexiao kecheng de jueding)*, which was drafted in 1986 and promulgated in 1990 to supply sufficient qualified mid-level technicians and skilled workers in agriculture, manufacturing and service for the fast developing and expanding market-oriented economy. The type of education was mostly converted from some poorly performing senior secondary schools (Cooke, 2005; Lumby & Li 1998; Yang, 2006). The educational curriculum is for junior secondary graduates, consisting of three-year full time study. Upon graduation, learners receive a graduation certificate on senior secondary VE, and certain occupational qualification certificate in relation to their intended occupation. This type of VE is in fast development and has been on government's agenda in recent years. The focus of the current study is on this type of vocational schools.

1.2.2 Curriculum Structure

Since late 1980s, the importance of vocational education has increased considerably, with VE programs in China currently consisting of three modules—*general* subjects, *specialty* subjects, and one year of *practicum* (Xu, 2005), as indicated in Figure 1.2.

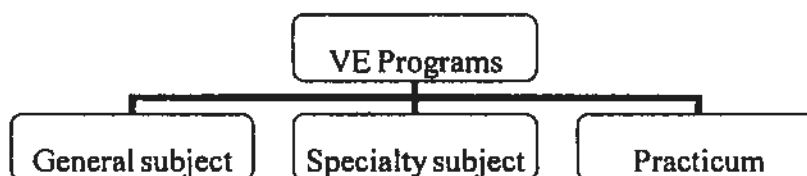


Figure 1.2 Modules of VE programs

Unlike general senior secondary education which is more academic-oriented, vocational senior secondary education aims at reaching two goals: education for earning a living and education for life (Shi, 2001, 2006). *General* subjects serve to provide students with a broad knowledge base both for life and for earning a living, consisting of three core learning subjects—Chinese Language, Mathematics and English Language. *Specialty* subjects and *practicum* are courses to enable students to earn a living.

With regard to English learning, there used to exist two modules—the *General English* (GE) (i.e., 220-260 hours) and the *English for Vocational Purposes* (EVP) (i.e., 60 hours) in the previously issued national syllabus (MOE, 2000). The *GE* module (220-260 hours) is an essential compulsory course for all vocational school students while the *vocational English* module (60 hours) is an optional course related to vocational specialization (e.g., manufacturing and service sectors), aiming at promoting and enhancing learners' language competences and career development.

To keep pace with educational reform both at home and abroad and to better cater for competence diversity which currently exists in vocational senior secondary schools, the Ministry of Education issued the *Guiding Principles on Developing Teaching Plans for Vocational senior secondary schools* (*guanyu zhiding zhongdeng zhiye xuexiao jiaoxue jihua de zhidao yuanze*) (MOE, 2009a) in 2009 to enact the

implementation of the newly revised National Vocational English Syllabus (NVES) (MOE, 2009b), whose upgraded version was released in 2000. The new NVES extend the previous two modules into three modules: General English (GE), English for Vocational Purposes (EVP), and Extended English (EE), with the GE module compulsory, EE module optional and EVP module selective. The teaching hours for certain modules are also specified. The comparison of the curriculum modules between the previous version of NVES (MOE, 2000) and the new NVES (MOE, 2009b) is shown in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3 Module comparisons between the two NVESs

Syllabuses	Modules and Teaching Hours		
Previous NVES (MOE, 2000)	General English (GE) (220-260 hours)	English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) (60 hours)	
New NVES (MOE, 2009)	General English (GE) (128-144 hours)	English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) (54-72 hours)	Extended English (EE) (Not specified)

Table 1.3 indicates that teaching hours for the *GE* module has been reduced from the original 220-260 teaching hours to 128-144 teaching hours, and the *EVP* module has been changed from its original 60 hours to an elastic 54-72 teaching hours, with no specified teaching hours designated for the *EE* module. With the reduction in teaching hours and the expansion of vocational skills training, the implementation of English teaching to cater for learners' diversified levels and needs is a challenging issue to explore.

1.2.3 The New National Vocational English Syllabus

Before the discussion of the syllabus proper, it is important to distinguish the following two notions: *curriculum* and *syllabus*.

1.2.3.1 Curriculum Versus Syllabus

In the literature review, the terms *curriculum* and *syllabus* are sometimes used interchangeably and are of a confusing nature (Jackson, 1992). When *curriculum* is used in a more restricted sense, it can be defined as “a statement of content, sequence, and (often) recommended teaching techniques” (Strevens, 1977, p. 61), which refers to the same concept as the term *syllabus*. When *syllabus* is used in a broad sense, it thus becomes equivalent with *curriculum* (Candlin, 1984). “It is usually assumed that curriculum includes syllabus, but not vice versa” (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986, p. 3). A *syllabus* is more specific and more concrete while a *curriculum* may contain a number of syllabuses, which may cover such linguistic features as items of grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary as well as experiential content (Nunan, 1988a, 2006). Further, *curriculum* is concerned with what can and should be taught to whom, when, and how (Eisner & Vallence, 1974; Stern, 1983, 1992).

In mainland China, the notion of *syllabus* used to denote a broad sense after the former Soviet influence. The concept of *curriculum* gradually came to be adopted in a broad sense since the new millennium, accompanying educational reform at secondary and tertiary levels (Zhao & Coniam, 2008). The term *syllabus*, however, has been used in senior secondary vocational education since the 1980s. In the current study, the *National Vocational English Syllabus* (NVES) refers to the national curriculum document, the guiding yardstick of curriculum development, implementation and assessment.

1.2.3.2 Towards a Learner-Centered Syllabus

The new NVES as the national yardstick is the result of a four-year process of negotiation and compromise (2005-2009) undertaken by an appointed committee of English inspectors, curriculum developers, and English professionals towards a learner-centered curriculum as is stated in the aims of the new NVES:

To enable learners to master essential English knowledge and language skills, to cultivate learners' communicative language competences in daily life and under

vocational contexts, to cultivate learners' cultural awareness, to enhance learners' ethical literacy and cultural literacy, and to lay a foundation for learners' vocational career development, sustainable learning and lifelong learning. (使学生掌握一定的英语基础知识和基本技能, 培养学生在日常生活和职业场景中的英语应用能力; 培养学生的文化意识, 提高学生的思想品德修养和文化素养; 为学生的职业生涯、继续学习和终身发展奠定基础。) (MOE, 2009b, p. 1)

Unlike the previous version of the NVES which exhibited a strong society-driven and subject matter-centered tendency, the new NVES is more learner- and learning-centered, aiming at cultivating learners' language competences for both personal and vocational development. The new NVES takes into account learners' current learning needs as well as future personal and vocational development needs, enabling learners to possess transferable competences to move across vocational ladders. This statement is in line with Tanner and Tanner's (1995) comment that "the changing nature of knowledge, changing conceptions of the learner, and changing demands of social life have called for a changing conception and function of curriculum" (p. 197). According to the new NVES (MOE, 2009b), the communicative language competences are the basic requirements that learners should possess both as individuals and social agents in daily life and vocational contexts.

In line with the curriculum aims, the curriculum goals, as the more specific descriptions of the intended outcomes of curriculum (Richards, 2001), are stated as the following in the new NVES:

On the basis of nine-year compulsory education, the senior secondary vocational English curriculum should help learners further expand their essential English knowledge, cultivate such language skills as listening, speaking, reading and writing so that the curriculum can enable learners to possess basic vocational English competences; stimulate and cultivate learners' English learning interest, enhance their self-confidence in learning, help learners master some basic learning strategies, form good learning-habits, improve their self-regulated learning, guide learners to understand and distinguish differences between Chinese and Western culture, and cultivate learners' affective feelings, attitudes, values and ethics." (中等职业学校英语课程要在九年制义务教育基础上, 帮助学生进一步学习英语基础知识, 培养听、说、读、写等语言技能, 初步形成职场英语的应用能力; 激发和培养学生学

习英语的兴趣，提高学生学习的自信心，帮助学生掌握学习策略，养成良好的学习习惯，提高自主学习能力；引导学生了解、认识中西方文化差异，培养正确的情感、态度和价值观。) (MOE, 2009, p. 1)

The goal statement matches the learner-oriented aims—the philosophical stance of the curriculum (Eisner, 1992). It is the first time in NVES that learners' learning interest, self-confidence in learning and learning strategies have been mentioned, which makes the new NVES more relevant to individual needs and individual development than the previous two versions (MOE, 1998, 2000). The goal incorporates four dimensions: essential English knowledge, language skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing), basic learning strategies and affective attributes (i.e., motivation, feelings, attitudes, values and ethics).

The rationale of the new NVES is “employment-oriented, competence-based, and learner-centered” (MOE, 2009b), to cultivate learners' language competences and to build up a link between the present and the future needs, that is, a school-to-work linkage.

1.2.4 Vocational English Learners

Vocational English learners possess many common features with their senior secondary counterparts. When enrolled at the vocational senior secondary schools, they are mostly at the ages of 15 and 16, the turbulent years of adolescence.

Accompanying their physical development, learners also experience psychological change. They begin to turn to their peers for affection, encouragement and a sense of belonging. They strive for their self-esteem, and self-confidence in the adult world. Mentally, their intelligence is getting mature towards abstract, independent and critical thinking (Deng & Zhao, 2006).

Unlike their general senior secondary counterparts who are academic-oriented, learners of senior secondary VE are more employment- or labor market-oriented. Since nowadays most vocational senior secondary schools practice the open-door policy without requiring learners to sit for an entrance exam. The sources of the incoming learners vary. There are learners who have finished their nine-year

compulsory education, learners who get enrolled into VE before finishing their nine-year compulsory education, learners who have already finished their junior secondary education a few years ago, and learners who were early school-leavers. The multiple sources of incoming students add to the complexity of vocational education.

A large majority of students in VE are not successful language learners in the junior secondary compulsory education, with low motivation, low learning interest and negative attitudes towards English due to their early unsuccessful learning experience at school (Li, 2005; Jiang, 2008). Most of them are from families of low social economic status (SES), which lack of home learning support. The expectation of both learners and their parents is to stay at school for three years and then find a job to survive. They do not know what competences, especially language competences, are required at the workplace, and whether VE can help them build the links between school-to-work (Deng & Zhao, 2006).

Further, the general English learning hours postulated in the newly revised NVES has been reduced from the original 220-260 hours to the current 128-144 hours (MOE, 2000, 2009b). Given the present learners' characteristics and crammed teaching hours, conducting a dynamic NA of learners' subjective and objective learning needs regarding their language competences is hence of crucial importance.

1.2.5 Research into Language Competences

Since the reestablishment of senior secondary VE in 1985, developing learners' language competences has been stressed in national curriculums (c.f., MOE, 1998, 2000, 2009b). Little theoretical and empirical research on vocational language competences in China, however, has been conducted (Chen, 2005; Jiang, 2007; Li, 2005; Shi, 2005; Wei, 2008). To gain an understanding of the research into language competences, the China Journal Net (CNJ) on the Internet via the CUHK's online library system was searched for locating published journal articles and unpublished master and doctoral theses and dissertations in February 2009, with the results yielded in Table 1.4.

Table 1.4 Results of the competence-related journal articles and theses

Year	VE (Title)	VE (Subject)	Competence (Subject)	LC (Subject)	Senior Secondary	Competence/ VE (%)	LC/VE (%)
1994	227	1345	114	1	0	8.47	0.87
1995	371	1878	156	1	0	8.30	0.64
1996	574	2190	172	3	0	7.85	1.74
1997	664	2643	283	7	0	10.70	2.47
1998	705	2965	431	5	0	14.53	1.16
1999	936	4005	605	8	4	15.10	1.32
2000	1044	4249	675	14	1	15.88	2.07
2001	1077	4377	745	10	3	17.02	1.34
2002	1469	5429	872	17	2	16.06	1.94
2003	1663	6231	1115	29	1	17.89	2.60
2004	1813	6457	1166	19	0	18.05	1.62
2005	2176	6712	1183	27	5	17.62	2.28
2006	2969	9639	1754	53	0	18.19	3.02
2007	3338	12390	2557	131	12	20.63	5.12
2008	3422	13632	3089	149	12	22.65	4.82

Note: LC=language competences; VE=vocational education

Both journal articles and master and doctoral theses and dissertations were explored along the timeline between 1991 and 2009, with the use of “title” and “subject” search. On the basis of the “VE” subject search, the search was then narrowed down to “competence” search, and then was sifted to “competence” and “language competence”, as Table 1.4 demonstrated. Since the articles contained those related to both secondary and tertiary vocational education, the search then was narrowed down to secondary VE with 40 articles and theses found. These 40 articles and theses covered three types of senior secondary education—skilled workers schools, specialized senior secondary schools and vocational senior secondary schools, among which only 12 articles and five theses were vocational senior secondary schools related, with only two on language competences. The rest of the papers and articles were on motivation, autonomous learning, curriculum, teaching methodology, current situation description or questionnaire surveys, etc.. The results indicate that the issue of language competences has been better-researched in tertiary than in senior secondary VE, as shown in Figure 1.3.

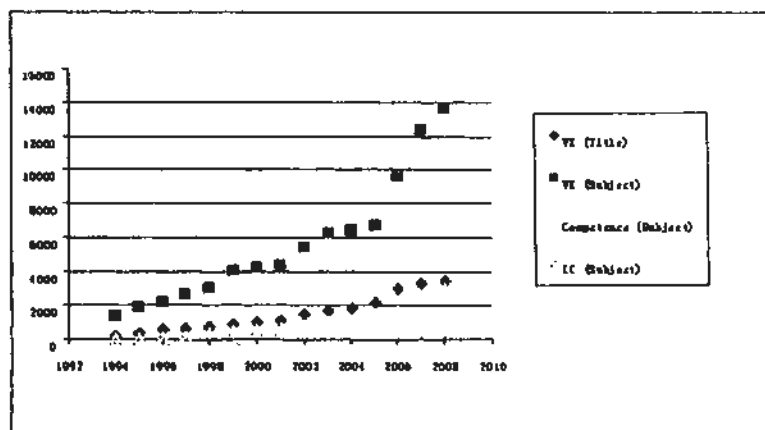


Figure 1.3 The general trend of competence-related articles

Figure 1.3 signifies that the research on VE has increased tremendously since the new millennium. Research on competence-based VE began to increase since 2003, with language competence-based VE on the rise within the last four years. Comparatively, competence-based VE research is still in need of study, especially in the field of senior secondary VE.

The relationship between competence versus VE and language competence (LC) versus VE can be clearly demonstrated in Figure 1.4.

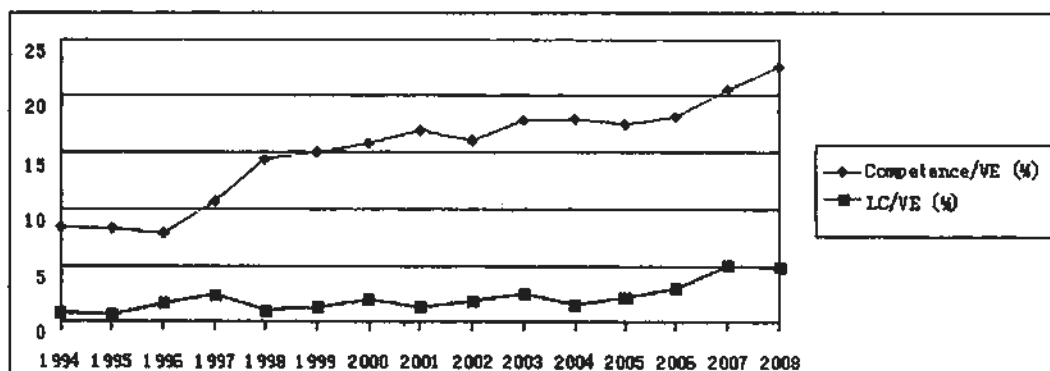


Figure 1.4 Percentage of VE articles and theses

Figure 1.4 indicates that language competence-based VE has been little researched in comparison with the competence-based VE in general. More theoretical study and empirical research need to be conducted to better inform the pedagogical practice at senior secondary VE sector and to better understand learners' needs in developing their communicative language competences.

In terms of the content of the published journal articles, most of the articles are teaching experience or pedagogical situation description, or international VE development with only five unpublished masters' theses and four articles on theoretical studies and empirical research despite of a rising tendency of norms.

With respect of types of research studies, Seliger and Shohamy (1989) proposed a useful distinction between three kinds of research studies – basic/theoretical, applied, and practical research. “Each kind contributes to our further understanding and knowledge of second language teaching and learning although the boundaries between them are not always clearly cut” (p. 17). As is better illustrated in Figure 1.5, most of the published articles, however, fall into the third category of research – practical research, with most sharing a high frequency of repetitive topics or themes. The needs analysis related articles, moreover, are mainly analyses of the textbooks, teachers' teaching approaches or methodologies, and learning objectives rather than analyses of learners' needs. Conducting a needs analysis (NA) of learners' language competences can hence contribute to our understanding of competence deficiencies existed on different levels of curriculums at senior secondary VE.

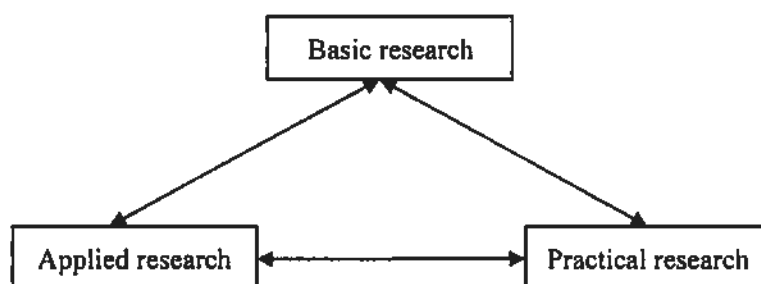


Figure 1.5 Kinds of language research and their relationship

When research methodology is concerned, quantitative research studies outnumber qualitative research. This specifies that most research concerns the general tendency rather than in-depth understanding and interpretation of the teaching and learning phenomena in VE. All of the master theses examined are either quantitative or comparative document research study with experimental or survey techniques adopted. The qualitative studies are still not on the research agenda. More field-based qualitative research thereafter needs to be conducted to explore the competence-based

VE in mainland China.

1.3 Research Purpose

Given the contextual background of vocational education in mainland China, the overall research purpose is—by means of a needs analysis (NA) of learners' language competences—to identify, understand and interpret the discrepancies between school and the workplace, with information acquired from various sources through multiple methods, both quantitatively and qualitatively.

The general purpose of the current study can further be subdivided into the following major aspects:

- (1) to gain a holistic understanding of learners' language learning profile, in particular learners' demographic information, motivation and language achievement;
- (2) to identify the language competence deficiencies through present situation analysis (PSA) and target situation analysis (TSA);
- (3) to investigate the relationship between motivation and language achievement;
- (4) to explore possible causes of the existing discrepancies identified through NA, such as social, educational, personal and family factors;
- (5) to suggest possible solutions for actions to deal with learners' language competence deficiencies. Unlike most other NA studies which came to a stop once the needs are identified, the current study intends to carry the investigation further, with a view to ascertaining possible solutions to the issues.

The rationale of the study is hence to gain an understanding both of the general tendency and an in-depth study of learners' needs in developing learners' language competences, in particular communicative language competences, to inform vocational senior secondary curriculum development in mainland China.

1.4 Research Questions

Since the rationale of the study is to investigate learners' general profile and their language competence deficiencies, in particular on the aspect of communicative language competences for curriculum development and implementation, three general research questions were devised in response to the research purposes.

RQ 1. What is learners' general profile in formal senior secondary vocational education?

RQ 2. What discrepancies of needs currently exist between the target situation and present situation of senior secondary vocational school students in terms of their language competences?

RQ 3. Given the investigation of the target situation and present situation needs, what factors account for the current discrepancies?

The first research question (RQ) is a quantitative question, indicating a quantitative phase of acquiring learners' demographic information, language learning motivation and their language achievement so that learners' general learning profile can be gauged. The last two RQs are framed as qualitative questions, aiming towards an in-depth language competence inquiry and interpretation in a mixed methods study.

The three research questions are shaped by the research purpose, which in turn form the methods and the design of the research study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Krathwohl, 1998, 2004). The first two questions are *what* questions while the third question is a *why* question. These questions indicate the nature of the methods to be employed in the research – a mixed-methods explanatory inquiry with quantitative and qualitative approaches or methods, with questions dealing with the phenomena on the meso and micro levels – the school and the classroom settings against the macro social context. The focus of the research was on the key concept *language competences*, with the incorporation of learning strategies and motivational factors.

1.5 Definitions of Key Terms

The following three key terms are covered in the current study: (1) *needs*, (2) *needs analysis*, and (3) *language competences*.

The term *needs* in the current study is considered in a more comprehensive sense both as an end and a means of a perceived discrepancy or gap between desired conditions and the assessed conditions (Berwick, 1989; Brindley, 1984, 1989a & b; Witkin, 1994; Witkin & Altschuld, 1995).

The notion of *needs analysis* is sometimes addressed as *needs assessment*. A needs analysis (NA) is viewed as an on-going dynamic, cyclical process of “the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes” (Brown, 1995, p. 36) within learning institutions, with the identification and interpretation conducted using various means from various sources to achieve some desired effects or outcomes (Hyland, 2006; Long, 2005c; Stufflebeam, McCormick, Brinkerhoff & Nelson, 1985).

The perception of *language competences* is an umbrella term, which incorporates the sum of competences of *general competences* and *communicative language competences*, which allow an individual to perform actions in language. *General competences*, as one sub-dimension of language competences, can be defined as “those not specific to language, but which are called upon for actions of all kinds, including language activities” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 9). *Communicative language competences*, as the other sub-dimension of language competences, is defined as “competences which empower an individual to act using specifically linguistic means” (ibid.).

1.6 Research Significance

With the release of the new NVES (MOE, 2009b), as the nation-wide official curriculum, by the MOE in January 2009, it has been implemented and put into effect since the new school term in March 2009. Some schools have implemented the new NVES at the new school term beginning in March 2009 while others adopted it since the fall of 2009. As claimed by the NVES document, the new NVES is both competence-based and competence-oriented to develop learners’ general language competences and vocational-oriented communicative language competences. Conducting an NA of language competence is not only timely but can also contribute to the study of VE in China in such aspects as theoretical and pedagogical practice.

Theoretically, NA of vocational English language competences have been little researched (Shi, 2005), in particular at senior secondary VE (see 1.2.5.2). Among the

NA studies conducted, most were concerned with teachers' teaching methods and textbook materials (Li, 2005; Shi, 2005). Little research has been conducted on learners (Long, 2005b; West, 1994), in particular learners' language competences. Moreover, the two concepts – *skills* and *competence* – are often misused or confused in the articles reviewed. The current study can contribute to the clarification of the two concepts and some related notions. Furthermore, some transparent, coherent and consistent language competence framework (e.g., Common European Framework of References for Languages) has been examined and adopted as descriptive categories for locating learners' language competences. These parameters can in return contribute to forming a theoretical framework for describing Chinese learners' language competences of vocational secondary VE for current and future curriculum development, implementation and language assessment.

Pedagogically, the current research can build a link between theory and practice with NA as both an end and a means in the process of curriculum implementation. The NA can be utilized for diagnosing learners' entry level as well as the discrepancies between the intended curriculum, the implemented curriculum and the experiential curriculum on the institutional and instructional levels, which in turn can inform teachers to build a more coherent and balanced curriculum in developing learners' language competences for the smooth transition from school-to-work.

1.7 Summary

In this chapter, the general research contexts of competence-based VE in mainland China have been described and introduced for a basic understanding of the current status of senior secondary VE. The contextual description leads to the purpose statement of the current study and three research questions. After the description of the mixed methods research questions, the operational definitions of three key terms (e.g., needs, needs analysis, and language competences), the research significance and the structure of the whole thesis have been discussed and introduced.

The thesis is organized around the following four aspects: (1) research context, (2)

conceptual framework, (3) research design, and (4) empirical analysis and findings, as shown in Table 1.5.

Table 1.5 The intended structure of the thesis

Structure	Contents
Research context	Chapter 1 Research background
Conceptual framework: Structural explanation	Chapter 2 Literature review: Language competences Chapter 3 Literature review: Needs analysis
Research Design: Mixed methods research design and data collection	Chapter 4 Research design
Empirical analysis and findings: Data analysis and interpretation	Chapter 5 Language audits: Learner profile Chapter 6 Deficiency analyses: Language competence deficiencies Chapter 7 Deficiency analyses: Explanation of deficiency causes Chapter 8 Conclusions

The *research context* section lays out the essential contextual background related to the current study, on the basis of which the research questions are shaped. The key concepts of the research are dealt with in the *conceptual framework* section. The two literature review study sections clarify the two key notions – *language competences* and *needs analysis* – towards building a theoretical framework as a guideline for research design and data collection. The first two sections – *research context* and *conceptual framework* – provide a scaffold for the following two sections: *research design*, and *empirical analysis and findings*, which are conducted in a mixed-methods explanatory inquiry in an attempt to answer the three research questions, following the sequence of quantitative and qualitative research. The concluding chapter presents a summary of the mixed-method mode of inquiry, suggested solutions to the identified discrepancies, and implications for future research.

Chapter 2 Literature Review: Language Competences

The literature review is done in two chapters—Chapters 2 & 3, dealing with *language competences* and *needs analyses* respectively. In this chapter the notion of *competence*, a competence-based typology and *language competences* are discussed.

2.1 Introduction

The notion of “*competence*” is widely used in the field VE (e.g., key competence, core competence) and language education (e.g., *communicative competence*, *sociolinguistic competence*, *linguistic competence*, *discourse competence*, and *strategic competence*). In vocational language education, *language competences* are considered a crucial factor in cultivating learners’ essential abilities to enable them to move across vocational ladders in the knowledge society and to increase a nation’s economic competitiveness in the global context.

In this section, the concepts of “*competence*”, “*language competences*”, and other related notions, are discussed and clarified. After the conceptual issues of competence, a competence-based KSCs (knowledge, skills and competences) prototype typology is introduced, which has taken its form on the basis of KSA (knowledge, skill and attitudes) typology. After the introduction of the prototype typology, a historical overview of language competences will be examined. With reference to the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment) (Council of Europe, 2001), the two dimensions of *language competences* – *individual general competences* and *communicative language competences* – are elaborately discussed, followed with further discussion of language competences in the new NVES (National Vocational English Syllabus) (MOE, 2009b). A study of competence-based curriculum thereafter starts from the study of the concept of *competence*.

2.2 Competence and Competence-Based Education in China

Etymologically, the term *competence* originates from Latin. According to Weinert

(2001), it "is defined in *Webster's dictionary* as "fitness or ability." Words given as synonyms or related terms are "capability," "capacity," "efficiency," "proficiency," and "skill."... This concept of *competence* is and has been used in very specific and arbitrary manners in biology, immunology, jurisprudence, and in some other academic disciplines" (p. 45; emphasized in the original text). The concept of "*competence*" originates from the area of competence-performance theories (Chomsky, 1965), oriented to the psychology of learning and knowledge, and is strongly dominated by Anglo-American traditions. In the following sections, the notion of *competence* and other related key terms are discussed.

2.2.1 Competence – Towards a Unified Terminology

Over the years, the term *competence* is and has been used with a vague or fuzzy meaning "not only in public use, but also in many social sciences" (Weinert, 2001, p. 45). It is subject to such diverse use and considerable confusion and interpretation that it has been argued that it is difficult to identify a coherent theory or to arrive at a definition capable of accommodating and reconciling all the different ways the term is used (Ellstrom, 1998; Robotham & Jubb, 1996). According to Kegan (2001), "(a) great benefit to a concept like "competence" is that it directs our attention beneath the observable behavioral surface of "skills" to inquire into the mental capacity that creates the behavior. And it directs our attention beyond the acquisition of "knowledge" as storable contents (what we know) to inquire into processes by which we create knowledge (how we know)" (p. 192).

In literature, *competence* has been viewed as an integrated concept of abilities to cope with challenges in context as indicated in the following three paragraphs:

1. Based on the examination of published literature from France, the United Kingdom, Germany and the United States of America, the following composite definition of competence is offered. Competence includes: i) cognitive competence involving the use of theory and concepts, as well as informal tacit knowledge gained experientially; ii) functional competence (skill or know-how), those things that a person should be able to

do when they are functioning in a given area of work, learning or social activity; iii) personal competence involving knowing how to conduct oneself in a specific situation; and iv) ethical competence involving the possession of certain personal and professional values (Commission of the European Communities, 2005, p.11).

2. "Competence" means the proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological abilities, in work or study situations and in professional and/or personal development. In the European Qualifications Framework, competence is described in terms of responsibility and autonomy (Commission of the European Communities, 2006, pp. 16-17).

3. In Scottish Vocational Qualifications (SVQs), *competence* is defined as a statement relevant to work and intended to facilitate entry into, or progression in, employment and further learning, issued to an individual by an awarding body with the adoption of a functional approach. The notion of competence includes the following specified standards: "the ability to perform in a range of work-related activities; and the underpinning skills, knowledge and understanding required for performance in employment" (Jessup, 1991, p. 15).

Weinert (2001, pp. 46-51) provides a more descriptive list of seven different ways in which competence can be defined, described, or interpreted theoretically, namely: (1) general cognitive competencies, (2) specialized cognitive competencies, (3) the competence-performance model, (4) modifications of the competence-performance model, (5) cognitive competencies and motivational action tendencies, (6) objective and subjective competence concepts, and (7) action competence. While motivation has been included as an aspect of competence in some writings, other scholars (Winterton *et al.*, 2006) do not consider it a part of competence. Motivation, however, might be an important factor to be taken into account when investigating competence.

The above analysis indicates that "it is not possible to discern or infer a coherent theory out of these many uses. There is no basis for a theoretically grounded definition or classification from the seemingly endless inventory of the ways the term

competence is used. ... There are many different theoretical approaches, but no single common conceptual framework” (Weinert, 2001, p. 46).

In general, “*competence*” can be interpreted “as a roughly specialized system of abilities, proficiencies, or skills that are necessary or sufficient to reach a specific goal.” (Weinert, 2001, p. 45). *Competence* is therefore the result of both formal and non-formal education, and generally implies complex action systems encompassing not only knowledge and skills, but also strategies and routines needed to apply knowledge and skills, as well as appropriate emotions and attitudes and the effective self-regulation of these competencies (Burke, 1995).

2.2.2 Perspectives of Competence

Weinert (2001, pp. 62-63) provides some pragmatic conclusions concerning the use of the concept *competence* from a cognitivism perspective, with the concept referring to the necessary prerequisites available to an individual or a group for meeting complex demands, which comprising of cognitive and motivational, ethical, volitional, and/or social components. The concept is centered on individuals, and is regarded as content- and context-specific.

From the social constructivism perspective, however, the notion of *competence* implies a broad learning context, involving a complex environment and the quality of interaction with others for competency development (Canto-Sperber & Dupuy, 2001). “Most of the competencies that can be appropriately defined as necessary for a successful, responsible life in modern democracies”, however, “are only meaningful within that context” (Ridgeway, 2001). The notion of *competence* can therefore be summarized as individual-centered, context- or situation-dependent, and collectively constructed through active participation or interaction within the community of practice.

2.2.3 Competence-Based Vocational Education

Like elsewhere in the world, competence-based education and curriculum development have been on government’s agenda since the new millennium.

Competence-based vocational education and training (VET) was first initiated by the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Labor and Social Security (MOLSS) in mainland China in 1996 with reference to the National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) and the General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQ) in the United Kingdom (UK), the National Training Framework (NTF) in Australia, and action competence of the dual system in Germany in which learners receive theoretical knowledge at school and practical skills at workplace. The approaches to competence-based VET aim at dealing with the current human resource issues in mainland China, with a large quantity of oversupply of unskilled workers and a short supply of skilled workers in the labor market. In order to turn the heavy labor burden into human resources, national key projects on competence-based VET, headed by MOLSS and MOE respectively, were initiated in 1998, marking a milestone in vocational reform (Li, 2007; Ding, 2007).

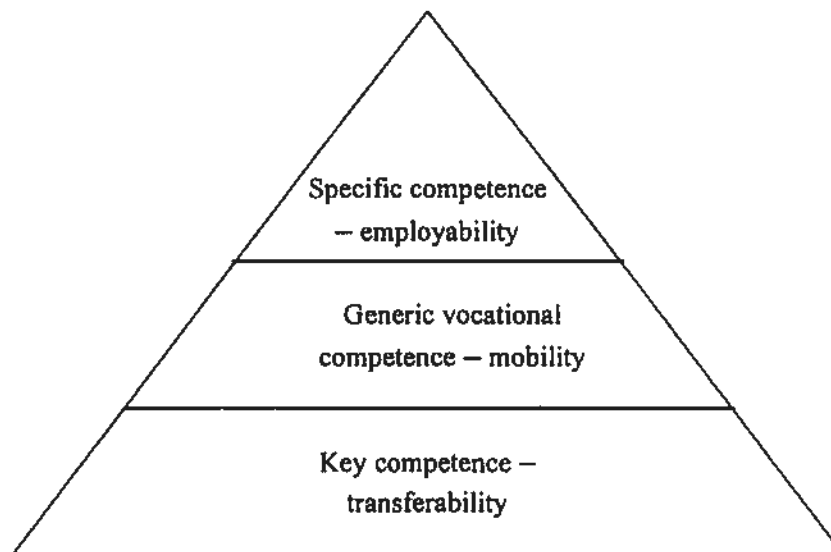


Figure 2.1 The three-layer VE

The project of the MOLSS was a 10-year project of the *National Competence Innovation Strategies (guojia nengli chuangxin zhanlue)* (1998-2008). The outcome of the research was the framework of three-layer vocational competences and eight subcategories of key competence. The three vocational competences, as shown in Figure 2.1, are *specific job competence*, *generic vocational competence*, and *key competence*.

Each category of competences performs different functions. *Specific job competence* is oriented towards the employability of the workforce; *generic vocational competence* towards the mobility or progression of the workforce; *key competences* towards transferability, the portable competences that enable an individual to transfer among jobs. The key competences are further divided into eight sub-components, as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Components of two competence dimensions

Method competences	Social competences
IT processing	communication
numeracy	cooperation
autonomy	foreign languages (e.g., English)
problem-solving	
creation	

Table 2.1 shows that the eight sub-components are under two competence dimensions: *method competences* and *social competences* (Li, 2007; Ding, 2007), with five components under the method competence dimension and three components under the social competence dimension. Competence-based training packages have already been developed, but its utilization has mainly been confined to the education and training institutions affiliated with MOLSS rather than formal VE systems.

The second project was initiated by the Ministry of Education (MOE) from 2005 to 2006, with the publication of *China Education and Human Resource Development Report (2005-2006)* (Min, 2006). The report posits a four-layer pyramid of key competence development, as shown in Figure 2.2.

The four levels of key competences are: (1) listening, speaking, reading, writing and numeracy; (2) basic skills and competences; (3) comprehensive and specific competences related to work and occupations; (4) advanced technical and vocational competences (pioneering techniques and knowledge creation competence), with senior secondary VE related to the third layer of competence pyramid. The layer of

comprehensive and specific competences matches the first and second layers of competences proposed by the MOLSS. The levels of competences indicate that the VE curriculum is moving from an academic-input mechanism towards a competence-based framework.

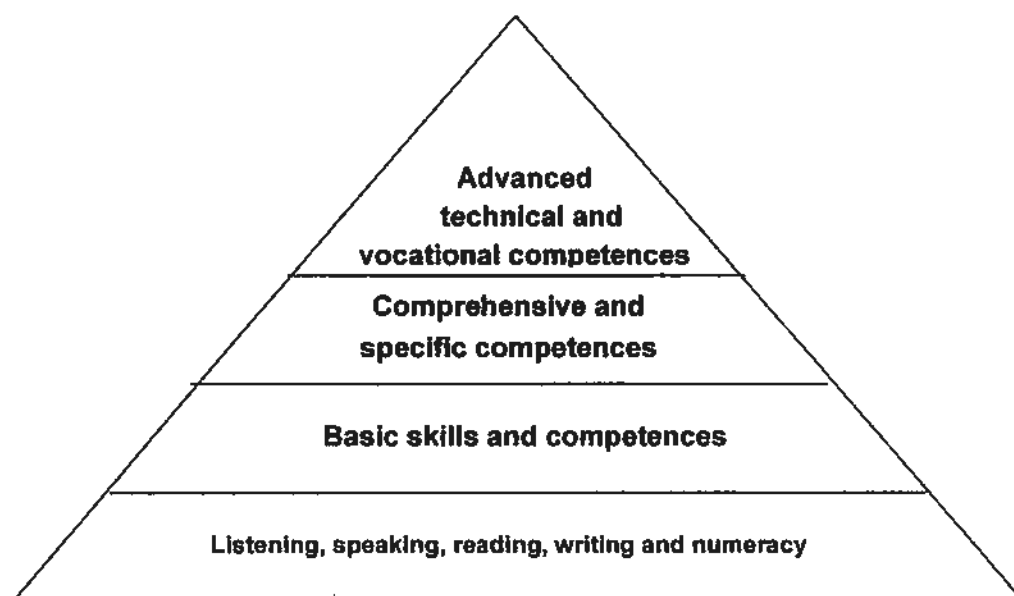


Figure 2.2 The four-layer key competences

2.3 A Competence-Based Typology

Among the definitional issues, there has long existed the demand for a unified prototype typology of an overarching competence framework, which can integrate the different categorical dimensions of competences. To this end, two typologies will be described, a generic KSA typology and a unified KSC typology.

2.3.1 Generic KSA Typology

The curriculum-based taxonomy of learning objectives developed by Bloom and colleagues in the 1960s (Bloom, 1956, 1976; Bloom, Hastings & Madaus, 1971; Bloom, Mesia & Krathwohl, 1964) has laid the theoretical foundation for the development of an overarching framework. A *taxonomy* is a type of framework where the categories lie along a continuum, performing such functions as description, generating and justifying aims and objectives in curriculum design and development (Anderson *et al.*, 2001).

Bloom's taxonomy is based on three domains of educational activities: *cognitive*, *affective* and *psychomotor*. The cognitive domain relates to mental skills (knowledge), the affective domain to growth in feelings or emotional areas (attitudes), while the psychomotor domain is concerned with manual or physical skills (skills). The taxonomy is commonly referred to as KSA (knowledge, skills and attitudes) typology.

2.3.2 A Unified Typology of Competence

On the basis of Bloom's taxonomy and the revised KSA taxonomy (Anderson *et al.*, 2001), Winterton and colleagues (2006, p. 60) with the adoption of a holistic approach propose a four-dimensional overarching framework for developing a prototype typology of knowledge, skills, and competences (KSCs) as common categories subsequent to a detailed review of existing typologies in such countries as the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Germany and other European member states. Figure 2.3 shows the four components of the unifying framework: *conceptual* and *operational*, *occupational* and *personal*.

	<i>Occupational</i>	<i>Personal</i>
<i>Conceptual</i>	Cognitive competence (knowledge)	Meta-competence (facilitating learning)
<i>Operational</i>	Functional competence (skills)	Social competence (attitudes and behaviors)

Figure 2.3 Typology of competence

Within the above framework, the *occupational* dimension include both *conceptual competence* (cognitive, knowledge and understanding) and *operational competence* (functional, psycho-motor and applied skill), while the *personal/individual dimension* is associated with the other aspects of conceptual (meta-competence) and operational (social competence, including behaviors, attitudes, motivation, metacognition). As Winterton *et al.* (2006) indicate, the three dimensions of *cognitive*, *functional* and

social dimensions are, in essence, fairly consistent with the generic KSA typology. The *meta-competence* dimension “is different from the first three dimensions since it is concerned with facilitating the acquisition of the other substantive competences” (p. 60) and might be incorporated at every competence dimension of KSCs.

A more holistic competence model in the form of a tetrahedron has been proposed by Le Deist and Winterton (2005, p. 40) in a unified competence framework (Figure 2.4).

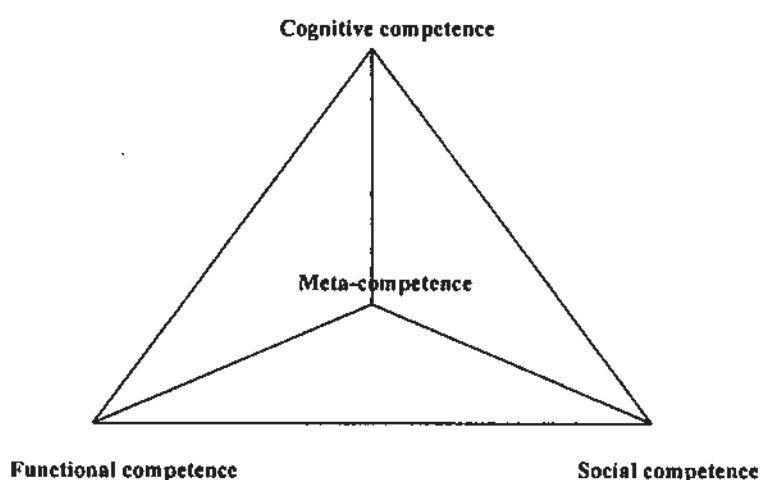


Figure 2.4 The holistic model of competence

Meta-competence (i.e., *savoir apprendre*) in the model performs the function of an overarching input, which facilitates the acquisition of output competences (*functional competence* (i.e., *savoir faire*) and *social competence* (i.e., *savoir être*) at the base of the tetrahedron. *Cognitive competence* (i.e., *savoir*), *functional competence* and *social competence* are all considered to be practical competences, situated on the face of the tetrahedron, thus forming a holistic model of competence to align academic education and workplace education or training as well as formal and non-formal routes of learning for competence development. The holistic competence model has therefore been adopted in analyzing competence approaches in many countries and regions (Commission of the European Communities, 2005). The typology serves as the guiding KSC framework in the current study.

2.4 Language Competences

The term “*competence*” and “*communicative competence*” in the field of linguistics is

a well researched topic, related to the communicative language teaching (CLT) or the communicative approach, the most researched approach to language teaching (Spada, 2007). Terms such as *standards*, *benchmarks*, *band scales*, *attainment targets* and *outcome* are often associated with competence movement in school, adult language education and vocational context (Brindley, 1998; North, 1995). The origin of CLT can be traced back to developments in North America and Europe from a multidisciplinary perspective—linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology and educational research (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1983, 2001, 2006; Spada, 2007; Trim, 2004).

2.4.1 The Development of Communicative Competence in North America

In North America, the concept of *communicative competence* was proposed by Hymes (1972) in reaction to Chomsky's (1965) theory of competence in his cognitive dichotomy model of linguistic competence-performance. Chomsky viewed *competence* as "the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language" (1965, p. 4), the abstract abilities that an ideal native speaker possesses to enable him/her to produce grammatically correct sentences in a language. Hymes's subsequent theory of *communicative competence*, however, was not directly related to language learning, but to the appropriate use of language in a socio-cultural context, with regard to the following four aspects:

- (1) Whether and to what degree it is possible.
- (2) Whether and to what degree it is feasible.
- (3) Whether and to what degree it is appropriate.
- (4) Whether and to what degree it is actually done (or attested). (Young, 2000, p. 551)

The four aspects can be summarized as (1) possibility, (2) feasibility, (3) appropriateness, and (4) performance. Among the four aspects, only the first aspect is accounted for by Chomsky's concept of *competence*. The theory, however, broadens the conceptualizations of language competence.

Following Hymes' theory of *communicative competence*, Savignon (1972) in the

United States applied the term to the classroom context. Her study investigated the effect of French language practice with the use of coping strategies as part of an adult instructional program (Trim, 2004). The coping strategies later formed the basis for Canale and Swain's (1980) identification of the concept of *strategic competence* in their three-component models for *communicative competence*: (1) *grammatical competence* – the knowledge of phonology, morphology, lexis, syntax, grammar and semantics, (2) *sociolinguistic competence* – the knowledge of the sociocultural rules of language use and rules of discourse, and (3) *strategic competence* – the knowledge of how to overcome problems when faced with difficulties in communication (p. 30). They define *communicative competence* as leading to “more useful and effective second language teaching, and allow(ing) more valid and reliable measurement of second language communication skills” (ibid, p. 6).

Canale (1983) further expanded the scope of communicative competence with a four dimensional model, namely, (1) *grammatical competence*, (2) *sociolinguistic competence*, (3) *discourse competence*, and (4) *strategic competence*. *Grammatical competence*, which corresponds to Chomsky's linguistic competence and Hymes's *possibility* aspect, refers to the domain of the phonological features of a language and its lexical and grammatical capacities. *Sociocultural competence* extends well beyond linguistic forms and is an interdisciplinary field of inquiry with an understanding of the sociocultural rules of language use in social contexts. *Discourse competence* is concerned with the ability to combine language structures into different types of cohesive and coherent text to form a whole meaningful text. *Strategic competence* refers to the effective use of coping strategies, either verbally or non-verbally, for developing communicative competence in all contexts. In this manner, the four dimensions coalesce to make up a person's *communicative competence*.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s, through the joint effort of several organizations, the ACTFL (American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages) proficiency scale (ACTFL, 1999) was developed with differing 11 possible levels of language competences. The levels of language competences provide guideline in terms of

communicative competence, language proficiency, and standards for foreign language learning.

Rather than viewing communicative competence from a macro sociological perspective, Savignon (1983, 2006) extended the theory into classroom practice, with the proposition of her model of communicative competence, as shown in Figure 2.5.

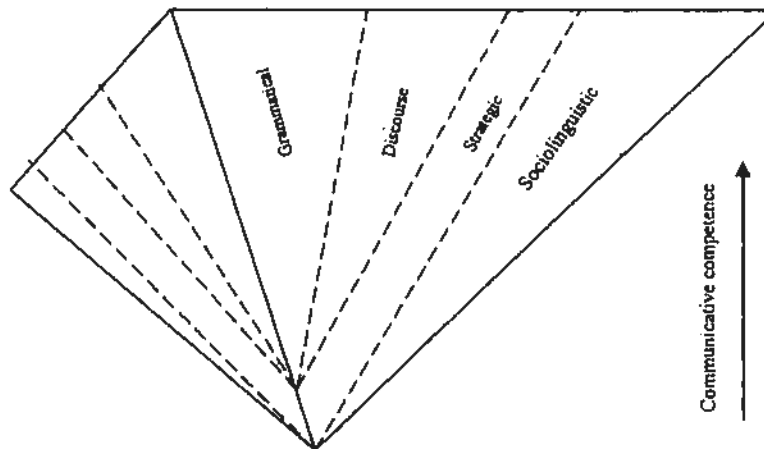


Figure 2.5 Components of communicative competence

Her classroom model of communicative competence further indicates the integration of the four interrelated components: (1) *grammatical competence*, (2) *discourse competence*, (3) *sociolinguistic competence*, and (4) *strategic competence*, with the *strategic* competence always present in supporting of the other competences (1983, p. 46). Along with the strategic dimension, the competence dimension, in particular understanding of the sociocultural contexts of language use, is another important dimension of communicative competence (Berns, 1990). The key to the understanding of *communicative competence* is “its interactive nature” (Yalden, 1987, p. 21) within classroom process and learner autonomy to “promote the development of functional language ability through learner participation in communicative events” (Trim, 2004, p. 126). The essence of CLT relates to learners’ ability to communicate, in particular learners’ communicative needs in a given social context.

Bachman’s model of communicative language ability (CLA) (1990, p. 85) is an expansion of Canale’s model (1983). The model, as shown in Figure 2.6, consists of

three components: (1) language competence (knowledge), (2) strategic competence—the “capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use” (Bachman, 1990, p. 84), and (3) psychophysiological mechanisms—enabling “the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon” (ibid, p. 84).

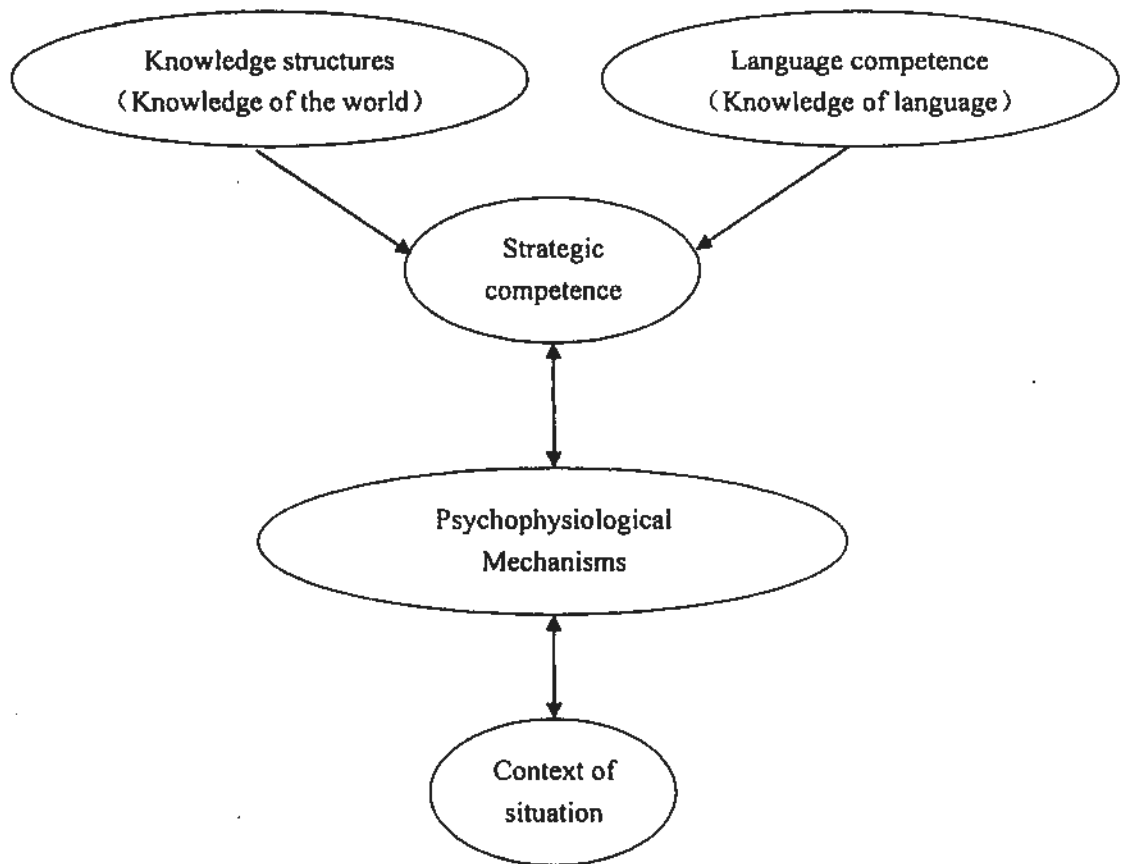


Figure 2.6 Bachman's CLA model

There are two distinctive features of the model. On the one hand, it distinguishes “between what constitutes ‘knowledge’ and what constitutes a ‘skill’” (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p. 42), which was not made clear in Canale’s model. On the other hand, Bachman’s model “attempts to characterize the processes by which the various components interact with each other and with the context in which language use occurs” (Bachman, 1990, p. 81).

The Bachman’s (1990, p. 63) CLA model was later restructured by Bachman and Palmer (1996), focusing on the following three aspects: (1) the introduction of

affective factors in language use, (2) re-labeling 'knowledge structures' as 'topical knowledge,' and (3) reconceptualizing strategic competence as a set of metacognitive strategies (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p. 45).

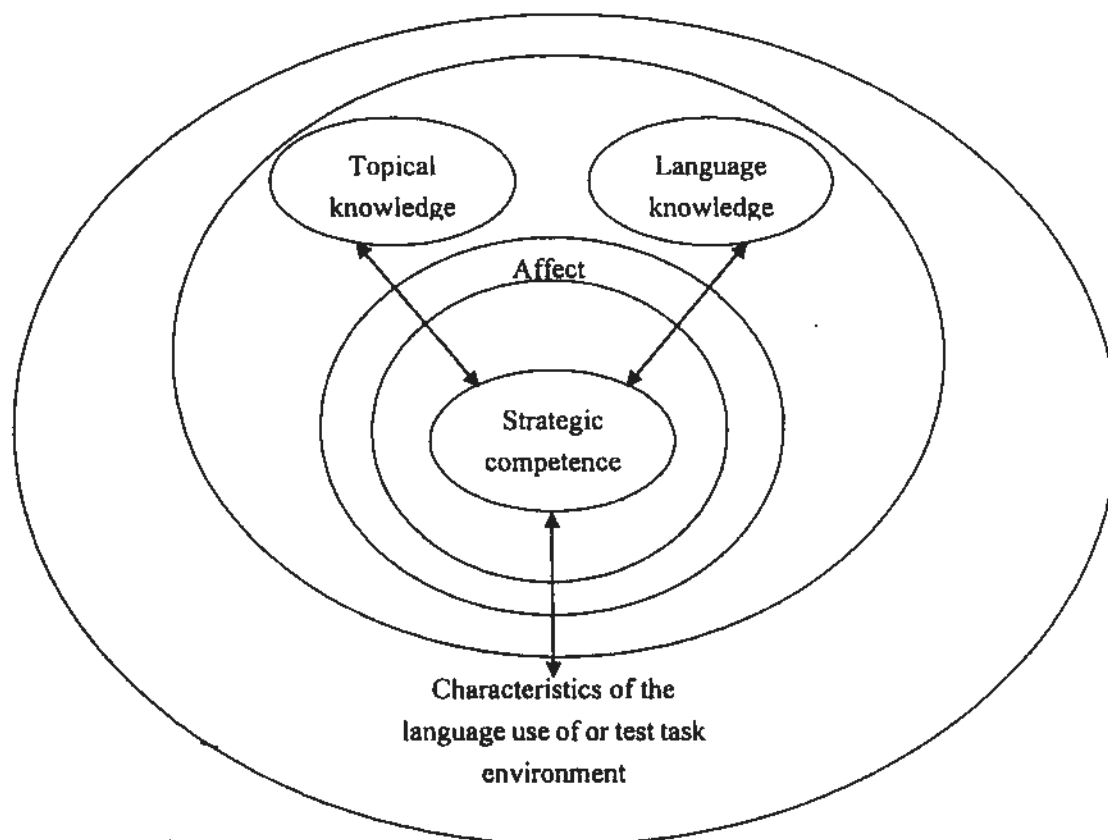


Figure 2.7 Bachman and Palmer's restructured model

The 1996 multi-componential model (Figure 2.7), like the previous model, provided “the most comprehensive conceptualization of language ability of the time” (Purpura, 2008), stressing the central role of strategic competence for the purpose of language testing. Affective schemata are the “affective or emotional correlates of topical knowledge” (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 65), which was addressed as knowledge structures in the previous model. In this model, an individual’s language knowledge, together with his topical knowledge and personal characteristics, is hypothesized to interact with his strategic competence and his affect. These components, in return, interact with the characteristics of the language-use or test-task situation. The Bachman’s (1990) model and Bachman and Palmer’s (1996) model, however, are criticized for failing to “account for how a person’s CLA (communicative language

ability) might be mediated by the characteristics of context” (Purpura, 2008, p. 59).

Celce-Murcia *et al.* (1995, p. 5) propose a five-component model (see Figure 2.8), with an attempt to produce “a detailed description of what communicative competence entails in order to use the sub-components as a content base in syllabus design” (ibid, p. 6).

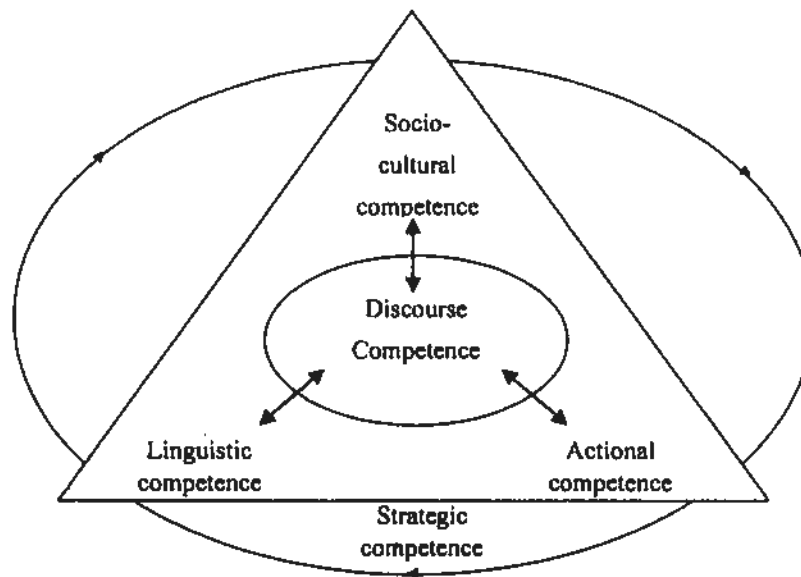


Figure 2.8 The five-component communicative competence model

The five components of the model are: (1) *discourse competence*, (2) *actional competence* – the knowledge required to understand “communicative intent by performing and interpreting speech acts and speech act sets” (1995, p. 9), (3) *sociocultural competence* – the original sociolinguistic competence in Canale and Swain’s model (1980), (4) *linguistic competence* – the original linguistic competence in Canale and Swain’s model (1980), (5) *strategic competence* – a set of skills for overcoming communication deficiencies in other competences. The model reunites the notions of cohesion and coherence, which were separated in Bachman and Palmer’s model. The model, however, “unlike Bachman and Palmer (1996) there is no treatment of topical knowledge (or knowledge of the world), or affective factors” (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p. 48). The development of communicative competence in Europe, however, takes both the topical knowledge and the affective factors into account.

The underlying assumptions of all the above mentioned models are that: (1) *communicative competence* is multi-dimensional, consisting of such components as *linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, pragmatic competence* and *strategic competence*; (2) linguistic skills and communicative abilities cannot be isolated from each other (Savignon, 1983), and (3) relevant social and contextual factors contribute to learners' language comprehension and production (Spada, 2007).

2.4.2 The Development of Communicative Competence in Europe

In Europe, the development of CLT was influenced by the pragmatists Austin (1962) and Searle (1969), and the British linguists Firth (1957) and Halliday (1973) – the neo-Firthian systemic or functional linguistics – which views language as meaning potential and context dependent in understanding language systems and how they work. (Spada, 2007). What they all have in common is that they “saw the need to focus on language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than on mastery of structures” (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p. 153), on the attainment of specified standards rather than on an individual's achievement in relation to a group (Nunan, 1988a & b, 2006). The Council of Europe as an intergovernmental organization founded in 1949 performed especially a noteworthy role in promoting CLT.

The Council of Europe has been committed to developing a series of competence-based framework for language learning, teaching and assessment. Notably, three milestones have been set up by the Council of Europe, with a view to promoting transparency, consistency and coherence among its member states (Little, 2002, 2005, 2006; Morrow, 2004), and with a focus on *learners' use* of language rather than language *usage* (Council of Europe, 2001).

(1) The unit/credit scheme for language teaching, the publication of *Threshold Level* (van Ek, 1975, 1977) and the *Notional Syllabus* (Wilkins, 1976).

The most well-known are Munby's (1978) study and the project conducted for the Council of Europe in the 1970s to design a unit credit system, which resulted in the semantically-based notional-functional synthetic syllabus to satisfy various

occupational language needs (Richterich & Chancerel, 1977/1980; Wilkins, 1976). The *Threshold Level* and the *Notional Syllabus* demonstrated a shift from a focus on language forms to a specification of meanings and functions to better cater learners' communicative needs (Richards & Rogers, 2001; Trim, 2004). Along with focus on meanings and functions, applied linguists in Europe have also recognized "the importance of a formal language component within CLT" (Spada, 2007, p. 275).

(2) The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001).

Following the line of *communicative competence* and the notional-functional syllabus, the Council of Europe in the 1990s laid out six components which make up *communicative competence*: (1) *linguistic competence*, (2) *sociolinguistic competence*, (3) *discourse competence*, (4) *socio-cultural competence*, (5) *social competence* and (6) *strategic competence* (van Ek & Trim, 1991). These categories were later distinguished into two main categories of language competences – *general competences* and *communicative language competences* in the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001). The two concepts are further illustrated in the succeeding sections.

The CEFR, which is also addressed as the Framework, is a taxonomic reference tool across languages, prepared between 1993 and 2000 through a process of scientific research and wide consultation of over 30 different reference scales of levels as well as over 2,000 competence descriptions. The Framework was officially launched in 2001, the European Year of Languages, in two languages – English and French – as a common basis for the harmonization of language teaching and learning in Europe and for defining language learning outcomes. The purpose of the CEFR is to serve as a descriptive tool to improve language competences, and to encourage transparency and comparability in language teaching and learning arrangements and qualifications.

The Framework deploys a communicative, action-oriented, learner-centered view of language learning and use. It describes in a comprehensive way what learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and

skills learners need to develop so that they can act effectively (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 1). The interactive relationship of the elements within the framework is best captured in Goullier's illustrative model (2008, p. 27; see Figure 2.9).

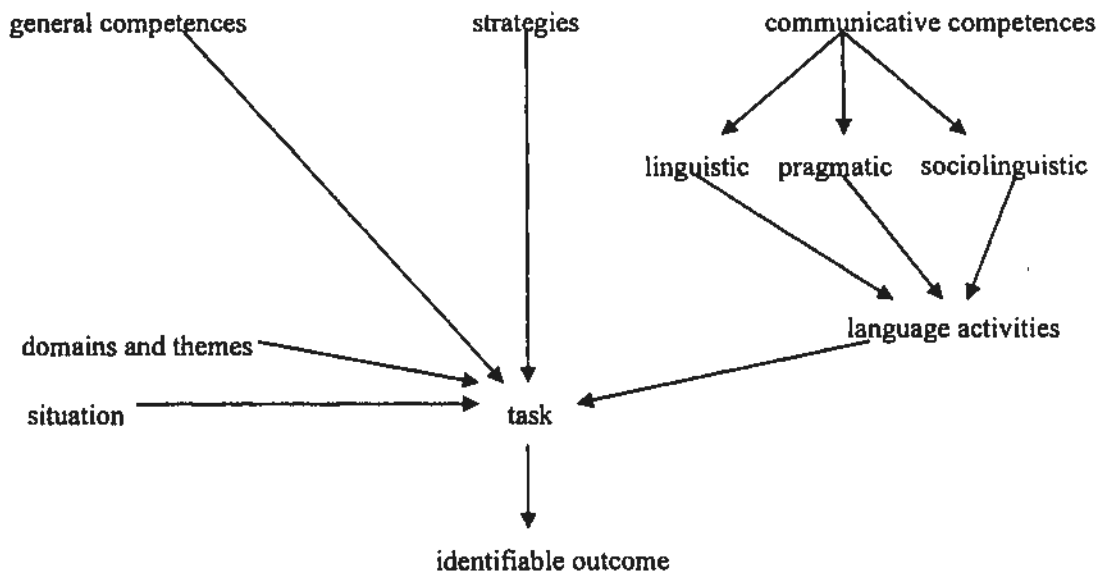


Figure 2.9 Goullier's illustrative model

Figure 2.9 describes the taxonomic nature of the Framework, demonstrating in a comprehensive way what language learners, as “social agents” – members of society who have tasks [...] to accomplish in a given set of circumstances, in a specific environment and within a particular field of action” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 9) – have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively in a particular cultural context. A task is defined in the document as “any purposeful action considered by an individual as necessary in order to achieve a given result in the context of a problem to be solved, an obligation to fulfill or an objective to be achieved” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 10). A task exists only if the action is motivated by a goal or a need, either personal or generated by the learning situation if such actions lead to an identifiable outcome. Communicative tasks are considered to be the key focus of the communicative approach, and are used as the unit of analysis in syllabus development, materials making and competence-based assessment (Council of Europe, 2001, 2004).

This is in conformity with task-based language teaching (TBLT) – a learner-centered process-oriented integrated language teaching approach, by transforming real world tasks into pedagogical tasks so that learners can actively be involved in meaningful communication in the target language (Candlin, 1987; Nunan, 1989, 2004; Willis, 2000).

In accordance with the action-oriented approach, the Framework is composed of a two-dimensional “profiling grid” (Council of Europe, 2001), with six *Common Reference Levels* in a series of parameters as vertical dimension and a set of *Descriptive Schemes* as the horizontal dimension. With regard to its taxonomic framework nature, the CEFR proposes the following three aspects: (1) a common methodology for analyzing and describing situations and choices in language teaching, learning and assessment; (2) a common terminology for all language and educational contexts; and (3) a common scale of levels of language proficiency to assist with goal-setting and learning outcome assessment (Goullier, 2008).

In terms of the dimensions of the CEFR matrix, the *Common Reference Levels*, as the core of the Framework, is a comprehensive system of six ascending levels of proficiency for language skills, ranging under three broad bands (in ascending order: A, B, C): *basic* (A), *independent* (B), and *proficient* (C), with each further divided into two levels: Level 1 and Level 2, as shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Proficiency levels

Basic User		Independent User		Proficient User	
A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
Breakthrough	Waystage	Threshold	Vantage	Effective	Mastery
	(van Ek & Trim, 1991, 1997)	(van Ek, 1977)	(van Ek & Trim, 1991, 1997)	Operational Proficiency	

Table 2.2 shows that the six sub-levels of proficiency are *Breakthrough* (A1), *Waystage* (A2), *Threshold* (B1), *Vantage* (B2), *Effective operational proficiency* (C1) and *Mastery* (C2) (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 23), with proficiency positively described as “competence put to use” (ibid, p. 187). The six main levels are designed

to meet four criteria related to two issues—description issues and measurement issues. The reference levels are illustrated in “Can Do” statements (ibid, p. 25) for language skills used for both formal and self-assessment.

The *Descriptive Scheme* is made up of a comprehensive and coherent structure of parameters and categories of communicative language competences, a detailed analytic account of the domains of language use and language learning, communicative language activities and strategies, the nature of texts and tasks. The *communicative language competences* are described by scales, and the communicative language activities are in the areas of four skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing, with a further distinction made between reception and production, interaction and mediation (Council of Europe, 2001).

The Framework makes it possible to follow first the horizontal level and then ascend on the vertical scale. It contains not only information related to KSCs that learners need to develop as competent language users, but also the processes of language acquisition and learning, as well as the teaching methodology. Since its formal release in 2001, the competence-based CEFR has been implemented as a prototype for curriculum development in the 46 European member states, with its adoption by many other countries and organizations, such as Australia, Japan, Korea, New Zealand and USA (Council of Europe, 2001, 2004). The United Nations has also adopted the system for teacher training and staff in-service training in all United Nations institutions across the world (Morrow, 2004).

(3) The *European Language Portfolio (ELP)* (Council of Europe, 2004).

The ELP, the companion piece of the CEFR, is viewed as a means of promoting learner autonomy by involving learners in compiling their own portfolio through reflective learning for the purpose of self-assessment in second and foreign language learning. The ELP consists of three obligatory components: (1) Language Passport, which summarizes a learner’s linguistic identity; (2) Language Biography, which is used to record a learner’s learning progress; and (3) Dossier, which contains a

selection of work that best represents a learner’s capacities and achievement (Council of Europe, 2004), with reference to the CEFR levels and descriptive scheme (Goullier, 2008; Little, 2002, 2009; Little & Perclova, 2001)—*general competences* and *communicative language competences*, the typology for the current research.

2.4.2.1 General Competences

General competences are those not specific to language, but should regard a person in general as an individual and a social agent. The *general competences* of language learners or users consist of four sub-components: (1) knowledge of the world or declarative knowledge (i.e., *savoir*), (2) skills and know-how (i.e., *savoir-faire*), (3) existential competence (i.e., *savoir-être*), and also (4) the ability to learn (i.e., *savoir-apprendre*) – the ability to engage in new experiences and to integrate new knowledge into existing knowledge, with each incorporating its own sub-components (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 101-108). The relationship of the components and their sub-components can be summarized in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Components of general competences

Components	Subcomponents
Knowledge/Declarative knowledge (<i>savoir</i>)	Knowledge of the world Sociocultural knowledge Intercultural awareness
Skills and know-how (<i>savoir-faire</i>)	Practical skills and know-how Intercultural skills and know-how
Existential competence (<i>savoir-être</i>)	Attitudes, motivations, values, beliefs, cognitive styles, personality factors
Ability to learn (<i>savoir-apprendre</i>)	Language and communication awareness General phonetic awareness and skills Study skills Heuristic skills

Declarative knowledge (or *savoir*) results from experience/empirical knowledge and from more formal learning/academic knowledge. All human communication depends on a shared knowledge of the world and of language which have been internalized by persons taking part in. *Skills and know-how* (or *savoir faire*) depends more on people’s ability to carry out procedures than on declarative knowledge. *Existential competences*

(or *savoir-être*) refer to the sum of the learners' individual personalities, characterized by the attitudes, motivations, values, beliefs, cognitive styles and personality types which contribute to their personal identity in social interaction. *Ability to learn* (or *savoir-apprendre*), the meta-competence, is the ability to observe and participate in new experiences and to incorporate new knowledge into existing knowledge, modifying the latter where necessary. General competences thereafter indicate a learner's generic competences.

2.4.2.2 Communicative Language Competences

The term *communicative language competences* in the CEFR is an accumulation of the linguistic experiences, consisting of three dimensions: (1) *linguistic*, (2) *sociolinguistic*, and (3) *pragmatic*, with each comprising its own parameters and categories (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 108-130), as shown in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Components of communicative language competences

Components	Subcomponents
Linguistic competences	Lexical competence Grammatical competence Semantic competence Phonological competence Orthographic competence Orthoepic competence
Sociolinguistic competences	Linguistic markers of social relations Politeness conventions Expressions of folk-wisdom Register differences Dialect and accent
Pragmatic competences	Discourse competence Functional competence Design/Interactional competence

According to CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001), *linguistic competences*, which incorporates six components, refer to the ability to produce and interpret meaningful utterances which are formed in accordance with the rules of the language concerned, stored, organized and accessed, and the bearing of meaning. They form a central, indispensable aspect of language learning, independently of the sociolinguistic value

of its variations and the pragmatic functions of its realizations. They relate not only to the range and quality of knowledge but also to cognitive organization and to the way this knowledge is stored and to its accessibility. The *orthoepic competence* of the linguistic competences is defined in the CEFR as the ability to read aloud.

Sociolinguistic competences, consisting of five aspects, refer to the knowledge and skills required to deal with the social dimension of language use according to a specific social context. *Pragmatic competences*, being composed of three parts, are concerned with the functional use of linguistic resources, drawing on scenarios or scripts of interactional exchanges. In addition, *pragmatic competences* are concerned with the mastery of discourse, cohesion and coherence, the identification of text types, forms, irony and parody.

All the categories used in the CEFR are intended to characterize areas and types of competences internalized by a social agent to account for observable behavior and performance in two dimensions – *general competences* and *communicative language competences*, with the former broken down into knowledge, know-how, existential competence and the ability to learn (i.e., KSCs), and the latter into linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences, as illustrated in Figure 2.10.

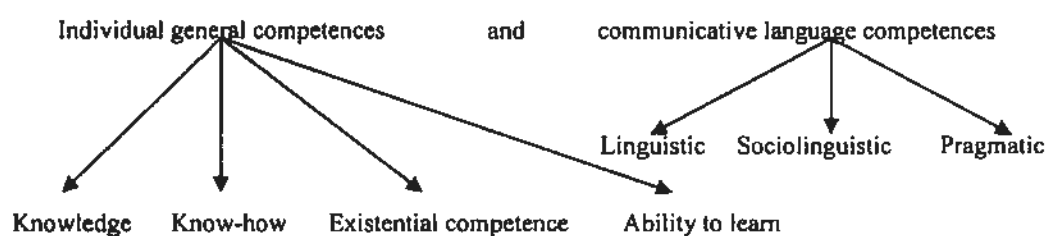


Figure 2.10 General competences and communicative language competences

In view of the competence dimensions, the CEFR's classification of *general competences* and *communicative language competences* is a synthesis from multiple disciplines. Due to their wide application and adoption as a guiding framework for harmonizing language learning, teaching and assessment, the Framework, after having been subjected to empirical research in different countries, has been shown to have good validity (Council of Europe, 2004). In the current study, the goal-directed,

action-oriented taxonomic language competence frameworks are therefore adopted as a guiding framework for conducting data analysis.

2.5 Language Competences in the New NVES

This section presents a text analysis of the newly released NVES (New Vocational English Syllabus) (MOE, 2009b), following the guiding framework of the CEFR.

2.5.1 Structural Components

As indicated in the section of 2.2.2, social reconstructivism views “schooling as an agency of social change”, and demands “that education be relevant both to the student’s interests and to society’s needs. Curriculum is conceived to be an active force having direct impact on the whole fabric of its human and social context” (Eisner & Vallance, 1974, p. 135), with its focus on both the theoretical and empirical aspects, which are context- and practice- oriented (Connelly & Xu, 2008). As stated in the section 1.2.3, the aims of the new NVES is “employment-oriented, competence-based, and learner-centered” (MOE, 2009b).

The structural components of the new NVES can be classified into four categories after Tyler’s (1949) four fundamental curriculum questions:

1. What educational purposes does the educational institution seek to attain?
2. What educational experiences are provided to attain these purposes?
3. How are these educational experiences organized?
4. How is the attainment of these purposes or the value of these experiences to be evaluated? (p. 1)

In language education, “the first two questions have to do with syllabus design, the third with language teaching methodology, and the fourth with assessment and evaluation” (Nunan, 2006, p. 55). Table 2.5 demonstrates the four canonical curriculum starting points and its corresponding language components in the new NVES.

Table 2.5 The structural components of the new NVES

Curriculum elements	The structural components and sub-components in the new NVES
Aims and goals	(1) The nature of curriculum and tasks (2) Curriculum aims and goals
Curriculum content	(3) Teaching content Phonological knowledge Communicative functions Communicative themes Grammatical structures Glossary (4) Skill requirements General English (GE) module Extended English (EE) module English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) module
Curriculum organization	(5) Teaching implementation
Evaluation	(6) Evaluation and assessment

The structural components of the new NVES consist of six parts: (1) the nature of curriculum and tasks; (2) curriculum aims and goals (see also 1.2.3.2); (3) teaching content, which includes such basic English knowledge as phonological knowledge, communicative functions, communicative themes, grammatical structures, and glossary, which are discussed in details in section 2.5.2.2; (4) skill requirements, incorporating requirements for the three modules – GE, EE, and EVP – respectively, are discussed in section 2.5.2.1; (5) teaching implementation, with five guiding principles for implementing a competence-based learner-centered curriculum, and yet no specific guidance and examples are provided in the document on how to select and organize the teaching and learning content in terms of situations, social roles, and language functions (van Ek 1975, 1977); and (6) evaluation and assessment, which advocates multiple ways of evaluation by encouraging teaching implementation at different levels to conduct both formative and summative evaluation (Brown, 1988, 2005), which marks a significant milestone as the assessment focus of the previous NVES was solely on summative aspect with formative evaluation greatly ignored (Biermann, 1999). The six parts in the new NVES are approximate to Tyler's (1949) four essential curriculum rationale. The new NVES is further in conformity with the

competence typology (Winterton *et al.*, 2006) (see 2.3.2) and the CEFR language competence framework (see 2.4.2).

The new NVES, the national yardstick of curriculum guideline, works as an *intended* curriculum at the societal level for implementation at the institutional and instructional levels (Goodlad & Su, 1992), incorporating four curriculum commonplaces: (1) *learners*, (2) *teachers*, (3) *subject matter*, and (4) *milieu* (Schwab, 1973). These four essential ingredients interact with each other to determine the nature of learning, the *experiential/attained* and *implemented* curriculums at the institutional and the instructional levels (Connelly & Xu, 2008; Goodlad & Su, 1992)

2.5.2 Language Competence Dimensions in the New NVES

With regard to the language competences in the new NVES, two matrices of competence parameters are discussed with reference to the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001), namely, the levels of scales on the vertical axis and descriptive schemes on the horizontal axis.

2.5.2.1 Level of Scales on the Vertical Axis

As discussed in the section 2.3.2, the competence-based curriculum has moved away from its previous KSA typology (see section 2.3.1) on language input into the KSC typology (Winterton *et al.*, 2006), focusing on language output or outcomes. Outcome statements are standards of performance against which learners' progress and achievement can be compared (Brindley, 1998). The competence-based new NVES, together with its levels of scales, forms a three-level grid, as presented in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Modules and level of scales

Modules	Levels of scales
English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) Module	Specific requirements for service- and manufacturing-oriented sectors
Extended English (EE) Module	Advanced level
General English (GE) Module	Intermediate level Basic level

Table 2.6 shows that the three ascending levels of competence requirements: (1) *basic*

level, (2) *intermediate* level and (3) *advanced* level, and a non-specified requirement for the EVP module, with each incorporating its own range and scope of competence dimensions. All the skill requirements in the new NVES are stated in behavioral “Can-Do” statements so that the learning outcomes are more clear, observable and measurable. The requirements for affective factors and cognitive and meta-cognitive learning strategies are also incorporated into the levels of requirements.

The GE module incorporates two levels of scales – *basic* requirements and *intermediate* requirements. The *basic* level in the GE module is the minimum requirement for all learners across the mainland China while *intermediate* level is for learners whose language competences are beyond the minimum requirements. The *advanced* level in the EE module is aimed at those learners who are expected to receive higher vocational education. There is no specified teaching hours for the Extended English (EE) module. It is suggested that each individual school makes its own arrangements according to their own situational exigencies. The EVP module lays down some *general requirements* for two general industry sectors – service and manufacturing. Given the diverse specialties and the vague categorization of specialties, the new NVES recommends that each individual school make their own specific EVP requirements, taking into account its own specialty set-up. Given the regional diversity and individual differences of senior secondary VE in mainland China, the level of scales should be more flexible and diversified to cover broader ranges of language competences. The levels of classification, however, appear to be rigid and inflexible in judging a learner’s language learning outcome as different learners’ language skills may not develop at the same rate. Even for the same language learner, his/her language skills may develop unevenly at different stage of learning.

2.5.2.2 Descriptive Schemes on the Horizontal Axis

The horizontal dimension is composed of the three KSC categories – cognitive competence (i.e., general and linguistic knowledge), procedural competence (i.e., skills), and meta-competence and social competences (i.e., behaviors and attitudes), as described in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7 The competence dimensions of the new NVES

Cognitive competence (general & communicative language competences)		Functional competence	Meta-competence	Social competence
Communicative language competences	Sub-components	Language skills	Learning strategies	Attitudes & motivation
Linguistic competences	Phonological competence Lexical competence Grammatical competence Semantic competence	Listening Speaking Reading Writing	Within skill requirements	Stated in curriculum goals
Sociolinguistic competences	Linguistic markers of social interaction Politeness conventions Register differences			
Pragmatic competences	Discourse competence Functional competence			

The new NVES incorporates mainly linguistic competences. Unlike the six sub-components in the CEFR (see 2.4.2.2), the *linguistic* competences in the new NVES include only the following four competences: (1) *phonological competence*, (2) *lexical competence*, (3) *grammatical competence* and (4) *semantic competence*. The reason that the new NVES includes phonological competence is that a large stream of learners lack essential knowledge concerning phonology and pronunciation. The new NVES requires learners to acquire essential phonetic and phonological knowledge for developing their communicative language competences.

Glossary and grammatical structure list occupy two thirds of the curriculum document (MOE, 2009b). Vocabulary selection and grammar gradation are two key concepts of syllabus design (Halliday, McIntosh & Stevens, 1964; Mackey, 1965; Fries, 1952; Hornby, 1954). The new NVES consists of a glossary list of around 2,200 words and expressions, with the inclusion of vocabulary for the nine-year compulsory education syllabus and other frequently-used vocational vocabulary. Among the lexical stock, around 1,700 words and expression are considered essential, which indicates that they constitute the basic threshold level. On the basis of the required core vocabulary, there are 200 more words and expressions, indicating lexical requirements for the

intermediate level. There are then a further 300 marked words and expressions, indicating lexical requirements for the advanced level. According to the curriculum document (MOE, 2009b), the word list was developed through the comparison of word frequencies from 16 national and international word lists, along with some frequently used educational and vocational word lists. The word list in the new NVES is more empirically-grounded than the previous version. However, further research needs to be conducted on the lexical aspect of vocational English education to see how lexical competence is cultivated in the implemented curriculum.

In view of grammatical competence, the selection of grammatical items have been organized more concisely in the new NVES than in the previously issued version. The basic level learners are required to master all the grammatical items listed in the new NVES without the asterisk mark, the intermediate level learners to master more items with one asterisk mark, and the advanced level learners to master even more items with two asterisk marks. The issue of the sequence that items should follow and how the items should be integrated in the learning materials to achieve maximum learning effects (Celce-Murcia, 1985) is another crucial aspect that also requires further future study. Corder (1973) and Martin (1978) have suggested a cyclical and spiral treatment of grammatical items. Given learners' current English level, the new NVES suggests that the selection and gradation of the grammatical items be treated in a cyclical and spiral way in textbook and teaching material development.

From the semantic aspect, the new NVES contains a list of communicative functions and notions, as well as a list of communicative themes. The list of communicative functions cover 16 frequently used functions and notions, with eight stipulated at the basic level: (1) greeting and saying goodbye, (2) introducing oneself and others, (3) expressing thanks and making apologies, (4) making appointments and invitations, (5) expressing wishes and congratulations, (6) asking for and offering help, (7) expressing agreement and disagreement, and (8) accepting and rejecting. These notions and functions serve as the guideline for textbook and teaching material development as well as test development.

The list of communicative themes contains ten categories: (1) personal information and family, (2) school life, (3) daily life, (4) leisure and entertainment, (5) health, (6) living environment, (7) travel, (8) science and technology, (9) work, and (10) festivals and customs. Each topic further consists of sub-themes or topics, covering learners' personal, public, educational and vocational domains. The themes, along with the communicative notions and functions, enable textbooks and lessons to be organized topically rather than in the form of language units (Tomlinson, 2003). The new NVES suggests that communicative themes related to the world of life and the world of work, with categorized communicative functions and activities incorporated to cultivate learners' communicative competence (Hymes, 1972; Halliday, 1973; Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983).

The four linguistic knowledge areas are explicitly marked out in the curriculum document while other two competences—*sociolinguistic* and *pragmatic*—are implicitly indicated in the skill requirements.

The *procedural/skill competence* includes the graded requirements in the form of “Can-Do” statements for the four language skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing) (see Table 2.7), along with interpretation and/or translation at the higher levels—intermediate and advanced. The competence-based curriculum gives a clear and concise description of targets to be attained and ladder-like levels of attainment, although the three graded levels are generally considered too general in coverage given the learner and learning diversity in mainland China.

Meta-competence, also referred as personal strategic competence, is incorporated into the skill requirements in the new NVES. It is the competence that can enable learners to become self-regulated (Lantolf, 2003, 2005, 2007; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008) in their current study and lifelong learning, and to encourage learners' involvement in meaningful language use in real life and workplace situations. Other than the incorporation in the skill requirements, learning strategies are not made salient in the curriculum document whereas curriculums for junior and senior secondary English have both given a much heavier weight on enhancing learners'

learning strategies.

Social competence – the competence to become a competent social citizen in the knowledge society – is only stated in the curriculum goals. Generally, the new NVES is a standards-based curriculum with specified standards or requirements in the form of “Can-Do” statements for assessing language at three levels of performance.

To conclude this section on the competence dimension analysis of the new NVES, Boreham’s (2002) comment on what constitutes a curriculum is that “(k)nowledge constituted in a curriculum is more than printed words in a syllabus – it is embodied within teachers and students, and socially constructed in interaction between these and other actors in the curriculum process” (pp. 230-231). The new NVES as the official guideline of the intended curriculum at the macro societal level provides a guiding framework for the school-based intended curriculum – the implemented curriculum at the meso institutional level – and for assessing the attained or experiential curriculum of learners at the micro instructional classroom level. Curriculum implementation is, however, a complex and complicated process. As indicated in Chapter One (see section 1.2.5), there is litter research, in particular needs analysis, conducted on learners’ language competences instructed, acquired, or perceived at vocational senior secondary schools in mainland China. It is therefore imperative to conduct an NA of language competences for curriculum development, implementation, and material development.

2.6 Summary

In this chapter, the notion of *competence* along with its related concepts has been discussed to lay the groundwork for a discussion of a competence-based typology. With reference to the KSA typology, a competence-based prototype typology of KSCs, which focuses on language learning outcomes rather than input, has been described. Language competences, as crucial components of key competences have been dealt with, following the classification category in the CEFR – *general competences* and *communicative language competences*, with each containing certain subcomponents. As a key component of curriculum development and organization, language

competences have further been discussed in the newly issued NVES (MOE, 2009b), along two matrix–levels of scales on the vertical axis and descriptive schemes on the horizontal axis, following the KSC typology and the CEFR competence framework.

Chapter 3 Literature Review: Needs Analysis

In this chapter, a comprehensive study of needs analysis (NA) is conducted. First, the conceptualizations of needs and NA are introduced. Then, six approaches to NA are described. Finally, a review of approaches to NA are presented, followed with the description of an integrative approach to NA in the current study.

3.1 Introduction of NA

The terms *needs*, *needs analysis* and *needs assessment* have been established for over five decades in the field of ESP (English for Specific Purposes)/EAP (English for Academic Purposes)/EOP (English for Occupational Purposes)/EST (English for Science and Technology)/EBP (English for Business Purposes) (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Berwick, 1989; Brindley, 1984, 1989a & b; Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001a & b; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Hyland, 2006; John & Dudley-Evans, 1980; Jordan, 1997; Munby, 1978, 1984; Ostler, 1980; Robinson, 1980, 1991; Savignon, 1983; Shipman, 1988; Strauss, 1993; Swales, 1985, 1990; Tarone & Yule, 1989; van Lier, 1988, 1996; Widdowson, 1981, 1983; Yalden, 1985), and the ESL (English as a second language)/EFL (English as a foreign language) literature (Long, 2005c; Robinson, 1991; Stern, 1992). As is commonly accepted, NA is a prerequisite or a must in identifying learners' learning needs due to time constraints, institutional and learner expectations (West, 1994, 1997) for effective curriculum and course design and assessment (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Long, 2005c; Robinson, 1991; van Lier, 1988). It is not only widely used in the areas of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) and English for Academic Purpose (EAP) (Hyland, 2006), but also in general syllabus design (Nunan, 2006) as well as in the field of VESL (Vocational English as a Second Language) (Jasso-Aguilar, 2005). Statements of the aims and objectives of curriculum development, syllabus design and language learning and teaching should be based on the analysis of the needs of society and the subject, and in particular the needs of learners (Taba, 1962; Nunan, 2006).

3.2 Conceptualization of Needs

The term *needs*, long been a key concept in the field of education, has been extended beyond its original reference of human needs, which Maslow (1970) distinguished into a hierarchy of five levels of human needs: (1) physiological, (2) safety and security, (3) belongingness and love, (4) esteem, and (5) self-actualization. According to Maslow, individuals instigate, direct, and sustain activity to satisfy certain needs that are hierarchical in nature, beginning with fundamental biological needs and progressing upwards to psychological and more expressive needs. Beyond Maslow's hierarchical human needs, there exist needs in education in general and needs in language education in particular.

In language education, the very concept of *needs* has never been clearly defined and remains ambiguous (Richterich, 1983; van Hest & Oud-de Glas, 1990). The term *needs* is usually considered "an umbrella term" (Richterich, 1983, p. 2; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 55), which can be defined, interpreted and analyzed in different ways. Like curriculum, which is not value free, *needs* are value-laden as well. As Berwick (1989) indicates, "The problem with defining needs, then, lies in the specification of who needs what, as defined by whom—and a clear understanding by clients or prospective learners that the syllabus will inevitably represent a collection of authoritative, informed opinions about what should be taught ..." (p. 53). The selection of needs hence reflect the philosophical stance that the researchers take.

The term *needs* in linguistics, which was proposed by Munby (1978), was an early endeavor in the direction of specifying communicative *language needs*, using both subjective and objective tools to obtain information. Like the two senses of *needs as noun and verb* (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995), there exists a plethora of needs in language education (Kaufman, 1979; Stufflebeam *et al.*, 1985; Witkin, 1991), namely, *objective* and *subjective* (Brindley, 1989b, p. 65), with *objective* needs in relation to such information as "learner's biographical data, learning purposes and language proficiency" (Medgyes, 2005, p. 439) and *subjective* needs to "the learner's attitudes,

preferences, wants and expectations” (ibid.); *perceived* and *felt* (Berwick, 1989, p. 55); *perceived* as opposed to *real*, or *subjective* as opposed to *objective* needs (Chambers, 1980, p. 33); *target situation/goal-oriented* needs (further classified into *necessities*, *lacks* and *wants*) and *learning* needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 55); *process oriented* and *product-oriented* needs (Brindley, 1989b, p. 63); and *micro* and *macro* needs (McArdle, 1998, p. 16). *Objective*, *real* and *perceived needs* are derived externally from facts and can be verified; *subjective* and *felt needs* are derived internally and correspond to cognitive and affective factors. *Product-oriented needs* are derived from the target situation which the learners will encounter and where they will be expected to perform, using English (Brindley, 1989b); *process-oriented needs* are derived from the learning situation “to identify and take into account a multiplicity of affective and cognitive variables which affect learning, such as learners’ attitudes, motivation, awareness, personality, wants, expectations and learning styles” (Brindley, 1989b, p. 63). These definitions, in particular, *product-oriented* needs and *process-oriented* needs (Richterich & Chancerel, 1977/1980) correspond to the two senses of *needs—needs as noun and verb* (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995), with the former focusing on the target situation and the latter on the learners.

Different learners may have different learning needs, with their needs shaped by social, economical, cultural and political factors (Skilbeck, 1994; Tomlinson, 2003). Needs, moreover, are not *wants*, *wishes*, *desires* or *necessities*, but are inferences drawn from reality and expectations. It is a process of exploration and cause finding, and a process of knowing to find out the reasons and solutions to improve an existing condition (Medgyes, 2005; Tarone & Yule, 1989). The discussion of needs analysis is discussed in the following section.

3.3 Conceptualization of Needs Analysis/Assessment

The abbreviated form *NA* corresponds, in fact, to two terms *needs analysis* and *needs assessment*. In the field of education and training, *needs assessment* is used more frequently while in language education *needs analysis* is more commonly used (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Essentially, NA is about gathering and interpreting

information. The term *needs analysis* is adopted in the current study although the two terms are treated as being interchangeable.

3.3.1 The Historical Overview of NA

Knowledge of the history of NA development is considered essential to language teachers and applied linguists (Swales, 1985, 2001; West, 1994; Long, 2005c). The historical overview can provide a panorama of its development across time and shed light on the current study.

The term *analysis of needs* originated in India in the 1920s (Howatt, 1984, p. 245; Tickoo, 1988; White, 1988, pp. 12-13), with Michael West initially adopting the term to describe the needs of secondary-level learners. The term went silent for almost five decades after West, and came to central prominence with the advent of ESP, for which NA has become an important instrument in course design. The focus and scope of needs analysis have since undergone four stages of development (West, 1994; Swales, 2001), roughly corresponding to the development of ESP.

The early 1970s are considered to be the first stage with its focus on EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) – a branch of ESP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 17), with target situation analysis (TSA) as its scope of analysis (ELTDU, 1970; Richterich, 1980). The focus of EOP was to identify the special features of different registers in terms of grammatical and lexical features at the sentence level (Ewer & Hughes-Davies, 1971-1972). The concept is associated with the work of Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964) and Swale (1980), the work of those associated with the Council of Europe (Richterich & Chancerel, 1980; Wilkins, 1976), and related studies, in particular Munby's (1978) *Communicative Syllabus Design*.

The first NA model was proposed by Richterich (1972) in the context of the Council of Europe's Modern Language Project (Trim *et al*, 1973). The most influential model of TSA was Munby's Communicative Needs Processor (CNP) (Munby, 1978), a complex and detailed analytic tool for establishing a profile of a learner's communicative needs, which were then transformed into a list of a communicative

competence specification in terms of communication purposes, communicative setting, the means of communication, language skills, functions, structures, etc., which formed the basis of the target syllabus specifications (Brindley, 2000) or taxonomies of communicative needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Munby, 1978).

Munby's model represented a shift in linguistics from understanding the roles of usage to the use of language in communication with the use of authentic data for real life purposes in real life settings (Widdowson, 1978). NA conducted during the period focused on the notions and functions supposedly required to satisfy various occupational language needs, with "insights into the nature of specific language needs" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 2) being provided. The model with its chief focus on course needs rather than learners' wants, motivations and learning strategies, however, fails to consider learners as a whole person in the process of language learning. Munby's model was criticized for ignoring learners' learning needs "since cognitive and affective variables such as the learner's attitudes, motivation and learning style were deliberately excluded from the analysis" (Medgyes, 2005, p. 439), yielding inappropriately designed courses (Brindley, 1989b).

The late 1970s saw the second stage of NA development, with the focus having shifted more towards EAP, although with the scope of analysis still on TSA (Mackay, 1978). During this period, interest moved away from register analysis to rhetorical or discourse analysis—the level above the sentence, to identify textual organizational patterns and discourse markers (Trimble, 1985). "The leading lights in this movement were Henry Widdowson in Britain and the so-called Washington School of Larry Selinker, Louis Trimble, John Lackstrom and Mary Todd-Trimble in the United States" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 10).

The 1980s witnessed the development of NA into its third stage, with its focus and scope of analysis both broadened. The focus embraces both ESP and general language education, with the adoption of procedural (Prabhu, 1987), process (Breen, 1984) or task (Long, 2005c; Nunan, 2006) syllabuses. The scope of analysis includes target situation analysis (TSA) as well as deficiency analyses, strategy analysis, means

analysis and language audits (Allwright, 1982; Allwright & Allwright, 1977; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Holliday & Cooke, 1982; Tarone & Yule, 1989).

In the early 1990s, NA developed into its fourth stage, with its scope of analysis further broadened to embrace practicalities and constraints, teaching methods, learning strategies, integrated or computer-based analyses and materials selection (Jones, 1991), this time under the influence of social constructivism, discourse analysis and systemic functional linguistics (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). The widened scope indicates an integrated view of language, learner and context. The scope includes both linguistic and learning factors and treats the learner as a whole person in the learning community (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The socialization perspective frames language as discourse practices in a particular context—the immediate situation in which learning and language use occur (Halliday, 1994)—rather than as a set of discrete skills. The focus has moved from an outsider’s view “which focused on the notions and functions supposedly required to satisfy various occupational language” (Long, 2005c, p. 21) to an insider’s view, with emphasis further on the notion of intertextuality and rights analysis (Hyland, 2006). The new approaches require NA to be conducted using ‘tasks’—authentic or simulated—as units of analysis (Long, 2005c; Long & Robinson, 1998; Long & Crookes, 1992, 1993; Long & Norris, 2000; Robinson, 1998; Skehan, 1998a & b), rather than using linguistic units as the unit of analysis. The new approaches also adopt multiple sources and methods for data collection. The different set of data from the various sources and methods can then be triangulated to produce credible results (Jasso-Aguilar, 2005; Long, 2005c).

The above-mentioned four stages indicates that the focus and scope of NA have experienced a substantial development owing to the work of pioneers in both ESP and EAP, who have laid the foundations “in the form of conceptual ground-clearing, complexities of domain-specific language use” (Long, 2005c, p. 5). In five decades, the focus of NA has developed from the early NA of EOP, to later EAP, and to the recent general language learning study, with a shift from looking at surface linguistic

features of the target situation to looking below the surface and understanding the underlying interpretive strategies of language use, and from an exclusive concern with descriptions of language use towards an interest in the communicative needs of the learners (Nunan, 2006) as learners play a crucial role in language learning. In order to participate effectively in communicative events, learners must acquire necessary competences, put those competences into action and employ strategies necessary to bring the competences into action (Council of Europe, 2001). The scope of NA has been broadened from Munby's (1978) syllabus specification derived from target situation needs on the linguistic aspect of ESP to encompass the full educational process with its focus on learners as whole persons "for running an entire system" (Richterich, 1983, p. 12) in the vein of evaluative research (Cohen *et al.*, 2000, p. 391). NA without taking learners' needs into account "will be inefficient, at the very least, and in all probability, grossly inadequate" (Long, 2005b, p. 1). At present, the results of NA have been applied to areas of applied linguistics, language teaching and assessment methods, learning materials and resources (Medgyes, 2005), material design (Cunningsworth, 1983), and language test construction (Alderson & Clapham, 1992).

3.3.2 NA in Language Education

As Chambers indicates, NA "is of course not original to EFL, it is one that has been adopted as relevant from other fields. When it was adopted it filled a gap, and served its purpose by creating an object from an activity for us to be able to manipulate" (1980, p. 33). West (1994) defines NA as "what learners will be required to do with the foreign language in the target situation, and how learners might best master the target language during the period of training" (p. 1).

Rather than treating NA as an outcome—a one-size-fits-all approach, NA is considered as a process of an ecosystem. In more formal and broad terms, NA is defined by Pratt as "an array of procedures for identifying and validating needs, and establishing priorities among them" (1980, p. 79). Richards, Platt, and Weber further claimed that NA is "the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners

requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities. NA makes use of both subjective and objective information (e.g., data from questionnaires, tests, interviews, observations)" (1985, p. 189). Stufflebeam, McCormick, Brinkerhoff, and Nelson also define NA as "the process of determining the things that are necessary or useful for the fulfillment of a defensible purpose" (1985, p. 16). Medgyes (2005) further regards NA as "the process of gathering and interpreting information on the uses to which language learners will put the target language (TL) following instruction; and what the learners will need to do in the learning situation in order to learn the TL" (p. 438). Hyland (2006) moreover regards NA as a more comprehensive approach, defining NA as a "technique for collecting and assessing information relevant to course design: it is the means of establishing the *how* and *what* of a course. It is a continuous process, since we modify our teaching as we come to learn more about our students, and in this way it actually shades into evaluation—the means of establishing the effectiveness of a course" (p. 73). NA hence is "the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation" (Brown, 1995, p. 36).

The above discussion indicates that NA in language education is an on-going systematic, cyclical process (Richterich & Chancerel, 1980; Yalden, 1983; Tomlinson, 2003) of identification and interpretation to be conducted with the use of many kinds of tools at different stages to achieve a desired effect or outcome, with NA both as an *end* as well as a *means*. Systematic is in the sense that it progresses via data collection from multiples sources and multiple methods and set priorities according to the significance of the needs in the whole process of NA (Witkin, 1991; Witkin & Altschuld, 1995); cyclic in the sense that NA is not a static once-for-all product approach but rather a dynamic ecosystem (Holliday, 1994), and a process of disclosing the reasons and solutions to improve the existed condition (Richterich & Chancerel, 1980; Tarone & Yule, 1989; West, 1994; Yalden, 1983).

3.3.3 Phases and Levels of NA

Witkin and Altschuld view needs identification and needs analysis as “part of the total process of NA (needs assessment)” (1995, p. 10) of three phases: (1) *preassessment*, (2) *assessment*, and (3) *postassessment* (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995, p. 5), with three levels of needs—*primary*, *secondary*, and *tertiary* (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995, p. 10).

The individuals at Level 1 (*primary*), the heart of the NA process, are *service receivers* (e.g., learners in the current study) for whom the system ultimately exists. The people at Level 2 (*secondary*) are *service providers and policymakers* (e.g., teachers, inspectors, graduate students, and employers), who have either direct or indirect relationship with those at Level 1. Those at Level 3 (*tertiary*) are not people but *resources or solutions* (e.g., facilities, learning resources, curriculum, class size, time allocation, school learning environment) (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995, p. 11). These three levels of needs correspond to Schwab’s (1973) four commonplaces—learner, teacher, subject matter and milieu, with all the other three factors centering on subject matter (i.e., English).

With regard to the levels of needs, the boundaries between each phase of NA are in fact not fixed. The classification of phases is simply to “suggest a time progression of a given set of tasks” (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995, p. 14), although there might be a degree of overlaps between stages.

(1) *Preassessment*, which is exploratory in nature, is the first stage, whose main function is to “determine what is already known about needs in the system; to identify issues and major areas of concern; and to decide on system boundaries, focus and purpose of the NA, potential sources of data, how the information will be used, and what kind of decisions will be made on the basis of the findings” (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995, p. 14). In the current study, this stage will be the process of devising research questions and defining NA criteria for the next phase of the research—the mixed methods study.

(2) *Assessment* is the second stage for data gathering, the biggest hurdle in the research,

which entails the selection of research participants, the research setting and the venues for conducting research. Information and opinions related to the research questions are collected and analyzed. Researchers have noted the importance of educational or institutional constraints for NA so that available resources can be provided and delivered for local situations (Berwick, 1989; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Holliday, 1995a & b)

(3) *Post-assessment* is the third stage, which is the bridge to the utilization of data and plans for action. "The principal tasks are to set priorities and criteria for solutions, weigh alternative solutions, and formulate action plans for program changes or other interventions. Information on the NA design, results, and recommendations for action are communicated to decision makers and other stakeholders, and relevant information is prepared for archives and other uses. The evaluation of the NA itself also occurs in Phase 3" (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995, p. 14). In the current study, the preliminary priorities of needs are established, and analyses of underlying causes related to the three system levels—service receivers (i.e., learners), service providers (i.e., teachers, graduate students, employers, inspectors) and resources (i.e., facilities, resources, learning environment, etc.)—are conducted via both quantitative and qualitative methods. It is in this phase that the findings are interpreted and suggestions are made for future action.

The three levels of needs, together with the three-phase model, treat NA in the current study as an ongoing and cyclical process of strategic planning, program implementation, and evaluation. The current study adopts the three-phase model to identify and describe the areas of needs, discover relevant salient and latent factors, and make suggestions to inform and improve the levels of curriculums with regard to learners' language competences for senior secondary VE in mainland China.

3.3.4 NA in Mainland China

In language teaching in mainland China, NA has been applied to curriculum development (Cui, 2009; Ni & Liu, 1994, 2006; Ni, 2007; Shen, 2006; Shu, 2004),

textbook writing (Cheng, 2002; Li & Gong, 1994), syllabus design (Guan, 2005; Jing, 1999; Ying, 1996), curriculum implementation (Lu, 1995; Wu, 2001; Zhang, 2004), curriculum assessment (Yu, 2002), and educational policy (Fu *et al.*, 2001) at secondary and tertiary education, with little research conducted at senior secondary VE. Most research studies, moreover, have mostly adopted a single approach, such as target situation analysis, present situation analysis, on either linguistic aspects or learners' learning needs, without taking a more comprehensive systematic and cyclic approach to NA.

Conducting NA therefore is not only important for curriculum development, but also for curriculum implementation and assessment at senior secondary VE in mainland China. In conducting linguistic NA, it is important to take an integrative approach to NA so that VE can maximally reflect learners' objective needs and their felt subjective needs (Brindley, 1989b; Robinson, 1991). It is expected in the current study that through NA the gaps between the formal senior secondary vocational education and the targeted workplace can be identified and better linked for a more balanced curriculum.

3.4 Approaches to NA

In the past three decades, various NA studies have been conducted on the needs of learners, with such pioneers as Munby, Jordan, Macky, Swales, Trim, van Ek, to name just a few (Long, 2005b), whose research findings have enriched the theory and practice of NA. West (1994) lists five approaches to needs analysis: *target-situation analysis*, *deficiency analysis*, *strategy analysis*, *means analysis*, and *language audits*. Jordan's (1997) somewhat similar list includes *target-situation analysis*, *present-situation analysis*, *deficiency analysis*, *strategy analysis*, *means analysis*, *language audit* and *constraints*. A number of other approaches to NA exist – essentially from the perspective of curriculum development. Among these are Wiggins and Mctighe's (2005) classroom-based process approach, Skilbeck's (1976) situational analysis and Walker's (1971) natural approach. The current study adopts a more comprehensive approach – incorporating target situation analysis, present

situation analysis, deficiency analysis, strategy analysis, means analysis and language audits, as shown in Figure 3.1. NA is therefore considered both a means as well as an end, with NA considered as a dynamic and cyclic ecosystem.

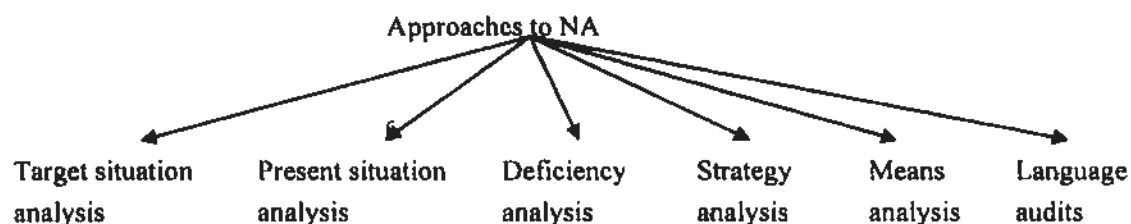


Figure 3.1 Approaches to NA

3.4.1 Target Situation Analysis

Target situation analysis (TSA) is the best known landmark in the development of NA. The purpose of TSA “is devoted to establishing the learners’ language requirements in the occupational or academic situation they are being prepared for” (Chambers, 1980, p. 29). TSA concerns learners’ future roles and the linguistic skills and knowledge they need to perform competently in their disciplines. TSA relates to learners’ communication needs rather than their learning needs and involves mainly objective and product-oriented data.

The earliest TSA procedures were designed to determine how much English was used (Ewer & Hughes-Davies, 1971, p. 106), usually with a questionnaire (Mackay, 1978). The most extensively used TSA was the one devised by the English Language Teaching Development Unit (ELTDU, 1970) with a classification of 20 activities to cover all business and commercial situations in four aspects of language skills, with the procedure later adopted by other researchers (e.g., Gardner & Winslow, 1983).

The first TSA model was the one proposed by Richterich (1972) in the context of the Council of Europe’s Modern Language Project (Trim *et al*, 1973), which was designed to produce a unit credit system for describing language proficiency for use chiefly by European citizens crossing linguistic borders within the European Economic Community (EEC) under the influence of lifelong education. Richterich’s model was

developed on a set of categories for establishing learners' communicative requirements in the target context of language use. The desirability resulted in Wilkin's (1975, 1976) universal, non-language-specific, semantically-based, 'notional-functional' system.

The most renowned and rigorous model, however, is Munby's *Communicative Syllabus Design* (1978), formulated on the basis of Hymes's (1972) communicative competence. The Munbyan performance-based model presents a highly detailed set of procedures for discovering target situation needs, with an extremely detailed and systematic approach – "the most comprehensive" approach to NA (Dickinson, 1987, p. 90). "Munby's attempt to be systematic and comprehensive inevitably made his instrument inflexible, complex and time-consuming" (West, 1994, P. 9). The model has incurred criticism (Swales, 1980; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Coleman, 1988; White, 1988; Nunan, 1988a & b) on the following four aspects: "complexity, learner centeredness, constraints, and language" (West, 1994, p. 9), focusing on its ignoring the learning needs of the learners by excluding cognitive and affective variables such as attitudes, motivation and learning styles. In spite of the criticism, Munby's approach marked "a watershed for the field of LSP" (Language for Specific Purposes) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 54), and has exerted a great deal of influence on the development of NA.

Later work has been derived from his model or as a reaction to the shortcomings of the model (West, 1994, p. 9). Hutchinson and Waters (1987, pp. 59-60) propose a more comprehensive TSA framework, which incorporates such factors as *why, how, what, who, where* and *when*. Information related to learners' learning purposes, means or channels of learning, content areas, expected communication targets, and situational and temporal factors are rendered in terms of learners' future communication needs. Hutchinson and Waters' model, along with other NA models, has provided guidelines in conducting TSA in the current study, with regard to the target situation or goal-oriented needs at both the workplace and the educational institutions related to the three envisaged levels of needs – primary (i.e., service receivers), secondary (i.e.,

service providers), and tertiary (i.e., learning environment, resources and facilities) (see 3.3.3).

3.4.2 Present Situation Analysis

As an extension of TSA, present situation analysis (PSA) was proposed by Richterich and Chancerel (1980). The two scholars provide a comprehensive list to systematically identify adult learners' language needs for the Council of Europe, which concerns "what the students are like at the beginning of the course" (Robinson, 1991, p. 9), their proficiencies and ambition, both objective and subjective, with information from three such basic sources as learners, teachers, teaching establishment and the "user institution" (Jordan, 1997, p. 24; Richterich & Chancerel, 1980) through methods of surveys, questionnaires, observations and interviews. *Subjective* needs is what the learner must do to "actually acquire the language while *objective* needs reflect what they need to do with language" (Widdowson, 1984, p. 2) upon completing learning.

Unlike TSA, which mainly examines the surface linguistic features of the target situation, it is learners who are at the center of the approach. In light of learners' learning needs, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, pp. 62-63) suggest a framework for conducting PSA, incorporating also six factors – *why, how, what, who, where* and *when*. Like their TSA analytical framework, information related to learners' current needs, both subjective and objective, can be rendered from the framework.

Hyland (2006, p. 280) further proposes a framework for conducting learning situation analysis, taking into account five factors: (1) society, (2) institution, (3) resources, (4) course, and (5) class. He claims that the above-mentioned five factors are significant with regard to context information since different contexts may yield different information. What works well in one context may fail in another even though learners may possess similar language needs. In the current research, both the subjective and objective needs of learners are assessed through PSA.

3.4.3 Deficiency Analysis

Since NA is the identification of the existing discrepancies or gaps, the approaches to

NA may be addressed as analyses of learners' deficiencies or lacks, which considers both learners' present needs/wants and the requirements of the target situation (Allwright, 1982, p. 24; Robinson, 1991, p. 9). Essentially PSA is considered as *means needs* which enable students to learn and pursue their language goals as the course progresses, and *end needs*, or those associated with target goals (Brindley, 1989b). "In practice, course designers are likely to want information concerning both TSA and PSA. Consequently, the resulting analysis will be a combination of the two approaches" (Jordan, 1997, p. 25). The deficiency analyses therefore "start from the target situation and design the curriculum around the gap between the present abilities of the target trainees and the needs of the situation in which they will find themselves at the end of the training program" (Smith & Arun, 1980, p. 210).

According to West (1994), the model consists of two central components: (1) an inventory of potential target needs expressed in terms of activities; and (2) a scale that is used to establish (and subsequently re-establish) the priority that should be given to each activity. On the basis of Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) framework, Hyland (2006, p. 75) proposes a merged framework (see Table 3.1) for conducting present situation analysis (PSA) and target situation analysis (TSA), that is, deficiency analyses, with the focus and scope of the framework on EAP.

As indicated in the table, some of the factors in the framework overlap with other frameworks (e.g., PSA and TSA frameworks) discussed previously with those relevant and salient features incorporated into the questions. This framework also corresponds with the levels of curriculum contexts (e.g., societal, institutional, instructional and ideological) and the levels of curriculums (e.g., intended, implemented, attained or experiential). In addition to the components mentioned in the above frameworks, it is essential to consider questions about the target situation (i.e., workplace) and the attitudes of the various participants towards that situation in the learning process (Mackay, 1978; Munby, 1978; Cohen & Mannion, 1989; Richterich & Chancerel, 1980). In the current study, a deficiency can hence yield a more comprehensive understanding of the gaps between learners' target language competences and present

language competences.

Table 3.1 Hyland's framework of deficiency analysis

Present situation analysis (PSA)	Target situation analysis (TSA)
<p>Why are learners taking the course?</p> <p>Compulsory or optional?</p> <p>Whether obvious need exists</p> <p>Personal/academic goals</p> <p>Motivation and attitude</p> <p>What they want to learn from the course</p>	<p>Why do learners need the language?</p> <p>Examination, postgraduate or undergraduate courses, etc.</p>
<p>How do learners learn?</p> <p>Learning background and experiences</p> <p>Concept of teaching and learning</p> <p>Methodological and material preferences</p> <p>Preferred learning styles and strategies</p>	<p>What genres will be used?</p> <p>Lab reports, essays, seminars, lectures, etc.</p> <p>What is the typical structure of these genres?</p> <p>Move analyses, salient features, genre sets, etc.</p> <p>What will the content areas be?</p> <p>Academic subject, specialism within discipline, secondary school subjects</p>
<p>Who are the learners?</p> <p>Age/sex/nationality/L1</p> <p>Subject knowledge</p> <p>Interests</p> <p>Sociocultural background</p> <p>Attitudes to subject or discipline</p>	<p>Who will the learner use the language with?</p> <p>Native or non-native speakers</p> <p>Reader's knowledge—expert beginner, etc.</p> <p>Relationship: peer, teacher, examiner, supervisor</p>
<p>What do learners know?</p> <p>L1 and L2 literacy abilities</p> <p>Proficiency in English</p> <p>Writing experiences and genre familiarity</p>	<p>Where will the learner use the language?</p> <p>Physical setting: school, university, conference</p> <p>Linguistic context: overseas, home country</p> <p>Human context: known/unknown readers</p>

3.4.4 Strategy Analysis

The 1980s witnessed the extension of NA from *what* (i.e., syllabus content) into *how* (i.e., the methodology) since “there is a growing recognition within the profession that

specification of the end products (e.g., the syllabus design component of the curriculum) must also be accompanied by specifications of methodology (that is indications on how to reach that end point)" (Nunan, 1988a, p. 17). This involves methods of teaching, and methods of learning as well. The approach aims to look below the surface and consider the thinking processes underlying language use (Nunan, 1988a, p. 8).

According to Gass and Mackey, language learning strategies refer to "particular actions, steps, or techniques employed by learners, often consciously, to assist their L2 learning" (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p. 45). Three 'summary' books (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003) on learning strategies were published at the beginning of the 1990s by O'Malley & Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), and Wenden (1991), indicating the importance of learners' active contribution to enhancing the effectiveness of their learning. Allwright (1982) was a pioneer in the area of strategy analysis, whose concerns were to help learners to identify skills areas and their preferred strategies of achieving those skills. West (1994) termed strategy analysis as a "means of travel" (p. 71) for learners to their target destination. Other experts, such as Grellet (1981) and Nuttall (1996), also conducted research on learning strategies. Oxford (1990), however, offered a comprehensive "strategy inventory for language learning" (SILL) (pp. 282-300) to interpret a learner's results in terms of currently-preferred strategies on 5-point scales. Oxford's strategy taxonomy consists of two categories: *direct* and *indirect* strategies. Direct strategies include three components – *memory*, *cognitive* and *compensation* – while indirect strategies incorporate another three components – *metacognitive*, *affective* and *social*.

Some researchers have gone even further and attempted "cultural profiles" of learners from various backgrounds (Hawkey, 1983; Dudley-Evans & Swales, 1990; Reid, 1987). Their approaches have consequently led to the development of learner autonomy (Hoadley-Maidment, 1983; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989) and self-regulation (Dörnyei, 2005; Lantolf, 1994, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008), with individuals regarded as active participants in their own learning. The

notion of *learning strategies* is an important dimension in the KSC typology as *meta-competence*, forming the social competence dimension along with other attitudinal and motivational factors. In the current study, learning strategies as one of the four dimensions of KSC typology are investigated to explore how learners' meta-competence can be developed from object-regulated and other-regulated learners towards self-regulated learners (Lantolf, 2000, 2007; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008).

3.4.5 Means Analysis

The attempts to accommodate language courses to local situations or constraints (e.g., cultural attitudes, resources, materials, equipment, methods) led to the development of means analysis. According to Frankel (1983), "in the real-world of ELT, there has to be a creative synthesis of theoretical principles and practical constraints, and ... where these conflict, as they sometimes do, the latter must take precedence" (p. 120). Some researchers attempt to list these practicalities and constraints (Chamberlain & Flanagan, 1978; Hawkey, 1983); others tend to quantify them (Bachman, 1990). Still others consider it important "how to make ESP take root, grow, bear fruit and propagate in the local soil" (Holliday & Cooke, 1982, p. 126).

Holliday (1984, p. 45) identifies four principal steps in a means analysis in a classroom context: (1) observe lessons, taking random notes on all significant features; (2) use the notes to construct a report on the lesson to form the basis of discussion with the teacher; (3) review all the original notes and draw out significant features common to all observations; and (4) construct a communicative device (chart, diagram, etc.) which expresses the findings. The device then forms the basis of realistic negotiation of the course between all interested parties in the light of available resources and options (Crocker, 1981, p. 9).

"This approach" as Holliday (1984) points out, "is directly opposite to the way in which needs analysis is usually done, where the categories are defined before the observation and are based on linguistic descriptions and not the situation being

observed. The *means analysis* approach allows sensitivity to the situation and prevents the imposition of models alien to the situation” (Holliday, 1984, p. 45). Mountford (1988) and Swales (1989) extend the scope of means analysis to incorporate the following five factors in the field of EAP: (1) classroom culture, (2) EAP staff profiles, (3) pilot target-situation analysis, (4) status of service operations, and (5) study of change agents. The approach is “similar” to that of a social researcher who looks at the wider social structure *first* and the language second, *as part of* the social structure” (Rubdy, 2000, p. 408).

Means analysis is therefore a process-based PSA, which performs the formative and diagnostic functions to improve curriculum implementation to inform the intended curriculum makers and to improve the implemented and experiential curriculums. Moreover, since means analysis is context-based and context-dependent it enables researchers to conduct on-the-spot investigation with an action-oriented approach. In the current study, means analysis is incorporated to investigate the practicalities and constraints existed at the institutional and instructional levels.

3.4.6 Language Audits

Language audits are “large-scale exercises in defining language needs carried out for companies, regions or countries” (Jordan, 1997, p. 28). It takes institutions or organizations as the unit of analysis and is usually conducted through a quantified survey (Long, 2005b). In terms of the issues the approach is concerned with, “the first issue concerns the efficiency of the present system, the second implies changes with a view to a future system ...” (Looms, 1983, p. 62). The approach can provide a quick overview of a situation and identify discrepancies between perceptions and reality, between what is going on and what should be. The approach can also provide data and propose training or educational policies to be implemented over a period of time.

The primary limitation of language audits lies in their scope of scale: “as these data take the form of statistical average, which may indeed be representative for a common core of learning objectives, but do not coincide with the particular situation of the

individual learner, the picture has to be completed by a further needs analysis involving personal contact with the individual learner ...” (van der Handt, 1983, p.32), that is qualitative research. In the era of the information age and globalization, with English having become virtually a *lingua franca*, language audits and NA for whole societies are likely to become increasingly important (Long, 2005c).

In the current study, language audits is adopted to investigate the learners’ general learning profile so that the statistical average of learners’ demographic information, language learning motivation and language achievement can be yielded.

3.4.7 Summary

In this chapter, six different approaches to NA have been introduced and discussed: (1) target situation analysis (TSA), (2) present situation analysis (PSA), (3) deficiency analysis, (4) strategy analysis, (4) means analysis, and (6) language audits, with each having a different scope and focus. *TSA* is the analysis of learners’ future learning needs and *PSA* is the analysis of learners’ current subjective and objective needs. *Deficiency analysis* is a synthesis of both TSA and PSA to identify the gaps between the current *is* status and the intended *should be* status. With the research focus moving from language usage to language use and language users, *strategy analysis* aims at identifying the most effective learning strategies to enable learners to develop from object-regulated and other-regulated learners to self-regulated autonomous learners (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). Moreover, learning is a dynamic process. Many factors may interfere with or interrupt the learning process. Identifying learners’ needs in the process of learner-centered learning can improve learning efficiency and develop learners’ language competences. *Language audits* conducted on a large scale can provide the information regarding the general trend of language learners.

As Jordan (1997, p. 29) states, NA is multi-dimensional, with multiple factors involved. Each factor further contains its own set of multi-dimensional factors. Along with the human factors, other factors such as context, social, political, economical, and

affective factors exert an influence on NA, forming a multi-dimensional interactive process. In the process of doing NA, it is important to conduct an integrated analysis with the inclusion of deficiency analysis (i.e., the discrepancy between target situation analysis (TSA) and present situation analysis (PSA)), strategy analysis, means analysis and language audits. Taken individually, each analysis only yields a partial picture of the research phenomena while an integrated analysis provides a more comprehensive picture.

3.5 Review of Approaches to NA in Language Education

Knowledge of previous research studies is of vital importance in conducting research. Witkin's (1994, p.8) comprehensive literature review of NA conducted in the United States from the 1980s to early 1990 laid out the following five shortcomings of the many NA studies:

- (1) confusing means with ends, or needs with wishes,
- (2) using only one method for gathering information,
- (3) equating the opinion survey with an NA,
- (4) confusing levels of needs,
- (5) failing to use the data to set priorities.

The above mentioned shortcomings suggests that many research studies have been deficient in their knowledge of needs, the levels of needs and the priorities of needs, and above all in their adoption of methods and sources.

In language education, a substantial number of NA have been reported in the literature, in particular in the field of ESP and EAP. In the field of ESL (English as a second language), many of the NA studies have been carried out via semi-structured interviews, or questionnaire surveys—the most over-used and over-rated approach to NA (Long, 2005b). According to Long, most research studies on NA “either report the results of NAs, with little by way of generalizable findings or principles, or make

unsupported assertions about appropriate or 'successful' NA methodology" (2005c, p. 20). Despite a few research studies (van Els & Oud-de-Glas, 1983; van Hest & Oud-de-Glas, 1990), most research studies "make little or no reference to research in foreign language education or in ESL on the methodology of NA itself for the simple reason that hardly any such research has been conducted" (Long, 2005c, p. 20). Moreover, the triangulation approach of "source x method interaction" is an aspect "rarely, if ever, discussed, much less studied" (Long, 2005b, p. 64). "What is sorely lacking", as Long further states, "is a substantial, coherent applied linguistics research program (not one-off studies) on NA itself" (ibid., p. 65). The findings of Long (2005c & b) in terms of sources and methods of NA, in general, echo with those reported by Witkin (1994).

Given the nature of the three research questions (see 1.4), an integrative mixed-method approach to NA will be adopted in the current study with the expectation of avoiding the above mentioned shortcomings of NA studies.

3.5.1 Sources of Data

In terms of research sources as a way to acquire data and information, Long (2005c, p. 24) conducted a comprehensive study of the research sources in the field of second language acquisition (SLA), with the identification of five major options emerging from the survey: (1) published and unpublished literature, (2) students, (3) teachers and applied linguists, (4) domain experts, and (5) triangulated sources, since "whoever determines needs largely determines which needs are determined" (Chambers, 1980, p. 27).

The multiple sources ensure that a wide variety of data can be obtained and compared. The *published and unpublished literature* can inform researchers of the merits and pitfalls of the previous studies. *Learners* as the main service receiver always constitute a chief source for obtaining data, although they may not always be a reliable source. *Teachers and applied linguists* as service providers and subject-matter experts are another reliable source for information. The inclusion of *domain experts and language proficiency experts* in a research team will probably enable a more successful NA. The

triangulation, which involves comparisons of multiple sources of perceived and objective needs, helps validate the data collected and thus increase the credibility of data interpretation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, pp. 305-307). Triangulated sources have been gaining more ground in the most recent years.

In the current study, information will be acquired from multiple sources – learners (i.e., school learners and graduate students), teachers, published and unpublished literature (i.e., documents, textbook, research journal), domain experts (i.e., inspectors and employers) and triangulated sources (i.e., multiple sources involved in the current study) – to validate the data and increase the credibility of the interpretation of the data.

3.5.2 Research Methods

Many researchers have listed various ways of gathering information about needs in the field of ESP/EAP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 58; Hyland, 2006; Jordan, 1997; McArdle, 1998). Essentially, the methods include two kinds of procedures: *inductive* and *deductive* (Berwick, 1989). The inductive procedures “involve use of expert intuitions, participant and non-participant observation, and unstructured interviews, from which categories of needs are derived” (Long, 2005a, p. 31) while the deductive procedures “include use of devices and instruments, such as structured interviews, questionnaires, and criterion-referenced performance tests, with pre-set categories” (Long, 2005a, p. 31). Long’s comprehensive literature review of the research methods of NA since the 1970s yields a comprehensive list of twenty-one procedures: (1) non-expert intuitions, (2) expert practitioner intuitions, (3) unstructured interviews, (4) structured interviews, (5) interview schedules, (6) surveys and questionnaires, (7) language audits, (8) ethnographic methods, (9) participant observation, (10)

non-participant observation, (11) classroom observation, (12) diaries, journals, and logs, (13) role-plays, simulations, (14) content analysis, (15) discourse analysis, (16) analysis of discourse, (17) register/rhetorical analysis, (18) computer-aided corpus analysis, (19) genre analysis, (20) task-based criterion-referenced performance tests, and (21) triangulated methods.

The multiple research procedures indicate that there appears to be no single formula for carrying out NA studies. Each particular situation requires its own mix of observing, probing, analyzing and deducing. According to Long, “many NAs for ESP programs involve data from different sources and/or data gathered via different methods. Such studies have found differences, often large differences, in the views of different classes of informants, but most have stopped there, content to report the differences and leave it at that. When different sources and/or methods produce conflicting findings, it is important to pursue the matter” (2005a, pp. 29-30). The point was also disclosed in Witkin’s (1994) literature review research. Since conducting an NA is a systematic approach, many researchers adopt a triangulation design using qualitative methods as a justifiable interpretation (e.g., Boshier & Smalkoski, 2002; Jasso-Aguilar, 2005; Lynch, 1996). The studies mentioned above have tended to examine NA studies either quantitatively or qualitatively from one worldview or philosophical stance, either post/positivism, constructivism or advocacy and participatory (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

Among all the research done, the most salient is Long’s (2005c) proposed model of multiple *sources*, multiple *methods*, and *sources x methods triangulation* using

qualitative research, which has exerted a strong influence on recent NA research in language education (Chaudron *et al.*, 2005; Gilabert, 2005; Jasso-Aguilar, 2005). In the current study, various methods, such as surveys and questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, classroom observation, field notes and research journals, will be utilized in order to verify the validity of the data collected.

The review of approaches to NA studies in language education mandates that research which relies on a single resource and method to obtain data can lead to invalid data as there is then no way in which the data can be triangulated. In the current study, multiples sources x multiple methods mixed-method approach is incorporated to identify the deficiencies with regard to language competences.

3.6 Summary

In this chapter, the conceptualization of needs and NA in language education have been discussed to clarify conceptual issues. The historical overview of NA in language education in terms of research scope and focus has been described and introduced, followed with phases and levels of NA. A brief introduction of NA studies in mainland China has also been introduced to demonstrate the deficiency on this aspect. After that, six approaches to NA have been introduced and discussed, followed with a review of approaches to NA in language education with regard to sources of data and research methods.

Since each individual approach to NA can only yield one aspect one aspect of the research phenomena, an integrative approach to NA with multiple sources and

methods can yield a more holistic view of learners' language competences from multiple perspectives. To this end, a mixed-method approach to the current NA study is adopted, as shown in Figure 3.2.

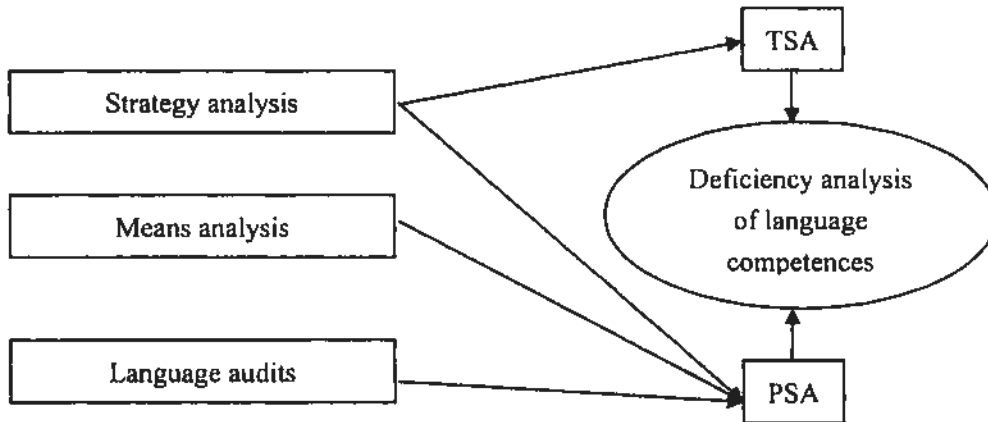


Figure 3.2 An integrative approach to NA

Figure 3.2 shows that the current study is basically a deficiency analysis between TSA and PSA, with the incorporation of strategy analysis, means analysis and language audits.

Chapter 4 Research Design

On the basis of the literature review in the previous two chapters, the general research questions posed in the first chapter were further elaborated into specific questions. A conceptual framework of the research study was developed, followed with a detailed description of the two phases of study—quantitative and qualitative.

4.1 Research Questions and Conceptual Framework

Given the studies in the previous three chapters, detailed specific questions were developed, along with a framework for data collection and data analysis.

4.1.1 Elaborated Research Questions

As indicated in the first chapter, there are three major research questions. The first research question, addressed in the quantitative study, incorporates two sub-questions:

RQ 1: What is learners' general profile in formal senior secondary vocational education?

RQ 1.1 What is learners' general demographic information?

RQ 1.2 What are learners' general English ability levels?

The purpose of the first research question (RQ 1) aims at conducting a quantitative language audit to comprehend the general picture of learners' demographic information and language competences in senior secondary VE in mainland China.

The second and third general research questions are mainly qualitative with embedded quantitative questions. The sub-questions of the second research question aim at a more focused, in-depth description and understanding of levels of needs with regard to language competences at three levels (i.e., primary, secondary and tertiary).

RQ 2. What discrepancies of needs currently exist between the target situation and present situation of senior secondary vocational school students in terms of their language competences?

The nature of RQ 2 is a comprehensive deficiency analysis, incorporating both TSA

and PSA, which are further linked to the means analysis and language audits. The second research question can further be developed into two sub-questions, with each further incorporating three related questions.

RQ 2.1 What are learners' target situation needs in terms of English language competences?

RQ 2.1.1 What expectations are there of learners?

RQ 2.1.2 How is teaching expected to be conducted?

RQ 2.1.3 What expectations are there concerning educational institutions, resources and facilities?

RQ 2.1 focuses on target situation analysis (TSA), namely, the product-oriented needs analysis. The question aims at examining the *should be* status of learners' language competences. Three levels of needs are investigated, with learners at the primary level, teachers at the secondary level, and resources and facilities at the tertiary level. RQ 2.1.1 aims at understanding the intended curriculum with regard to language competences in the national curriculum document and the vocational requirements from the workplace. RQ 2.1.2 intends to examine the expectance held towards teachers by various stakeholders (i.e., students, teachers, graduate students, employers, and inspectors) on curriculum implementation at the meso institutional level. RQ 2.1.3 investigates the target vision towards learning sites, resources and facilities, which are crucial factors in creating a language learning environment, the milieu of Schwab's (1973) four commonplaces. RQ2.2, the present situation analysis, however, is the other main aspect of the language competence deficiency analysis.

RQ 2.2 What are the present situation needs in terms of English language competences?

RQ 2.2.1 What are learners' present learning needs?

RQ 2.2.2 How do teachers conduct teaching?

RQ 2.2.3 How are resources and facilities provided and utilized at school?

RQ 2.2 invokes present situation analysis (PSA), aiming at examining the current or *is* status of learners' language competences, namely, the reality of learners' subjective and objective needs at three levels—primary, secondary and tertiary. RQ 2.2.1 aims at understanding learners' current learning needs to see how language competences are acquired or experienced by learners. Since teachers play a key role in cultivating learners' language competences, RQ 2.2.2 aims at understanding the intended and the implemented curriculums at the institutional and classroom levels. The quality of teachers and their teaching, their subject knowledge, pedagogic knowledge and skills, are examined from the perspectives of how teachers conduct their teaching through teaching activities and their classroom management. As language teaching and learning in China mainly take place in classrooms at schools in formal senior secondary VE, RQ 2.2.3 examines the learning sites, resources and facilities provided or supported at the educational institutions.

These two specific questions are of crucial importance in the qualitative study. On the basis of the data collection related to the two questions (RQ 2.1 and RQ 2.2), a comprehensive deficiency needs analysis (NA) is then conducted. The gaps of needs, in terms of its size, type, scope, complexity and range (Cohen *et al.*, 2000, pp. 391-392), are then identified and categorized, with the priorities of needs being sequenced and evaluated. Once the important needs have been identified, further NA can be conducted as per RQ 3.

RQ 3. Given the investigation of the present situation and target situation needs, what factors account for the current discrepancies?

RQ3.1 What are learners' general motivational determinants?

RQ3.2 What is the relationship between motivation and language achievement?

RQ3.3 To what extent do attitude/motivational variables contribute to the discrepancies?

RQ3.4 What other factors underlie the current discrepancies?

RQ 3, as well as its four sub-questions, deals with learners' general motivation tendency, the relationship between motivation and language achievement, and the causes of language competence deficiencies—the *why* aspect of research phenomena. It is a mixed-method question with the quantitative study embedded in the chief qualitative question. As is commonly stated, “levels of learners motivation and learner achievement are known to be problematic” (Mitchell, 2003, p. 15). The question therefore intends to acquire a general understanding of learners' general motivational determinants and to verify whether there are consistent relationships between motivational determinants and language achievement. It is through field investigation that needs regarding language competences are further explored in an attempt to discover the underlying causes of the identified discrepancies, and to come up with possible solutions (Cohen *et al.*, 2000, pp. 391-392). The interrelationship between RQ2 and RQ3 is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

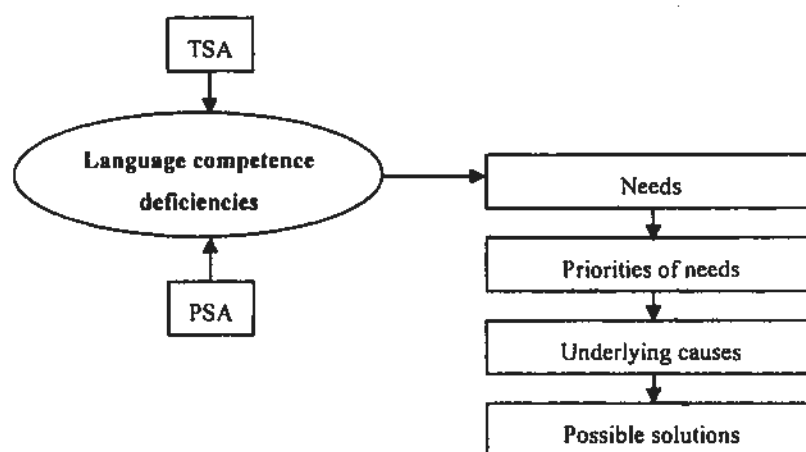


Figure 4.1 The interrelationship of research questions

Since the current study is a mixed methods explanatory inquiry, the questions posed aim at building a link from general tendencies to concrete specifics in order to acquire a deeper understanding of the nature of the needs—both objective and subjective—and to seek an interpretation for and possible solutions to the problems using various means and sources for data collection. The mixed methods questions are therefore more action-oriented, aiming at finding a more possible and feasible way to deal with the issue of language competence deficiencies.

4.1.2 Conceptual Framework of the Study

The preliminary focus of the current study is the NA of *language competences*, which is composed of two dimensions: *general competences* and *communicative language competences*, with each further containing its own subcategories. With reference to the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) and Goullier's model (2008, see 2.4.2, Figure 2.9), multiple research approaches to the NA study were adopted in the current study for conducting the NA of language competences against the macro, meso and micro context.

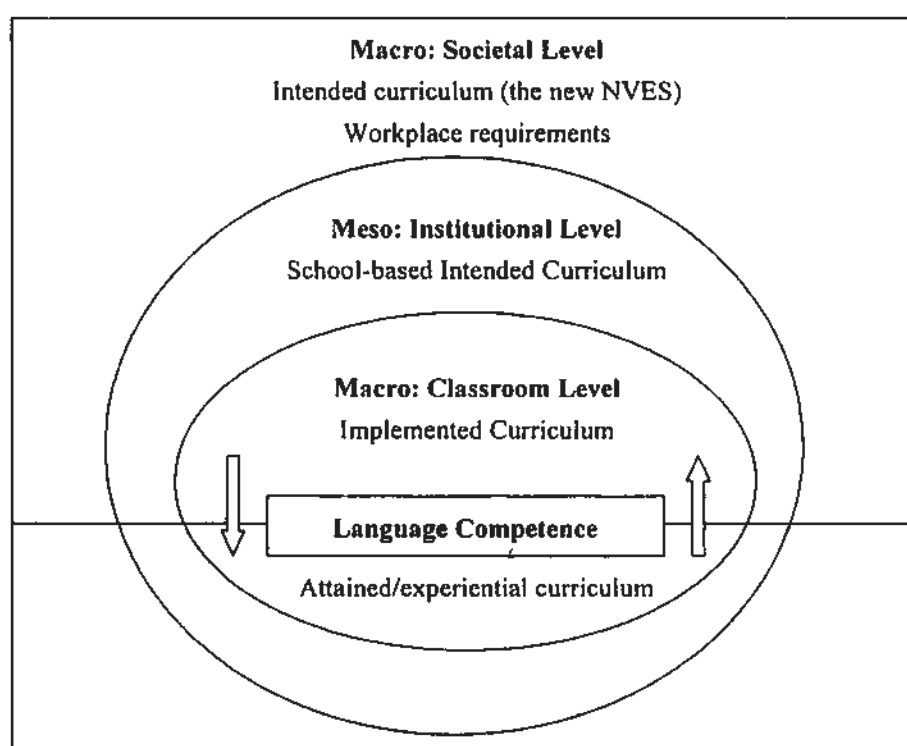


Figure 4.2 The conceptual framework of the study

Figure 4.2 depicts the conceptual framework of the study, the context against which the NA study of language competences was conducted. On the macro societal level, both the intended national curriculum (i.e., new NVES) and workplace requirements on language competences were explored. On the meso institutional level, the school-based context-related intended curriculum was investigated, while on the micro classroom level the implemented curriculum implemented by teachers behind classroom doors and the attained/experiential curriculum experienced by learners in

the classroom context regarding language competences were studied.

In brief, the NA study of language competences in the current study is a comprehensive mixed methods study, involving multiple research sources and methods, as summarized in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Research sources and methods in relation to research questions

Research questions	Methods	Sources
RQ 1: What is learners' general profile in formal senior secondary vocational education?	Quantitative language audits)	Learners
RQ 2. What discrepancies of needs currently exist between the target situation and present situation of senior secondary vocational school students in terms of their language competences?	Qualitative discrepancy analysis, strategy analysis & means	Learners Teachers Employers Graduate students
RQ 3. Given the investigation of the target situation and present situation needs, what factors account for the current discrepancies?	analysis + quantitative statistical analysis	Inspectors Document analysis

Table 4.1 shows that the current NA study of language competences adopts a mixed methods approach, involving both quantitative and qualitative studies. The general picture of individual factors was dealt with through the language audit of RQ 1 on the institutional level. The discrepancy analysis of language competences was conducted in RQ 2 through primary research of seeing (i.e., classroom observation) and hearing (i.e., interview), and secondary research of document analysis. The analysis of learners' general motivation and other influencing factors were explored in RQ 3. It is through the mixed methods explanatory research that the research problem was dealt with and the research questions answered and interpreted more holistically.

4.2 Research Methods

In the current study, the nature of the research questions has decided the adoption of a mixed methods research design, known as the “third methodological movement” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003a, p. ix).

In view of the research purposes (Bryman, 2006; Greene *et al.*, 1989), the purpose of the mixed methods approach adopted in the current study is multi-fold – different types of research questions, multiple ways of sampling, multiple approaches to the NA study, to name just a few, with the intent of using the results of the quantitative method to develop and inform the qualitative method and to extend the breadth and range of inquiry for a more comprehensive understanding of the research phenomenon.

4.2.1 Mixed Methods Research

Mixed methods research was established in the late 1980s (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, 2003b). The actual terms used to denote a mixed methods study vary considerably with such terms as *methodological triangulation* (Morse, 1991), *multimethod designs and linking qualitative and quantitative data* (Miles & Huberman, 1994), *combining qualitative and quantitative research* (Creswell, 1994), *mixed model studies* (Datta, 1994), *mixed methodology* (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998), *multi-strategy* (Bryman, 2004), and *mixed methods research* (Greene *et al.*, 1989; Creswell, 1994; Creswell *et al.*, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003b). The central idea of these terms is the combining or integrating quantitative and qualitative perspectives, methodology and methods (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007).

Unlike quantitative and qualitative methods, with each taking postpositivist and constructivist worldviews respectively (Cherryholmes, 1992; Guba & Lincoln, 1994), mixed methods research takes a pragmatist worldview—the relativism paradigm (Patton, 2002; Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998), which emerged in the 1960s and gained in popularity in the 1990s. *Pragmatism* is mostly associated with mixed methods research, containing elements of both quantitative and

qualitative approaches. The pragmatic worldview takes a more comprehensive thinking of what works as truth, both deductively and inductively, rather than searching for metaphysical truths (Tashkkori & Teddlie, 1998). The focus of pragmatism are “on *shared meanings and joint actions*” (Morgan, 2007, p. 71, emphasized originally) and “on the consequences of research, on the question asked and on the multiple methods of data collection. The pragmatist paradigm is therefore “pluralistic and oriented towards “what works” and practice” (Creswell & Plano, 2007, p. 22). The stress on abduction, intersubjectivity and transferability in the mixed methods research has shed new light on research (Morgan, 2007).

In the process of conducting NA, there are “a number of unavoidable questions to which one must, in one way or another, find answers ... These questions with their possible answers are a prerequisite to all identification methodology” (Richterich, 1983b, p. 1). Moreover, the number of mixed-method studies has increased in recent years, a phenomenon reflected in the publications in language education and applied linguistics (Duff, 2007). The current study incorporates the quantitative study followed by the qualitative study as well as an embedded quantitative study, as presented in Figure 4.3.

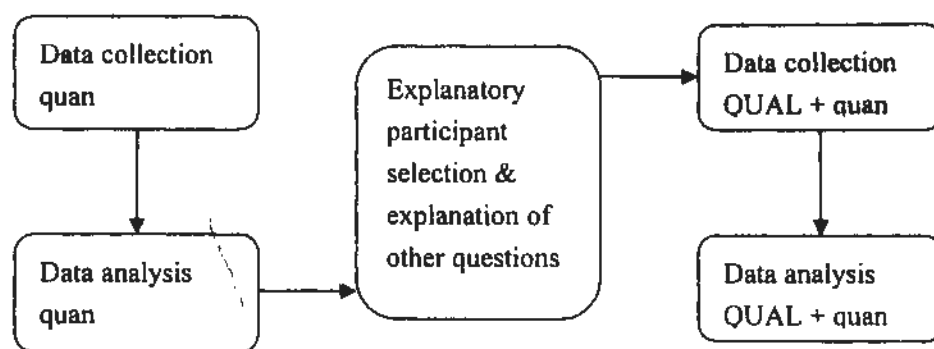


Figure 4.3 The two-phase research study

Figure 4.3 indicates that the quantitative study provided general information of the research participants and informed the student participant selection in the qualitative study. The adoption of mixed methods in the current study has brought together differing strengths of each approach and provided a complementary overview of the

research phenomena.

4.2.2 Research Design and Notation System

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003a) in the final chapter of the *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research* list nearly 40 different types of mixed methods designs found in the literature, with 12 classifications further summarized (Creswell *et al.*, 2003). Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) later extended the categorization with four major mixed methods designs: (1) triangulation design, (2) embedded design, (3) explanatory design, and (4) exploratory design, with variants within each type.

Among the four major mixed methods designs, *explanatory design* is the most straightforward. It is characterized by the collection and analysis of quantitative data followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data. The salient feature of the design is the sequential timing of the implementation of the different methods when the results from the first strand are used to elaborate, enhance, or illustrate the results from the second phase or to use quantitative participants' characteristics to guide purposive sampling for a qualitative phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Greene *et al.*, 1989; Kemper *et al.*, 2003). The basic sampling strategy in the current research design is stratified purposive sampling, with the qualitative phase using a subsample of the quantitative sample (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). The probability sample answered the quantitative research questions while the purposive sample answered the qualitative research questions.

The current study is an explanatory mixed methods design, expressed in the notation system or the visual model as 'quan→QUAL + quan' after Morse's (1991) notation system, which is now extensively used in the mixed methods literature (Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). In the current notation (quan→QUAL + quan), the arrow (→) indicates that the two methods occur in a sequence. The primary method is presented with uppercase letter (QUAL) and the secondary method with lowercase letters (quan), that is, generalization followed by in-depth description. The shorthand

“quan” and “QUAL” illustrates “quantitative” and “qualitative” methods respectively, as shown in Figure 4.4.

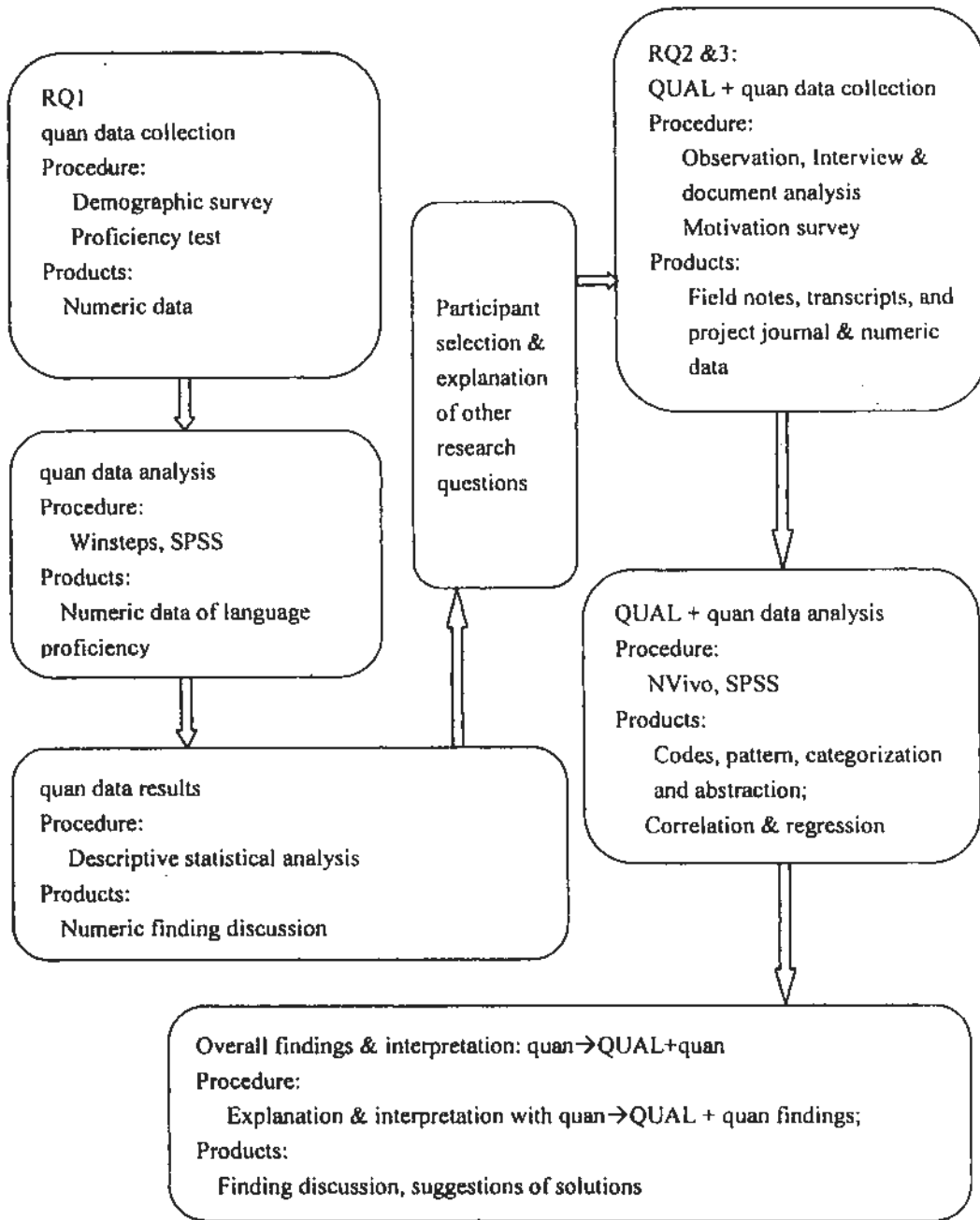


Figure 4.4 Visual diagram of the study

Figure 4.4 describes the procedures, methods and products and how the research questions were related in the process of the study.

In sum, the NA study started with the quantitative approach (the three boxes to the left side of the diagram) with the collection and analysis of numeric data, which further

informed the stratified random purposive participant selection for the follow-up, in-depth naturalistic inquiry. The central box demonstrates how the quantitative results were connected to the qualitative data collection. Qualitative data were used to supplement, explain and expand quantitative data gathered from the same cohort of participants and sites (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In the qualitative study, a multiple case study (the two boxes on the right side of the diagram) is conducted on a number of representative participants purposefully selected from the same cohort of participants in the quantitative study, with the collection and analysis of data in word text, along with the quantitative study of the relationships between motivational variables and language achievement. The naturalistic and experimental mode of inquiry explored such aspects as language competence discrepancies and the causes of these gaps through classroom observation, interviews, document analysis, and statistical analysis. The box at the bottom shows how the overall finding and interpretation were connected and summarized at the end of the mixed methods study. The visual diagram serves as a road map for the research study as a whole. Details of the mixed methods study are illustrated in the following sections.

4.2.3 Reporting the Findings

Since the current study has adopted a mixed methods, research findings were reported in different styles. The findings of the quantitative study was reported in a scientific objective style of academic writing while the qualitative study was presented in the form of descriptive narrative writing bound with rich, thick and detailed descriptions of each individual case, as Miles and Huberman (1994) state that narrative text has emerged as the most frequent form of display for qualitative data. A final summary was provided to mix the data interpretation from the mixed methods NA study since mixed methods approaches in this pluralistic era continue to increase in desirability (Caracelli & Greene, 1993).

In general, the intent of the sequential explanatory mixed methods study was to understand the language competence discrepancies in senior secondary VE in mainland China. The detailed research design of the mixed methods study is presented

in detail in the following sections.

4.2.4 The Quantitative Research Design

As illustrated above, the current study is an explanatory mixed methods research (written as quan→QUAL + quan), with the involvement of quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative research is “a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables can be measured typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analyzed using statistical procedures” (Creswell, 2009, p. 233). The quantitative study is indicated in Figure 4.5.

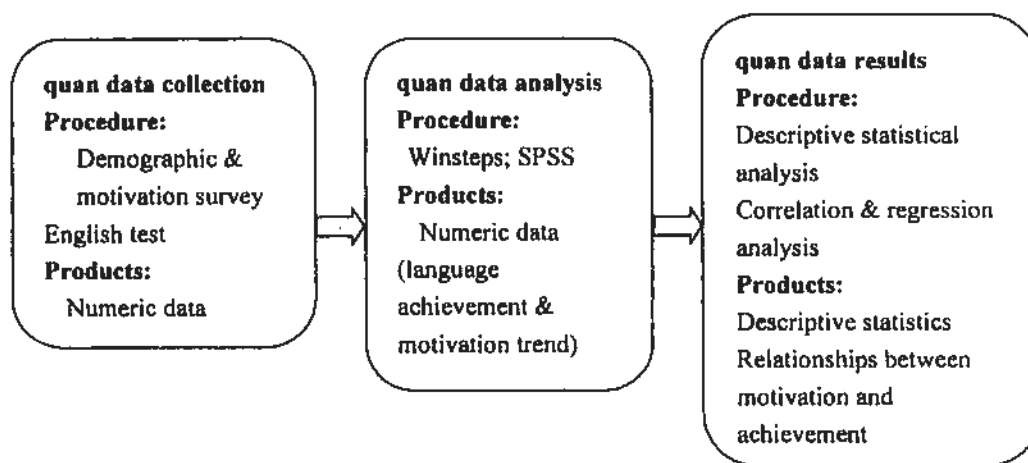


Figure 4.5 The quantitative research design

Figure 4.5 shows the visual diagram of the quantitative research, with two research instruments used—a demographic questionnaire and motivation survey (see Appendix D), and an English language test (see Appendix E). The data analysis results from the quantitative study can inform the purposive sampling in the qualitative study.

Comparatively, the quantitative study is of secondary importance in the research with an intention to investigate the learners’ general profile and whether there is a consistent relation between motivation and language achievement.

In this section, research participants selected in three different vocational senior secondary schools, research instruments adopted and the procedures used in data collection are described.

4.2.4.1 Sampling

The intended research site is located in a northern industrial city (addressed as city Y in the study), which is famous for its rich mineral resources, agriculture and heavy industry.

Soon after liberation in 1949, many factories were built in the city during the first five-year plan (1951-1956), making it one of the key industrial centers in China as well as a heavily polluted city. The prosperity of the city experienced a downturn in the 1980s and the early 1990s when heavy industry gradually declined in the area. The transition from a state-planned economy to a market economy forced many ill-managed plants in the city to lay off their workers.

The city, however, has regained its vitality in recent years due to the government's "Revitalize Northeast China" campaign and the rapid development of software and auto manufacturing industries. Many major industrial companies now have their headquarters in the city. The city now has a population of over 7 million. Its urban population is 4 million, making it one of the largest cities in northern China (Bureau of Development and Planning of the Ministry of Education, P. R. China, 2007). The city, as one of the representative cities of the revitalizing rust-belt industrial cities, has hence been chosen as the research site.

4.2.4.1.1 School Selection

VE, whose expansion and decline are strongly under the influence of the social and economic barometer, is on the increase, accompanying the current economic boom both in the area and in the whole nation. Currently, there exist in the city two types of vocational senior secondary schools—national key vocational senior secondary schools, and provincial key vocational senior secondary schools, which are selected for having met the different criteria concerning the adequacy and quality of facilities, and the number and qualifications of staff set by the MOE. School selection in the current study originally was made on the basis of the following criteria to fulfill the stratified random sampling purpose of the study, with the selection criteria shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Criteria for sampling selection

Types of school	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◇ Three types of vocational senior secondary schools (national/provincial/local) ◇ Urban setting ◇ Specialties covered (service/manufacturing sectors)
Class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◇ Stratified random selected English language classes ◇ Class type: Manufacturing- or Service-oriented sectors ◇ Year One students (enrolled in fall 2008) ◇ Academically heterogeneous grouping ◇ Three classes in each school (approximately N=150)
Curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◇ Adhering to the minimum curriculum instruction requirement (128-144 hours) designated in the new NVES by the MOE
Age	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◇ Approximately 16 years old upon finishing the nine-year compulsory education

Table 4.2 shows that school selection was one of the problems encountered when starting research in the field. All of the nine vocational senior secondary schools affiliated directly to the municipal educational bureau have now become national key schools due to the mega-school expansion movement, with schools of similar specialties merged into the national key ones affiliated with the municipal educational bureau. The municipal government provides funds and land for the construction of new school sites, which are all located in the surrounding suburbs with a spacious environment. Student enrollment in each mega-school is over 6,000 each year. Among the nine schools, six are mega-schools under construction. The other three schools are those with their own distinctive specialties although they are relatively smaller in size and the student number.

Taking language requirements into consideration, almost all the schools could meet the minimum curriculum instructional requirements, with four hours of English a week provided in the first semester in Year One in the first school semester of 2008.

The English teaching hours, however, was reduced to two hours a week in most vocational schools in the second semester, due to the curriculum set-up of more vocation-related programs. Of all the nine schools, only three vocational schools could meet the minimum curriculum instruction requirements for English teaching of at least 128 hours per year. The other national key schools failed to meet the minimum requirement stated in the new NVES (MOE, 2009b).

School selection was finalized with three key vocational senior secondary schools through a stratified random sampling approach. One provincial key school and two national as well as provincial key schools were selected, coded as School A, School B, and School C in the current study, with their types and features shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 School features and types

Schools	Features	Types
A	Service-sector oriented	A national & provincial key school
B	Manufacturing-sector oriented	A national & provincial key school
C	Service-sector oriented	A provincial key school

Table 4.3 indicates that School C is a provincial key school. In terms of specialty, two specialty categories – manufacturing- and service-sector oriented specialties – were selected, with regard to the local industry and economy and in line with the chief specialty classification in the new NVES (MOE, 2009b). The selection of the two types of schools (i.e., national key and provincial key) are therefore representative of formal vocational senior secondary schools. School B is one of the top mega-schools, with a strong manufacturing-sector orientation although there are also some service specialties in the school. School B is considered an example of mega-schools with modern facilities and newly constructed buildings. The other two schools – School A and School C – are smaller both in size and student number.

School selection was approached with the help of the provincial English subject inspector (coded as Ms J in the research) and the English inspector of city Y (coded as Ms Y in the research) to gain access to the three schools. Arrangements were made to

outline the study with the school administration, the English teachers, and students during the researcher's school visit.

4.2.4.1.2 Participants

In quantitative research, the intent of sampling individuals is to “choose individuals that are representative of a population so that the results can be generalized to a population” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 112). In the current study, sampling using multiple probability techniques, the combination of random sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling, have been adopted. According to Teddlie and Yu (2007, p. 201), random sampling occurs when each sampling unit in a clearly defined population has an equal chance of being included or selected; stratified sampling occurs when the population is divided into subgroups or strata with selection units from those strata; and cluster sampling occurs when the sampling unit is not an individual but a group or cluster forming naturally in the population such as in schools or classrooms. The probability sampling can lead to greater breadth of information from a large number of representative population (Patton, 2002).

In conducting sampling selection in the three schools, learners from three vocational senior secondary schools were first stratified according to their specialties—manufacturing- and service-sector oriented specialties. Random samples were then selected within each stratum of specialty, with an expectation that a proportional number of participants on the stratification characteristic could be selected and represented in the final data collection. A total of 707 participants at three vocational schools in city Y participated in the quantitative phase of the study, with the details listed in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Number of participants in the three selected schools

School	Participants (N=707)
School A	N=289
School B	N=234
School C	N=184

Table 4.4 shows that School A has the largest number of participants, which was due to the support and cooperation from the school administration and teaching staff. All the participants were first year students, enrolled in September, 2008. General English, along with Chinese and mathematics, is taught to students in their first year study with a minimum requirement of 128-144 hours according to the newly issued new NVES. Since all vocational schools presently have the right to enroll students from around mainland China, students in each type of school exhibit variety and diversity, being not only local students but also students from nearby and faraway places in the rural areas, with consequently a wide range of English language competences. The demographic information was investigated through the questionnaires, and were verified with interview data. Formal data collection was conducted in early April 2009.

4.2.4.2 Instruments

Two types of research instruments were utilized for the quantitative survey research, namely, a motivation survey and a specially-designed language ability test (Zhao & Coniam, 2009), along with learners' demographic information. Although the data analysis of the motivation survey and the relationships between motivational determinants and language achievement was dealt with in the qualitative study as an embedded quantitative study, these instruments are outlined in this section.

4.2.4.2.1 The Questionnaire

Along with the language ability test, a cross-sectional motivational questionnaire survey was conducted. The survey involves "getting reactions to questions or other stimuli from a representative sample of a target group, to which the researcher expects to generalize" (Krathwohl, 1998, p. 352). The advantages for the adoption of the ready-made survey research are the reliability and validity of its constructs, and the rapid turnaround in data collection (Creswell, 2009; Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009).

The questionnaire consists of two sections (see Appendix D), with information presented in Chinese for the purpose of clarity. Section One focuses on basic

demographic information and explanatory factors, such as name, gender, age, specialty, language learning history, socioeconomic status of learners, the weekly hours spent on learning English outside class, to name but a few, aiming at understanding the general information of the participants. Section Two of the questionnaire intends to investigate learners' motivational factors, and the relationships between motivational determinants and language achievement, with the adoption of Gardner's socio-educational model.

The Socio-Educational Model of Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

Over the past forty years, extensive empirical studies have been conducted, investigating the relationship between motivation variables and L2 achievement, using different measures of motivation on the basis of such models as Gardner's socio-educational model—the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993), Noels's (2001a) adaption of Deci and Ryan's (1985; 2002) self-determination theory, Clément's (1980) social-contextual model, and Dörnyei's (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005) process model of L2 motivation. While the studies are different in their conceptualizations of motivation (e.g., Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1980; Clément & Kruidenier, 1983; Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft, & Evers, 1987; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993), all studies reported relationships between motivation and L2 achievement. The concept of language learning motivation has become a central component of a number of theories of L2 acquisition (e.g., Clément, 1980; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2003; Gardner, 1985; Gardner *et al.*, 1997; Krashen, 1981, 1982; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Spolsky, 1985, 1989; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

While there have been other models, many of the research studies, however, have been built on Gardner's (1985) Socio-educational Model of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). The modern AMTB (Gardner, 2001, p. 5) has evolved from a number of changes over four decades (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Macintyre, 1993, Gardner, 2000), with the model shown in Figure 4.6.

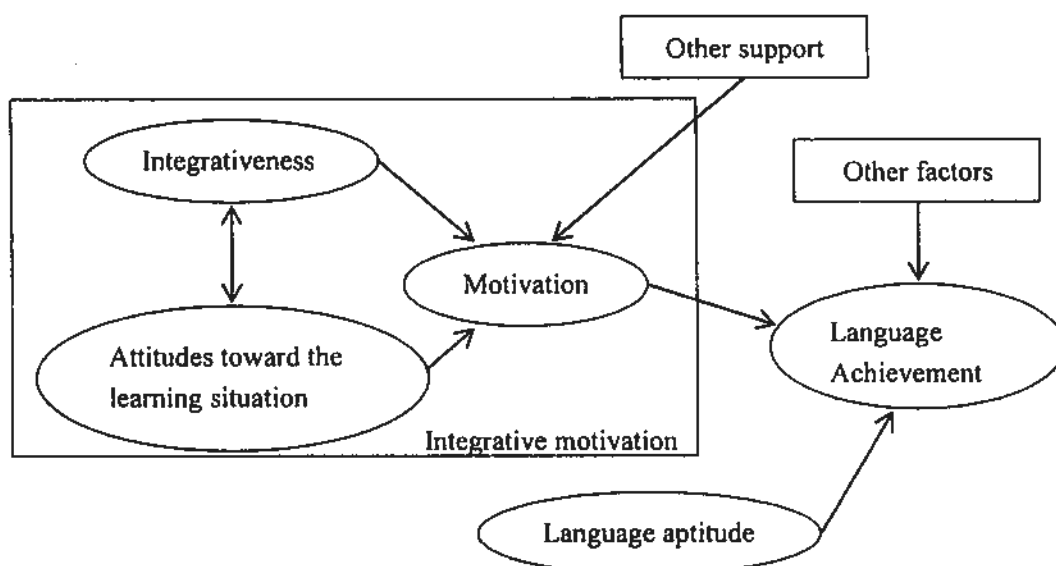


Figure 4.6 Gardner's AMTB

The AMTB includes 130 items, measuring all kinds of factors that affect Gardner's definition of motivation. The primary objective of the model is to account for individual differences in the motivation to learn a second language. The term *motivation* is defined by Gardner as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language" (1985, p. 10). Gardner's definition consists of four components: (1) a goal, (2) a desire to attain the goal, (3) positive attitudes towards learning the language, and (4) efforts to achieve the effect. Motivation is hence a complex set of variables with the effort or energy expended in acquiring the language as well as the reason for learning the foreign/second language, which serves as a goal to orient the effort. Two goals or orientations have so far received the most empirical attention: *instrumental orientation* and *integrative orientation* (Noels, 2001a & b).

Instrumental orientation refers to reasons for language learning for practical purposes, such as getting a job or a higher salary, while *integrative orientation* refers to reasons related to interaction and communication with the target language community. The two orientations, namely, integrative and instrumental orientations (see Gardner 1985; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994) are not parallel sets of constructs of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Gardner argues that both integrative and instrumental orientations are

extrinsic in that language is learned in order to satisfy some desirable goals.

Moreover, Gardner considers motivation for foreign language learning to be different from motivation for other school subjects as “any other subject, such as mathematics, science, or history, involves the development of knowledge or skills which are a part of the heritage of the students’ cultural community; a second language, on the other hand, is a salient characteristic of another culture. As a consequence, the relative degree of success will be influenced to some extent by the individual’s attitudes towards the other community or to other communities in general as well as by the belief in the community which are relevant to the language learning process” (1985, p. 146).

Figure 4.6 shows that there are two classes of variables. *Integrativeness* and *Attitudes towards the learning situation* are two correlated variables that influence *Motivation*, and that *Motivation* and *Language aptitude* exert an influence on *Language achievement*, together with *Other factors* not directly associated with *Integrative motivation*. These *Other factors* could be language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990), language anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989), and self-confidence with the language (Clément, 1980). The figure also indicates that the three variables, *Integrativeness*, *Attitudes towards the learning situation*, as well as *Motivation*, form *Integrative motivation*. The effect of *Integrativeness* and *Attitudes towards the learning situation* is indirect, acting through *Motivation* (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). *Integrative motivation* is hence a complex of attitudinal, goal-directed, and motivational attributes, which have been the most developed and researched facet of Gardner’s (1985) motivation theory (Dörnyei, 2003).

The AMTB, originally used in Canada for students learning French as a second language, consists of 11 subtests, with variables grouped into five categories: (1) *Integrativeness*, (2) *Attitudes towards the learning situation*, (3) *Motivation*, (4) *Language anxiety*, and (5) *Other attributes*. The first three variables are indicated in the model (see Figure 4.6), although the latter two variables not. Masgoret and Gardner (2003) conducted a meta-analysis of 75 independent samples involving

10,489 participants to examine the correlations between achievement and motivation. The constructs and scales, the number of items, and the relevant mean Cronbach's alpha coefficients are provided in Table 4.5 (Adapted from Gardner, 2001, p. 9).

Table 4.5 Constructs, scales and number of items from the AMTB

Constructs	Scales and number of items	Mean reliability
Integrativeness		0.90
	Integrative orientation (4 positively keyed items)	0.79
	Interest in foreign languages (10 items)	0.83
	Attitudes towards French Canadians (10 items)	0.85
Attitudes towards the learning situation		0.93
	Evaluation of the French teacher (10 items)	0.91
	Evaluation of the French course (10 items)	0.93
Motivation		0.92
	Motivation intensity (10 items)	0.80
	Desire to learn French (10 items)	0.84
	Attitudes towards learning French (10 items)	0.91
Orientations		
	Instrumental orientation (4 positively-keyed items)	0.57
	Integrative orientation	0.79
Language anxiety		
	French class anxiety (10 items)	
	French use anxiety (10 items)	

Amid the 11 subtests, nine have been designed to measure attitudinal and motivational variables. Eight of the subtests have been designed to measure three primary concepts in the socio-educational model: *Motivation*, *Integrativeness*, and *Attitudes towards the learning situation*. Two additional constructs – *Instrumental orientation* and *Language anxiety*—have been included in the AMTB given the context of the study and the research questions being investigated. Research investigating the role of attitudes

and motivation in second language learning has reported consistent relationships between motivation and L2 achievement (Gardner, 2001; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008).

The AMTB has demonstrated a high level of reliability and validity in numerous investigations (e.g., Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003), although it usually imposes a bit more on students' time. In the current study, the mini-AMTB (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) is adopted rather than the original AMTB to reduce administration time while maintaining the basic conceptual structure of the full version.

The Mini-AMTB Test Battery

The mini-AMTB consists of 12 items with one item corresponding to each scale on the AMTB. Rather than treating the scales individually, attention is focused on the major attributes in the socio-educational model by aggregating the item scales.

The original mini-AMTB (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) has 12 items on a 7-point rating scale ranging mostly from a positive to negative option (see Table 4.6), with positively and negatively worded items to gauge participants' attitudes, motivation, and language anxiety in terms of individual differences from social and psychological perspectives (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008, p. 401). In the original mini-AMTB, the first four measures all range from a negative to positive option in ascending order while measures 5 and 6 range in the opposite order, from a positive to negative option in descending order. The rest of the items range from a negative to positive option. In the current study, the options were rearranged with all measurements ranging from a positive to negative option in descending order of importance, with the exception of items 8 and 10, which are negative in nature. The rearranged mini-AMTB is presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 The re-arranged Mini-AMTB

1. My motivation to learn English in order to interact with English speaking people is (我学习英语的动机是想同讲英语的人进行交流): STRONG (强) <u>1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7</u> WEAK (弱)
2. My attitude towards English speaking people is (我对讲英语的人的态度): FAVORABLE (友好) <u>1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7</u> UNFAVORABLE (不友好)
3. My interest in English is (我对英语的兴趣): VERY HIGH (非常高) <u>1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7</u> VERY LOW (非常低)
4. My desire to learn English is (我学习英语的愿望): STRONG (强) <u>1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7</u> WEAK (弱)
5. My attitude towards learning English is (我对学习英语所持的态度): FAVORABLE (积极) <u>1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7</u> UNFAVORABLE (消极)
6. My attitude towards my English teacher is (我对英语老师的态度): FAVORABLE (友好) <u>1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7</u> UNFAVORABLE (不友好)
7. My motivation to learn English for practical purposes (e.g., to get a good job) is (我学习英语是出于实用的目的(例如:找份好工作)): STRONG (强) <u>1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7</u> WEAK (弱)
8. I worry about speaking English outside of class (我对在课外讲英语有顾虑): VERY MUCH (非常大) <u>1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7</u> VERY LITTLE (非常小)
9. My attitude towards my English course is (我对英语这门课的态度): FAVORABLE (积极) <u>1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7</u> UNFAVORABLE (消极)
10. I worry about speaking in my English class (我对在英语课上讲英语有顾虑): VERY MUCH (非常大) <u>1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7</u> VERY LITTLE (非常小)
11. My motivation to learn English is (我学习英语的动机): VERY HIGH (非常高) <u>1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7</u> VERY LOW (非常低)
12. My parents encourage me to learn English (我父母鼓励我学习英语): VERY MUCH (非常大) <u>1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7</u> VERY LITTLE (非常小)

Table 4.6 shows that the measures in the re-arranged mini-AMTB are randomly listed according to the 11 subtests that are often aggregated to form higher order constructs in the full version of the AMTB, with item 12 as an extra in the mini-AMTB. Descriptions of the corresponding item from each scale are listed below under the six headings: (1) Integrativeness, (2) Attitudes towards the learning situation, (3) Motivation, (4) Instrumental orientation, (5) Language anxiety, and (6) Other

attributes.

1. *Integrativeness*

This is one of the two classes of attitude in Gardner's socioeducational model. It refers to an openness on the part of individuals to identify with the L2 language community, with a general positive outlook on L2 and its culture. Individuals willing to identify with the L2 group are more motivated to learn L2 than those who are not. The construct measures the degree to which an individual's willingness and interest in social interaction with L2 speaking people. This aggregate class of attitude consists of the following three items in the current study:

(a) Integrative orientation. This item (Q1: My motivation to learn English in order to interact with English speaking people is 我学习英语的动机是想同讲英语的人进行交流) assesses the extent to which participants seek to learn English for integrative reasons to interact, communicate, and socialize with English speakers. A low score indicates favorable and open attitudes towards the English language community.

(b) Interest in English language. This item (Q3: My interest in English is 我对英语的兴趣) measures an individual's interest in and openness for foreign languages. In the Chinese VE context, both the English language and the foreign language refer to the same concept—English. The *foreign language* in the original item was therefore changed into *English*. A low score represents an interest in learning and using English language.

(c) Attitudes towards English speakers. This item (Q2: My attitude towards English speaking people is 我对讲英语的人的态度) measures an individual's attitude towards English speaking people. The item originally tested *Attitudes towards the Target Language Group*. In China, since English is both the target and the foreign language, the item was changed into *Attitude towards English speaking people*. A low score represents a favorable attitude towards speakers from English speaking countries whereas a high score indicates unfavorable attitudes towards the English language community.

2. Attitudes towards the learning situation

Like integrativeness, this is the other class of attitudes. It refers to an individual's reaction to anything related to the immediate context in which English is taught. Two items are incorporated to assess participants' reaction to formal instruction at school. Research has indicated that there exist differences in attitudes among classes because of the nature of the particular classroom environment (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & Smythe, 1981).

(a) English teacher evaluation. This item (Q6: My attitude towards my English teacher is 我对英语老师的态度) measures an individual's attitude towards the English teacher. A low score indicates a favorable attitude towards the English teacher.

(b) English course evaluation. This item (Q9: My attitude towards my English course is 我对英语这门课的态度) measures an individual's attitude towards English courses delivered at school. A low score indicates a positive evaluation towards English courses. Although there might be other features "such as evaluation of the text and associated learning materials and evaluation of the teaching environment and classmates" (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003, p. 127), it was considered in Gardner's socio-educational model that the evaluation of both the teacher and the course could capture important variations in attitudes towards the learning situation.

3. Motivation

Motivation refers to goal-directed behavior, with a set of complex variables, such as behaviors, feelings, cognitions, directed towards a number of features of an individual. Motivation is essentially composed of the following three items, indicating an individual's attitudes, desire, and effort to learn English.

(a) Motivational intensity. This item (Q11: My motivation to learn English is 我学习英语的动机) assesses the amount of effort an individual spends on English learning. A low score represents considerable effort put into English learning.

(b) Desire to learn English. This item (Q4: My desire to learn English is 我学习英语

的愿望) assesses the degree to which an individual wants to learn English to achieve a high level of English language competences. A low score reflects a strong desire to learn English.

(c) Attitudes towards learning English. This item (Q5: My attitude towards learning English is 我对学习英语所持的态度) assesses an individual's affect experienced while learning the target language—English in this case. A low score on this item represents a positive attitude towards learning English.

4. Instrumental orientation

Like *Integrative motivation*, this is the other class of reasons for language learning. It refers to the perceived pragmatic benefits of English language ability without any intention in socializing with the language community. This item (Q7: My motivation to learn English for practical purposes (e.g., to get a good job) is 我学习英语是出于实用目的 (例如: 找份好工作)) assesses the degree to which an individual wants to learn English for pragmatic reasons in relation to the potential pragmatic gains of English ability, e.g., getting a better job or a higher salary.

5. Language anxiety

This measures an individual's apprehension experienced in English classes or in situations where English is used. The construct includes the following two items.

(a) English class anxiety. This item (Q10: I worry about speaking in my English class (我对在英语课上讲英语有顾虑)) assesses an individual's level of apprehension when called upon to use English during the English activities. A low score reflects a high level of apprehension when called upon to use English in the English classroom.

(b) English Use Anxiety. This item (Q8: I worry about speaking English outside class (我对在课外讲英语有顾虑)) assesses feelings of concern when faced with speaking English outside of class. A low score reflects a considerable level of apprehension when called upon to use English outside the classroom.

6. Other attributes

This measures variables not included in the original AMTB. The mini-AMTB incorporates just one item – family members (e.g., parent encouragement) (Gardner, Masgoret, & Tremblay, 1999).

Parent encouragement. This item (Q12: My parents encourage me to learn English (我父母鼓励我学习英语)) is an additional variable, which assesses the degree to which individuals are encouraged by their parents to learn English. A low score represents a high level of support or encouragement from the family towards an individual's English learning.

The mini-AMTB has been used in many research studies with good reliability and validity (cf. Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Masgoret *et al.*, 2001). According to Masgoret and associates (2001), Tennant and Gardner in 1999 assessed the construct validity of the mini-AMTB by comparing the relationships among the aggregated measures of *Motivation*, *Integrativeness*, and *Attitudes towards the learning situation* to those found in studies using full AMTB. Their research proved the construct validity and provided support for the reliability of the aggregate measures in their study by reporting relatively high test-retest correlations ranging from .75 for *Integrativeness* to .89 for *Motivation*, and .83 and .85 for *Attitude towards the learning situation* and *Anxiety*, respectively.

In China, although the full AMTB has been adopted in language research in tertiary VE (e.g., Zhang, 2004; Shen, 2006), relatively little research has been conducted in senior secondary VE to examine the relationships among *Attitudes*, *Motivation*, *Anxiety* and *Language achievement* using the mini-AMTB. Most research has been conducted with self-developed questionnaires or revised questionnaires, the reliability and validity of which are a debatable issue.

To safe guard the validity of the questionnaire, the original English version and the translated Chinese version were both presented to participants for clarity's sake. The questionnaire was then sent to the provincial and municipal English inspectors and school teachers to check its clarity. The questionnaire was then piloted with about 25

students in School A to see if they had any difficulties in understanding the questionnaire. Eight follow-up student interviews were also conducted to see if any of the items gave rise to misunderstanding.

4.2.4.2.2 Language Achievement Measurement

Most VE schools in China produce their own tests for students after completing one year general VE module (128-144 hours), with no common measure to assess students' language achievement in China's VE schools. The learners' language achievement of different grades within the same school and across schools are difficult to compare and evaluate. A calibrated three-year language ability test, which can provide an initial baseline comparison measure for lexico-grammar knowledge and reading skill, has been specially developed to cater for the different levels of students (Zhao & Coniam, 2009) since they are commonly tested in mainland vocational language ability tests. While tests were developed for low ability, mid ability and high ability learners, the mid-ability test with 45 test items was adopted to measure learners' general language achievement since it was anticipated this would cover a wider spectrum of ability.

Test Development

Test development was initiated in the summer of 2005. With the help of the provincial and municipal inspectors, more than 20 English language VE tests – assessing various reading skills, usage and lexico-grammatical elements – administered to VE learners on entry to vocational senior secondary schools in the summer that year were first collected from a range of provinces across China (e.g., Hebei, Hubei, Jiangsu, Jiangxi, Liaoning, Shandong and Zhejiang). The main constructs assessed in the tests are listed in Table 4.7.

From the collected tests, two 50-item trial tests with a number of common items were developed and piloted on a sample of approximately 200 test takers in each of the two average ability VE schools (N=400) in city Y. The test types exemplified typical multiple-choice and matching dialogue item tests involving a meaningful context as

far as possible (e.g., reading passages, situational dialogues, etc.). Discrete-point items have been incorporated, although their inclusion is kept to a minimum.

Table 4.7 Constructs assessed in VE English language tests

Skill area	Details
Reading skills	Reading for gist, identifying main ideas
Areas of discourse	Situational dialogues
Areas of grammar	Tenses, aspects
Areas of vocabulary	Pronouns, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, verbs, adjectives, articles, nouns, conjunctions, and phrasal verbs

Classical Measurement Theory (CMT) item analysis was performed on these two trial tests, with the 60-item Test 1 emerging. The 60-item test was then piloted on a sample of test takers (N=690) in ten vocational schools of different academic abilities (a mix of coastal schools and inland schools) in two provinces—Shandong Province and Hubei Province.

Following the statistical analysis of Test 1, an extended test – Test 2 – with three scales was subsequently developed to provide items for learners of low ability, mid-ability and high ability. This new set of tests incorporated anchor items from Test 1 along with new test materials. Each test was piloted on a sample of approximately 10 classes (N=500) of VE students at differing levels of ability in Hangzhou, Zhejiang province. The three linked tests in Test 2 therefore provided a snapshot of student ability or language competences in terms of reading skill, grammatical and vocabulary knowledge in mainland vocational senior secondary schools.

Statistics Used in the Analysis of Language Ability Tests

CMT and Rasch measurement procedures were used in the data analyses of the three tests—the trial test, Test 1 and Test 2. The major statistics in CMT which define quality in tests and test items are: the *test mean*, *reliability*, *item facility* and *discrimination* (Falvey, Holbrook & Coniam, 1994; Gronlund, 1985). A detailed discussion of test mean, reliability, item facility and discrimination of the three tests may refer to Zhao

and Coniam (2009).

In CMT, test results cannot really be directly compared one with another. Item response theory (IRT) offers a family of measurement or scaling models, developed from probability theory and used mainly to determine the difficulty of individual test items in an item bank. The Rasch model named after Rasch (Carroll, 1993), is parameter, which creates a measurement framework by using a matrix data collection design, or a series of overlapping test forms linked together by items which are common to adjacent anchor items. The anchor items enable the relative difficulty of the areas of use and scales to be established. Rasch analysis, moreover, can provide sample-free, scale-free measurement with constant scale values for future groups. Consequently, results can be compared and interpreted with a more general meaning. An important concept in Rasch is that of model fit, with 'fit' essentially being the difference between expected and observed scores. In the measurement development, 'perfect fit' is defined as 1.0; acceptable practical limits of fit are stated as 0.5 for the lower limit and 1.5 for the upper limit (Zhao & Coniam, 2009).

Test Results and the Selection of the Measurement Instrument

In Rasch, test items are analyzed to be used as anchor items. They were then calibrated using the one-parameter Rasch model, using the one-parameter IRT model with the *Winsteps* computer program (Linacre, 2006). Test 2 consisted of three tests with linking anchor items. The mean for the less demanding Test 2a was -0.58 logits, with a standard deviation of 0.56. The mean for the mid ability Test 2b was +0.01 logits, with a standard deviation of 0.52. The mean for the more demanding Test 2c was +0.99 logits, with a standard deviation of 0.85. In general, the three tests can be considered a valid instrument for testing vocational school students' language ability or competence. Due to practical considerations of administration and other practical constraints, the current study adopted the mid ability test as the measurement instrument because the analysis indicated that the three tests all demonstrate good reliability and validity.

4.2.4.3 Data Collection

The questionnaire survey and the language test were arranged to be tested after regular class time. Participants were informed both in oral or written form before the survey and testing session that their responses and answers would be kept confidential and that their questionnaires and test answer sheets would be seen only by the researcher for the sole purpose of research. Moreover, participants for the next phase would be purposively selected from the same cohort of the population. The names of students were requested so that the materials from all the sessions could be matched. Their names, however, were removed and replaced by numeric codes later before data analysis. All questionnaires were subsequently coded and all identifying personal information kept confidential, with nobody from the school other than the researcher allowed access to the data.

The study was conducted in the following manner. First, the two measurement instruments were distributed to each student in the selected testing classes from service- or manufacturing-oriented specialties. Second, students were asked to read the first page of the motivation questionnaire, informing them of the research purposes and confidential issues. Third, students were given 15 minutes to complete the two-part motivation survey, the demographic information and the mini-AMTB.

Following this, participants took the English test, which was conducted concurrently in Year-1 classes of each selected school and lasted 60 minutes. The teacher of each class was asked to help oversee the procedure. Erasers and 2-B pencils were prepared in advance, and students were thanked for their participation and cooperation. The whole procedure, answering the demographic information, the motivation survey and the language test, lasted around 75 minutes.

As indicated in the visual diagram of the research design (see 4.2.2), two instruments were utilized in processing the quantitative data – the *Winsteps* computer program to present the numerical data from the language test and SPSS (the Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for data computing, such as descriptive data analysis and

correlation and regression analysis. Correlations between the 12 variables and the language test were computed to examine the interrelations between motivational variables and language achievement. Multiple regression analyses were used to determine the relations between the motivational variables and language learning achievement, an indicator of learners' language competences. The pattern of correlations among the mini-AMTB measures and their correlation with the language achievement enabled the researcher to examine the relations in formal classroom situations in the vocational senior secondary education context. The computed data analysis indicates to what extent students' language abilities or competences differed and how language ability was related to motivational determinants in answer to the first and third research questions and sub-questions:

RQ 1: What is learners' general profile in formal senior secondary vocational education?

RQ 1.1. What is learners' general demographic information?

RQ 1.2. What are learners' general English ability levels?

RQ3.1 What are learners' general motivational determinants?

RQ3.2 What is the relationship between motivation and language achievement?

RQ3.3 To what extent do attitude/motivational variables contribute to the discrepancies?

RQ3.4 What other factors underlie the current discrepancies?

The quantitative study also provided a general picture of learners' demographic information and language competences (i.e., their current language achievement) and further their relation with the motivational determinants in the formal vocational education system. The findings obtained from the quantitative study enabled the researcher to select representative participants from the same cohort of student participants for the qualitative study, so that a more detailed understanding and interpretation of the natural phenomena can be achieved through the qualitative inquiry.

4.2.4.4 Summary

In summary, this section has discussed the research design of the quantitative study, with regard to such research factors as sampling, instruments and the process of data collection. The relationship between research questions and the adopted methods is summarized in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Quantitative research questions and research design

Research questions & sub-questions	Sampling	Instruments
RQ 1: What is learners' general profile in formal senior secondary vocational education?	N=707 School A=289 School B=234 School C=184	Demographic information survey Mid-ability test Winstep SPSS
RQ 1.1. What is learners' general demographic information?		Demographic information survey
RQ 1.2. What are learners' general English ability levels?		Mid-ability test Winstep
RQ3.1 What are learners' general motivational determinants?		Re-arranged Mini-AMTB SPSS
RQ3.2 What is the relationship between motivation and language achievement?		SPSS
RQ3.3 To what extent do attitude/motivational variables contribute to the discrepancies?		SPSS + QUAL
RQ3.4 What other factors underlie the current discrepancies?		SPSS + QUAL

Table 4.8 indicates that in total 707 participants from three selected schools were involved in the current study, with two schools being service-sector oriented and one manufacturing-sector oriented. In view of research instruments for data collection and

data analysis, three instruments—the demographic information survey, the re-arranged Mini-AMTB and the mid-ability language test—were adopted for data collection. The statistical software—Winstep and SPSS—were used for data processing and analysis. Following the data analysis of the quantitative study, representative participants were selected from among the participating subjects for the succeeding qualitative study.

4.2.5 The Qualitative Research Design

The qualitative research, rooted in cultural anthropology and American sociology since the 1960s (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006), involves emerging questions and procedures, collecting “soft” data in a participant setting, analyzing the data deductively, building themes from particular to general, and making interpretations of the meaning of the data through sustained contact with participants (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006; Creswell, 2007, 2008, 2009). Unlike the quantitative study which has provided a rough picture of learners’ social and educational profile, qualitative research is descriptive and interpretative. It is largely an investigative process where the researcher gradually makes sense of a social phenomenon by contrasting, comparing, replicating, cataloguing and classifying the object of study rather than with outcomes or products (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In terms of data analysis, qualitative researchers tend to analyze their data inductively with meaning of essential concern. The intent of qualitative research is to understand a particular situation, event, role, group, or interaction (Locke, Spirduso, & Silverman, 2000).

The aim of the qualitative inquiry is to identify representative student participants and conduct an in-depth inquiry of the research questions in terms of the needs discrepancies between the current and target situations, explore the possible reasons between the gaps and propose possible solutions. The reason for the selection of the qualitative method in the current study was that such an approach is more suited to answering questions “when a ‘how’ or ‘why’ question is being asked about a contemporary set of events, over which the investigator has little or no control” (Yin, 2003a, p. 9; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Yin, 2003a & b). The research questions posed in the current study attempt not only to describe the situation but also to explain and

understand the causes underlying the observed phenomena. The research design is shown in Figure 4.7.

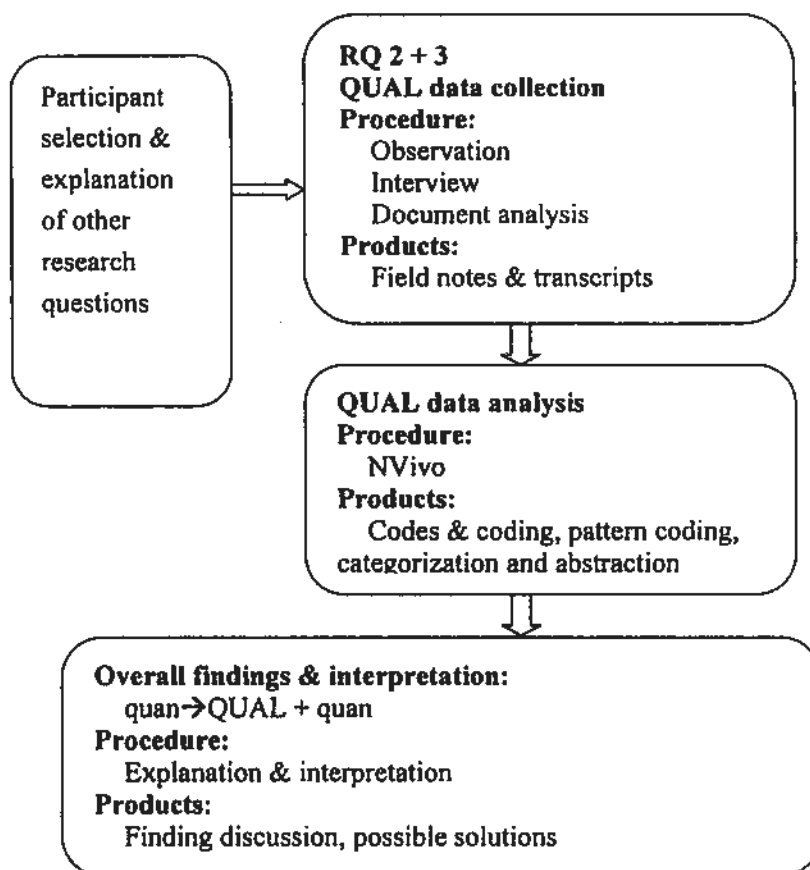


Figure 4.7 The qualitative research design

Figure 4.7 depicts the visual diagram of the explanatory qualitative research design, demonstrating such information as the participant selection, data collection and data analysis. The qualitative design intends to answer RQ 2 and part of RQ 3, involving multiple sources and multiple methods. Following the qualitative data analysis, there will be an overall finding explanation and interpretation of the mixed methods study.

A case study approach is a detailed examination of a setting, a single subject, a single depository of documents, or a particular event (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2003a &b, 2005b) within a “bounded system” (Stake, 2005, p. 444), with multiple sources of data and multiple data collection methods likely to be used in a naturalistic setting (Punch, 2006). Moreover, as Stake (2005) states, a “case study is not a methodological choice but a choice of what is to be

studied” (p. 443) while other researchers consider a case study approach to be a strategy of inquiry, a methodology, or a comprehensive strategy for research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Yin, 2003a, 2005a & b). The case study approach in the current study is viewed as a research methodology with individuals in each school constituting a purposive selected case. Since a qualitative phase of research study adopts a naturalistic way of inquiry, the research is conducted in real-life situation. The wholeness, unity and integrity of events in each school have hence been preserved “within its real-life context” (Yin, 2003a, p. 23).

Regarding research types, Stake (2005) identifies three types of case study: (1) *intrinsic*, (2) *instrumental* and (3) *collective* (pp. 445-446). The current study is a collective or multiple case study, with three schools representing three specific cases. In order to get a synergistic view of each individual case, multiple sources of data (e.g. students, teachers, and graduate students) and multiple data collection methods (e.g. classroom observation, follow-up interview, and document analysis) are used in each case. The *collective* case study or *multiple* case study is adopted in the current study because the *instrumental* case study is extended to cover several cases, to learn more about the phenomenon, population or general condition.

Since the aim of the research at this stage is not to get a more comprehensive understanding of cause-effect relationships in terms of language competences in senior secondary VE, the qualitative study is an explanatory multiple case study, with the inclusion of descriptive case studies (Yin, 2003a).

4.2.5.1 Researcher's Role

In qualitative research, the researcher plays the primary role of data collection. It is quite likely that the researcher may bring personal assumptions, feelings and biases to the study (LeCompte, 1993, 1999), which affect the research study. It is therefore essential to state these at the beginning of the study. In terms of the presence of the researcher in qualitative research, there has been a shift of pronouns from the less personal “we” or “the researcher” to the familiar “I” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006). On this

basis, the first person “I” will be used on behalf of the researcher in the qualitative study while the third person “the researcher” will be used in reporting the quantitative data.

My perceptions of students’ language competences in senior secondary VE in mainland China have been shaped due to my previous personal experiences. My first contact with VE started in 2002 on a teacher training workshop in Zhejiang. It was the first time for me, a university English teacher, to encounter both vocational senior secondary school teachers as well as students. The students’ language competences, the teachers’ knowledge and skills exhibited, and teachers’ account of their teaching problems triggered my enthusiasm for vocational English education. Over the years, my involvement with VE has led me from being a peripheral observer to a more active participant. Since 2005, I have worked as a curriculum committee member for the revision of the NVES (National Vocational English Syllabus) for senior secondary VE. This working experience has broadened my contact with various vocational staff from officials of the Ministry of Education, provincial and municipal inspectors, to vocational school principals and teachers. The experiences have substantively enriched my knowledge and understanding of VE. When conducting the research, I have possessed some knowledge of vocational English curriculum and some understanding of learners’ language competences as well as learners’ learning motivation.

Because of my previous contacts and experiences; however, I might bring certain biases to my qualitative study, and the “border crossing” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006, p. 93) from university culture to VE culture might raise certain problems. To guard against any such biases, detailed extensive field-notes taken on and off the sites helped me reflect on my subjectivity as a researcher and the role performed in the research process. Furthermore, every effort have been made to ensure objectivity during the whole process of the study although these biases might shape the way of data collection and data interpretation. The perspective that the researcher brought to the study was that discrepancies existed between the expected language competences and

the actual reality. The objective of the study therefore attempted to find possible solutions to the existing phenomena.

4.2.5.2 Case Selection

Unlike *intrinsic* casework which usually starts with cases already identified, *instrumental* and *collective* casework normally requires case selection (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2003a & b), the purposive selection of representative cases (Miles & Huberman, 1994), so that the best possible explanation of phenomena can be achieved (Stake, 1995, 2005).

4.2.5.2.1 Research Settings

As stated in the qualitative research design, the three selected schools represent two types of schools—national key schools and provincial key schools. Since language competences are the organizing force of the English curriculum in each school, language activities were considered as the main unit of analysis in classroom observation while in interviews individuals were regarded as the unit of analysis. In order to maximize the study validity, the qualitative study were conducted in the same three schools investigated in the quantitative study. The three schools all met the criteria laid out at the quantitative phase of the study: (1) that the school should be a senior secondary vocational school, neither a technical worker nor specialized school; (2) that it should be a representative school of its kind—a national key or provincial key school; (3) that the teaching of English should meet the minimum teaching hour requirements (128-144) hours, as regulated by the MOE for the Year 1 general English module. In fact, the first two schools – School A and School B – were selected during the two phases of pilot studies while the last school – School C – was chosen after my investigation of several schools in the final stage of data collection. A detailed description of each school is presented below.

(1) School A

School A is both a national and provincial key school, located in the cultural and educational center of the city. During my school visits, noisy traffic along with the

occasional car horn on the main roads constantly intruded onto the school's teaching and learning.

The school is a foreign affairs service school, established in 1980s and honored as a national key senior secondary vocational school in late 1990s. Due to the trend of school merges, the school has two campuses at present, covering an area of over 70,000 square meters. The campus I visited is the main campus. Currently, the school has nearly 4,000 students. There is a teaching cohort of 300 staff, with one third of them service industry experts. Over years of development, the school has set up more than twenty specialties, such as hotel service and management, cookery, travel operation service and management, airport service, tourism service and management, image design (i.e., beauty service and hairdressing), logistic service and management, to name but a few. To sustain enrollment and maintain vitality, each year the specialty set-up is adjusted according to market and employment demands. Over the years, the school has built up a close relationship with various service organizations and institutions, with some industry experts acting as external consultants to the school. One thing that impressed me most during my school visit was the names of classes, named after a contracted enterprise. For example, the Marriot Princess class consists only of girls, majoring in hotel service and management, which showed the close bond with the service sector. The school has signed long-term contracts with certain four- or five-star hotels, serving as the school's practicum bases. In return, the hotels have the privilege to choose their would-be employees from those designated classes. Moreover, mid-level managers from those enterprises are often invited to the school to give practical guidance and "situated teaching" in the school.

There are only two buildings on the main campus, a teaching building in the front and an accommodation building at the back. The service building holds a dining hall on the ground floor, with students' dorms on the rest of the four floors for non-local students. In between the two buildings is a small neat playground, crammed with students in school uniform during morning exercise time. Upon entering the school, I was greeted by students whenever I passed them in the corridor or on campus. On the two sides of

the corridor hang the pictures of famous people, such Albert Einstein, Madame Currie, and famous mottoes. The corridors looked bright and tidy. No students were seen roaming or wandering about during class time. The classrooms appeared to be disciplined during class time. Ms C, the school registrar, told me that the school has formed a well-structured monitoring system over the years.

In addition to the disciplined neat environment, the school places a strong emphasis on English teaching and learning. Unlike other schools which face a reduction in teaching hours, the school has been able to maintain its English teaching hours at no less than 240 hours per year. To better cater for individual learning differences, the school is the only one in the city to implement the ability-based instruction or layered instruction (Tomlinson, 2003), that is, dividing students into three different levels according to their language abilities. When it is time for English classes, students of different levels – Level A (the lowest level), Level B (the intermediate level) and Level C (the advanced level) – are clustered together according to their actual language ability and learning needs. In addition to the ability-based teaching, teachers in the school are encouraged to develop their own school-based English textbooks for less-able learners, and school-based English textbooks for vocational purposes.

(2) School B

School B is located on the west side of the city. It is both a national and provincial key school, featured on machinery manufacturing and engineering. It was merged with two other engineering and financial schools in 2004, after which its two campuses now cover an area of 120,000 square meters.

The newly constructed campus is spacious, situated on the edge of the city. The old campus is about 10 minutes by taxi with crowded space and old buildings amid the former industrial district. This district used to have a number of large industrial steel and metallurgical plants and manufacturing works, although those have now either been closed down or been moved to the nearby suburbs. In 2009, there were over 8,000 full-time senior secondary vocational students on campus, forming the main

body of the school. In addition, the school holds other types of vocational training and higher vocational education, with an annual enrollment of nearly 3000 students.

The new campus has a number of newly-constructed buildings. It is the biggest and the most modern one of all the vocational senior secondary schools I visited. The main teaching building in the new campus has 146 classrooms, four technical foundational course demonstration classrooms, and three lecture halls. The library and information building has computer and multimedia classrooms, a reception room, a large multifunctional lecture hall with a capacity of holding 500 people, two libraries and two reading rooms. The student dormitory covers an area of 24,800 square meters, holding nearly 4,000 students. Concerning teachers, the school has a total number of 545 teaching staff, with sixty percent of the teachers' dual-specialist professionals.

As a manufacturing sector oriented school, School B currently has 26 specialties, such as electronic operation and control, machinery operation, machinery manufacturing and control, welding, casting, mechanical design and control, computer numerical control machine tools, to list a few. As the city is regaining its vitality as an industrial center, the manufacturing-oriented specialties are attractive to both local and non-local students, in particular those from the rural areas. According to the school registrar, students from the rural areas in the school far outnumbered those from the urban areas, with the great majority of them males.

(3) School C

Unlike the other two national key schools – School A and School B, School C (a tourism school) – is only a provincial key school. The school covers an area of 55,000 square meters. The featured specialties of the school are tourism service and management, pre-school education, and hotel service and management. The school is the specified tourism guide training center for both the city and the province, the advanced chef training center for the city and a vocational skill certified center. The school has some well-equipped simulated training classrooms for service sector oriented students, such as the simulated Chinese and Western dining halls, the

simulated tea house, the simulated mini bar, the simulated guest room, the cooking operation room, the dance hall and the physical training room. In addition to the various vocational training rooms, the school also has a library, a multimedia computer room and other modern technological facilities.

Among its 191 teaching staff, 12 are provincial vocational skill certified teachers, 15 are national tourism guide holders and five are expert chefs. In addition to the school's full-time teaching staff, the school also invites mid-level managers from the hotel industry or tourism industry to come to the school to teach and develop vocational-oriented curriculums. Like School A, School C has also signed contracts with enterprises in the service industry, in particular with travel agents from within and outside the province. As a service-oriented school, English has always been an important feature of the school's agenda.

On both sides of the corridor hang the pictures of famous businessmen and their sayings. During my school visits, I found some students wandering around in the corridor during class time and caught sight of some cigarette butts in the ground-floor corner in my pilot study.

In general, each of the three schools has its own special characteristics and particular specialties, with two being service-orientated and one manufacturing-orientated.

4.2.5.2.2 Sampling

As Miles and Huberman state, "As much as you might want to, you cannot study everyone everywhere doing everything" (1994, p.27). Sampling is crucial especially in doing NA (Brown, 1995). Choices must be made in terms of "whom to look at or talk with, where, when, about what, and why – all place limits on the conclusions you can draw, and on how confident you and others feel about them. Even when the boundary of a case (e.g., a school in this study) is defined, there are still settings within settings in each school. The school has classrooms, the classrooms have teachers and students teaching and learning within them. And the questions of multiple-case sampling add another layer of complexity" (ibid.).

In qualitative research, sampling usually involves two actions: boundary setting and frame creation (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 27). In terms of sampling strategies, Erickson (1986) suggests a generic, funneling sampling sequence, working from the outside into the center of a setting. “Within-case sampling is almost always nested ... with regular movement up and down that ladder” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 29). Following the theory and strategies mentioned above, a purposive stratified random sampling within-case framework was set with the order of selection criteria extending from the peripheral to the core of the setting due to the complexity of the phenomena, with the use of multiple purposive techniques (Teddlie & Yu, 2007).

Purposive sampling (Miles & Huberman, 1994) or purposeful sampling leads to greater depth of information from a smaller number of carefully-selected representative cases (Patton, 2002) from the quantitative study. Results from the quantitative phase produced a general picture of the students’ general demographic information and their language achievement. On the basis of the data analysis of the first phase quantitative study, within-case participants were selected with reference to the teacher’s comments and the researcher’s classroom observations. The advantage of multiple-case stratified random purposive sampling can strengthen the precision, the validity, and the stability of the qualitative study (Long, 2005c; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Table 4.9 shows the detailed multiple-case sampling procedure.

Table 4.9 Within-case sampling

Case	No.	Criteria for inclusion
School	n=3	Key schools, meeting the minimum requirements in the new NVES (128-144 teaching hours for the GE module)
Classes	n=9	Service/manufacturing sector oriented classes; Year 10
Teachers	n=6	Head of the division; English teachers of the observed classes
Students	n=23	From the observed or unobserved classes; representative participants of different language competences
Graduate students	n=6	Purposive snowball sampling
Employers	n=1	Purposive snowball sampling
Inspectors	n=2	Purposive snowball sampling

With regard to class selection in the multiple-case study, the ideal situation with neat categories is that among the six classes chosen students’ various language

competences were evenly distributed. In reality, only School A has implemented layered instruction according to learners' language competences. Due to the difficulty of enrollment, vocational schools of various types all operate on open door policy, which results in a wide range of age and language competence differences among learners. In view of research participants, multiple sources of participants—students, teachers, graduate students, inspectors and employers—were investigated, with details of participant selection presented below.

(1) Students

The sampling of students was not straightforward due to the sequential nature of the second phase of the study. The selection of students for the qualitative study was based on the research findings from the quantitative questionnaire survey and language competence test, with 23 participants were finally selected.

(2) Teachers

The sampling of teachers was conducted on the basis of classroom observation, along with other considerations, namely years of teaching experience, friendliness and cooperation in providing insights. It was expected that teacher interviews could provide useful insights (Chaudron *et al.*, 2005) into learners' language competences and language learning needs. In the original design, the issue of gender distribution was taken into account in order to get a more comprehensive overview. In the actual field work, however, among all the three selected schools, there were only four male English teachers. Unfortunately, none of these English teachers teach Year 1 students. The six teachers interviewed for the study were therefore all female, as shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 shows that two teachers were from each selected school respectively. The involvement of the teachers in the current study has all gained the consent of the school gatekeepers and the teachers themselves.

Table 4.10 Information of teacher participants

Document No.	No.	School	Gender
0416ti01B	#1	B	F
0420ti01C	#2	C	F
0421ti02C	#3	C	F
0427ti01A	#4	A	F
0427ti02A	#5	A	F
0504ti02B	#6	B	F

(3) Graduate Students

The selection of graduate students – those already working in the target situation (Richterich, 1980b) provided an *etic* perspective (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) of language competences required at the workplace. These informants were recommended by their former English teachers, their friends or school administrators through snowball sampling. As former insiders but now outsiders of senior secondary VE, they provided useful insights on the basis of their own personal experience (Long, 2005a). The six participants (Table 4.11) were not strictly confined to the field of service or manufacturing sector, but covered a wider field given the time frame of data collection and the participating willingness of the informants.

Table 4.11 Information of graduate students

Code No.	No.	Gender
0425gs01	#1	F
0425gs02	#2	M
0428gs01A	#3	F
0428gs02A	#4	F
0504gs01	#5	F
0504gs02	#6	F

Table 4.11 shows that among the six qualitative participants only one was male.

(4) English Language Inspectors

While I was in the field collecting data, there happened to be a small scale meeting with regard to the implementation of the new NVES. A few inspectors, who was involved in the development of the new NVES, attended the meeting. I took the opportunity of the meeting and conducted an interview with two English inspectors after I explained to them my research study.

Table 4.12 shows that both of the two inspectors are female, working at the two different municipal vocational education centers.

Table 4.12 Information of inspectors

Document No.	No.	Gender	Affiliation
0423sp01	#1	F	A VE center
0423sp02	#2	F	A VE center

(5) Employer

Employers as an important source of information provided information with regard to language competences required at the workplace. The targeted employers were six, but resulted only in one due to the source of the informants and the employers' willingness to participate. I approached a joint venture German general manager through one of my former students, currently his colleague. The interview was conducted at his workplace in English.

Summary

In summary, the multiple sources of information – students and teachers from inside the educational institutions, and graduate students, inspectors and employers from outside the educational institutions – were thus regarded as key informants in the qualitative study (Patton, 2002).

4.2.5.2.3 Instrumentation

Instrumentation “comprises specific methods for collecting data” (Miles & Huberman,

1994, p.36). In the qualitative explanatory study, multiple sources of data – “both the evidence and the clues” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006, p. 117) were gathered through varying amounts of interaction with participants (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993) through ways of seeing, hearing and synthesizing (Wolcott, 2001). An overt approach was adopted in the qualitative study – two interactive methods (i.e., observation and interview) and one non-interactive method (document analysis), along with an embedded quantitative study. Access to classroom observation and face-to-face interviews were obtained with the consent of the gatekeepers (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006) of the three schools and of the English teachers, students and graduate students involved. All participants – “the chosen few” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006, p. 89) – were informed of the purpose of the research study, namely, that what they were involved in would form part of a doctoral study, rather than being for any commercial purpose. Their involvement in the study was voluntary, and all the data collected would be kept confidential. No other person in their school would be permitted access to the data. The recording of classroom teaching and of the interviews were also conducted with participants’ consent. Ethical research principles were maintained throughout the study.

4.2.5.2.3.1 Classroom Observation

In this section, classroom observation procedure, protocol and coding mnemonics are described and introduced.

(1) Procedures and Protocol

Classroom observation as a type of classroom research has been developed in the mid-1960s (e.g. Allwright, 1988, 2006; Chaudron, 1988, 2000; van Lier, 1988, 2000) to observe teacher behavior or classroom interaction processes with data derived from the observation (Long, 1980; van Lier, 1990). The typical focus of classroom research is “instructional behaviors, interaction patterns among teachers and students such as Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) routines, and the teaching/learning processes and outcomes associated with different types of language and literacy activities” (Duff,

2007, p. 976). Qualitative classroom research in nature is “more exploratory and interpretive, and designed to examine the complex relationships among factors in a learning situation” (ibid.).

In language research, many categorization schemes have been proposed to guide the observation process, such as the ten categories Interaction Analysis (Flanders, 1960, 1970), Flint (Foreign Language Interaction) (Moskowitz, 1971), FOCUS (Foci for Observing Communications Used in Settings) (Fanselow, 1977), as well as COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) and other schemes (e.g., Allwright, 1988; Chaudron, 1988, 2000; Ellis, 1990; Long, 1980; Nunan, 1989; Ullman & Geva, 1985; van Lier, 1988), with observation considered a valuable tool to assist teachers and researchers in classroom practice.

The non-participant observation adopted in the current study provided direct, in-depth, contextualized study of the events, interactions and patterns of language use in the actual classroom contexts, that is, the collection of direct hard data in naturalistic settings. Nine non-participant classroom observation were conducted at the three selected schools. Since a couple of the participating teachers did not want to have their classrooms recorded, three classroom observations were conducted in the form of field-notes and observation protocols for data analysis reference (see Table 4.13 & Appendix A).

Table 4.13 Classroom observation details

No.	School	Class	Data type
#1	A	Trail Service & Management	Observation protocol (OP)
#2	B	Air Service	OP
#3	B	Mould Design & Management	OP
#4	B	Computer Numerical Control	Recorded data + OP
#5	B	Air Service	Recorded data + OP
#6	C	Business English	Recorded data + OP
#7	C	Tourism Service & Management	Recorded data + OP
#8	C	Business English	Recorded data + OP
#9	A	Hotel Service & Management	Recorded data + OP

Table 4.13 shows that the classes involved in the classroom observation were service-

and manufacturing- sector oriented. An observation protocol (see Appendix A)—a form for recording and writing down information—was used while conducting classroom observations along with concurrent field notes. The observation protocol contains a heading with such detailed background information as the date, class, code number for later data transcription, student information, teaching and learning information and facilities, to name but a few, as shown in the sample below.

Classroom Observation (co) #07

Observer: Diana Zhao

The Third-Period Class in Ms. DF's Class

Date: April 21, 2009 (Thursday)

Time period: 10:10-10:55 am (Recording time: 44:55)

Venue: School C

Class: Tourism Service and Management, Class 2

Grade: 2008

Document No.: 0421co02C (7th set of notes)

Number of students: 32

Teacher: DF (F)

Lesson's title: Unit 3 Holidays

Textbook: *Essential English* (by Municipal Educational Bureau)

Teaching content: Holiday activities

Teaching facilities: Blackboard and chalk

Type of the lesson: General English

The protocol sample shows that it is the seventh classroom observation that the researcher conducted on Thursday, April 21, 2009 at School C. The class observed was from 10:10-10:55, the third period in the morning in Ms DF's class, who was both the head teacher and the English teacher of Tourism Service and Management Class 2. It was a medium-sized class, with 32 first year students. The English textbook used in

the class was *Essential English*, compiled by the local municipal educational bureau. On that particular day, students were learning Unit 3 about holiday activities. The language teaching environment was just the use of blackboard and chalk. The protocol thus provided a general education environment and profile of the class observed. In addition to the background information, the information of the teaching contents and the classroom setting was included as well.

Contents on the blackboard:

Unit 3 Holiday

Left side	Right side
1. Merry Christmas! Happy Chinese New Year! Thank you. The same to you.	1. put on put off
2. Are you doing anything?	2. turn on turn off
3. stay at home with ...	turn up
4. Have a wonderful time!	turn down
II. 1. say hello to	3. What do you usually do on the holiday?
2. the same with you	

As the above sample shows, the teaching content written on the blackboard was recorded after what the teacher had written on the blackboard. Moreover, detailed description of each observed classroom setting was incorporated to refresh the researcher's memory of the research setting, as the sample shows below.

Classroom setting:

This is a rather crowded classroom compared with the class I observed yesterday, which has only six students in the English class. The door is in the front part of the classroom, facing the window. There are thirty-six desks and chairs in the classroom, with actually only thirty-two students attending the English class.

Hanging above the blackboard is the couplets in Chinese "诚信团结" (Honesty, fidelity and unity) and "务实创新" (Down to the earth and creativity), with a national flag in between. In the front corner of the classroom, there is a drinking machine and some cleaning tools, such as mops, dustbin and brooms. At the back of the classroom, on the wall opposite to the blackboard is the class wallpaper area, with a very salient slogan: "Ms D, our commander-in-chief, we always love you!" Next to the red-letter slogan are some cartoon characters, a lovely snoopy and a Teddy bear with a Christmas hat. There are some photos of the class activities, with

captions written below. The wall paper must have been decorated during last Christmas.

The description of each observed classroom setting brought back my memory of the class environment. The description also enabled me to further understand and interpret the classroom observation data and interview data, as some of the interviewed students were selected from the observed class. To better understand the teaching and learning activities, a chart of seating organization and student participation frequency was also sketched during each classroom observation, as shown in the sample below.

Seating organization and student participation frequency:

16/24/26	17/25/27	10/42	11/43		3/46		2/13/22/47
L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8
	35	8/32	9/33	4/14/44	15/45	12/18/23	19
L9	L10	L11	L12	L13	L14	L15	L16
	1/34	6/30/38/40		7/31/39/41	20	21	
L17	L18	L19	L20	L21	L22	L23	L24
		28	29	5			
L25	L26	L27	L28	L29	L30	Lx	Lx
L31	L32	Lx	Lx	Lx	Lx		

Note: Lx = a vacant seat.

In the above sample, L stands for one learner, and Lx for a vacant seat. The sample shows the class seating arrangement, with two passages separating the three groups of students. There are altogether 32 students in the classroom. The number above each individual learner indicates the participation frequency of each student and the order that students were called upon. For instance, L1 was called upon by the teacher in the class three times in the middle of the class. It can be seen from the above sample that a few students (i.e., L8, L19, and L21) participated in the classroom activities four times.

The teaching content written on the blackboard, the general description of classroom

setting and seating organization and the noted frequency of each student's participation in class vividly reminded me of the actual teaching observed. The main part of the observation protocol is the place for taking observation notes, which is categorized into two categories—descriptive notes and reflective notes – to separate facts from opinions, as shown below.

Classroom Observation Protocol

Descriptive Notes		Reflective Notes
Time	Teaching and learning Activities (Transcription)	
1.15-1.28	T: And next one. LL: Open the window. T: Open the LL: window T: and then LL: air the room T: Ok. Very good. 非常好啊。	Everyday English warm up activities
1.29-2.04	T: 然后这个是 L: wardrobe T: OK. 他指着这个东西。然后，应该说什么？ LL: does ... T: 看着这个，看这个图，他指的这个，这是一堆衣服啊？还是被子啊？就是用them来代替就行。 Put them in the water. Ok, 好。	context/situation-based learning

On the left side of the protocol were the *descriptive* notes, marked with the duration of each classroom activity. The *Descriptive Notes* provided a detailed and descriptive word picture of what I – as a non-participant observer – heard, saw, experienced, and thought in the course of data collection. The descriptive aspects of

the field notes included the following six main aspects: (1) portraits of the research subjects, (2) reconstruction of dialogue, (3) description of physical setting, (4) accounts of particular events, (5) depiction of activities, and (6) the observer's behavior (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006, pp. 121-122), with rich and thick descriptions of the situation studied.

The right side of the protocol was the *reflective* notes, which capture the researcher's personal reflections, comments, feelings and impressions (Creswell, 2009; Lofland, 1995). These are the "think pieces" (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006, p. 122) which relate to the progress of the research, with memos for the longer pieces (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) in relation to the free and tree nodes in NVivo software. The reflective part covers the following five areas: (1) reflections about analysis, (2) reflections about method, (3) reflections about ethical dilemmas and conflicts, (4) reflections about the observer's frame of mind, and (5) points of clarification (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006, pp. 123-124).

Both the descriptive and reflective notes helped keep track of and visualize dynamic activities in the classroom, and see the researcher's comments and justifications, which lead to the project journal of over 60,000 words after the classroom observation. In addition to looking for recurring patterns which occurred during observations, the researcher also attempted to find out what did not happen (Wolcott, 2001). For instance, the general learning atmosphere, the relationship between teachers and students, and the frequency of each student's participation in class. Both the explicit and implicit information helped gain a deeper understanding of the research phenomena.

In observing the classroom discourse, critical incidents (Butterfield *et al.*, 2005) – an unexpected or problematic event or moment in the classroom – were also recorded in the "Events during the class" section in the observation protocol, as described in the sample below.

Events during the class:

This is the most animated class I have ever observed in my month-long classroom

observation. Judging from the frequency distribution of the class activities, I could see that there were still 10 students who did not get involved in the classroom activities. A couple of them followed the teacher and did the activities accordingly, but they never attempted to put up their hands to do the role play in front of the class. They looked timid in classroom participation. It might be that our presence—four other teachers and me—frightened the students a bit. (SC-CO-#07-TSM2-F)

The role of the researcher in the study was that of participant-as-observer, taking a peripheral outsider role in classroom activity. The purpose of conducting the naturalistic classroom observation was to gain detailed information on existing phenomena rather than to intervene in the learning process. The classroom observation, as a primary source of data collection, enabled me to see daily teaching events taking place at school settings. The close-up information of teacher teaching, students' learning, and the classroom interaction between teachers and students and their peers rendered a vivid picture of language competences in the formal school context.

The classes were audio-recorded with a two-piece small hand-held, battery-operated recording device—a clip-on microphone and a receiver—and the classroom observations were further enlarged to include interviews outside the classroom setting. The teacher in the observed class wore a clip-on microphone to guarantee recording quality, with the receiver connected to the researcher's laptop computer. The teacher's moving around in the classroom did not hinder the quality of the sound. At times students' talk was, nonetheless, muffled and inaudible. With the *Audacity* (<http://audacity.sourceforge.net/download/>) sound processing software and *LAME* *MP3* encoder (<http://lame.sourceforge.net/download.php>) (both available as free downloads) installed in the laptop computer, the recording of the classroom teaching was then converted into *MP3* files, which could be conveniently edited in the process of transcription. The recording facilities helped in reviewing, confirming and clarifying the accuracy of the classroom observation.

The “observer effect” or “Heisenberg effect” (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p. 47) was something that was guarded against in the process of data collection in the current study. Although the purpose of classroom observation was to collect data as

unobtrusively as possible, my presence as the researcher and the recording facilities in the classroom might have caused change of the behavior in both teachers and students. To lessen the observer effect, I tried to go to classes in advance and to get acquainted with both the students and teachers so that their familiarity with me as their classroom observer could minimize the effect before the actual recording of the classroom observation. In the whole research process, I made a special effort to familiarize myself with the participants in a natural, unobtrusive, and as nonthreatening manner as possible.

In addition to the observer effect, there was also a possibility of the “Hawthorne effect” (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p. 47); that is, the learners might perform better due to their positive feelings of being observed. In order to minimize these limitations, data collected from the classroom observation were triangulated with other sources of data collected (e.g., interviews and documents), that is, to have the information verified from one source with another source.

Furthermore, the significance of field notes was treated with caution. Miles and Huberman (1994) state that researchers become so overwhelmed with all the information gathered in research that they “forget to think, to make deeper and more general sense of what is happening, to begin to explain it in a conceptually coherent way” (p. 69). Progressive notes on data collection and analysis during the research study were kept for data analysis and discussion. Transcriptions of the observation data were also checked by participants for the sake of validity. An adapted transcription system (see Appendix G) was adopted to keep the data transcription procedures consistent and reliable (Walsh, 2006).

(2) Mnemonics

To facilitate data analysis, classroom observation mnemonics was developed after the following sequence: (1) school (e.g., SA for School A), (2) instrument type (e.g., CO for classroom observation), (3) the number of the classroom observation (e.g., #3 for the third classroom observation), (4) class and specialty observed (e.g., TRSM4 for

Class 4 of Trail service and management specialty), and (5) line number (e.g., L15 for Line 15 in the NVivo document), as listed in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14 Classroom observation mnemonics

Document No.	Data mnemonics
0407co01A	SA-CO-#01-TRSM4
0409co01B	SB-CO-#02-AS1
0409co02B	SB-CO-#03-MDM3
0410co03B	SB-CO-#04-CNC5
0416co04B	SB-CO-#05-AS1
0420co01C	SC-CO-#06-BE1
0421co02C	SC-CO-#07-TSM2
0422co03C	SC-CO-#08-BE3
0427co02A	SA-CO-#09-HSM1

Note: # is the interview code number for student participants. AS = Air service, BE = Business English, CNC = Computer numerical control machine tools, HSM = Hotel service & management, MDM = Mould design & manufacturing, TRSM = Trail service & management, TSM= Tourism service & management.

In general, classroom observation, as expected, provided significant insights and valuable information about the current realities of students' language competences and teachers' classroom teaching in formal everyday school settings, that is, the implemented curriculum at the meso institutional level.

4.2.5.2.3.2 Interviews

Interviews, which are time-consuming and labor-intensive, are considered a key data gathering tool in NA (Long, 2005a) and qualitative study (Merriam, 1998). The current study was conducted in the form of face-to-face one-on-one semi-structured interviews at different times during the field work.

(1) Procedures and Protocol

The purpose of the current study was outlined to participants at the outset of each interview, with such opening remarks:

Hello, my name is Zhao Wen and I am conducting a project on vocational education for my PhD study. I would like to talk with you for about 30 minutes. The data from this interview will be anonymous in my dissertation. The interview is voluntary. Nobody from the school/place will have opportunity to get access to the data from the interview.

Prior to the interviews, intended interview questions were conveyed to the teachers. These were used as “the agenda for the data collection” (Yin, 2003b, p. 55), developed on the basis of the two central qualitative, as well as quantitative, research questions.

A copy of the discussion question guideline (see Appendices B & C) either in Chinese or in English was given to the teachers, graduate students, inspectors and the employer prior to the interview so that they could have time to reflect on what would be asked of them. Those participating students were not given the interview question guidelines for fear of their discussing the questions with their classmates, with ready-made answers being proffered.

The interview questions in the interview protocol for teachers (see Appendix B) consist of 12 aspects in relation to the three levels of needs – learners, teachers, and facilities and resources regarding learners’ language competences:

- (1) Educational background
- (2) History as a teacher
- (3) Views regarding teaching
- (4) In-service training
- (5) Views regarding students’ most felt needs with regard to language competences
- (6) Views regarding the school English curriculum
- (7) Views regarding the school, resources and facilities (e.g., textbooks, audio-visual aids, computer hardware and software)
- (8) Views regarding support systems within and outside school

- (9) Views regarding students' targeted language competences at workplace
- (10) Problems causing the current realities
- (11) Measures having been taken to deal with the deficiencies
- (12) Measures to be taken to further alleviate the deficiencies

Like the three levels of needs in teacher interviews, the interview questions for the students and graduate students also consist of twelve aspects (see Appendix C):

- (1) Family background and support
- (2) English learning experience
- (3) Attitudes towards English learning
- (4) The most felt needs with regard to language competences
- (5) The importance of English learning
- (6) Views regarding school English teaching
- (7) Views regarding the school, resources and facilities (e.g., textbooks, audio-visual aids, computer hardware and software)
- (8) Views regarding support systems within and outside school
- (9) Views regarding language competences required at workplace
- (10) Views regarding language competences
- (11) Views regarding language teaching at school
- (12) Views regarding resources and facilities

The interview protocols for the employer and graduate students were mainly directed towards the workplace requirements and the language competence deficiencies between school and work. The various perspectives on language competence deficiencies helped triangulate the multiple sources of information.

It would have been preferable for interviews to be conducted immediately after the classroom observation while memories were still fresh in participants' minds. This, however, was not always possible as students had other classes following the English class, with teachers rushing off to their next class. There was at times also the problem

of finding a quiet place to conduct interviews. The interviews with teachers and students were mostly conducted at school while interviews with graduate students were held either inside or outside the school near the interviewees' workplace for their convenience. The information from the graduate students was cross-checked with the information from the teachers, students and employer in terms of current language competences and target language competences. The data triangulation helped the researcher gain an in-depth understanding of language competence deficiencies.

As with the classroom observation protocol, the interview protocol contains headings for such information as time, place, the person interviewed, code number for the data file and so on. Subsequently, in the interview protocol, the researcher asked interviewees at certain stages to explain their ideas in more detail or to elaborate a point that they had mentioned. During the interview process, introductory and Yes/No questions (Merriam, 1998) were avoided and concurrent field notes were taken, with interviews recorded after gaining participants' consent and permission. The interviews were carried out at either formal (e.g., the teacher's office, the classroom) or informal (e.g., coffee house) settings. Each formal interview actually lasted from 15 minutes to over one hour.

All possible effort was put in to avoid errors and protect the validity and reliability of the interviews. Since interviews involve participants' subjective opinions, some participants were reluctant to talk or tried to say what was perhaps expected of them. In the qualitative study, good rapport with participants, positive reinforcement and attentive listening were established and maintained since these are essential for stimulating good talking (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006). Procedures of systematic data collection and cross-checking information triangulation from various sources (e.g., teachers, students, and graduate students) were employed for respondent verification. Transcripts of recorded interviews were shown to some interviewees, who were interested in the research, for comments and clarification to eliminate areas of ambiguity or misrepresentation. The amended data were also incorporated into the data analysis. Moreover, interview data were supported and triangulated with the other

sources of data (e.g., classroom observations, documents and other audio-visual materials) to add breadth and depth to the data collection and analysis. The interview data thereby enriched the overall data, contributing towards a reliable and valid explanatory inquiry.

After returning from the field, missing data were found in the data collected, such as missing information in the process of the interviews due to technical problems with recording facilities. The missing information was later triangulated through telephone conversations, follow-up interviews, or field notes and project journals.

(2) Mnemonics

Table 4.15 Student mnemonics

Document No.	Data mnemonics
0408si01A	SA-SI-#01-SBR-BE-F
0408si02A	SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F
0408si03A	SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F
0408si04A	SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F
0410si01B	SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M
0410si02B	SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M
0410si03B	SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M
0410si05B	SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M
0410si06B	SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M
0414si01A	SA-SI-#11-WS-HSM-F
0414si02A	SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F
0414si03A	SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F
0414si04A	SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F
0416si01B	SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M
0416si02B	SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M
0420si01C	SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F
0420si03C	SC-SI-#19-LXC-TSM-F
0420si04C	SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F
0420si05C	SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M
0421si01C	SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M
0421si02C	SC-SI-#24-WSQ-TSM-F
0421si03C	SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F
0421si04C	SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F

Note: # is the interview code number for student participants. AS = Air service, BE = Business English, CNC = Computer numerical control, HSM = Hotel service & management, MDM = Mould design & manufacturing, TRSM = Trail service & management, TSM = Tourism service & management.

For the sake of concise and clarity of data analysis, each student participant was later re-coded in following mnemonic format (Table 4.15), following such sequence: (1) school (e.g., SA for School A), (2) interview type (e.g., SI for student interview), (3) the number of the interviewee (e.g., #3 for the third interviewee), (4) the name code of the interviewee (e.g., LL), (5) specialty (e.g., BE for Business English), (6) gender (e.g., M for male), and (7) Line number (e.g., L15 for Line 15 in the NVivo document).

The mnemonics was adopted in the qualitative phase for quoting the student interviewees' remarks for the description of the research phenomena. Like the student mnemonics developed for data analysis, mnemonics for the interviewed teachers was also developed, following such format: (1) school (e.g., SA for School A), (2) interview type (e.g., TI for teacher interview), (3) the number of the interviewee (e.g., #3 for the third interviewee), (4) the name code of the interviewed teacher (e.g., PPP for the interviewed teacher), and (5) line number (e.g., L15 for Line 15 in the NVivo document), as shown in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16 Teacher mnemonics

Document No.	Data mnemonics
0416ti01B	SB-TI-#01-LXY
0420ti01C	SC-TI-#02-WJ
0421ti02C	SC-TI-#03-DF
0427ti01A	SA-TI-#04-LMJ
0427ti02A	SA-TI-#05-ZN
0504ti02B	SB-TI-#06-PPP

The mnemonics in Table 4.16 were adopted when quoting the interviewees' remarks in the data analysis section. Like the mnemonics developed for students and teachers, the mnemonics for the interviewed graduate students adopted the following sequence: (1) industry sector (e.g., SV for service sector, MA for manufacturing sector, IT for information technology sector), (2) interview type (e.g., GS for graduate student interview), (3) the interviewed number of each interviewee (e.g., #3 for the third interviewee), (4) gender (e.g., M for male), and (5) Line number (e.g., L15 for Line 15 in the NVivo document), as shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17 Graduate student mnemonics

Document No.	Data mnemonics
0425gs01	MA-GS-#01-F
0425gs02	MA-GS-#02-M
0428gs01A	SV-GS-#03-F
0428gs02A	SV-GS-#04-F
0504gs01	IT-GS-#05-F
0504gs02	IT-GS-#06-F

The mnemonics shown in Table 4.17 was adopted in the qualitative data analysis when quoting the interviewees' remarks.

The mnemonics for the interviews with two inspectors and one employer was arranged in the following sequence: (1) interview type (e.g., IP for inspector interview, and EP for employer interview), (2) the number of the interviewee (e.g., #1 for the first interviewee), (3) gender (e.g., F for female), and (4) line number (e.g., L15 for Line 15 in the NVivo document). The mnemonics in Table 4.18 was adopted when quoting the interviewees' remarks in the qualitative study.

Table 4.18 Inspector and employer mnemonics

Document No.	Data mnemonics
0423sp01	IP-#01-F
0423sp02	IP-#02-F
0430ep01	EP-#01-M

In brief, the mnemonics facilitated the data preparation and data analysis in the qualitative study.

4.2.5.2.3.3 Documents and Other Materials

Documents, as written evidence, were collected at each site since documents can provide stable and rich source of information (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 1998). Both *public* documents and *private* documents were collected in the current study. Public documents include such official documents of the educational bureau, school documents (e.g., prospectus), English syllabus of the school and textbooks. Private documents are teachers' teaching plans, students' English workbooks, records, teaching log, and quiz/exam papers, which reflect students' language competences

from different perspectives.

In addition to the written documents, audio-visual materials were also collected. A small digital camera was used to collect such data as the wallpaper in the observed classes, teaching contents on the blackboard, seating arrangements and classroom decoration, which helped the researcher in understanding and interpreting the “strikingly descriptive data” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006, p. 141). These sources of data along with field notes and the researcher’s project journal added to a growing pile of evidence.

4.2.5.3 Data Collection

Data collected through the qualitative phase of inquiry are mainly text-based, consisting of verbatim transcriptions of classroom observations, follow-up interviews, field notes and other audio-visual materials and documents in the field work.

The month-long field work was intensified with data collection, writing up of field notes and preliminary data analysis. The qualitative study, with an embedded quantitative study, intended to answer the second and third research questions, and their related sub-questions.

Table 4.19 presents the two qualitative research questions, sub-questions, sampling and instrumentation. The embedded quantitative questions have been dealt with in the quantitative study.

In total, 38 participants were investigated in the qualitative study, with the involvement of students, teachers, graduate students, inspectors and employers through the means of classroom observation, interviews and document analysis. The number of students investigated was almost evenly distributed among the three schools. Nine classroom teaching was observed at three selected schools, with three classes observed in each individual school. Six teachers were interviewed with two from each school. Six graduate students were interviewed out of the snowball sampling.

Table 4.19 Qualitative research questions and research design

Research questions & sub-questions	Sampling	Instrumentation
RQ 2. What discrepancies of needs currently exist between the present situation and target situation of senior secondary vocational school students in terms of their language competences?	n=38 Students (n=23) School A=8 School B=7 School C=8 Teachers (n=6) School A=2 School B=2 School C=2 Graduate students (n=6) Inspectors (n=2) Employer (n=1)	Classroom observation Interviews Document analysis
RQ 2.1 What are learners' target situation needs in terms of English language competences?	Students Teachers Graduate students Inspectors Employer	Classroom observation Interviews Document analysis
RQ 2.1.1 What expectations are there of learners?		Interviews Document analysis
RQ 2.1.2 How are teachers expected to teach?	Students Teachers Graduate students Inspectors	Interviews Classroom observation
RQ 2.1.3 What expectations are there concerning educational institutions, resources and facilities?	Students Teachers Graduate students Inspectors	Interviews
RQ2.2 What are the present situation needs in terms of English language competences?	Students Teachers Graduate students Inspectors Employer	Classroom observation Interviews Document analysis
RQ2.2.1 What are learners' present learning needs?	Students Teachers Inspectors Employer	Interviews Classroom observation
RQ2.2.2 How do teachers conduct teaching?	Students Teachers Inspectors	Interviews Classroom observation
RQ2.2.3 How are resources and facilities provided and utilized at school?	Students Teachers	Interviews
RQ 3. Given the investigation of the present situation and target situation needs, what factors account for the current discrepancies?	Students Teachers Inspectors Graduate students Employer	Interviews
RQ3.1 What are learners' general motivational determinants?	The cohort of student participants (N=707)	Re-arranged Mini-AMTB SPSS
RQ3.2 What is the relationship between motivation and language achievement?		
RQ3.3 To what extent do attitude/motivational variables contribute as important affective factors to the discrepancies?	The cohort of student participants (N=707) Students Teachers Inspectors	Interviews Classroom observation Re-arranged Mini-AMTB SPSS
RQ3.4 What other factors underlie the current discrepancies?		

Two inspectors and one employer were interviewed out of the snowball sampling and convenient sampling. Moreover, documents, such as official documents and textbooks, provided more informed perspectives on our understanding of language competence deficiencies currently existed at vocational senior secondary schools in mainland China.

The nature of RQ 2 is a comprehensive deficiency analysis, incorporating both TSA and PSA with relation to means analysis and strategy analysis on the basis of the language audit conducted in the quantitative study. On the basis of the data collection related to the two questions (RQ 2.1 and RQ 2.2), a deficiency needs analysis (NA) was conducted. The gaps of needs, in terms of its size, type, scope, complexity and range (Cohen *et al.*, 2000, pp. 391-392), were then identified and categorized, with the priorities of needs then being sequenced and evaluated. RQ 3 deals with the causes of needs, the *why* aspect of the research phenomena, with an embedded quantitative study to demonstrate the relationships between motivation and language achievement.

4.2.5.4 Data Analysis

“The process of data analysis involves making sense out of text and image data” (Creswell, 2009, p. 183) through different devices and techniques, such as tabular displays and graphs (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Data analyses in the current study were based on the following sources of data: documents collected from sites, field notes taken by the researcher, interview and observation notes, a large stock of transcribed data, and project profile, with the aid of such software as Audacity, LAME MP3 encoder, NVivo, and SPSS.

Different procedures for data analyses have been proposed, such as Tesch’s (1990, pp. 142-145) eight steps of data analysis, Bogdan and Biklen’s (2006, pp. 160-171) ten suggestions regarding data analysis and interpretation in the field, Stake’s (1995) five-step procedures, and Creswell’s six-step data analysis (Creswell, 2009, pp. 185-186). These procedures provide a systematic process of analyzing textual data. Data analysis procedure in the current study followed six steps, as shown in Figure 4.8:

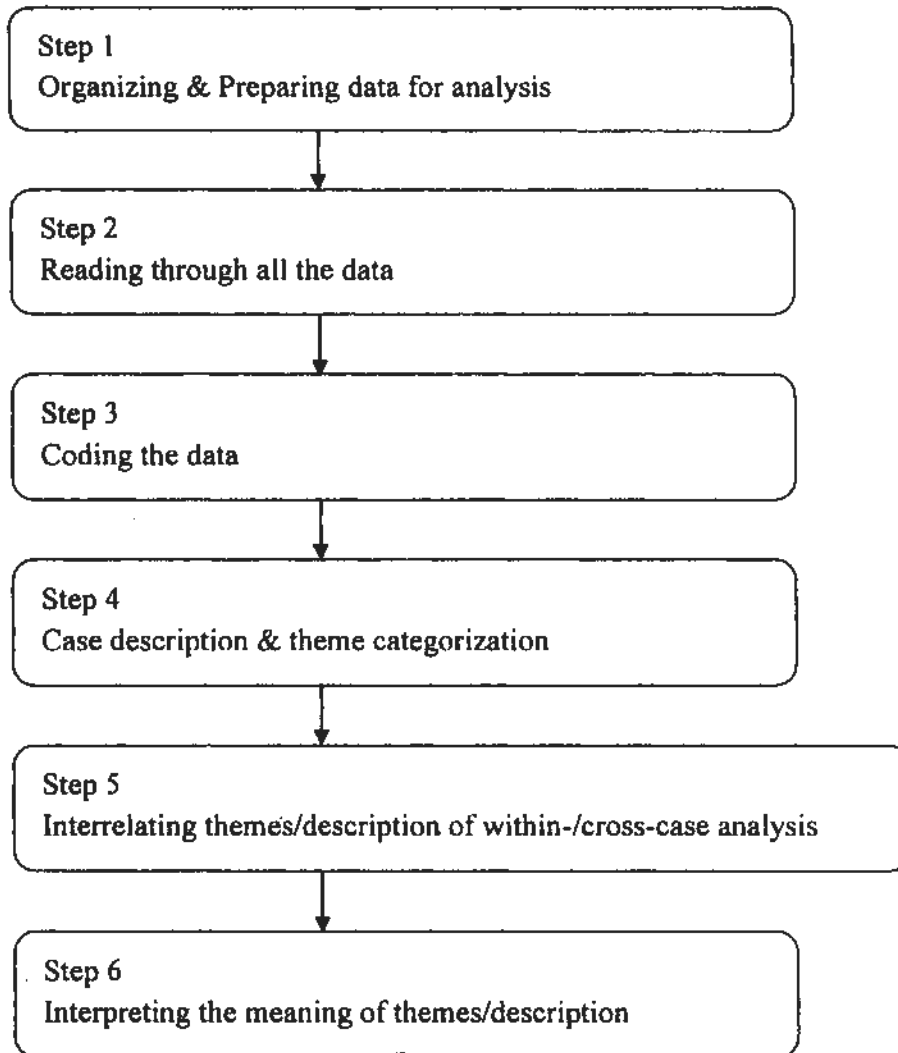


Figure 4.8 Data analysis procedure in the qualitative study

Step 1: Organizing and preparing data for analysis. This involved the time-consuming process of transcribing the data from multiple sources: nine classroom observation at three selected schools, 23 student interviews, six teacher interviews, six graduate student interviews, two inspector interviews and one employer interview, documents, audio-visual materials, field notes, and memos, with data sorted and arranged into different types according to the source of information. In the process of data transcription, I completed my project journal of over 60,000 words in English and analytic memos on emergent patterns, categories, themes, concepts and ethics (Saldana, 2009).

Step 2: Reading through all the data. The purpose of the content analysis was to obtain

a general sense and overall understanding of the data. It enabled me—the researcher—not only to gain an overview of the richness and thickness of the data, but also to embark on a processing journey of abstraction and conceptualization. While reading, I made notes, jotted down some recurrent emerging concepts, themes and issues towards setting up and constructing a thematic framework. The preliminary reading and coding was done with the original data file classified into two columns, original data on the spacious left column with preliminary ideas in the narrow right hand column. The preliminary codes established a link between the raw data and the final codes. To facilitate data analysis, computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (under the acronym CAQDAS) was used for data processing and data analysis since a computer program can help compare different codes (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006). The complete file was then imported into the qualitative software NVivo 8.0 in the format of word documents.

Step 3: Coding the data. “The excellence of the research”, as Strauss states, “rests in large part on the excellence of the coding” (1987, p. 27). Coding is linking, which leads a researcher from the data to the ideas, and from the idea to all the data pertaining to that idea (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006). Creswell (2009) further suggests developing a qualitative codebook for organizing data, which contains a list of predetermined codes that researchers use for coding the data in the form of a table or record. MacQueen and associates (2008) suggest that each codebook entry contain “the code, a brief definition, a full definition, guidelines for when to use the code, guidelines for when not to use the code, and examples” (p. 121). On the basis of the literature review and study, a preliminary list of codes was developed prior to the process of data collection and analysis on the basis of literature review and research questions. The codebook provided a structural framework for data analysis (see Appendix F). The codebook was later revised with some more descriptive, topic and analytic codes (Richards, 2005) added or some preset codes deleted. The codebook, however, provided a scaffolding framework in the process of data processing.

Manual coding with a pencil and highlighters were then explored on sheets of paper

before inputting these into qualitative data processing software. The observation data and the interview data in the study were conceptualized into an initial coding scheme. This was the “First Cycle” process of doing descriptive analysis (Saldana, 2009, p. 3), with the next step constituting the “Second Cycle” (ibid.) process of analytic analysis. The “First Cycle” process consisted of such coding as attribute coding (Bazeley, 2003), simultaneous coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994), structural coding, descriptive coding and In Vivo coding (Bazeley, 2006; Saldana, 2009).

Step 4: Using the coding process to generate a description of the cases as well as categories or themes for analysis. The Second Cycle methods were more challenging, which “require such analytical skills as classifying, prioritizing, integrating, synthesizing, abstracting, conceptualizing, and theory building” (Saldana, 2009, p. 3). The high frequency codes were then categorized as key themes or perspectives with code indications marked on the basis of the topics addressed in the documents, field notes, and interview notes. The detailed in-depth description of each individual case enabled the researcher to generate codes from the description, which leads to the generation of a small number of themes or categories (Rossman & Rallis, 2003). The recurrent themes were then identified, extracted and analyzed for each case and across different cases. These themes displayed multiple perspectives from individuals and were supported by diverse quotations and specific evidence.

Step 5. Interrelating themes or description of each individual case and across cases with visuals, figures, or tables to help with illustrations. The use of visual devices has received increased attention in qualitative study (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In the current study, data were abstracted from their original context and rearranged according to their themes and thematic reference. One or more tables were drawn up for each individual case in the project journal, following the same format for within-case and cross-case study and comparison. Throughout the process of data analysis from within-case and across-case analysis, references to the research questions were made repeatedly and at every step mentioned above so as not to deviate from the course set at the outset of the study among the wealth of collected data.

Within-case analysis helped the researcher to deal with the huge volume of data while cross-case analysis was made by comparing the similarities and differences between patterns which emerged from within-case analysis to form new categories and concepts (Eisenhardt, 1989). The inductive data analysis process was an emergent interpretive inquiring process, which indicated the moving back and forth between the themes and database through within-case until a “comprehensive set of themes” were established (Creswell, 2009, p. 175).

Step 6. Interpret the meaning of themes or description to capture the essence of the mixed methods study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). When all the data were sifted and charted according to their themes, the researcher then integrated key features of the data and interpreted the data set as a whole from a pragmatist worldview. It was a process of integrating the salience and dynamics of themes and dimensions to interpret the research questions.

The results of the data analysis were triangulated via a multiple sources/methods approach, with some inaccurate perceived needs filtered out to increase the validity and trustworthiness of the research (Long, 2005a). The whole process of data analysis, as Creswell describes, is like “peeling back the layers of an onion” (2009, p. 183). The current study utilized qualitative research software NVivo 8.0 (Creswell, 2009), the advantages of which is that text can be searched for under key categories and themes; meaningful data chunks can be identified, grouped and regrouped for analysis; codes can be changed and edited in multiple ways and approaches (Bazeley, 2007). The “naturalistic generalizations” (Stake, 1995, p. 86) – the researcher’s summary of interpretations and claims, was consequently generalized inductively.

4.2.6 Legitimation

The treatment of *validity* in mixed methods research is a challenging issue as each research (i.e., quantitative and qualitative) has its own forms of validity. In quantitative research, the importance of validity has long been accepted and treated (Lincoln & Guba, 1990; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). In qualitative research, the issue

of validity has been more contentious and different typologies and terms have been produced. In mixed methods research, validity issues are still in their infancy (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006) although it combines complementary strengths and nonoverlapping weakness of quantitative and qualitative research. Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006) recommend the use of the term *legitimation* (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008), “a bilingual nomenclature” (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006, p. 48), to cover both quantitative and qualitative research.

4.2.6.1 Validity and Reliability Issues in Quantitative Research

In quantitative research, *validity* means that “the researcher can draw meaningful inferences from the results to a population” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 133) whereas *reliability* means that scores received from participants on each measurement occasion are consistent and stable over time (ibid.).

The treatment of *validity* issue in quantitative research has long been discussed and documented in the literature (e.g., Campbell, 1957; Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Creswell, 2007, 2008, 2009; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). In the current two quantitative studies, the validity of the English test was established through content validity, and the validity of the test scores established through criterion-related and construct validity. The motivational survey instrument used in the research has long been studied and adopted in various research studies with good reliability, statistical conclusion validity, internal validity, construct validity and external validity.

4.2.6.2 Validity, Reliability Issues in Qualitative Research

Qualitative validity, a much-discussed topic (Lincoln & Guba, 2000), refers to the procedures that researchers employ to checks for the accuracy of the findings to determine whether the findings have captured the lived experience of people (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005) from the standpoint of the researcher, the participant, or the readers of an account (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) argue for “a serious rethinking of such terms as *validity*,

generalizability, and *reliability*, terms already retheorized in postpositivist ..., constructivist-naturalistic ..., feminist ..., interpretive and performative, poststructural ..., and critical discourses ... This crisis asks, How are qualitative studies to be evaluated in the contemporary, poststructural moment?" (pp. 19-20). Part of the solution to the issue of *validity* is to reconceptualize quantitative validity - concepts with the following concepts: *credibility* (i.e., *internal validity* in quantitative research), *transferability* (i.e., *external validity* in quantitative research), *dependability* (i.e., *reliability* in quantitative research), and *confirmability* (i.e., *objectivity* in quantitative research) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006) conceptualized 29 elements of the Qualitative Legitimation Model for qualitative research at three recursive stages of the research process—research design/data collection, data analysis, and data interpretation. The threats to both *internal* and *external credibility* are considered to be pertinent to qualitative research. Several other terms have been used in the qualitative literature to indicate the similar concepts, such as *trustworthiness*, *authenticity*, and *credibility* (Creswell, 1999; Creswell & Miller, 2000; Lincoln & Guba, 1990; Maxwell, 1992; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

In the current study, the following four strategies were adopted to ensure validity in the qualitative study:

(1) Data collected through multiple sources through stratified purposive sampling (e.g., teachers, students, graduate students, inspectors and employer) and multiple methods (e.g., classroom observation, interview and document analysis) were triangulated using "sources x method combination" (Long, 2005a, p. 4).

(2) The participants (i.e., teachers and graduate students) were invited to check the transcribed data during the process of data analysis to ensure the truth value of the data.

(3) Rich, thick and detailed descriptions of each individual case were provided in the research profile and field notes to report the research so that the results were more

realistic and richer, and thereby provided a more clear and accurate picture.

(4) The researcher's bias (i.e., the researcher's role) was articulated and clarified at the outset of the study.

Reliability, however, "plays a minor role in qualitative research and relates primarily to the reliability of multiple coders on a team to reach agreement on codes for passages in text" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 134). Yin (2003a) suggests that qualitative researchers need to document the procedures of their case studies and to document as many of the steps of the procedures as possible. Creswell (2009, p. 191) recommends intercoder agreement (or cross-checking) while Miles and Huberman (1994) recommend that the consistency of the coding be in agreement at least 80% of the time for good qualitative reliability.

In the current study, procedures were employed to make sure that the process of qualitative research was consistent and reliable. The transcripts obtained from the classroom observation and interviews were participant-checked so that they contained no obvious mistakes. The researcher tried to make sure that there was no shift in the definition and meaning of codes with the data constantly examined and compared. Writing memos about the codes and their definitions in the qualitative codebook was developed prior to data analysis. The multiple sources of data collection were integrated through triangulation of the data via member checking and cross-checking.

4.2.6.3 Validity in Mixed Methods Research

Although validity differs in quantitative and qualitative research, it serves the purpose of checking on the quality of the data and the results. Mixed methods researchers need to deal with the following three issues: (1) representation of lived experience of participants, (2) integration of quantitative and qualitative methods, and (3) legitimization of research findings (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). According to Plano Clark and Creswell (2008), *legitimation* means that "researchers draw inferences in a mixed methods study that are credible, trustworthy, dependable, transferable, and/or confirmable" (p. 271).

In the current study, the student participants from the quantitative and qualitative studies were of the same cohort, with the participants from the qualitative phase forming a small subset of the quantitative phase. Both the insider (i.e., *emic*) and outsider (i.e., *etic*) viewpoints (Creswell, 2009), were taken account and justified through participant review to balance the viewpoints. Perspectives and factual data from multiple sources were triangulated through multiple methods (i.e., observation, interviews and documents). Conscious and careful efforts were taken to minimize the weakness of each research approach and maximize the strengths of quantitative and qualitative research. The questionnaire information, in particular the demographic information and socioeconomic factors, was scrutinized before being converted into numeric form. In conducting the mixed methods research, the researcher moved back and forth in a recursive manner between quantitative and qualitative lenses through the process of research and research interpretation. Different research strategies, such as measurement and surveys in quantitative research and observation, interviews and document study in qualitative research, were utilized in the current study. In the mixed methods research, the researcher performed a variety of roles – investigator, observer, interviewer and researcher. The multiple roles performed enabled the researcher to view the research phenomena from multiple perspectives.

4.2.7 Potential Ethical Issues

Ethical considerations are an important issue in qualitative research design (Merriam, 1988; Spradley, 1980; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). The researcher has an obligation to respect the rights, needs, values, and desires of the participants. Bogdan and Biklen (2006) list seven guidelines with regard to ethical issues in qualitative research. In the current study, the following safeguard measures, which were articulated verbally and in writing to gain participants' consent, were adopted: (1) research participants were informed of the research purpose and objectives, and the promised confidentiality and their rights to withdraw at any time from the study; (2) permission to conduct the research was obtained from both the school administration with their consent of the observed teachers and interview participants; (3) participants were informed of the

data collection devices and activities; (4) verbatim transcriptions and data interpretations and reports were made available to participants for validity checking; (5) all the data collected during the process of research have been kept confidential and solely for the purposes of research. No other person from the school was permitted access to the data; (6) all participants (i.e., teachers, students, graduate students, inspectors, and employer) were kept anonymous with their identities coded in mnemonic forms. Ethical considerations were thereby upheld throughout the process of study.

4.3 Summary

In this section, the mixed methods research design – the quantitative and the qualitative study – has been described and presented in greater detail. In the quantitative research design, the sampling procedures were described and the instruments were introduced while in the qualitative research study, the qualitative research design was described and presented in greater detail. With the researcher as research instrument in the qualitative research, data were collected through such methods as classroom observation, interviews, and document analysis. After the introduction of the quantitative and qualitative research design, legitimation and potential ethical issues were discussed. In conducting mixed methods research, legitimation and ethical issues have been upheld throughout the process of the NA study. Results of the data analysis and research findings are presented in the following chapters.

Chapter 5 Language Audits: Learner Profile

Language audits, addressed also as NA surveys, have been widely used in language programs or projects, such as in Europe, in Canada and in the United States (e.g., Richterich, 1980a & b, 1983a; Richterich & Chancerel, 1980; Yalden, 1983; Savignon, 1983). As mentioned in Chapter 4, the primary data for the quantitative study, involved the collection of learners' demographic information, a motivation questionnaire survey and a mid-ability language test involving participants from three vocational schools in city Y. The questionnaire survey and the language ability test were administered in participants' own classrooms in approximately 75 minutes with the help of their head teachers or English teachers. Concerning the quantitative survey, around 750 copies were prepared and administered, with 707 subjects responding to the questionnaires and the language ability test, a 94% return rate.

5.1 Data Description

In this section, the outline of part of the quantitative data will be described with regard to the demographic information and the language test. The motivation questionnaire survey and the study of the relationships between motivational factors and language achievement are dealt with in Chapter 7 as an embedded quantitative study of the primary qualitative study.

5.1.1 Demographic Data

Demographic research is frequently conducted as part of the NA process and tends to highlight commonalities in student population (Cummings & Davison, 2007). Since collecting participants' background details is essential in NA studies (Tarone & Yule, 1989), the following demographic information was requested from the research participants (N=707): (1) gender, (2) age, (3) specialty, (4) family background, (5) school type, (6) starting age of learning English, (7) weekly English learning hours in their spare time, (8) final exam English score in the previous term, (9) entry English score, and (10) father's occupation. The demographic information acquired from the

learners yielded a general picture of the social, economic and educational background of the research participants, against which the quantitative study was conducted. The demographic information, furthermore, facilitated the participant selection for the subsequent qualitative study.

5.1.2 Language Achievement

The language test aimed at examining participants' language achievement, an indicator of learners' language competences, using the mid-ability test developed by Zhao and Coniam (2009) with good test reliability, item facility and discrimination. Given the number of students (N=707) involved in the test, the test was given in the form of multiple-choice. The 45-item test includes four parts: (1) discrete items, (2) reading comprehensions, (3) cloze passage, and (4) dialogues, as shown in Table 5.1, testing such linguistic knowledge and skill area as reading skills, areas of vocabulary, grammar and discourse.

Table 5.1 The language ability test

Test composition	Number of items	Item total
Discrete items	10 items	10
Reading comprehensions	3 x 5 items	15
Cloze passages	1 x 10 items	10
Dialogues	2 x 5 items	10

Lexical knowledge includes the usage of pronouns, verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, phrasal verbs, and conjunction. Grammatical knowledge covers tenses, articles, gerunds and infinitives. The discourse level items include two short situational dialogues while reading skills consist of three short reading passages.

5.2 Results

In this section, the results of the data analysis of the demographic information and language test are presented and discussed.

5.2.1 General Demographic Profile

The input data on learners' demographic and educational information were transformed into numeric data and analyzed with SPSS 17.0 on the basis of approximately 700 participants, with participants' demographic profile presented in the following section.

5.2.1.1 Gender

The results of participants' gender distribution are presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Gender description

Gender	Frequency /Percent	School
Male	318 (45%)	A=84
		B=215
		C=19
Female	389 (55%)	A=205
		B=19
		C=165
Total	707 (100%)	

Table 5.2 shows that females outnumbered males, with School A and School C having more female participants and School B having a greater numbers of males. Schools A and C are service-sector oriented, and hence have more female students while School B is manufacturing-sector oriented with more males. This matches the current reality of the three schools.

5.2.1.2 Age

The results of the participants' age distribution are shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Age distribution

Age/Year of birth	Number/Percent
22 (1987)	1 (0.1%)
21 (1988)	2 (0.3%)
20 (1989)	4 (0.6%)
19 (1990)	26 (3.7%)
18 (1991)	71 (10%)
17 (1992)	303 (42.9%)
16 (1993)	253 (35.5%)
15 (1994)	42 (5.9%)
14 (1995)	4 (0.6%)
Total	706 (100%)

Table 5.3 indicates that there was a large variation in ages among the participants, with an eight-year span ranging from 14 to 22 years old, at the time of the research. A large group of students were aged between 16 and 17 ($M=6.5$, $SD=.78$). The largest portion of participants (42.9%), 303 in number, were aged 17. The next largest portion of participants (36%), 253 in total, were aged 16. These two age groups formed 78.4% of the research participants. While the majority of participants were between 16 and 17 years of age, there were a few extreme cases. Older students tended to be all from School B, the manufacturing-sector-oriented school, with six males and one female. The younger participants were all female from the service specialties of School A and School C.

In junior and senior secondary education, the age difference among learners was generally within a two-year range, with learners generally constituting a homogenous age group. The eight-year range between 14 and 22 in senior secondary VE in mainland China with such a diversified heterogeneous age group has posed difficulties for teachers in the classroom setting since learners of different ages may possess different cognitive learning tendencies, learning styles and learning preferences.

5.2.1.3 Specialty

The results of specialty information are presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Specialty information

Specialty	Frequency/%	
Service	Air Service	86 (12.2%)
	Business English	52 (7.4%)
	Cookery	17 (2.4%)
	Hotel Service and Management	17 (2.4%)
	Tourism service and management	94 (13.3%)
	Trail service and management	147 (20.8%)
	Pre-school education	42 (5.9%)
Manufacturing	Machinery Manufacturing and Control	62 (8.8%)
	Mould Design and Manufacturing	54 (7.6%)
	Computer Numerical Control Machine Tools	42 (5.9%)
	Welding	49 (6.9%)
Others	Information Networks	20 (2.8%)
	Electrical Technology and Application	25 (3.5%)
Total	707 (100%)	

Table 5.4 shows that participants were altogether from 13 specialties, with seven service sector-oriented specialties (64.4%) and four manufacturing sector-oriented specialties (29.2). Among the service sector-oriented specialties, the *Trail Service and Management* specialty (20.8%) has the largest number of participants. Each school investigated has this specialty. The city's underground railway is currently under construction, and the specialty reflects a potential job market. The *Tourism Service and Management* specialty had the second largest number of participants (N=94), 13% of the whole cohort. As an industrial center with a long history and cultural heritage, the city attracts many sightseeing tourists from home and abroad during summer and fall. About 12% of participants was from the specialty of *Air Service* (N=86). Each of

the three schools investigated had this specialty.

With regard to the manufacturing-oriented specialties, nearly 9% of the participants (N=62) were from the specialty of *Machinery Manufacturing and Control*. These specialties exist mainly in School B, indicating a strong tendency of the mega size of the vocational school to serve the local industry and economy. The other two specialties were related to information technology since the city also has one of the largest software parks in the country.

With the revitalization of local industry and economy, the job market demand for both service- and manufacturing-oriented sectors have been in great demand in recent years. The spread of the specialties are consistent with local social, economic and educational situations. The data indicate that although there was overlap in the offering of specialties, each of the three schools had its own distinctive features, with School A (e.g., hotel and cookery) and School C (e.g., tourism and business) being more service-sector oriented, and School B more manufacturing-sector oriented.

Table 5.5 now presents the participant picture of each specialty's language achievement and motivation.

Table 5.5 indicates that the mean score for the whole group was -0.77 logits, with service specialties above the whole group mean. The *Information Networks* specialty was, however, the most capable among all the specialties tested, while the *Cookery* specialty had the lowest ability score, which reflects the fact that most of the students from this specialty either had a low entry score or did not sit the entrance exam. The rest of the specialties with low language achievement were all manufacturing-sector oriented. Learners in service-sector-oriented specialties were more able than those in manufacturing-sector-oriented specialties.

With regard to motivational factors, the group mean for motivation was 3.58, with *Welding* specialty the lowest (4.31) whereas *Hotel Service and Management* the highest (2.60). Motivation and Language Achievement were both high in two specialties, namely, *Business English* and *Information Networks*, while in other

specialties the two variables exhibited a more diverse distribution. In general, students from the investigated specialties demonstrated low language learning motivation and low language achievement.

Table 5.5 Language achievement and motivation in different specialties

Specialty		Language achievement	Motivation
Air service	Mean	-.72	3.15
	N	86	84
	SD	.870	1.34
Business English	Mean	-.55	3.65
	N	52	51
	SD	.77	1.53
Cookery	Mean	-1.31	4.17
	N	17	17
	SD	.46	1.32
Electrical technology and application	Mean	-.81	3.77
	N	25	25
	SD	.95	1.71
Hotel service and management	Mean	-.06	2.60
	N	17	16
	SD	1.00	1.42
Information networks	Mean	.32	4.11
	N	20	20
	SD	.49	1.44
Machinery manufacturing and control	Mean	-1.13	3.84
	N	62	60
	SD	.75	1.59
Mould design and manufacturing	Mean	-1.26	3.92
	N	53	53
	SD	.57	1.53
Computer numerical control	Mean	-1.31	3.85
	N	42	41
	SD	.42	1.15
Preschool education	Mean	-.34	3.14
	N	42	37
	SD	.80	1.32
Tourism service and management	Mean	-.49	3.19
	N	94	89
	SD	1.22	1.69
Travel service and management	Mean	-.71	3.55
	N	147	143
	SD	1.03	1.59
Welding	Mean	-1.21	4.31
	N	49	49
	SD	.47	1.46
Whole group	Mean	-.77	3.58
	N	706	685
	SD	.94	1.55

5.2.1.4 Family Background

The results of student participants' family background – an important indicator of learners' social and economic status—are presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Family background

Family background	Frequency/Percent
City	316 (44.9%)
County	63 (8.9%)
Countryside	325 (46.2%)
Total	704 (100%)

As Table 5.6 indicates, participants from rural areas (N=388) made up the largest percent (55.1%), greater than those from the urban areas (44.9%). This indicates that a great majority of students have benefited from the government's educational policy that vocational students from rural areas or low income families can receive an annual subsidy of 1,500 RMB to cover their tuition fees and part of their accommodation at school (MOE, 2004). The policy has resulted in an enrollment increase of students from rural areas and urban low income families in vocational education in recent years. The distribution of the data was in line with general VE trends in mainland China.

5.2.1.5 Starting Age of Learning English

Because of developments in information technology and economic globalization, English has become the global lingua franca and is now a compulsory school subject in China. The age of the participants started learning English, however, varied. Table 5.7 presents the results.

Table 5.7 Starting age of learning English

Starting ages	Frequency/Percent
Before 8	116 (16.5%)
Between 9-12	430 (61.1%)
Between 13-15	158 (22.4%)
Total	704 (100%)

The large majority of participants (61.1%) began learning English during their primary education. About 22% of learners learned English in junior secondary education, with most of them from rural areas. A small number of students (16.5%) started learning

English before the age of eight.

In reality, the starting age for children learning English in the city is normally between the ages of 8-9, when they are in their third year of primary education. In larger cities, some good primary schools teach English from Year 1 in primary education or even from kindergarten. Parents with high expectations often send their children to informal educational institutions to learn English prior to their children's English education at school. Schools in the rural areas, however, usually teach English in late primary education or junior secondary education due to the lack of qualified English teachers. The collected data match the general picture of English learning in mainland China.

5.2.1.6 Weekly English Learning Hours in Spare Time

This item investigated the time and effort of the participants put into their English learning in their spare time, with the results presented in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Weekly English learning hours in spare time

Weekly English learning hours	Frequency/Percent *
Less than 3 hours	544 (77.6%)
4-6 hours	144 (20.5%)
7-10 hours	13 (1.9%)
Total	701 (100%)

As can be seen from Table 5.8, the majority of students (77.6%) spent less than three hours a week learning English. The small amount of time on English learning have exerted some negative effects on their English learning and English use, as research has indicated that there is relationship between time and effort spent on learning English with language achievement (i.e., Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). Less than 2% of participants spent around 7-10 hours learning English in their spare time. Compared with their senior secondary counterparts, the time and effort the participants spent on English learning were fairly limited. The outcomes of their English learning and their language competences are shown in the language test analysis section (see 5.2.2).

5.2.1.7 Final Exam English Scores in the First Semester

The item investigated participants' final exam English scores in January 2009, the first semester, with the results shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 Final exam English scores in January 2009

Final exam English Scores	Frequency/ Percent
Between 30-49	141 (20.7%)
Between 50-69	271 (38.9%)
Above 70	282 (40.5%)
Total	697 (100%)

In the previous section (see 5.2.1.6), the data indicate that over three quarters of participants spent less than 3 hours learning English in their spare time, whereas in this section the data show that around 40% of participants scored high (i.e., above 70) in the final exam of January 2009, among which classroom attendance accounted for nearly 40%, as the researcher remarked in the three selected schools. The phenomenon were further explored in the qualitative study. Of those who scored low (i.e., between 30-49) in the final exam, a large number of them were from rural areas, whose English foundation was relatively weak in comparison with their urban counterparts. This group of learners, moreover, began learning English at a later age and spent less time on English in their spare time.

5.2.1.8 Entry English Scores

This item investigated participants' English language competences upon entering vocational schools. The total scores for the entrance exam is 150. The results of the investigation of their entry English scores are shown in Table 5.10.

Since almost all vocational schools now operate an open-door policy, learners can go to vocational senior secondary schools without sitting an exam. This has become a general practice in most vocational schools in order to enroll more learners. Moreover, learners at senior secondary VE may come from different provinces, and their entry

scores are therefore not comparable with each other. The entry English scores, however, indicate that learners generally entered vocational schools with low language competences. For those who scored above 70, most of them were females in service-oriented specialties.

Table 5.10 Entry English scores

Entry English Scores	Frequency/Percent
Between 30-49	237 (34.2%)
Between 50-69	269 (38.8%)
Above 70	187 (27.0%)
Total	693 (100%)

5.2.1.9 Father's Occupation

This item investigated participants' social and economic status. Only 174 participants completed the item as many students considered the issue sensitive and possibly too personal to disclose, as shown in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11 Father's occupation

Father's occupation	Frequency/Percent
Worker	27 (15.5%)
Farmer	36 (20.7%)
Private owner	52 (29.9%)
Civil servant	7 (4.0%)
No fixed occupation	19 (10.9%)
Others	33 (19.0%)
Total	174 (100%)

Table 5.11 indicates that a large group of students' fathers (29.9%) were private owners, who own their own business and are self-employed. A second largest cohort of students' fathers were farmers (20.7%) or those who had no fixed occupation (10.9%). The data are consistent with the current situation regarding the profiles of the students' in the three selected schools although the number of students who answered

the item was small. A substantial number of students' fathers—according to school documents—do not have a fixed job, and are doing temporary jobs in the city or working on a farm. The data are also in line with the detail on students' family backgrounds. The information further indicates that the majority of students were sensitive about their family backgrounds and their social economic status (SES).

5.2.1.10 Summary

In summary, the demographic information and educational profile present a general overview of the participants from the three selected schools. Their language achievement or language competences are further explored and discussed in the following sections.

5.2.2 Language Achievement

Using the *Winsteps* computer program (Linacre, 2006), the results of the data for the 45 items are presented in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12 Summary statistics

Test composition	Results
Number of items	45
Number of test takers	707
Test mean	+0.01 logits
Test S.D.	1.01 logits
Infit mean square	+1.01
Model error	+0.38
Separation	2.40
Reliability	0.86
Standard residual variance explained by data	59%

Table 5.12 shows that the logit mean for the test was +0.01 logits, with the test SD of 1.01 logits—in line with the previously conducted mid-ability test (Zhao & Coniam, 2009). The test taker-item map further provides a view of the test, as presented in Figure 5.1.

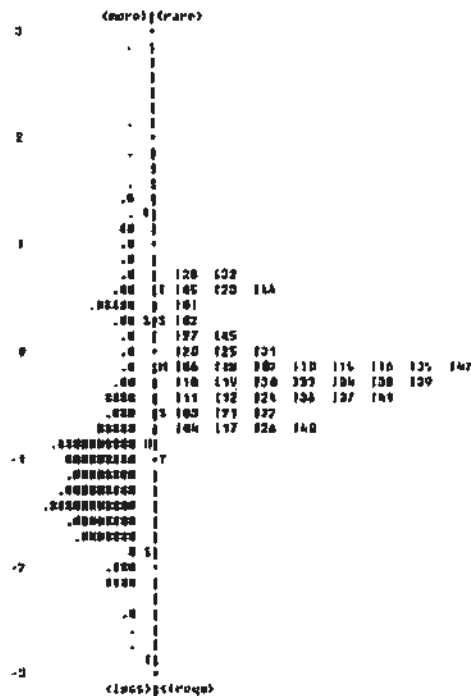


Figure 5.1 Test taker-item map

LH column (test takers) $n=6$ test takers; RH column (items) $l_{xx}=1$ item; $M=1$ item and test means (bolded)

As indicated in the quantitative research design, the adoption of the mid-ability test was anticipated to cover a wider spectrum of ability. The test results indicate that the test item mean was close to zero logits—with a range of -1 and +1 logits. In contrast, test takers had a mean of +0.01 logits, ranging from -2 to +1 logits—a range of almost three logits. As can be seen from Figure 5.1, a substantial number of students have an ability below -1 SD. Given that the items are generally more demanding than the ability of the students, it might, in retrospect, have been more appropriate to administer the low-ability test to participants in the current study. Rasch is nonetheless test independent so, despite the item/student mismatch, the test items still provide a reliable indicator of students' ability (Linacre, 2006).

The language ability test can therefore be seen to be generally suitable to provide a snapshot of students' language competences with regard to reading skills, grammar and vocabulary knowledge of the student participants in this VE sample.

5.3 Findings and Discussion

The quantitative phase of the study has provided a holistic demographic and educational profile of the participants from three selected vocational schools. The study has disclosed that females outnumbered males in the current study, with males mostly from manufacturing-oriented specialties. Unlike their senior secondary counterparts, the students from vocational senior secondary schools were of a heterogeneous group, with eight-year differences. Moreover, most students were from low SES families, with their fathers being farmers and temporary workers. Students from the 13 specialties investigated demonstrated low language learning motivation and low language achievement since a large majority of students exerted less time and effort on learning English in their spare time. Given their current low language competences, the great majority of students could not meet the minimum requirements stipulated in the new NVES (MOE, 2009b), the national curriculum document. The results of the quantitative language audits have set the platform for participant selection for the follow-up qualitative study in identifying needs, exploring the underlying causes of the needs discrepancies and providing feasible solutions for the diagnosed issues.

Chapter 6 Deficiency Analysis: Language Competence Deficiencies

The process of qualitative data collection lasted over a month. The qualitative content data analysis focuses on two main aspects – TSA (target situation analysis) and PSA (present situation analysis) (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; West, 1994), with the deficiency analysis considered as a means as well as an end. The recurring themes that surfaced from the transcribed data were examined to explore and interpret underpinning language competence deficiencies. Although the emergent categories of interpretation and connections were not predetermined, the patterns emerged from informants' particular perspectives on language competences will be outlined in the following sections.

6.1 Data Description

In this section, the qualitative data are described with regard to the demographic information, the target situation analysis (TSA), the present situation analysis (PSA), and the deficiency analysis with the inclusion of means analysis. On the basis of deficiency analysis, the significance of needs are prioritized, regarding to their immediacy of learners' needs.

6.1.1 Demographic Data

After the large scale quantitative investigation, two types of participants – participants from inside the educational institution and participants from outside the institutions – were selected for the qualitative study. General detail is presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 indicates that student participants from the three selected schools were purposively selected from among the large cohort of participants (N=707), with reference to their demographic information, their motivation and language achievement. Along with participants from inside the educational institutions (i.e., students and teachers), participants from outside the selected schools (i.e., inspectors, graduate students and employer) were also purposively selected for the qualitative

study.

Table 6.1 Information of the qualitative participants

Participant	Number
Students	School A=8
	School B=7
	School C=8
Teachers	School A=2
	School B=2
	School C=2
Inspectors	n=2
Graduate students	n=6
Employer	n=1

6.1.2 Deficiency Analysis

The nature of RQ 2 (i.e., **RQ 2. What discrepancies of needs currently exist between the present situation and target situation of senior secondary vocational school students in terms of their language competences?**) is a comprehensive language competence deficiency analysis, incorporating both TSA and PSA, along with two other types of NA – the means analysis and language audits.

The target situation analysis (TSA) normally focuses on the following aspects of the target situation, such as “study or job requirements,” “what the user-institution or society at large regards as necessary,” “what the students themselves would like to gain from the language course,” “what the learner needs to do to actually acquire the language,” “what the students do not know or cannot do in English” (Robinson, 1991, pp. 7-8). The purpose of conducting TSA in the current study is to understand how far vocational learners are reasonably expected to progress and what the expected outcomes are, given current available teaching hours and resources, learners’ needs under the learning context through multiple sources (i.e., students, teachers, graduate students, inspectors and employer) and multiple methods (i.e., interviews, classroom

observations, document analysis and language audits), along with field notes and project journal. In the current study, TSA was conducted on the following three levels of needs: (1) expectation of learners (i.e., service receiver), (2) expectation of teachers' instruction (i.e., service provider), and (3) expectation of educational institutions, learning resources and facilities (i.e., learning environment) (Witkin & Altschuld, 1995).

The purpose of conducting PSA is to identify learners' present situation needs with regard to language competences, also concerning three levels of needs: (1) learners' present learning needs, (2) the way teaching is conducted in formal classroom settings, and (2) the way resources and facilities provided are utilized at school, through multiple information sources and multiple research methods, in line with field notes and project journal.

The data analysis of TSA and PSA followed the same analytical framework regarding the three-level needs. The first level of needs – learners' perceived and present needs – was conducted with reference to the CEFR language competence framework (Council of Europe, 2001; see also 2.4.2.2) and the holistic KSC framework (Le Deist & Winterton, 2005), namely, cognitive competence and functional competence. The other two KSC framework dimensions – meta-competence (i.e., language learning strategies) and social competence (i.e., motivation, attitudes and other affective factors) are analyzed in Chapter 7. Table 6.2 elaborates the deficiency analytic framework.

Table 6.2 indicates that the *cognitive competence* dimension consists of two aspects, with each containing its own sub-categories (Le Deist & Winterton, 2005) (see also 2.3.2). *General competences* in the current study are composed of two sub-components (Council of Europe, 2001) while *communicative language competences* contains three components. *Language skills* (i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing) constitute the functional competence in the holistic competence model. The data analysis of learners' needs was hence deployed around the two competence dimensions of the KSC framework.

Table 6.2 Analytic framework

Cognitive competence	General language competences	Declarative knowledge Skills and know-how
	Communicative language competences	Linguistic competences Sociolinguistic competences Pragmatic competences
Functional competence	Language skills	Listening Speaking Reading Writing

The second level of needs—teachers' perceived instruction and current teaching behavior – was conducted on the following three aspects: (1) language competence cultivation, (2) mode and medium of instruction, and (3) classroom management, to investigate how teachers should conduct and have been conducting their teaching to meet learners' and workplace needs.

The third level of needs – the perceived and present learning resources and facilities – was investigated on the following two aspects: (1) learning resources inside and outside of learning institutions, and (2) facilities at school, to see what sort of learning environment should be provided and what the current learning environment is.

6.2 Results

In this section, the results of the data analysis of the demographic information of the selected 38 participants, the comprehensive deficiency analysis, and the priority of needs are presented and discussed.

6.2.1 Specific Demographic Profile

Following the general picture of the participants' demographic profile (see also 5.2.1), the demographic profile of the 38 participants is further presented in this section. The participants in the qualitative study consisted of two groups: participants from inside

the three selected schools and participants from outside the educational institutions, with details described in the following sections.

6.2.1.1 Students

The 23 students from the three schools were selected from the same cohort of participants (N=707) in the quantitative study after quantitative statistical analysis, the researcher's own classroom observations and interviews with teachers through purposive sampling, with reference to their motivation and language achievement. The description of the participants in the qualitative study followed the same set of demographic profile variables outlined in the quantitative study.

(1) Gender and Age

In the quantitative study, the ratio of females to males was 55: 45, with more female participants from School A and School C, and more males from School B. In The qualitative study, the gender distribution, as shown in Table 6.3, was consistent with the gender distribution in the quantitative study.

Table 6.3 Gender distribution of the student participants

Gender	The quantitative study	The qualitative study	
Male	318 (45%)	School A=84	9 (39.1%)
		School B=215	School B=7
		School C=19	School C=2
Female	389 (55%)	School A=205	14 (60.9%)
		School B=19	School A=8
		School C=165	School C=6

Regarding the age distribution, in the quantitative study, there was considerable variation in age among the participants, with an eight-year span between 14 to 22. A great majority of participants were born in 1992 or 1993 (aged 16-17), constituting 84.3% of the research participants. The age of the 23 participants in the qualitative study, as Table 6.4 above indicates, was mostly clustered between 15-18 years, with a

three-year range of difference.

(2) Specialty

As indicated in Table 6.4, the 23 participants in the qualitative phase were chosen from seven specialties among the 13 specialties surveyed, with five from the service sector and two from the manufacturing sector.

Table 6.4 Descriptive information of specialties and participants

Specialty	No. of participants
Service	
Air service	2
Business English	2
Hotel service and management	6
Tourism service and management	7
Trail service and management	1
Manufacturing	
Mould design and manufacturing	3
Computer numerical control	2
Total	23

Among the 23 qualitative participants, 18 were from service-sector-oriented specialties and 5 from manufacturing-sector-oriented specialties.

(3) Family Background

As seen from Table 6.5, 56.5% of the participants in the qualitative study were from rural areas (i.e., county and countryside).

The data were in line with the general quantitative survey in the quantitative study that about 55% of participants were from rural areas due to government subsidy policy for students from rural areas and low-income families.

Table 6.5 Family background of student participants

Family background	The quantitative study	The qualitative study
City	316 (44.9%)	10 (43.5%) School A=4 School B=4 School C=2
County	63 (8.9%)	3 (13%) School A=2 School B=1
Countryside	325 (46.2%)	10 (43.5%) School A=2 School B=3 School C=5

(4) Starting Age of Learning English

Table 6.6 presents the data for this item.

Table 6.6 Participants' starting age of learning English

Starting ages	The quantitative study	The qualitative study
Before 8	116 (16.5%)	5(21.7%)
Between 9-12	430 (61.1%)	15 (65.2%)
Between 13-15	158 (22.4%)	3 (13.5%)

The information of the selected participants in the qualitative study indicates that a great majority of participants (65.2%) learned English between the ages of 9-12, the time for most school children to begin learning. The information, in general, was coherent with the statistical description in the quantitative study.

(5) Weekly English Learning Hours in Spare Time

Table 6.7 presents the time and effort that participants spent on English.

Table 6.7 Participants' weekly English learning hours in spare time

Weekly English learning hours	The quantitative study	The qualitative study
Less than 3 hours	544 (77.6%)	17 (74.9%)
4-6 hours	144 (20.5%)	5 (21.7%)
7-10 hours	13 (1.9%)	1 (4.3%)

A great majority of the selected participants (74.9%) in the qualitative study spent less than three hours on English in their spare time. The statistical information was similar to the quantitative survey. The data, moreover, indicate that participants had low English learning interest in and low motivation towards English.

(6) Final Exam English Score in the First Semester

Table 6.8 shows the data for the final exam English scores in the previous semester in January 2009.

Table 6.8 Participants' final exam English scores in January 2009

Final exam English Scores	The quantitative study	The qualitative study
Between 30-49	141 (20.7%)	3 (13.1%)
Between 50-69	271 (38.9%)	7 (30.4%)
Above 70	282 (40.5%)	13 (56.5%)

The statistical information of the selected participants was mostly consistent with the data in the quantitative survey, with a higher percentage (56.5%) of high achievers in the qualitative study, though.

(7) Entry English Scores

Table 6.9 shows the selected participants' entry English score. The maximum score of the examination is 150. From the performance shown, it can be seen that the students' scores in the entry English examination were low.

Table 6.9 Participants' entry English scores

Entry English Scores	The quantitative study	The qualitative study
Between 30-49	237 (34.2%)	8 (34.8%)
Between 50-69	269 (38.8%)	7 (30.4%)
Above 70	187 (27.0%)	8 (34.8%)

The statistical data of the selected participants in the qualitative study demonstrated a broadly similar distribution, with a higher percentage of higher achievers selected. Like the data in the quantitative study, the high score achievers were mostly females in service-sector-oriented specialties.

(8) Father's Occupation

The results are presented in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10 Father's occupation of the participants

Father's occupation	The quantitative study	The qualitative study
Worker	27 (15.5%)	4 (17.4%)
Farmer	36 (20.7%)	9 (39.1%)
Private owner	52 (29.9%)	5 (21.7%)
Civil servant	7 (4.0%)	1 (4.3%)
No fixed occupation	19 (10.9%)	3 (13.1%)
Others	33 (19.0%)	1 (4.3%)

The statistical data of the selected participants in the qualitative study resembled those in the quantitative study that a great majority of participants were from low SES families, although only a small cohort of participants completed this item. A large group of students were from rural areas, whose fathers worked on farm, with most of them males from School B. The next large group of participants' fathers were self-employed private owners, running their own business. The one special case was that one student was fatherless.

(9) Summary

The selected student participants' demographic information indicates that the 23 participants in the qualitative study were generally consistent with the quantitative language audits. They were therefore representative of the cohort of the participants in the quantitative study.

6.2.1.2 Teachers

Table 6.11 presents the data of teacher participants.

Table 6.11 Information of teacher participants

Data mnemonics	Teaching experience	Title
SB-TI-#01-LXY	5 years	Subject teacher
SC-TI-#02-WJ	16 years	Head of the division
SC-TI-#03-DF	12 years	Head teacher
SA-TI-#04-LMJ	7 years	Head of the division
SA-TI-#05-ZN	6 years	Head teacher
SB-TI-#06-PPP	4 years	head teacher

Key: SB=school, TI=teacher interview, #=number of interviewee, XX=interviewee name code

As shown in Table 6.11, all the teacher participants involved in the interviews were experienced teachers, exhibiting a range of teaching experience from 4 to 16 years. Two of them were head of the English division, and three head teachers. Five of them have been teaching English in vocational senior secondary schools since their graduation, with one teacher (i.e., #5) recently transferred into vocational education from a private senior secondary school. All of the teachers were university graduates, with one teacher (i.e., #6) pursuing her post-graduate study at the time of the qualitative study.

Among the six interviewed teachers, classroom observation was conducted in four of their classes (i.e., #01, #02, #03, #06). For two teachers (i.e., #04 and #05), their classes were not observed, but a few of their students were interviewed. The reason

that they were selected as a few teachers rejected the proposal of having their classes observed and two observed teachers refused to have a follow-up interview with the researcher. These two teachers were then selected as substitutes. Their years of teaching experience, their actual teaching practice and their perspectives on learners' learning needs enabled the researcher to acquire a deeper understanding of both vocational senior secondary education and learners. The teachers, therefore, provided a more comprehensive picture of both participants' current and target learning needs with regard to their language competences.

6.2.1.3 Graduate Students

The data of graduate students are presented in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12 Information of graduate students

Data mnemonics	Graduation	Occupation	Affiliation
MA-GS-#01-F	2005	Assembly Line leader	An automobile works
MA-GS-#02-M	2005	Assembly Line worker	An airplane plant
SV-GS-#03-F	2006	Mid level manager	A 5-star hotel
SV-GS-#04-F	2006	Sales manager	A big restaurant
IT-GS-#05-F	2000	Training consultant	A computer training center
IT-GS-#06-F	2007	Office clerk	A software company

As described in Table 6.12, five of the interview participants were female, one male. All participants graduated from vocational senior secondary vocational education after 2000. At the time of the study, two graduates (i.e., #1 and #2) were working in the manufacturing sector; two graduates (i.e., #3 and #4) in the service sector; and two graduates (i.e., #5 and #6) in the IT-related sector. Three of the graduate students were either assembly line workers (i.e., #2) or company clerks (i.e., #5 and #6). Three of them (i.e., #1, #3, and #4) have been promoted from the assembly line workers or service workers to mid-level administrators.

6.2.1.4 English Inspectors and Employer

Along with graduate students, the involvement of English inspectors and the employer provide the current study with *etic* perspectives (Miles & Huberman, 1994) on language competences. Table 6.13 presents the data for the English inspectors and employer.

Table 6.13 Information of inspectors and employer

Data mnemonics	Name Code	Affiliation
IP-#01-F	LHY	A vocational education center
IP-#02-F	ZJ	A vocational education center
EP-#01-M	SE	A joint-venture company

Two English inspectors and one joint-venture employer were investigated in the qualitative interviews. The two female inspectors were in their mid-thirties. Both of them were formerly English teachers, having been promoted to be inspectors since 2003. Their perspectives on language competences triangulated the data obtained from other sources.

The joint-venture German manager was in his late thirties and has been working in China for nearly ten years. The joint-venture factory is situated on the southern suburb of the city. The interview with him was conducted in English. He spoke fluent English, although with a strong German accent. As an international factory, English plays a key role in the daily functioning of the factory. The interview with the German employer provided useful information of language competences required in the workplace.

6.2.1.5 Summary

In general, the demographic profile of the selected student participants was representative of the cohort of participants. Through purposive and snowball sampling, various sources of information, such as teachers, graduate students, inspectors and employer, were obtained in the qualitative study, along with information acquired in the quantitative study.

6.2.2 Deficiency Analysis of Learners' Learning Needs

In this section, the deficiency analysis regarding the expectation of learners' target needs and present learning needs are described and discussed. The interviewed participants are quoted in the mnemonics.

6.2.2.1 Language Competences

Language competences, addressed as cognitive competences in the holistic competence model (Le Deist & Winterton, 2005), consists of two dimensions: *general* competences and *communicative language* competences (Council of Europe, 2001), the deficiency analysis of TSA and PSA were deployed on the two cognitive competence dimensions.

6.2.2.1.1 General Competences

General competences are not specifically language related. They constitute a person's world knowledge or world view. With reference to CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001; see 2.4.2.1), two categories of themes emerged in the qualitative deficiency analysis: (1) declarative knowledge, and (2) skills and know-how, on the basis of the text data from various sources, such as students, graduate students, teachers, inspectors and employer, through multiple methods—classroom observation, interviews and document analysis.

In the analysis presented below, the major themes that emerged from the data are supported by quotes from participants' interviews and from excerpts from transcripts of the observed lessons translated by the researcher, with primary data presented in Appendix H. The data have been coded in the format **PrimaryData###**, where ### stands for a sequenced data number.

(1) Declarative Knowledge

The detailed description and interpretation of the analysis of participants' declarative knowledge are illustrated below on the following emerging themes:

Knowledge of the Working World

The teacher interviews show that students were expected to acquire sufficient declarative knowledge of their future working world through situated workplace learning, in particular the working environment related with English use, as the teacher from School A noted:

I think the best thing is for the school to make arrangement for students to go to the sort of their future workplace several times for practicum. For example, our school have connections with certain hotels, the sort of hotels which have long-term connection with our school. The school can make arrangement for students, even just once, for them to go and see their future working environment, which has relation with English use. Or the school can make arrangement for students to visit the sort of Western food restaurants, even just once, to gain an experience. The experience will do well to students. Otherwise, whatever and however we explain things to them in class do not make any sense to them. They can't build the connection (between what is learned at school and what is required at workplace).

(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL166-170) **PrimaryData001**

In the workplace, students were also expected to possess knowledge of the working world, in particular the whole working system, for their sustained personal and career development. One graduate student, working at the service sector, remarked that:

You've got to know each department, although you may not know each department well. In the case of eating and dining, you've got to know each department, each related department with eating and dining. It is not easy to have an understanding of all the other related departments at work. If you just learn eating and dining, without an understanding of lobby or sales, although they aren't closely related, I think you'll be confined solely to do service work all your life. You won't get the opportunity to be promoted across the career ladder.

(SV-GS-#04-F, LL110-114) **PrimaryData002**

In the workplace, according to the graduate students and employer, acquiring a holistic understanding of the whole working system was considered a must, especially in those internationalized enterprises, such as luxury hotels and joint venture companies.

The luxury hotels really focus on rotation training. In my case, I worked at the bar, but I did a nine-month practice at the coffee bar. Take me as an example. I'm now

working at the bar, if I just know about eating and dining, especially Chinese cuisine; I think it's far from enough, as you don't even know how to set the table for Western cuisine.

(ibid., LL122-124) **PrimaryData003**

We developed a rotation training. And they had to go to all the different departments and then spend a couple of days in the different departments, and maybe understanding what the department is doing, what the department is doing.

(EP-#01-M, LL68-70)

Acquiring a holistic understanding of the working system, such as through rotation training, was thereafter considered a crucial factor for future employees to get promoted along their future career ladder, as one graduate student commented:

They expect us to get a holistic understanding of the whole working system. They have an organization flowchart. For each department, we are required to go there to learn its main function, such as the function of the lobby, although we still focus on eating and dining since our specialty is hotel management. We are also required to learn housekeeping, but our main focus is still on eating and dining. Since all the departments are inter-related with each other, even though we work at the eating and dining department, we can understand the functions of other departments in the whole working system.

(SV-GS-#04-F, LL116-120) **PrimaryData004**

However, interviews with students revealed on the moment students did not have sufficient knowledge of their current specialty, let alone their targeted working world.

My friends came to this vocational school. So I came here with them.

(SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, L118) **PrimaryData005**

My family considered the specialty fine, so I came to the school.

(SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, L85) **PrimaryData006**

I don't know much of the workplace. ... It seems that the job market is in need of my specialty.

(SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, L157-159) **PrimaryData007**

As a result, when they went to the workplace, their knowledge of the workplace and the working system was generally insufficient, as the joint venture German employer

commented:

If you want to say it like that, then they come into the industry and now, I mean, they don't know what the industry is doing. They don't really know what the common is. They don't understand the product, they don't understand the processes. They don't understand the different departments. (EP-#01-M, LL44-47)

Sociocultural Knowledge and Intercultural Awareness

Sociocultural knowledge in a strict sense refers to “knowledge of the society and culture of the community or communities in which a language is spoken” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 102) while intercultural awareness covers an awareness of how each community appears from the perspective of the other, often in the form of national stereotypes” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 103). In the workplace, sociocultural knowledge and intercultural awareness are considered crucial as people at work may come from different places and different countries, whose culture is different from our Chinese culture, as the German general manager remarked:

Also, like here, now we have so much cultures getting together, right, and we have Australians, some American people, a lot of from foreign companies. We have French, French people here, a lot of people from other places, who are Canadian, or Irish people; they also have their culture, whereas the China culture is very different. (EP-#01-M, LL191-195)

As China is becoming more internationalized, the acceptance of different cultures is an inescapable issue for today's youth at work. The German general manager further commented:

And the acceptance of different culture, if they behave differently, act different, and, but it doesn't mean they are superior or they are, or they are. It's just, you know, the environment is kind of changing, was this. There is a nice book. I like that one from Mr. Friedman from America, *The World Is Flat*. Right? ... Yes, it is so flat now. And I think we are working in a very different environment today, even this, I mean now, because the economic crisis is changing and I think long term, there is no way, you cannot escape globalization I guess. (EP-#01-M, LL198-206)

At present, a great majority of students have now developed an appreciation of the social culture in the English speaking countries through listening to English songs

and/or watching English films due to the influence of pop culture, as the students stated:

The majority of students in my class enjoy listening to English songs. Although our English is not good, we can learn English songs very quickly.

(SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL116-117) **PrimaryData008**

Yeah, I especially like listening to English songs and seeing English films.

(SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, L54) **PrimaryData009**

I usually like watching English films. I always see some English films. Although I can't always understand those films, I always like seeing the films in English. I think the English films are more vivid.

(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL51-51) **PrimaryData010**

Although students showed interest towards foreign culture, such as English songs and films, they generally had no awareness of the importance of intercultural differences in their future work, as one student remarked:

Students just don't know what use that English will perform in their future.

(SC-TI-#02-WJ, L142) **PrimaryData011**

Most important of all, they don't think English will be useful in the future. It won't be of any use to them.

(ibid., L186) **PrimaryData012**

Knowledge of Other Languages

With China becoming more internationalized, more foreigners are visiting China. Among them, there are English speakers and non-English speakers, as one student said:

So many foreigners are coming to China. It's impossible for you to communicate with them in Chinese. At least, some of them can't speak English.

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL322-324) **PrimaryData013**

In the workplace, in particular in the service sector, there emerged the need for employees to acquire knowledge of other languages, along with English, as in the

words of one graduate student:

If you want to work at a certain luxury hotel, then you should at least learn some other foreign languages, because at present in the hotel, there are not only English and American guests but also Koreans, Japanese and Germans. ...Acquiring other foreign languages can be of greater help to us in our work. Many employees in our hotel are now learning some Asian languages in their spare time.

(SV-GS-#03-F, LL141-153) **PrimaryData014**

Not only did the workplace demonstrate the need for their employees to acquire knowledge of other languages, students at school also expressed a desire to gain knowledge of other foreign languages, as two students remarked:

In today's society, you should master a foreign language or even several more foreign languages. I think, the most important thing now is not just to learn English well but also to be able to use it. It doesn't make any sense if you just learn it without being able to make use of the language. Moreover, you should learn a few more foreign languages in relation to your future workplace needs.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL208-212) **PrimaryData015**

Yeah, I want to learn Japanese, Japanese and other Asian languages.

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, L318) **PrimaryData016**

Taking into account of the target workplace needs, schools were expected to provide more optional language learning courses in the special interest class for those students from the service-oriented specialties. One graduate student suggested that:

I think vocational schools should teach more foreign languages, such as Asian languages and German. Now, I think knowledge of other foreign languages is pretty important.

(SV-GS-#03-F, LL124-126) **PrimaryData017**

It will be much better if schools can provide some other Asian language courses. It will be far much better. ... But to students, they can learn English first and then learn other foreign languages in their special interest class. If students, for example like myself, want to be promoted to a certain position in the hotel, I think they can take the special interest class, for example the Korean class ...

(SV-GS-#03-F, LL143-149) **PrimaryData018**

I think the school should provide some Asian language courses, yeah, if students would like to learn. I think there's no need to force them to learn. If they want to learn, they can just take the language class. We can provide such classes as Korean or German. This is just my suggestion, yeah.

(ibid., LL184-186) **PrimaryData019**

Among the foreign languages mentioned, Korean, German and Japanese seem to be of priority importance since in recent years there have been more Korean and Japanese high-tech companies and German automobile companies in the city. The requirements for other foreign languages (i.e., Korean, Japanese and German), along with English, seem to be in line with the local economic and industry development. In reality, both in the new NVES and the current school curriculum, there is no provision of other foreign languages other than English.

In summary, the differences between the PSA and TSA have illustrated that there are gaps between vocational senior secondary education and the workplace, with the results shown in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14 Declarative knowledge deficiencies

Items	TSA	PSA
Knowledge of the specialty and the workplace	√	
Sociocultural knowledge of foreign countries	√	√
Intercultural awareness	√	
Knowledge of other languages	√	

The TSA, on the one hand, has disclosed that students were expected to acquire: holistic knowledge of the working world, sociocultural knowledge of foreign countries and intercultural awareness, and knowledge of other languages. The PSA, on the other hand, has shown that students generally had insufficient knowledge of the workplace and their currently learning specialty, although students had interest in acquiring sociocultural knowledge of foreign countries. Students did not seem to realize the importance of intercultural differences at workplace. Regarding the knowledge of other languages, there were no other foreign languages currently provided at school.

On the basis of the deficiency analysis between TSA and PSA, school education

should therefore provide more declarative knowledge related to students' current specialty and their targeted working world, cultivate students' awareness of intercultural differences that they might encounter in their future life and work, and if possible develop students' knowledge of other foreign languages (e.g., Korean, Japanese and German).

(2) Skills and Know-How

The cross-case interview analysis emerged with the following two themes: (1) practical skills and know-how, and (2) intercultural skills and know-how, which are illustrated below.

Practical Skills and Know-How

Interviews with the employer indicated that students were expected to develop vocational or technical/vocational skills at the workplace.

Well, obviously there is the technical side, depending on where we work on.
(EP-#01-M, LL139-140)

Along with technical/vocational skills, hands-on skills were considered important at the workplace, especially for those working in the manufacturing sector, as one graduate student pointed out:

The most important thing is the operational skills as well as your technical skill, which are both important.

(MA-GS-#02-M, LL146-148) **PrimaryData020**

Social skills or team work, furthermore, was considered important to deal with interpersonal communication at workplace, as noted by two graduate students and the joint venture manager:

For example, if we learn things now, I think the most important thing should be eating and dining. Even if we major in hotel management, eating and dining should also be dealt with. Other things, such as social skills, should also be concerned as well.

(SV-GS-#04-F, LL26-28) **PrimaryData021**

I think social skills are very important. It seems that communication is really important. Whether you can adapt yourself to the environment around you or not depends on your social skills.

(MA-GS-#02-M, LL140-142) **PrimaryData022**

The other issue or other element for, which is also very important, and is sometimes difficult, is team work capability. If you call it like that. I think there is a cultural deficiency, might be? If I work with, let's say, Japanese people, it seems within the culture they are more team orientated anyhow, and we have more difficulty here. It seems a lot of times people here are more individual orientated whereas team orientated. So something we need sometimes it is not automatically happening, that is, able to what we need to do that as a team because they are on a lot of different directions. That is something we are developing and we are putting of focus on. I think it's an important element, because as an individual, you just can't accomplish what you can accomplish as a team. It is not possible. (EP-#01-M, LL151-159)

At present, students' vocational skills and know-how were inadequate, that is, their theoretical school learning was still separated from practical vocational skills required at the workplace, as commented by one graduate student:

For example, in the workplace, I can see many newly graduate students, who don't have adequate vocational skills. It is quite likely that they have learned some theoretical knowledge, but in the workplace they lack practical vocational skills, such as how to hold a tray, how to pour wine to customers, to what extent should the wine be served, and knowledge of various kinds of wine. They appear to know nothing, you know, they especially lack practical vocational skills. When they hold things, they either break them or appear to be unprofessionally trained.

(SV-GS-#03-F, LL50-54) **PrimaryData023**

The separation between theoretical knowledge and practical vocational skills was therefore an issue to deal with at senior secondary VE.

Intercultural Skills and Know-How

Intercultural skills and know how refers to the ability to communicate and use a variety of strategies to deal effectively with speakers from other cultures (Council of Europe, 2001). Not only were students expected to possess sociocultural knowledge of foreign countries and have intercultural awareness, they were also expected to develop

intercultural skills to adjust themselves to the diversity of workplace culture and environment, as commented by the employer.

So but then the environment, you need to understand the cultural differences, and work within that environment. So if you can kind of mentally adjust yourself to the sort of thing, I would say life is easier in the future, otherwise there are only kinds of clashes. (EP-#01-M, LL198-210)

As the German employer remarked, various cultural differences exist in the workplace. People at the workplace are expected to possess the competence and appropriate skills to deal with such differences, while in reality students were still incapable of doing the knowledge-to-skill transfer. Once outside the classroom, students were unable to deal with real life business transactions, as remarked by one inspector.

The problem with our students is that although we teachers have spent a lot of time in training them, we give them a lot of vocational training. But when they really meet foreigners, they still can't speak out. There exists a problem. (IP-#02-F, LL182-184)

PrimaryData024

To summarize, the deficiency analysis showed that there were major discrepancies regarding students' skills and know-how, with results presented in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15 Skills and know-how deficiencies

Items	TSA	PSA
Practical skills and know-how	√	
Intercultural skills and know-how	√	

TSA has revealed that the workplace expected students to develop two types of skills: (1) practical skills and know-how, and (2) intercultural skills and know-how. The PSA, however, showed that students at current VE lacked these skills. Given the gaps between the two aspects of skills and know-how, vocational senior secondary education should provide more situated and simulated learning and practice to hone students' practical skills and know-how.

6.2.2.1.2 Communicative Language Competences

The notion of *communicative language competences* are language specific, which

consists of knowledge, skills and know-how for its three sub-components: (1) *linguistic competences*, (2) *sociolinguistic competence*, and (3) *pragmatic competences* (Broeder & Martyniuk, 2008; Council of Europe, 2001). The cross-case data analysis is presented around the three competence dimensions.

(1) Linguistic Competences

Linguistic competences in the CEFR are defined as “knowledge of, and ability to use, the formal resources from which well-formed, meaningful messages may be assembled and formulated” (Council of Europe., p. 109), consisting of six sub-components: (1) lexical competence, (2) grammatical competence, (3) semantic competence, (4) phonological competence, (5) orthographic competence, and (6) orthoepic competence (Council of Europe, 2001).

Lexical Competence

Lexical competence refers to “knowledge of, and ability to use, the vocabulary of a language” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 110). Student interviews disclosed that both students and graduate students were conscious of the importance of lexical competence, and expected to develop their lexical competence through the accumulation of more stock of vocabulary.

I think for us Chinese to learn English it seems that more vocabulary would be better.

(MA-GS-#02-M, LL85-87) **PrimaryData025**

I think we should remember more words so that our reading comprehension skills can be improved.

(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, L45) **PrimaryData026**

The classroom observation and student interviews revealed that students had insufficient vocabulary repertoire, with a varied limited stock of vocabulary range from a few to around a thousand, as remarked in the words of the students:

I basically have no vocabulary. ... I only know a few (fixed expressions).

(SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, LL104-108) **PrimaryData027**

When English is concerned, I know no more than 100 words, just a couple of tens, which I know their meaning, and am able to speak.

(SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, L176) **PrimaryData028**

My vocabulary isn't large. It's about 1,000, around 1,000 words.

(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, L98) **PrimaryData029**

The insufficient stock of vocabulary resulted in students' inability to deal with academic learning at school and communication in real life situations, as two students pointed out:

As to my English vocabulary, how to say, I myself feel that my English isn't good, because my vocabulary is fairly limited. Sometime when I see a word, the word looks familiar to me, but I don't know how to say it in English. Sometimes when I read a text, I can read the whole text. But if asked to translate the text into Chinese, I don't know what the sentences in the text mean. My vocabulary is terribly limited.

(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL102-106) **PrimaryData030**

Foreigners speak English so fast that you can't understand what they're talking about at all. And sometimes, even if you can say a little English, but because of your limited vocabulary, you can hardly answer the foreigners' questions.

(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL124-125) **PrimaryData031**

Given students' current limited stock of vocabulary, it seemed quite unlikely that within the limited teaching hours of the GE module (128-144 hours) a large majority of students would be able to reach the minimum vocabulary requirements of about 1,700 words and expressions, along with over 200 core vocational words and expression in relation to their own specialty.

Grammatical Competence

Grammatical competence can be defined as "knowledge of, and ability to use, the grammatical resources of a language" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 112) in accordance with set of principles. The grammatical resources involve the organization of grammatical elements. Interviews with student participants disclosed that students were conscious of the importance of grammatical competence and expected to develop their grammatical competence as it is more related to language use.

For language use in the future, grammar is more important than those isolated individual words.

(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL122-123) **PrimaryData032**

You should know more words and grammar. Those things can't be remembered just once for all, you should learn them again and again, and read them time and again to consolidate your learning.

(SC-SI-#24-WSQ-TSM-F, LL96-97) **PrimaryData033**

In reality, students considered grammar difficult and complex as it is quite different from their mother tongue—Chinese. Their limited grammatical repertoire resulted in their low self-confidence of their grammatical competence, as reflected in the words of the following four students:

The problem is that there are a lot of problems with grammar.

(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, L113) **PrimaryData034**

I have no difficulty in memorizing vocabulary, but my grammar is still poor.

(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, L71) **PrimaryData035**

Unlike Chinese which is our native language, English is sometimes very complicated. You know, the various sorts of grammar are really difficult to understand. (SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, LL48-50) **PrimaryData036**

Sometimes I've no self-confidence because I don't know much about grammar.

Now I'm quite worried. I can't read those grammar books, the books that I bought at junior secondary school. I can't understand those books at all. It was the sort of things like that.

(SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F, LL85-89) **PrimaryData037**

Due to their limited grammatical repertoire, students were unable to organize linguistic elements for effective language use, as stated by the students:

I still have problems with English grammar, problems with some grammatical phenomena. Anyway, I have difficulty in doing exercises. Sometimes when you want to make a sentence, how to say, the sort of pattern drill exercises. You know the meaning in Chinese, but it's still difficult to write down the sentences in English. There's still another type of sentence transformation exercise. That type of exercise is relatively easier. Once you are required to translate Chinese into English, it's not easy. Sometimes I can't understand the grammar. ... Now I spend more time mainly

reading the sort of things like tenses.

(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL116-125) **PrimaryData038**

Students like us should not only memorize, memorize sentences, but also ... need to know what they really mean. So, I need to know more words, you know. I need to know how to combine the words into sentences, you know. What's the use of knowing many words without knowing how to make sentences with them? You should know how to turn them into sentences.

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL337-341) **PrimaryData039**

Given students' present low grammatical competence, the grammar competence prescribed in the new NVES still appears to be somewhat beyond the reach of a large group of students due to their limited grammatical repertoire and current language competences.

Semantic Competence

Semantic competence refers to the ability to "deal with the learner's awareness and control of the organization of meaning" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 115). As indicated in the CEFR, meaning is central to communication as "languages are based on an organization of form and an organization of meaning. The two kinds of organization cut across each other in a largely arbitrary fashion" (ibid., p. 117). Teacher interviews revealed that students were expected to develop their semantic competence so that they could put their knowledge of language usage into communicative language use, as one teacher stated:

But my requirement is that they should not only be able to learn things by heart, but can also make use of what they've learned. They need to know the meaning and why it is used that way. Maybe I'm a bit more demanding. (SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL53-54)

PrimaryData040

Students, on the other hand, indicated that they lacked semantic competence to organize isolated linguistic forms into meaningful language units. One student pointed out that:

We learned grammar in junior secondary school. But still there are some grammatical aspects that I can't remember. When we do the exercises, and

sometimes when the teacher explains, we can't fully comprehend the grammar. And when in use, we can't put the language knowledge into meaningful language use.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL22-24) **PrimaryData041**

The lack of semantic competence resulted from their previous rote-learning teaching and learning experienced at junior secondary education, as remarked by one student:

The teacher we had in junior secondary school, our English teacher. When we learned Oxford English, the teacher only asked us to recite, to rote learning those consonants and the things like that. I can't remember anything now. We never learned to use those things. I've just started to use those things. After her explanation of the text, the teacher would teach us how to read, and then gave us a test to see how well we could recite. She didn't teach us how to use those things, and we never learned to use them. She just talked, talked about those things in one class until finally all of us could recite. Although we could all recite the things in the end, we don't know how to make those rote-learning things into meaningful use, that is, how to put them into meaningful use.

(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL226-231) **PrimaryData042**

Given students' current low semantic competence, students could not make effective use of the communicative functions and notions listed in the new NVES (MOE, 2009b).

Phonological Competence

Phonological competence involves knowledge of, and skill in the perception and production of (1) the sound-units (phonemes) of the language and their realization in particular contexts (allophones), (2) the phonetic features which distinguish phonemes, (3) the phonetic composition of words, and (4) sentence phonetics (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 117). Interviews with student participants revealed that students expected to improve their phonological competence, in particular, their phonological knowledge of phonetic symbols, to facilitate their language learning, as stated by two students:

If you want to learn English well, you need to know phonetic symbols.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, L111) **PrimaryData043**

The phonetic symbols, the phonetic symbols are very important. I think if you know the phonetic symbols, then it's easier to remember words. If words can be easily

remembered, then it can be extended to sentences.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL233-234) PrimaryData044

In addition to the phonetic symbols, students also expressed the desire to gain the competences at above the word levels, such as sentence stress and rhythm, intonation, and phonetic reduction (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 116-117), as remarked by one student:

In the past, I just followed the teacher to read the words and expressions. When reciting the text, I just memorized the text word by word, the way quite different from foreigners who speak consistently with liaison. I expect to learn after our English teacher, to read the words with liaison. ... Yes, I wish I could speak with liaison and reduction like the way foreigners speak. It's OK if I can just sound like foreigners.

(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL81-86) PrimaryData045

As one student commented, at present students have realized the importance of phonological competence in facilitating their language learning, as phonological knowledge could enable them to decipher the relationships between word forms and their pronunciation.

For vocabulary learning, the most important thing is to know the phonetic symbols. Once you know the phonetic symbols, it is easier to remember words. Usually if you know the phonetics, you can remember the words more quickly. It's especially much faster. It's almost the case that once you know the phonetic symbols, you can pronounce the words. It's quite likely that some letters are always represented in the same phonetic symbols. You can just think about how the word is pronounced, and then you'll know how it can be written. There might be some words that you may not encounter them before, but sometimes once you heard the word is pronounced, you know at once its written form. In that way, you get familiar with the phonetic symbols.

(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL65-69) PrimaryData046

Students, however, generally lacked the phonological competence although phonological knowledge has long been taught in primary and junior secondary education, as confirmed by a graduate student and a student participant:

But I think there are quite a few of students who may not know phonetic symbols. For me, I still can't recognize all the phonemes now.

(SV-GS-#04-F, LL162-163) PrimaryData047

When I went to junior secondary school, I started going to some tutoring classes to learn phonetic symbols. After that, I got to know some phonetic symbols. Since I didn't spend much time on English, I could only know some simple phonetic symbols, words and sentences. Even till now, my knowledge of English is still at this sort of level.

(SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F, LL15-16) **PrimaryData048**

Due to their inadequate phonological competence, students were not able to communicate adequately in real life situations. In the words of one student:

We can't understand what foreigners are saying to us because they speak very fast with the sort of pronunciation and liaison. We don't know anything about those things. Actually, we know the sentence, but when a foreigner speaks, we get puzzled and can't make sense of it.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL132-134) **PrimaryData049**

Although the importance of phonological competence is clearly apparent to students, phonological knowledge above the sound and word levels, that is, at sentence level, was seldom explained and practiced in class as I observed in my own classroom observation.

Orthographic Competence

Orthographic competence involves knowledge and skills "in the perception and production of the symbols of which written texts are composed" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 117). In the words of one graduate student, orthographic competence was of relatively minor importance at the workplace.

Well, to tell the truth, in the luxury hotels the opportunity of writing is pretty rare. In the workplace, no guest will ask you to help him write an English word. The chances of writing a word are pretty rare, although writing should be learned at school. ... Usually we don't write. ... We don't need to write words at all.

(SV-GS-#04-F, LL73-80) **PrimaryData050**

In formal school education, a greater part of students' time at school was spent on writing, mostly mechanical copying exercises without the practice of productive writing. Mechanical writing or copying seemed to be the usual teaching and learning

practice at the three vocational schools observed, as indicated by the graduate student and the student participant from School B:

- Each time when we finished learning a unit, the teacher would give us a dictation. If we made a mistake, the teacher would then ask us to write the correct forms of the words or expressions ten times. We were then given another dictation, and then repeated the writing and copying actions another ten times. The action would continue repetitively.

(IT-GS-#06-F, LL128-131) **PrimaryData051**

What the teacher requires us to do isn't that kind of questions that you need to answer by yourself. It's the sort of things like copying words and texts.

(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, LL182-183) **PrimaryData052**

The point was further confirmed by a teacher in School B:

I simply ask them to copy the text, and the words and expressions, and yet they still dislike doing these things.

(SB-TI-#01-LXY, L644) **PrimaryData053**

The above mentioned statements indicated that the mechanical copying and writing practice at senior secondary VE should be dealt with in more purposive and meaningful ways.

Orthoepic Competence

According to the CEFR, when users are required to read aloud a prepared text, or to use in speech words first encountered in their written form, they need to be able to pronounce a word correctly from its written form (Council of Europe, 2001). Student interviews revealed that they expected to develop their orthoepic competence as they considered the competence was crucial to their effective English learning, as the following three students stated:

Shouldn't your pronunciation be correct?

(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, L132) **PrimaryData054**

Usually the way we learn English is to read more. It would be quite nice if we can do more reading practice of words, phonological symbols, and things like that.

(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL73-75) **PrimaryData055**

Anyway, I wish I could do more reading aloud practice.

(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, L45) **PrimaryData056**

In reality, students considered orthoepic competence essential to language learning, with time and effort spending on training this competence, as two student participants stated:

Now I think that reading aloud is important whether my orthoepic competence is good or bad. Even though I may make mistakes, it doesn't matter. In junior secondary school, even if I know how to read, I dare not to read aloud. If I still behave the way as I did in junior secondary school, then I'll never be able to learn English well. (SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL75-78) **PrimaryData057**

When back at home, I will read aloud. The teacher says that reading aloud is good for our oral English improvement, so I do reading aloud, recitation and writing.

(SA-SI-#11-WS-HSM-F, L81) **PrimaryData058**

The transference from orthoepic competence to productive speaking skills, however, is not an automatic process, as one inspector commented:

Although we have given them a lot training, when they are face in face with foreigners they still are not able to communicate with them. There exists such a problem. (IP-#02-F, LL183-184) **PrimaryData059**

In summary, the results of the deficiency analysis are presented in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16 Linguistic competence deficiencies

Items		TSA	PSA
Linguistic competences	Lexical competence	√	
	Grammatical competence	√	
	Semantic competence	√	
	Phonological competence	√	√
	Orthographic competence		√
	Orthoepic competence		√

Table 6.16 shows that students were expected to develop their linguistic competences,

such as lexical competence, grammatical competence, semantic competence and phonological competence, to better meet their personal, academic and the target workplace needs because linguistic competences formed the basis for the development of other competences (i.e., sociolinguistic competences and pragmatic competences). The PSA, however, revealed that students' linguistic competences were far from adequate to meet the new NVES requirements, with more class time and attention spent on isolated language use and practice.

(2) Sociolinguistic Competences

Sociolinguistic competence is "concerned with the knowledge and skills required to deal with the social dimensions of language use" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 118), involving such factors as: linguistic markers of social relations, politeness conventions, register differences, and dialect and accent. The TSA showed that the appropriate social dimension of language use was expected in the workplace, in particular, in the service sector, as customers from different nations may speak English with different accents, whose pronunciation sometimes may cause misunderstanding in communication, as remarked by one graduate student:

Because in the luxury hotels, our guests are from various places of the world. Of course it'd be much better if they are all Americans or Englishmen ((smiles)). ... Right. If we have a Korean guest and when he asks for coffee, it'd be really bad if we can't understand him ((smiles)). So it's really a contradictory issue. No matter how well you've learned English at school, when the guests are hungry, for example, our Irish guests, who have very strong accents, we can't understand many of the words they say. ... We generally don't have many problems in our daily communication in English. After being in the workplace for a period of time, we could understand what a customer tried to communicate with us. But still sometimes there might be some misunderstandings. ... It's mainly due to the guest's accent.
(SV-GS-#04-F, LL29-40) **PrimaryData060**

At present, students were still incompetent at the social dimension of language use, in particular the appropriateness of social language use, as commented by two students and an inspector:

Self-practice doesn't work. There are still some discrepancies between us and foreigners. We still can't distinguish what they are talking about when they speak. (SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M LL161-162) **PrimaryData061**

Once in face-to-face communication with the foreign teacher, I couldn't understand him. I couldn't understand what the foreign teacher was talking about. (SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL132-133) **PrimaryData062**

But there still exists a problem for our students. Although our teachers have spent a lot of time and effort in giving them English training, in vocational context, when they really face foreigners, they still can't talk. There still exist such problems.

(IP-#02-F, LL182-184) **PrimaryData063**

The deficiency analysis reveals that students' knowledge and skills were fairly inadequate for them to deal with social dimension of language use, especially when facing foreigners.

(3) Pragmatic Competences

Pragmatic competences are "concerned with the user/learner's knowledge of the principles" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 123) to produce coherent stretches of language, to perform communicative functions according to interactional and transactional schemata (ibid.).

Interviews revealed that effective language use was a significant factor in the workplace, especially for those young people who wanted to achieve career success or for other pragmatic causes, as the German manager stated:

I think it's helpful for most of our workers today and people at the line. I don't think it is really required to fulfill the job, but if you, if young people are pretty interested in China to grow, right. So a lot of people are excited and there are a lot of opportunities out there, they are trying to get, increase the salary and so on. So if you are a young guy and you want to do something more than just for 20 years working in the line, they need to have to. If you want to be team leader or group leader level then from that level onwards, let's say, group leader level, then you need to have some basic (English) skills. (EP-#01-M, LL142-149)

Some ambitious students did see the importance of learning English, and expected to make effective use of language, as the following three students remarked:

I think now the most important thing is to learn English well. It is not just to learn it well, you should also be able to use it. It won't be of any use if you just learn it without being able to use it.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL209-210) PrimaryData064

Still you need to use English more. What's the use of it if you can't put the language learned into actual use even though you've learned a lot?

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL341-342) PrimaryData065

You should be able to comprehend and to use the language. You need to let others understand what you're trying to say. If you just copy, know how to change the tenses and things like that, it's true that you know how to change these things. The key point is that you don't understand what others are talking about. What on earth is the use of the language you've learned?

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL217-219) PrimaryData066

In the workplace, the issue of fluency and effective communication appeared to be more important than grammatical accuracy.

Actually in students' future workplace, they don't need to do the sort of things, such as doing exercises, those grammatical sort of things. What is really required is the use of subject and predicate to form sentences, without making quite obvious mistakes. For example, like the practice they have now, when they talk with foreigners, even though they make mistakes, the foreigners can still understand them. With time passing, they can generally communicate in English.

(SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL83-87) PrimaryData067

At present, students were unable to put the knowledge acquired into effective communicative use.

The other problem is that students can learn the dialogue by heart very fluently and can role play the dialogue pretty well in the simulated situation. But when they really in communication with foreigners, they can't put the language into effective use.

(IP-#02-F, LL186-188) PrimaryData068

The deficiency analysis indicated that gaps existed between the target workplace requirements and the present school education regarding students' pragmatic competences.

To summarize, the results of the deficiency analysis between TSA and PSA are presented in Table 6.17.

Table 6.17 Communicative language competence deficiencies

Items		TSA	PSA
Linguistic competences	Lexical competence	√	√
	Grammatical competence	√	√
	Semantic competence	√	
	Phonological competence	√	√
	Orthographic competence		√
	Orthoepic competence		√
Sociolinguistic competences	Appropriate social language use;	√	
	Competence to understand different English speaking accents	√	
Pragmatic competences	Fluent and effective language use	√	

Table 6.17 shows that discrepancies existed between the *should be* status and the *is* status regarding students' communicative language competences. What was required in the workplace was in reality not focused on in the current school agenda while what was well-practiced at school was not highly demanded at the workplace.

6.2.2.2 Language Skills

Of all the four skills, listening and reading are considered receptive skills while speaking and writing are considered productive skills (Council of Europe, 2001). The inspector and teacher interviews revealed that among the four language skills, productive listening and speaking were regarded of primary importance, especially for service-oriented students.

I think listening and speaking should be more important. To these senior secondary

vocational students, it depends more on their future vocational needs, the needs of the vocational sectors, such as hotels, tourism. These vocational sectors have more interaction with foreigners. It is quite likely that these sectors have higher demands on students' listening and speaking skills, that is, students should be more skillful at these skills.

(IP-#01-F, LL97-99) **PrimaryData069**

I think that listening and speaking are more important. ... A majority of students will work in hotel and restaurant service sectors. When serving customers, students simply need to understand what their customers are saying and conduct simple communication, which, I think, will be quite sufficient.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ-07-F, LL238-242) **PrimaryData070**

I think listening and speaking are the most important skills. To the air service specialty students, listening and speaking are definitely the most important. You need to be able to comprehend, but it won't be of any use if you can't speak in English. You should communicate with people. What's the use of language? Isn't it used for the sake of communication?

(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL471-473) **PrimaryData071**

In the service sector, the two skills—listening and speaking—were also considered important for effective communication with customers and for students' future success along the career ladder, with listening skills awarded a much higher weight than speaking skills, as stated by two graduate students:

First of all, you need to be able to comprehend. Listening should take at least 60%. This is the most important skill. Because if you can't understand, you don't know what or how to serve customers. Second, you need to be able to speak. Speaking is definitely a more important part of skills. ... Listening and speaking are especially important in luxury hotels. If you can communicate well with customers, or communicate quite appropriately with guests, and if customers can really understand you and are willing to communicate with you, then in the process of your daily communication, you can have a better understanding of each other. Sometimes customers would like to share with you some of their life stories. After hearing his stories, then you feel that you've become friends. Listening and speaking skills are very helpful for job promotion. Well, if your English isn't good enough, I believe no luxury hotel managers would like to choose a poor English speaker. (SV-GS-#04-F, LL75-86) **PrimaryData072**

Among the four skills, I think speaking is the most important. Take me as an example, it's quite likely that my English proficiency, or my ability to take the test, isn't better than students at school. But my spoken English is much better than them because I often use English at work. It's quite likely that my grammatical competence in taking the exam is not as good as those students, but my spoken English is good as I use English every day. I think at present school education should focus more on spoken English. Speaking skills should be more stressed.
(SV-GS-#03-F, LL128-132) **PrimaryData073**

In the service sector, however, reading and writing were considered of minor importance, with writing skill the least important, as in the words of the two graduate students:

Relatively speaking, I think I will take reading and speaking as secondary consideration.

(MA-GS-#01-F, L144) **PrimaryData074**

To tell you the truth, in the luxury hotels, the chances of using writing are quite rare. When at work, no guest will ask us to help write a word. Such chances are pretty narrow. ... Among the four skills, writing only takes a few percent or just more than zero percent. Usually we are not required to write.

(SV-GS-#04-F, LL73-77) **PrimaryData075**

The inspector and teacher interviews confirmed what was stated by the graduate students that reading and writing were not highly required in the workplace.

With regard to reading and writing, I should say that the enterprise doesn't have high demands on these skills. Speaking of reading, it's quite likely that our vocational students can't reach the standard required by the workplace. So relatively speaking, the requirement for reading and writing is not very high.
(HZ-IP-#01-F, LL99-102) **PrimaryData076**

In terms of reading and writing, the specialties in our school are mostly related with hotel service. It's quite likely that student might work at the front desk in the future. All they are required to do is to be able to read what others have written. Seldom will they be required to write some simple sentences.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL238-240) **PrimaryData077**

While to manufacturing-sector-oriented students, listening and speaking skills may be

of relatively minor importance, as in the words of an inspector:

I think the importance of skills varies from specialty to specialty. It depends on students' future job requirements. Generally speaking, service-sector-oriented specialties may have higher requirements for listening and speaking skills whereas for manufacturing-sector-oriented specialties students rarely have any opportunity to use English.

(IP-#02-F, LL77-80) **PrimaryData078**

In general, the TSA showed that among the four language skills, listening and speaking were considered of primary importance while reading and writing were of secondary importance. The workplace, in particular the service sector, expected students to be able to conduct effective communication in English.

Student interviews revealed that students also considered listening and speaking skills important, as in the words of the four students:

I think listening is more important to us. I've realized these days that listening is especially important although the teacher has trained us on this aspect. ... I think listening is fairly important and we should do more listening practice.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL132-136) **PrimaryData079**

I think listening is more useful, but I'm very poor at listening.

(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, L51) **PrimaryData080**

I think speaking is more important. For example, if you study well or if you have an opportunity to go abroad, and if you can understand what people are talking to you and communicate with people in English, then it would be really nice. Anyway, speaking is fairly important as you can communicate with people.

(SA-SI-#11-WS-HSM-F, LL59-62) **PrimaryData081**

Because companies now need people to be able to speak English. Spoken English and things like communicating with foreigners. ... So speaking is more important.

(SA-SI-#01-SBR-BE-F, LL34-37) **PrimaryData082**

The PSA, on the other hand, showed that reading and mechanical writing were focused and mechanically trained at school, with reading skills mostly consisting of processing the learning texts. As one graduate student stated, a large amount of classroom time was devoted to students' working individually and in pairs in text-reading.

But the main teaching method that our English teacher adopted was explaining the text. For example, she might start with explaining a very short text about food or about asking directions. Following that, it was the dictation of the new words. We were then asked to read and write repetitively. Finally, the teacher would explain the exercises in the textbook, which were mainly multiple choice and fill-in the blank exercises. ... We were mainly taught in such a way.

(IT-GS-#05-F, LL36-41) PrimaryData083

The classroom observations that I conducted revealed that silent reading and reading aloud were two main activities in class for cultivating students' reading and speaking skills, with few free or extended conversations or other types of communication practice. The *listening* skill was mostly confined to listening to the dialogues or texts in the textbooks, and the *speaking* skill was most often trained at school on such abilities as reading aloud the written text, oral answers to exercise questions in the textbooks, reproduction of memorized texts, etc..

To summarize, Table 6.18 presents the deficiency analysis of language skills.

Table 6.18 Language skill deficiencies

Items	TSA	PSA
Listening	√ (Service sector)	√
Speaking	√ (Service sector)	√
Reading	√ (Manufacturing sector)	√ (i.e., Text reading)
Writing		√ (i.e., Mechanical writing)

Table 6.18 indicates that discrepancies exist between the TSA and PSA, regarding the skill requirement in the workplace and current skill training at school. Moreover, the requirements of the skills varied from service to manufacturing sectors, with listening and speaking as priority skills in the service sector and reading in the manufacturing sector. At present, the four skills cultivated at school, however, are not targeted towards the workplace, with a much heavier weight placed on training learners' reading and writing skills.

6.2.2.3 Summary

The deficiency analysis of learners' needs showed that there were gaps between the workplace requirements and school education. Students in general lacked declarative knowledge of the workplace and vocational skills. With regard to their communicative language competences, school education stressed cultivating students' lexical and grammatical competences while workplace required students to be able to make effective use of language for communication at work, and to develop students' sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences on the basis of their linguistic competences. Among the four language skills, the skill requirements varied from the service sector to the manufacturing sector, with listening and speaking of primary importance in service sector and reading of primary importance in manufacturing sector. The analysis also indicated that students lacked effective use of learning strategies to become more self-regulated learners.

6.2.3 Deficiency Analysis of Teachers' Teaching

The deficiency analysis was mainly focused on the following two aspects of the research questions – a TSA question (RQ2.1.2 How is teaching expected to be conducted) and a PSA question (RQ 2.2.2 How do teachers conduct teaching), with data collected from student and teacher interviews, classroom observation as well as field notes and project journal of the researcher. Schools as educational institutions at the meso level play an important role in curriculum implementation. However, curriculum implementation cannot be imposed from above (Fullan, 2007; Hargreaves & Shirley, 2009; Tanner & Tanner, 1995), and it must be initiated from inside classroom settings, with teachers and learners interacting with each other to create and re-create meaning in education and life in micro social settings. It is in the classroom setting that the intended official curriculum (e.g., the new NVES) is implemented by teachers and the implemented curriculum is experienced by learners. Two categories of themes emerged after the qualitative text analysis: (1) language competences cultivation, and (2) mode and medium of instruction.

6.2.3.1 Language Competence Cultivation

The deficiency analysis of language competence cultivation was further classified into two sub-categories: (1) teachers' general competences, and (2) communicative language competence teaching.

6.2.3.1.1 Teachers' General Competences

As the deficiency analysis of learners' general competences indicated (see 6.2.2.1.1), learners were expected to possess declarative knowledge of the workplace and acquire practical vocational skills and know-how. The TSA revealed that teachers were expected to become dual-specialist professionals as they "are a most important part of the environment for language learning/acquisition" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 144). Only when teachers become dual-specialist professionals are they able to integrate academic and vocational knowledge and skills into their teaching, as one teacher commented:

I think knowledge of the workplace is definitely helpful. In particular, that's why I teach with more at ease, just like the sort of fish in the water. Regarding the hotel related specialty, I myself have done a lot of situated experiential learning, and I know those things inside and out. I've acquired the tour guide certificate, and have worked as a tour guide. So when I teach, what I teach sounds very convincing to the students, yeah. (SC-TI-#03-DF, LL303-305) **PrimaryData084**

Among the six teacher interviewed and nine classroom observed, however, only one teacher was a dual-specialist professional, the rest of the teachers were not qualified certificate holders. One teacher stated:

There are about twenty of us, who took part in the training, and only about ten obtained the certificate. ... I just couldn't understand the specialty knowledge taught. (SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL321-323) **PrimaryData085**

Teachers in general had inadequate knowledge and skills related to their students' specialty and future workplace. One teacher remarked:

There are some disconnections between school and work. For example, many of our teachers graduate from English education major. The knowledge we learned at

the university was mostly concerned with teaching methodology, educational psychology and so on. As English teachers, we know little about those vocational specialties. Only when we started teaching, did we begin to read specialty-related books. In our English teaching, it's quite likely that we encounter certain specialty-related knowledge, and our knowledge is fairly inadequate when vocational knowledge is concerned. The chances for us to go outside the school and to go to the workplace for vocational practice are pretty rare. We are completely at a loss concerning what kind of workers the industry requires, what English language competences workers need to possess, and on what aspects of language competences they need to improve.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL204-211) **PrimaryData086**

Given teachers' lack of competence on vocational knowledge and skills, teachers expressed a desire to do situated workplace learning. As one teacher remarked, the improvement of teachers' declarative knowledge about the workplace and practical vocational skills was crucial in cultivating learners' general competences.

After all, our job is to serve students, and students will in turn serve industries and society. Since we don't know industries, our teaching can't be workplace-oriented. But if we know the workplace requirements, we can then teach them words and sentences related to their workplace needs. Actually, how much English that they can really make use of in their working environment we don't know. We might have taught them quite a lot of knowledge, which they can hardly make use of at workplace. Whereas what is really required in the workplace, we teachers don't know how to teach them. So I think industries should let us teachers go into the enterprise and have a better understanding of our students' future work environment. This is especially beneficial to our students' English learning.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL214-220) **PrimaryData087**

Although vocational practice was currently provided to teachers, teachers generally were not satisfied with 'site-visiting' arrangements organized by enterprises. In the words of a teacher, the site-visiting showing-around was not helpful for teachers to gain a better understanding of their students' future work environment.

You see there are now some new specialties, many new specialties, such as rail service and air service, in our school. We teachers actually You see the underground railway system has not been built up in the city. We don't know what service our future underground system will need. We can only teach them some

simple routine service English, such as selling tickets. But there are other things, such as equipment, and we don't know the names of the equipment in English. If we can go for vocational practice in the companies, and if those companies are really willing to provide us an opportunity, how to say, if they really welcome us to learn in the enterprise, then we can have a better understanding of the companies. Actually many companies just make do with our site-visiting. When we go to a workplace, people in the companies just show us around the workplace. All right. That's all for the site-visiting. So sometimes the school can do nothing about the site-visiting. It is a social issue, anyway. (SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL228-235) **PrimaryData088**

The deficiency analysis showed that teachers were expected to become dual-specialist professionals while at present teachers were mostly subject matter experts, lacking comprehensive declarative knowledge of the workplace and the practical vocational skills related to their students' specialty and future workplace.

6.2.3.1.2 Communicative Language Competences

As the general and specific demographic profile of the participants indicated, vocational learners were of various types and of different features (see 5.2 & 6.2.1). Given learner diversity, two themes emerged from the qualitative interviews that teachers should take account of in their teaching practices: (1) individual differences, and (2) communicative language competences.

(1) Catering Individual Differences

In response to vocational learners who span the spectrum of learning readiness, personal interest and language achievement, teachers were expected to be able to attend to learners' individual differences "within classes containing diverse learner types and abilities" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 144), in particular, those poor language learners. In the words of one graduate student:

I wish teachers could pay more attention to those students with poor English foundation, and, I don't know how to put it in words, cultivate their English learning interest.

(IT-GS-#06-F, LL162-163) **PrimaryData089**

Given learners' individual differences, teachers were expected to focus on essentials

and to take the time to know learners' learning needs and learning difficulties, rather than relying on "a one-size-fits-all, whole-class method of instruction" (Wormeli, 2007, p. 9). In the words of one graduate student:

With regard to teaching, I think that if teachers could teach more systematically or are willing to listen to each individual student's opinion or things like that, then each student would have a good starting point, yeah. ...I expect that teachers could teach more systematically. For example, if you missed a lesson, then the teacher could give you some more extra explanation to help you make up the lesson. In that way, you could be more interest in your English study. If you have missed a couple of lessons and the teacher continued with her explanation, then you wouldn't be able to follow the teacher. Gradually, you would lose your learning interest in English, yeah.

(MA-GS-#02-M, LL163-174) **PrimaryData090**

(2) Communicative Language Competences

Teacher interviews disclosed that teachers expected to cultivate learners' communicative language competences through situated context and situational learning, with its focus on language use rather than usage through interactive activities, as one teacher indicated:

To those students who would like to cooperate with you, they prefer to have some question-and-answer activities in class, eh, some group activities, more interaction with situations, those created situations, and more games. They really like to get involved in the activities.

(SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL124-126) **PrimaryData091**

The graduate student echoed the point made by the teacher that classroom teaching should pay more attention to oral language practice and situational language use.

I expect that we could have more spoken English practice, situational practices and the things like that, so that we can apply what we've learned to practical use.

(IT-GS-#05-F, LL111-112) **PrimaryData092**

To enhance students' communicative language competences, linguistic chunks should be encouraged to use as the unit of organization rather than isolated linguistic elements. When the focus was on linguistic chunks and language use, the teaching content

organization was centered around meaning, that is, on sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences. A case in point is the data from a classroom observation.

T: Next one. I'm going to have some friends over for dinner. Ok. Here in this sentence there is a phrase. We can treat it as a phrase: have some friends over for dinner, which means to invite some friends for a dinner together. Eh, OK. That's right. Suppose we have some friends sharing a room in a dorm, what are the friends called?

LL: Roommates.

T: Eh, that's right. Then when we want to say '这一个寝室的室友在一起聚餐呢?'

T & LL: I'm going to have some roommates over for dinner.

T: Eh, all right. Then what about your classmates?

LL: I'm going to have some classmates over for dinner.

T: Classmates.

LL: Classmates.

T: Over for dinner. Ah, all right. Now there's a new organization. It's called '粉丝团', isn't it? These're somebody's '粉丝'. All right. Let's get some '粉丝' for a get together. What is '粉丝' called?

LL: Fans.

T: Fans. Ah, now make up a sentence.

LL: I'm going to have some fans over for dinner.

T: Fans over for dinner. Ok, very good.

(SC-CO-#07-TSM2) PrimaryData093

It can be seen from the above example that the teacher made good use of substituting language chunks to "form a valuable and portable collection of sentence patterns and models" (Mitchell, 2003, p. 22) to enable students to move along the progression route "from jumbled words and phrases, to chunks, to control of sentence patterns" (ibid.) in a situational context related to students' life.

T: NOW, let's look at the conversation. Hello, Mary! Merry Christmas! Merry Christmas! What's meaning?

LL: 圣诞快乐!

T: 圣诞快乐! Ok. Merry Christmas. Ok. Then what about if I want to say '新年快乐'?

LL: Happy New Year!

T: Happy New Year. Ok. Then what about '春节快乐', which we have learned in junior secondary education?

LL: Happy Spring Festival!

T: Happy Spring Festival! OK. I remember in 2009 Spring Festival, Da Shan, the one who played in the cross-logue program – the Five Senses Arguing for Their Share of Contribution. He spoke of '春节快乐!', but he did not say 'Happy Spring Festival!'. What did he say? Chinese New Year! Yes, it also means '春节快乐'. He didn't say 'Happy Spring Festival!', which means also '春节快乐'. OK, when you hear these words, what would you say? How would you answer?

LL: Thank you. The same to you.

T: Eh, Thank you. The same to you. ((The teacher writes on the blackboard))
(SC-CO-#07-TSM2) **PrimaryData094**

In addition to chunk-based teaching, the situated learning was considered an effective way to facilitate the transfer from theoretical knowledge to practical skills, as one inspector indicated:

The skill transfer is a thorny problem. ... To deal with the issue of skill transfer, we provide opportunities for students to go to companies for vocational practice for a week after a period of learning at school. Then they come back to school to study, and then go to the workplace for practice again. We did school learning and vocational practice alternatively when we taught trade and commerce spoken English. For example, after I taught the lesson, I might give students some assignment, such as receiving a foreign guest or selling clothes or doing other things, using the knowledge we've learned. Then we asked students to do a reflection of the situated context. They were then asked to apply it to actual use, and we teachers also go to the workplace. To answer the problems encountered in the process of practical learning, we gave them more intensive training, that is, more intensive training on certain aspects so that their knowledge can be transferred into skills. I think the main focus of our skill training should be listening and speaking.
(IP-#02-F, LL190-201) **PrimaryData095**

The situated workplace learning promoted the skill transfer in real life situations, as the inspector further indicated:

At present, students basically hide behind when they see foreign customers. Before we do the situated workplace training, it was usually the team leader who moved forward to greet customers. The other employees would just stay behind. Now after the situated workplace training, students are able to step forward to greet customers, and ask what they would like to order. The team leader only comes out when they have difficulties in communicating with customers. I think students now are at least not afraid of communicating in English. In the past, when they saw foreigners they were afraid of making greetings. Even such simple things as 'hello', they dare not use to greet foreigners. After such situated training, the effects are quite obvious and the enterprise has also provided us with positive feedback.

(IP-#02-F, LL202-207) PrimaryData096

In reality, however, lexical and grammatical competences appeared to be the two aspects greatly focused by most teachers in their classroom instruction, as the following three classroom observation extracts illustrated:

T: ... OK. Now first let's review what we have learned last period. In the last period, we learned:

subject + will + do

subject + be going to do

the future tense (将来时)

Now let's make a few sentences using the structures. ...

(SB-CO-#02-AS1)

T: 母亲?

L1: mother.

T: 父母双亲?

L1: parent

T: parent么?

L1: parents

T: Ok. Good. Sit down, please.

(SA-CO-#09-HSM2)

T: ... Now let's do vocabulary dictation. OK, I'll ask a few students to come to the blackboard. Any volunteers? If you put up your hand, please make sure that you can write them all correct.

(SB-CO-#04-CNC5) PrimaryData097

Teacher interviews also revealed that teachers considered grammatical knowledge difficult and complex for students, and regarded grammatical competence of primary importance in their teaching. One teacher remarked:

Actually, I wish I could teach students more grammar although in my class I should focus more on oral English. But I always think that they don't seem to understand the grammar. So sometimes I try to teach them more grammar, explain more grammatical knowledge so that students can consolidate their grammatical knowledge. Otherwise, I'm afraid that they can't catch up with the textbook currently used in our class. That's what I've been thinking about. So sometimes I try to spend more time on grammar in my class. ... But I think teaching those (manufacturing-specialty-oriented) students English clauses, teaching them clauses is more difficult than going to the moon.

(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL529-540) PrimaryData098

In addition to the focus on lexical and grammatical competences, most teachers appeared to focus their teaching on cultivating students' phonological, lexical and orthoepic competences. They spent the 45 minutes on reading and explaining single lexical items, as the following classroom observation extract illustrated:

T: Please read after me according to the phonological symbols. ...

T: Eh, let's read it again. ...

T: OK. Let's turn back to Page 27. There are a few phrases in the vocabulary part. Turn back to Page 27. Please read after me.

(SA-CO-#01-TRSM4) PrimaryData099

In the above mentioned example, a great amount of class time was spent on reading the six new words (i.e., baggage, bellman, set, air-conditioning, mini-bar, and international) and two expressions (i.e., color TV set, at one's service), with students

reading after their teacher 13 times, with 29 students being asked to read the words and expression one by one. The entire classroom teaching focused on isolated linguistic elements. The cultivation of students' syntactic, semantic and pragmatic competences was greatly ignored, although form-focused learning can develop conscious explicit and subconscious implicit language items (Nation & Macalister, 2009). In my classroom observation, this seemed to be the most usual routine teaching practice for a great majority of teachers.

A considerable amount of class time was spent explaining linguistic knowledge and doing mechanical language skill training and on tasks that were not relevant to real life situations, either simulated or authentic situations, as shown in the following classroom observation extract:

T: Ok. Now that we have all understood the meaning of these words, let's do the exercise. Complete the following sentences with the words and expressions just reviewed. After you have completed the sentence, I'd like some of you to translate the sentences into Chinese to make sure that you really understand the meaning of the sentences. L5, please do the first sentence. Read the complete sentence, together with the answer.

L5: When guests came to our university, they were greeted and led to the hall.

T: Yes. Note that "were greeted" is the past passive voice. The pronoun "they" refers to the guests in the adverbial clause. Now please translate the sentence.

L5 & T: 当客人们来到大学时, 他们受到了欢迎并被领入大厅。

(SB-CO-#03-MDM3)

The extract indicates that teachers used linguistic elements, such as vocabulary and syntax, as the unit of teaching organization, focusing on students' lexical (i.e., words and expressions), grammatical (i.e., grammatical knowledge and structures), orthographical (i.e., copying exercises) and orthoepic (i.e., reading aloud practice) competences and separate language skills. Even the form-based vocabulary practice did not make adequate use of the most frequently used vocabulary in the new NVES. Other competences, such as semantic competence, sociolinguistic competences and pragmatic competences, were not cultivated in the language classes. The teaching

focus on sentence-level grammatical features obscured “pragmatic and sociolinguistic issues in language acquisition” (Trim, 2004, p. 137) to prepare learners for interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning and to develop their language fluency and complexity of language use.

6.2.3.2 Language Teaching Skills

In light of language teaching skills, two themes – mode of instruction and medium of instruction – emerged from the qualitative data analysis.

6.2.3.2.1 Mode of Instruction

Given the large scope of learner differences, teachers were expected to be adaptive in their teaching, that is, to conduct differentiated instruction in accordance to learners’ learning needs and language levels so that learners could learn things according to their aptitudes, as one inspector indicated:

So in our teaching, I think the ‘layered teaching’ is very important. With respect to different students, we should use different textbooks and adopt different teaching methods. We should also set up different requirements for different students, especially for those poor English learners. If the requirements are too demanding, then they will make no sense to the learners. They will think that it is too demanding for them to reach.

(IP-#02-F, LL85-88) **PrimaryData100**

In addition to ‘layered teaching’, teachers were expected to adjust their teaching content, process and products in a more lively manner and in accordance to learners’ learning needs, as one graduate student and two students stated:

Teachers should adopt some effective measures and methods. They should stop the way of asking students to rote learning new words and things like that.

(IT-GS-#05-F, LL110-111) **PrimaryData101**

I wish teachers’ teaching wouldn’t be too rigid. I wish the class could be more lively and the textbook learning could be associated with some interesting stories.

(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL1049-106) **PrimaryData102**

We also expect teachers to be able to create animate learning atmosphere in their

class so that we can have more interest in learning.

(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, LL153-154) **PrimaryData103**

In view of teaching content organization and design, teachers were expected to teach adaptively, that is, to adapt their teaching materials according to students' present language competences. This was echoed in the teachers' statements:

I: ... I noticed that each time in your lesson you would start with Everyday English.

T: That's right.

I: The materials are not included in the textbook, but are developed by yourself. Right?

T: Yeah, I try to find some suitable materials for students. Sometimes I read the *English Hope* magazine. After reading the magazine, I'd like to add something to the textbook. Every day I would encourage my students to speak English for five or six minutes. I give them some sentence patterns and phrases, ask them to learn them by heart, and practice them with their partners. I've been teaching teaching them in this way.

I: Have you been using the method since the beginning of the school term?

T: Yeah. I think the textbook should be supplemented with something. Something needs to be added to the textbook. I've been doing this in my teaching.

(SC-TI-#03-DF, LL191-201) **PrimaryData104**

Sometimes I taught them some English songs, once or twice a month. I choose those songs which are easy and can enhance their learning interest. Seven or eight songs in one semester. Within the four-month long semester, I can teach them more than one song a month.

(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL67-70) **PrimaryData105**

Along with flexible arrangement concerning the teaching content, process, and products in the differentiated instruction classroom, seating arrangements were also expected to be flexible in answer to students' learning needs, with students taking more control of their learning. One teacher has adopted the flexible seating arrangement in her class.

The seating arrangement in my English class is different from their usual seating

arrangement. In my English class, as long as they don't talk nonsense with each other, they can sit with whoever that can help with their English learning. ... I generally respect the students' choice, but still I need to monitor a bit.

(SC-CO-#07-TSM2, LL216-217) **PrimaryData106**

The flexible seating arrangements enabled students to form learning partnerships to help each other to promote their zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978) through scaffolding, or assisted performance (Walsh, 2006) so that learners were capable of completing a task that alone they were unable to complete. The peer partnerships also enabled students to develop from object-regulated to other-regulated and self-regulated learners (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008) in mixed-ability classes, as the teacher remarked:

For example, we usually talked about layered or tiered teaching before. To me, I ask them to form one-on-one partnership. I tell them now that our country stress affiliated responsibility, we can also form affiliated responsibility in our study. If your partner can't understand what we've learned, then both of you will get punished. Eh, this has been working pretty well. Those students who didn't like to follow the teacher can now learn with the help of their classmates. (SC-CO-#07-TSM2, LL029-212) **PrimaryData107**

The peer teaching partnerships enabled students, in particular low ability students, to progress towards self-regulated learning (Lantolf, 2000, 2005, 2007). Moreover, the teachers were expected to conduct their teaching with a variety of teaching and learning strategies, such as the multiple teaching methods the teacher adopted in her teaching.

I've created an ABCD method. For instance, in a sentence, the chunks of A, B and C are fixed while the chunk D is for substitution. You can substitute it with the things you like, such as adverbial of time, adverbial of place, people or predicate verbs. Basically it's the substitution of sentence patterns. ... The ABCD method can also be used in English-Chinese translation. For example, I'm now teaching a class, the students of which are going to enter higher vocational education. The students sometimes just do the sentence translation according to the sentence order. I tell them that if they divide the sentence into A, B, C and D chunks, then they can do it accordingly. When we were at Year 1 at primary school, we did the sort of reordering exercise. So I've used the method to teach them translation. It's been

used for some time and I think the effects are pretty good. Through the sort of practice, students gradually have regained their self-confidence.

(SC-TI-#03-DF, LL168-174) **PrimaryData108**

I call the method – matrix method. The reason I name it matrix method is that in doing vocabulary learning, we can list the synonyms vertically, such as *harm, hurt* and so on. In this way, when you think of a word, you can think of its synonyms, which have similar meaning. Horizontally, you can remember such words as *care, careful, carefully* and so on. In this way, it's easy to master the language points. And if I can think of one word, then I can remember a list of words vertically and horizontally. So in this way, I can associate words in a most efficient and effective way. (SC-TI-#03-DF, LL186-192) **PrimaryData109**

As in the words of the teacher, the multiple methods, such as the ABCD methods for sentence pattern learning and sentence translation practice, and matrix method for vocabulary learning, which she adopted in her teaching practice, helped learners build chunk-based knowledge connection. In addition to the effective teaching strategies, teachers were also expected to have more interactive activities with students in the English class, taking into account students' learning needs and learning interests. Two students' statement indicated their expectation:

Eh, we expect teachers to have more interaction, more interaction with students. Teachers shouldn't just give the rigid explanation of those texts, vocabulary and things like that. Teachers should stimulate students' learning interest. If teachers can tell students some stories related with the texts, then students will be more interested in listening to the teacher. Once students have the learning interest, they would like to listen to the teacher.

(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL86-89) **PrimaryData110**

I think the interaction, the interaction can help me understand things faster. Because unlike Chinese – our mother tongue, English is very complicated. Its various forms of grammar are really difficult. I expect teachers can give us some life-related examples and occasionally do some interactive games with us. This can help us remember things faster.

(SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, LL49-51) **PrimaryData111**

Teachers were further expected to conduct their teaching through action-oriented

activities, such as individual- or team-based learning games, which was indicated in the two students' statements:

It's quite nice to do some games. ... For example, eh, the guessing games. ... Or the games about English spelling, such as word chain. Very interesting.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL158-162) **PrimaryData112**

I expect to have dialogue practices or the sort of English games. ... Let me see. For example, the teacher speaks the first half of a sentence and students continue with the latter half of the sentence. ...

(SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, LL78-82) **PrimaryData113**

Students' statements indicated that teachers were expected to translate the intended curriculum into meaningful communicative classroom activities (Crocker & Banfield, 1986) and provide opportunities for students to experience the state of flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997) – the state of concentration or complete absorption with the activity at the situation. In the words of an inspector:

Teachers, in particular excellent teachers, can use whatever methods to have students highly involved into classroom teaching. The involvement is not just simply the participation of some activities but the focused attention on teachers. In the process of teachers' classroom teaching, students can concentrate their attention on teachers. The attention of students is centered on teachers' classroom teaching so that they can get completely immersed into the classroom teaching. This is, of course, an ideal sort of teaching.

(IP-#01-F, LL165-168) **PrimaryData114**

In addition to the interactive activities in class, layered or tiered teaching was considered an effective way of differentiated instruction to deal with learners' diversified learning abilities, as currently practiced in School A. One teacher from School A stated:

Since last year, we have implemented the stratified ability-based teaching in some specialties, such as cooking and hotel specialties, according to students' entry English scores and the oral and written test given by our own school. We then divided students into three ability levels. To those relatively high-ability students, we designed some operational situational dialogues to improve their listening and

speaking skills. A large majority of students could catch up with the course. To those mid-ability students, we tried to simplify the textbooks and incorporated some teaching contents that they were willing to learn. Eh, to those low-ability students, who showed no interest at all in English or who had a headache upon reading English, we tried to use interest enhancement teaching methods to design some simple games, cards or rhymes. We just designed some simple things for them to learn. The stratified ability-based teaching has been experimented for nearly a year in our school, and we can see that students of different levels have improved and benefited from the layered teaching. So we think that the stratified tiered/layered teaching is rather practical at vocational senior secondary schools.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL89-99) **PrimaryData115**

Among the three schools investigated, only one school practiced layered, differentiated instruction. A large majority of teachers, however, followed direct instruction model (Wormeli, 2007), with teachers acting as knowledge transmitter or providers and students as passive receivers. The focus of the mode of teaching was on the subject matters rather than students' learning needs, as echoed in the words of the teachers:

I have to force them all day every day. You know, if they don't do their homework, then nobody in the class is allowed to go home after school. All the class should stay at school to finish their homework.

(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL109-111) **PrimaryData116**

Students don't take in any knowledge. They don't take in anything unless I force them. If they can't recite the text that we have learned, they aren't allowed to go back home the next day. This immediately takes into effect. They can recite the text at once, and they can recite it. You have to treat them this way. Only when they are treated this way, are they able to recite. They're the sort of students who can move one step forward when you push them. ...

(ibid.) **PrimaryData117**

In the mode of direct instruction, teachers taught completely according to the textbook, adopted a grammar translation method (Chaudron, 1988; Nunan, 1989a & b), with each sentence translated into Chinese. The following three classroom observation extracts illustrate the point clearly.

T: ... Now look at this sentence, Elephants are the biggest animals living on land. What does this sentence mean?

T & LL: 大象是 -- 最大的动物。后面还有呢, living on land, 生活在陆地上最大的动物。

T: 最大的动物。

(SB-CO-#04-WL-CNC5) PrimaryData118

T: ... The first sentence. First sentence, L3.

L3: Read Jimmy's card to me please, Penny 请你把吉米的明信片念给我听。

T: Ok, sit down. Ok, read, read. The word in Chinese is '读'. OK. It also has the meaning as in 'reading a book'. In this sentence it means to read postcards. '把吉米的明信片念给我听一听, 彭妮'.

(SB-CO-#01-AS1-F) PrimaryData119

T: ... No.3. Do you often take activities that are bad to your health? Bad. What's the meaning? Bad. What does the word 'bad' mean? L: 有害的。

T: '有害的', what else does it mean?

L: 不好的。

T: '不好的, 坏的.' Then, what does the sentence mean?

L: 你经常参加对你身体不好的运动么?

T: 'Take' means '参加', 'activities' means '活动'. Then, what about the last word 'health'? What does the whole sentence mean? L23.

L23: 你经常参加对你身体不好的运动么?

T: Ok. Sit down, please. Very good. Do you often take activities that are bad to your health?

LL: No.

T: No. Excellent. You are all good students. I'm very glad to hear that you can all answer the questions.

(SA-CO-#09-HSM1) PrimaryData120

With respect to curriculum implementation, teachers in general embarked on the new teaching content without making a statement of their teaching and learning objectives

(Nunan, 1988a & b). In the classroom observations, seven of nine teachers started their lessons without giving students a clear statement of what they would be expected to do with the language. The following extract illustrates the point.

T: Please open your book and turn to page ... Look at the vocabulary part. As usual, we first look at the words on Page 27. The first part. The phonetic symbols are on Page 120. Let's look at the phonetic symbols. I give you 30 seconds to get yourself familiar with the phonetic symbols. The first six words on Page 120 should be mastered in this lesson. I give you 30 seconds. Now try to read these words by yourself OK. Stop here. Ok, stop here. Now read the phonetic symbols after me. You're poor at phonetic symbols. Please read the phonetic symbols after me.
(SA-CO-#01-WJ-TRSM4) **PrimaryData121**

Rather than involving students in classroom activities through highly interactive language tasks, most teachers in their actual language teaching practice managed their classroom through teacher-initiated whole class or teacher-to-student activities. There was rarely pair work or group work, with teachers mostly adopting an Initiation–Response–Feedback (I-R-F) turn-taking pattern (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Wells, 1993), as the following two extracts illustrate:

T: B. Answer the following questions. The first one, L1. Are rich persons successful? (**Initiation**)

L1: No. (**Response**)

T: No, they aren't. (**Feedback**)

(SC-CO-#06-YHY-BE1)

T: ... Now let's look at the first sentence in the text, the first sentence. There is a new word. (**Initiation**) (The teacher wrote the word "biggest" on the board.)

LL: The biggest. (**Response**)

T: The biggest. (**Feedback**) Then what's its original form? (**Initiation**)

LL: Big. (**Response**)

T: Eh, big. (**Feedback**) Then what form is this? (**Initiation**) (Referring to the word on the board.)

LL: The superlative form. (**Response**)

T: The superlative form. (Feedback)

(SB-CO-#04-WL-CNC5) PrimaryData122

The above extracts indicates that the classroom teaching was in a typical IRE pattern of interaction, with linguistic knowledge infused or transmitted to students through a series of overlapping I-R-E sequences, in the teacher-fronted classes. Teachers asked questions to the whole class or a student, and then evaluated the feedback on the correctness of the responses. Most of the questions asked, as presented in the above two extracts, were test and display questions rather than inferential questions (Tsui, 1995; Walsh, 2006). The disadvantage of the test and display factual questions lies in that they limit student participation to just short answers expected by teachers. This, in turn, is detrimental to more complex or creative types of learning (Walsh, 2006).

In general, teachers who adopted direct instruction method conducted their teaching in the traditional content-focused approach, the focus of which is “on form; whole-class teaching; pattern-practice drills; ...; and so on” (Waters & Vilches, 2001, p. 136), with the teacher as the ‘sage on the stage’. In the words of one inspector:

Relatively speaking, the mode of instruction is still unsatisfactory. There still exists the traditional teacher-centered teaching. Teachers just talk throughout the class while ignoring students' feedback. At present, there still exist a substantial number of teachers. (IP-#01-F, LL169-171) PrimaryData123

6.2.3.2.2 Medium of Instruction

Student interviews revealed that teachers were expected to use more English in class, to create a language learning environment, as stated by one student:

I still think that the language learning environment is essential. It would be better if we can always use English. If the environment is good, then we don't need to learn English very systematically.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL74-75) PrimaryData124

Students, moreover, expected teachers to make adaptive use of English in class rather than solely read or teach from their textbooks. One student stated:

That English teacher teaches in a more flexible way. She doesn't teach solely after

the textbook. She seldom read after her textbook. From the beginning of her class, she communicates with students in English. If students can't understand her, then the teacher will use other simple English, and will speak slowly. Only when students completely can't understand her in English, will she begin to use Chinese.

(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL177-182) **PrimaryData125**

Teachers, further, were expected to constantly make effective code-switching (Council of Europe, 2001) between the mother tongue (i.e., L1) and the target language (i.e., L2), with each of different functions. Chinese was mainly used for addressing discipline issues and creating language learning context while English for conducting teaching and learning activities. A case in point is the following extract, demonstrating the effective code-switching used by one teacher.

T: And this is a pillow. Pillow, pillow. Look, he's messy. What should we say to him?

LL: Make up your bed.

T: OK. Very good.

T: Then this is a lazy lady. The dressing table is very dirty, so we can say?

LL: That's a dirty dressing table.

T: Ok.

...

T: ... OK. Now, let's ask students to come to the front to role play the dialogue. It's the Spring Festival, with fire crackers outside. People are wearing new clothes. Two friends have just met. What should they say? Ok. L11.

L11: Hi, L12. Happy Spring Festival!

L12: Hi, L11. The same to you.

(SC-CO-#07-TSM2-F) **PrimaryData126**

The use of the target language as the main medium of instruction to improve teaching and learning effectiveness is in line with SLA research on individual differences in language learning, which indicates that "learners who are oriented to the source of language input tend to learn a lot of the language" (Nation & Macalister, 2009, p. 59).

While in reality, teachers conducted their classroom teaching, using Chinese as the

main medium of instruction, as the following classroom observation extract shows:

T: ... The second sentence. What does "at birth" mean? Well, look at the words and expressions, which is below the vocabulary part. The phrase "at birth" is one of the three phrases. "At birth" means "出生时, 出生时". Now let's look at the sentence – "a baby elephant weights about" How much does it weight? 90 kilograms, 90千克. Then, please remember the phrase "at birth", which means "在...出生时, 出生时". Now next sentence – "which is about the weight of a grown man". What does it mean? "它是一个成年人的体重。" That's to say "它刚出生的时候就有90千克, 是一个成年人的体重, 成年人的体重。" What's after "It's about". He's about 90 what? What does "HIGH" stand for?

LL: 高

T: It's height. What's its height? 90 centimeters. Now, next sentence. Look at the next sentence. "When it reached the age of 12 years. ", 当它长到.....

T & LL: 12岁的时候。

T: "It doesn't", what happened. Here's a phrase "grow anymore". What does "not anymore" mean?

T & LL: 不再 再也不

T: "当它到达12岁的时候," what happened? "就再也不"

LL: 长大了

T: 嗯, 再也不长了, 再也不长了。

(SB-CO-#04-WL-CNC5) PrimaryData127

As the above extract shows, Chinese, as the main medium of instruction, played a dominant role in the classroom teaching. In my classroom observation, L1 – Chinese – rather than L2 – English – was the dominant medium of instruction used by teachers. The percentage of the language used in class typically tended to be over 60% Chinese and less than 30% English within a one-hour class. The following extract illustrates the point.

T: OK. Sit down, please. Eh, let's turn to Page 205. Listen to the tape. The tape is very, eh, the tape ... After listening to the tape, you'll find that it's very interesting. Don't laugh. Be sure not to laugh. OK. Turn to Page 205. Look at the text. It's a dialogue between an old woman and her daughter. The woman in the tape really

sounds like an old lady. Don't laugh. Be sure not to laugh.

(SB-CO-#05-LXY-AS1) **PrimaryData128**

The majority of teaching, as shown in the extract above, was conducted in Chinese, with the aid of the tape-recorder, blackboard and chalk to supplement the medium of instruction. Explanations in Chinese were mixed with English words and expressions, with Chinese playing the dominant role.

T: OK. Sit down, please. OK. Sit down. These few words are actually very easy. When we first started learning English, almost all of us have learned these few kinds of animals. Open your book. The text. We're going to learn the text. Let's first look at the topic of the text. What does 'elephant' mean?

(SB-CO-#04-WL-CNC5) **PrimaryData129**

The mixture of Chinese and English appeared to be the common medium of instruction that teachers adopted. Even when they spoke English in class, they spoke English in an artificial unnatural way, as two students commented:

Our English teacher, eh, I don't know how to put it, sometimes has little communication with us. Sometimes she speaks in English, and sometimes she just teaches in Chinese.

(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL99-102) **PrimaryData130**

The problem lies in the speed that the teacher speaks with us. She's afraid that we can't hear her clearly or we can't understand her so she tries to speak as slowly as possible, by speaking word by word in English.

(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL120-122) **PrimaryData131**

Although teachers' use of Chinese was in large part due to their students' language proficiency, the use of Chinese on the other hand also indicated that teachers' language competences were insufficient in creating a simulated or authentic language environment (e.g., Chaudron, 1988; Sesek, 2007). Teachers' excessive use of Chinese, furthermore, deprived students of valuable input in the L2, even though teachers might hold the belief that the use of L1 as a medium can facilitate learning (Ellis, 2000).

6.2.3.3 Summary

In summary, the deficiency analysis of teachers' teaching showed that teachers were expected to conduct differentiated instruction. They were expected to cater for students' individual differences, understand learners' needs, and adjust their teaching in response to learners' language competences. Teachers, furthermore, were expected to be able to adopt communicative teaching approaches with their focus on chunk-based meaningful language learning and language use through a variety of interactive language activities with meaning-focused experience in relation to learners' communicative needs and experiences (Lightbown & Spada, 1993). Only when learners are fully involved into the learning activities, are they able to achieve a flow state of happiness and achievement with great incentives (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997) between the challenge of the task and their language skills in their process of learning. Teachers, finally, were expected to become dual-specialist professionals. "Such features tend to favor the creation of individualized opportunities for making learning personally meaningful" (Waters & Vilches, 2001, p. 136). The role of the teachers played in this mode of instruction was not "the sage on the stage" but "the guide on the side" (Murray, 2007, p. 750).

In reality, a large majority of teachers still adopted a direct instruction model, with teachers playing a dominant role. Most of them started their instruction without informing students of their learning objectives. They went straight to the teaching content after a brief lexical or grammatical review. The focus of their teaching was to cultivate students' lexical and grammatical competences rather than involving the meaningful use of language. Unlike the workplace-related activities in those dual-specialist professionals' class, a large part of language practice centered around linguistic usage – isolated from meaningful situational contexts, with the native language Chinese as the main medium of instruction. In the teacher-fronted direct instruction classrooms, teachers played a dominating role, following the I-R-F pattern of turn-taking. A majority of class time was spent in transmitting knowledge (Freire, 1970) from the teachers – the knowledge provider, to students – the knowledge

receiver.

6.2.4 Deficiency Analysis of Resources and Facilities

The deficiency analysis in the following section deals with the third level of needs – resources and facilities at the institutional level. The reasons that these factors were investigated were “because the needs were only realistic if there were the resources to meet them” (Holliday, 1995a, p. 116) and the facilities to provide the learning environment.

6.2.4.1 Learning Resources

Investigating learning resources plays a key role in conducting needs analysis.

Learning resources includes textbooks as well as other learning resources that learners and teachers can make use of both in and outside school. With respect to learning resources, two themes emerged from the qualitative interviews: (1) textbooks in use, and (2) other learning resources.

(1) Textbooks in Use

Textbooks, being a key component of educational resources, have been playing an important role in curriculum implementation. Teacher interviews indicated that textbooks were expected to be more interesting to stimulate students’ learning interest, as the two teachers stated:

Textbooks should be made more interesting.

(SC-TI-#02-WJ, L187) **PrimaryData132**

Speaking of textbooks, the most important thing is still on how to motivate students’ incentives in learning when using textbooks. I think this is really worth doing.

(SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL301-302) **PrimaryData133**

Given students’ current language competences, teachers also expected textbooks to be more interactive, less grammar-focused and more user-friendly, with learning materials being short, less difficult, situational and practical.

Students should prefer those more interactive textbooks, which are relatively easier.

Students should be more willing to accept those less difficult textbooks.

(SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL38-40) **PrimaryData134**

If textbooks can include less difficult mini-dialogues and miniature situations, then students may have interest to learn.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL74-75) **PrimaryData135**

Students, we should say, prefer to learn things with situations, which are more vivid and more interesting. Relatively speaking, students have less interest in things with more grammar and language points. Regarding the textbook design, if the textbook looks lovely and attractive, then student would be more likely to learn. And if the whole articles or the whole textbook is crammed with English words, then students are afraid of using it. (SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL94-99) **PrimaryData136**

I think textbooks should have less focus on grammar with shorter and more practical materials. (SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL83-85) **PrimaryData137**

Student interviews confirmed the points the teachers made. As one student stated:

I think textbooks should be made easier according to our actual language level. They shouldn't be made too difficult. Textbooks should be written in accordance to our actual language competences ((makes a noise with her mouth)).

(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL159-160) **PrimaryData138**

As students were targeted towards the workplace, interviews with graduate students and students disclosed that textbooks were expected to be more related to students' specialties and their future working life.

I wish the textbooks could be more related to our specialty. For example, our specialty is mechanics, but the whole textbook has no vocabulary related to mechanics. We didn't have any opportunities to use the vocabulary in our future work. ... I think vocational English textbooks should be different from those of senior secondary English textbooks. Definitely they should be easier, but with a different focus.

(IT-GS-#05-F, LL113-120) **PrimaryData139**

Well, textbooks should also be made in accordance to our specialty. The knowledge in the textbook should be reinforced according to their specialties and the sort of things, yeah. Well, it's not good if we all use one set of textbook. I think textbooks should be developed in accordance to students' learning aptitudes.

(SC-SI-#24-WSQ-TSM-F, LL164-165) **PrimaryData140**

It would be nice if textbooks are more related to real life.

(SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, L123) **PrimaryData141**

In the workplace, there is quite a lot of practical knowledge and skills, which are frequently used in the workplace, but these knowledge and skills were not included in the textbooks, currently in use. For example, the declarative knowledge taught at school was not applicable in the workplace. In the words of one graduate student, textbooks should incorporate workplace knowledge and workplace-related situations related to students' future life and career.

There were things in the workplace that we didn't learn at school. For example, the boot-shaped goblets. Of course, we couldn't learn English just for the sake of one hotel. We should learn to say things in general. But some of the things are very special. At present each hotel definitely has its own special items. Some of the items are not included in the textbook. For example, the word 'lemon tongs'. In the workplace, when guests ask for them, we don't know what they want. There are also other words, such as mustard, which we don't learn at school at all. So I think our English teaching should be more related to the present hotel situations, with the inclusion of such things as utensils and dinner service sets. Such words should be collected from the workplace and be included into the textbooks. I think the information could enrich the textbooks. There are many other things that we can encounter in the workplace. Although we've learned many things at school, in the past few years in the workplace, we've never had the opportunity to use them. There are still other things, which we haven't learned at school, but we actually make frequent use of them in the hotel. Actually they've been used very extensively. I still think that textbooks should include those frequently used items in luxury hotels.

(SV-GS-#04-F, LL40-51) **PrimaryData142**

Teachers, moreover, expected textbooks to be designed with more specific and operable life and workplace-related situations to serve students' communication needs in the workplace.

If the textbook could provide some specially designed situations, then we teachers could design some specific and operable situations according to our students' language competences. I think such textbook designs could better serve our teaching needs.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL79-81) **PrimaryData143**

I: Then what aspect do you think textbooks should focus on if they are to better serve the needs of senior secondary vocational students?

T: For those service-oriented students, the focus should be more on communication.

(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL518-519) **PrimaryData144**

Teachers, further, expected textbooks to integrate both general English and vocational English modules, which were taught separately in different textbooks. The integration, as expected, could facilitate the acquisition of workplace-related general competences and language specific communicative competences because currently the two modules are artificially divided in the new NVES. In the words of one teacher:

I know that the books we use now are divided into general English textbooks and vocational English textbooks. ... But if the textbook could have a small section, just a small section of essential English integrated with vocational English. The small section is ... If textbooks could integrate the two modules, we can then directly transfer to the vocational module after the general English module study.

(SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL325-331) **PrimaryData145**

I think textbooks could be designed in this way. For example, if the textbook is for tourism specialty. Then the textbook could include the core vocabulary in the new NVES, the stock of vocabulary that is required to master. But after learning the vocabulary, after I've taught the essential knowledge, I can immediately make use of the vocabulary for vocational activities. Students can learn the essential English words in the dialogue, which are also included in the new NVES. In this way, students can learn the vocabulary both required in the syllabus and used in the vocational field. ... That is, to combine the two modules into one in the textbook.

(SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL341-347) **PrimaryData146**

Actually, I think we can do an experiment. ... For example, the manufacturing-sector-oriented students will stop learning general English when they're in Grade 2. It's not that they don't have the English course, but that they have such a crammed schedule for their specialty courses. It's quite likely that it will be months later that they can learn English for Vocational Purposes. By then, they might have forgotten the things they've learned in the general English.

(SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL361-366) **PrimaryData147**

In brief, the TSA revealed that textbooks were expected to better cater for students'

learning needs, learning interests and language competences, with the learning contents being made less difficult, more interesting, and more relevant to students' specialties and future vocations. Both students and teachers further agreed that textbooks should provide more life- and workplace-related situations. Teachers also indicated that they expected textbooks to integrate the current isolated general English module with English for Vocational Purposes module.

In respect of textbooks in use, two sets of textbooks – *Essential English* and *New Concept English* – are used in most vocational schools. The *Essential English* series was used in both School A and School B and part of School C for general English courses whereas the *New Concept English* series was mainly used in School B and School C as supplementary materials for listening and speaking courses. In addition to the two sets of textbooks, School A also used *Hotel English* for students majoring in hotel service and management, while School C adopted a home-made textbook written by teachers from the city for its low level students. As one teacher stated:

For Year 1 students, we use *New Concept English* for listening and speaking class. For Year 2 students, we use some spoken English textbooks related to tourism and hotels.

(SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL90-91) **PrimaryData148**

Regarding the textbooks in use, document analysis of the above mentioned two series of textbooks – *New Concept English* and *Essential English* – was conducted. The analysis of the textbook *New Concept English* showed that the contents of the textbook were far removed from the real-life contexts that students would target in the future. All the exercises provided in the textbook were in the form of rigid controlled and guided practice, which lacked extended activities and tasks to cater for learners' different learning styles and learning preferences. Most of the exercises required learners to fill in the blanks with one fixed form of a word or do monotonous written sentence pattern drills, compiled on the basis of a structure-based content syllabus (White, 1988). The discrete learning points appeared to stress on declarative knowledge rather than procedural knowledge and skills. Vocabulary and grammar

practice figure very prominently in each of the 144 lessons.

The other series of textbooks – *Essential English*, a nationally recommended textbooks series by the Ministry of Education, is more form-focused, using linguistic component as organizational units. Vocabulary and grammar were saliently practiced. An examination of the unit themes and topics of the textbooks showed that they are fairly universal common themes and topic, bearing little relation to any workplace or future vocation-related situations. In the words of one student:

I think the textbook is all right. But sometimes I get the feeling that we can't put what we've learned into practical application.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, L202) **PrimaryData149**

Although the textbook is used for teaching the general English module, it is important for textbooks to include engaging and stimulating topics relevant to learners' life and future working world so that students' learning interest and motivation can be enhanced and sustained. The focus of the current textbook series, moreover, was on drill-practiced language usage rather than actual language use. In the words of the teachers, the textbook series was fairly difficult for students of low language competences.

Relatively speaking, I think many of our English teachers consider the teaching content in the textbooks somewhat difficult, in particular the *Essential English* series. The textbooks are more suitable for those students who want to go to higher vocational education, because the syllabus designer of the textbook still focus on grammar.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL68-71) **PrimaryData150**

I think the textbook is not suitable for our students. Students in our school, in particular those manufacturing-sector-orientated students, are very poor at English. It's too difficult for them to learn such difficult things, let alone to master them.

(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL17-20) **PrimaryData151**

The series of textbook surely can't stimulate student's learning interest because they can't understand the things in the textbook. They can't understand the things even from the first unit. The textbook made them feel difficult. Everything should start from something easy to more difficult. If the starting point is fairly difficult and is

getting more and more difficult in the later part, then it is a torture for both students and teachers. I think the book series is too difficult, especially for those teachers teaching the textbook series.

(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL268-271) **PrimaryData152**

Given students' current language competences, the textbook series was also considered by students as beyond their cognitive load (Yeung, Jin, & Sweller, 1997).

S: I don't like the textbook (Essential English). When I open it, there is nothing I can understand. I can't understand anything at all. If I can understand what those things mean, I may want to read it and try to understand what it means.

I: Then, do you think the passages in the text are difficult or uninteresting?

S: I can't understand it at all. It's just that I can't understand what the texts are about.

(SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, LL230-235) **PrimaryData153**

Regarding the textbooks in use, students seemed to prefer easier and more practical textbooks, especially those which were related to their specialties or future vocations, as stated by three students:

S: I think ((makes a noise with her mouth)) Hotel English is easier. The textbook that we've started learning.

I: How about the *Essential English*?

S: *Essential English*, I think it isn't as easy as Hotel English, and it's more difficult for us to understand.

(SA-SI-#13 ZS-TRSM-F, LL186-190) **PrimaryData154**

The *Hotel English* is more closely related to our specialty (i.e., Hotel Service and Management), and we can make use of the things learned when we later work at hotels. But *Essential English*, I think, seems to be of little use in our future daily life.

(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, LL135-137) **PrimaryData155**

That textbook – Hotel English – has some sort of relationship with us. But that English book (i.e., *Essential English*), I think, is useless.

(SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F, LL169-170) **PrimaryData156**

With reference to the new NVES, the two textbook series in use (i.e., *Essential English*

and *New Concept English*) do not appear to meet the objectives depicted in the national curriculum document:

On the basis of nine-year compulsory education, senior secondary vocational English curriculum should help learners further expand their essential English knowledge, cultivate such language skills as listening, speaking, reading and writing so that learners can possess basic vocational English competences; stimulate and cultivate learners' English learning interest, improve their self-confidence in learning, help learners master some basic learning strategies, form good learning-habits, and improve their self-regulation in learning; guide learners to understand and distinguish differences between Chinese and Western culture, cultivate learners' affective feelings, attitudes, values and ethics. (MOE, 2009b, p. 1)

In summary, the TSA showed that students expected textbooks to be less difficult, more user-friendly, and more relevant to their targeted workplace, with more focus on communicative language use. Teachers, moreover, expected that textbooks could integrate the present two isolated modules – the general English module and the English for Vocational Purposes module. The PSA, on the other hand, showed that the textbooks in use were centered on language structure rather than communicative language use, with many repetitive mechanical language practice drills. The textbooks were mostly beyond students' current language competences and learning needs.

(2) Other Learning Resources

The interview data indicated that a majority of students made limited use of learning resources either at school (i.e., the school library) or outside school, as one student stated:

I: Do you read some other materials after school?

S: Never.

(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL175-176) PrimaryData157

As the student stated the most common learning resources that were made use of were their textbooks.

I: Other than your textbook, do you read other books after school?

S: No ((smiles)).

(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL75-76) PrimaryData158

Other than the textbook, few students made an effort to go to the school library to gain access to other English learning resources. In the words of the students:

No, even till now I still don't know where the school library is.

(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, L139) PrimaryData159

S: We sometimes go to the school library in our spare time.

I: To borrow some English books?

S: English books? ((smiles)) Oh, no.

I: Do you read English books in your spare time?

S: I don't read English books in my spare time, but I listen to teachers tentatively in class.

(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL120-123) PrimaryData160

I: Have you ever borrowed any English books or English reading materials from the school library?

S: No, never.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL93-94) PrimaryData161

For those who had access to other learning resources, their use of English learning materials was still mostly confined to materials in Chinese due to their limited language competences, as remarked by the following two students:

I've read the sort of books, with English on one page and Chinese on the other page. Basically, I don't understand English, so I just read Chinese.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL71-73) PrimaryData162

After school, I mainly read our textbook Hotel English. I also read other books. For instance, last time I went back to my former junior secondary school and borrowed a few English books to read at home. But some of the books are too difficult and I have to look up almost all the words in the dictionary. Because the materials are difficult, I didn't read much.

(SA-SI-#11-WS-HSM-F, LL90-94) PrimaryData163

The above statements indicated that students needed proper guidance for their extracurricular learning activities, such as choosing the appropriate materials to read or adopting the effective learning strategies. Regarding the learning resources utilized outside school, English songs and films seemed to be the most frequently used resources, as stated by three students:

Sometimes I go to the Internet café, to listen to songs and search for materials. ...
Sometimes I read the English song scripts.

(SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL83-86) **PrimaryData164**

English songs are beautiful. I listen to them via the Internet or MP3.

(SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, L68) **PrimaryData165**

Yeah, I especially like listening to English songs and see English films.

(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, L127) **PrimaryData166**

On the one hand, students made limited use of English learning resources other than their textbooks. On the other hand, the learning resources that students could make use of were inadequately provided at the school libraries. Although appearing to be well-stocked, the materials in the school libraries and the reading-rooms were mostly beyond students' language competences, as commented by one teacher:

Speaking of books, I went to our school library the other day, which I think is very similar to those at the university. The library has many famous books. We also have a reading room in our school. The materials in the library and the reading-room are different. The books in the library are mostly novels, foreign novels. The materials in the reading-room are fine, with such magazines as *English Saloon* and *English Week*, but our students seldom go to read the English magazines ((laughs)). They prefer to read books in Chinese. (SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL233-237) **PrimaryData167**

In my school visits, I also noticed that English magazines or newspapers accessible and suitable for students on the shelves of the school library and reading-room were fairly limited. Most of the learning resources that students utilized were acquired from outside school, such as magazines, cartoon films, short stories or other materials. These materials they acquired either from bookstores or public libraries, as stated by two highly-motivated students:

I didn't go to the school library. Usually I bought materials to read at home, and I generally prefer staying at home. I like buying books to read at home. When finishing reading the materials, I'll go to the library to find some more. ... I usually go to the biggest bookstore in the city. ... And sometimes, I go to other bookstores to buy books. And I've even been to the provincial library to borrow books.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL114-120) **PrimaryData168**

I usually borrow books from my classmates. ... The books we often read are English textbooks and some short stories.

(SA-SI-#01-SBR-BE-F, LL148-155) **PrimaryData169**

Further investigation of the type of materials read by the motivated students indicated that the extracurricular reading materials were mostly related to lexical, grammatical, and orthoepic competences rather than semantic and pragmatic competences, as remarked by two students:

Sometimes, I read some materials, which I bought when I was at junior secondary school. The sort of grammar books with pictures, which we don't learn at school.

(SC-SI-#19-LXC-TSM-F, LL28-70) **PrimaryData170**

The materials I use are: the high frequency *English Expressions*, the most frequently used *Harvard English*, ... and the phonological book the most suitable to Chinese – *International Phonetics*. I think the book *International Phonetics* is good, which points out the phonological mistakes that Chinese often make. And there are also other books, such as *Jiangbo English*, *New Concept English*, *English Grammar* and so on.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL225-231) **PrimaryData171**

In general, students made relatively little use of learning materials other than their textbooks. Few students made effective use of school libraries or reading rooms in part because the materials provided were of limited variety and unsuitable for students' current language competences. The learning resources most frequently used from outside school were English songs and films, which helped students to get acquainted with foreign culture. The other sources of materials that students utilized in their spare time were magazines, newspapers, books and cartoons from public libraries and bookstores – focusing mainly on lexical, grammatical and orthoepic competences.

6.2.4.2 Facilities at School

Student and teacher interviews indicated that schools were expected to be well-equipped with modern language learning facilities for a better language learning environment.

Speaking of teaching facilities, I expect our school to be well-equipped so that we can listen to more English materials with the use of the facilities.

(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, L153) **PrimaryData172**

If multimedia facilities are provided, then for each vocational situation I can at least make use of the resources I have on hand. For example, in the case of hotel English or the things they need to learn about Western and Chinese food, I have many video materials, right. If we could watch the video with explanation with the aid of the multimedia facilities, the learning effects would definitely be much better, yeah.

(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL79-82) **PrimaryData173**

Both teachers and students held positive attitudes towards modern language learning facilities. They considered computer-assisted language learning to be fun and effective to stimulate students' learning interest.

It (computer-assisted language learning) is very helpful. All the films we see are in English. We've been learning English as well as enjoying the film. We've been enjoying while learning. I think the way of learning is very interesting.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL172-174) **PrimaryData174**

So in comparison with computer-assisted language learning (CALL), the mode of classroom teaching with teachers holding a textbook in the front is very boring. In fact, students regard the textbook-centered teaching uninteresting, and we teachers think the same. I think, English teaching especially in vocational schools should be more diverse and full of activities so that students' incentives can be motivated. It can thus become a virtuous cycle with teachers willing to teach and students willing to learn, which is very important.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL192-195) **PrimaryData175**

As the teachers stated, teachers expected to make more effective use of modern facilities for English learning as new technologies could provide more learning stimulus to enhance and sustain learners' learning interest.

Students these days are good at accepting new things. How can we keep them sitting there the way when we were treated at school? They are more active and can't sit there listening to teachers for long. ... Yes, they can sit in the classroom for English classes for one week, and then two weeks. But if there's nothing new to stimulate them, they'll lose their English learning interest.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL197-201) **PrimaryData176**

Each time we have classes in the multimedia lab, students all actively participate in classroom activities and look forward to the next class when we'll have another class in the lab. (SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL190-192) **PrimaryData177**

I've collected a lot of software, but I can't show my students the software in the English class. I can't use the software in class. If I could use the software, surely students' incentives can be motivated. Like us, students also like seeing pictures. So with pictures and situated scenes, they would definitely like to learn.

(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL86-89) **PrimaryData178**

Like teachers, students also considered the use of modern facilities helpful in enhancing their language competences, as stated by one student:

Sometimes when we have two English classes, the teacher will arrange us to go to the language lab (on the sixth floor) to see English films. The teacher usually asks us to write down some useful sentences that we can understand. It's a good way to practice our listening comprehension.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL168-171) **PrimaryData179**

As Felix (2008) points out "it has been found that technologies have the potential to engage students and create opportunities, adding value to face-to-face instruction; that dedicated programs ... are useful; that the multimodal nature of current technologies appeals to different learning styles, that the use of technologies can have a positive effect on student attitudes and participation ..." (p. 154). As teachers and students stated, the modern facility-enhanced environment could better cater for the learning needs and learning styles of different students and improve learning effectiveness.

In reality, student and teacher interviews showed that although each school claimed itself to be well-equipped, tape recorders and overhead TVs were the most frequently used teaching facilities in teachers' teaching practice, as supported by the following

student and teacher statements:

(The facilities that teachers use are) tape recorders and TVs.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL105) **PrimaryData180**

Speaking of teaching facilities, I think the teaching facilities in our school are not well-equipped. This might be due to some objective factors. The facilities that we can use in class are tape recorders. The teaching-assisted CDs, which are affiliated with our textbooks, are all very good. But as our facilities – the hardware facilities are not well-equipped; we can't use the CDs in class. I think it's really a pity and a great waste. Other use of facilities is just confined to playing films via the overhead TVs in the classroom. (SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL184-188) **PrimaryData181**

Regarding the modern language labs and multimedia labs, both teachers and students could make fairly limited use of them due to the limited resources available at school, as in the words of one student and two teachers:

I don't know there's a language lab. We haven't been there to have our English class.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, L107) **PrimaryData182**

It's basically very difficult for us to use that multimedia lab. There's only one lab for all the subjects. Our whole school has just one lab, the multimedia lab on the sixth floor, yeah.

(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL82-85) **PrimaryData183**

We can use the multimedia lab once a month. Usually I let students see some good film clips, and involve them into some interactive activities. But such chances are fairly rare, so students especially treasure the opportunities.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL188-190) **PrimaryData184**

On the other hand, computer-assisted language learning has posed challenging issues for teachers who are used to teacher-fronted teaching, with regard to teaching management, teaching skills and syllabus design, as teachers and students might have different expectations of the class.

We take it for granted that the effects should be better, but in fact sometimes it is contrary to our expectations. When students come to the lab, we seem to have more difficulties in getting them focused. In the classroom we can manage them,

but in the language lab, each of them is behind a booth, doing their own business. They think that once they're in the language lab they can listen to music or see English films. They'll think things like that. Those are the things that they think about when computer-assisted language learning is mentioned. But when I keyed in some exercises, the classroom would become too chaotic to manipulate. ... Not only was their learning interest not motivated, but also they became absent-minded as everything in the computer lab appeared new and afresh to them. I think ... computer-assisted language learning hasn't really become the chief teaching aid. (SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL216-232) **PrimaryData185**

In general, modern teaching facilities, in particular computer-assisted language learning and teaching, are not commonly used. Classroom teaching in most schools was typically still in a teacher-fronted mode, with textbook- and blackboard-centered teaching as the major teaching facilities. Although computer-assisted language learning was considered to be able to enhance learners' learning interest, most schools, however, were still not well-equipped with modern language learning and teaching facilities.

6.2.4.3 Summary

In brief, textbooks as the chief learning resources used at school were compiled around a structure-based syllabus, focusing on lexical and grammatical language usage and isolated language skills rather than communicative language use. Moreover, the current textbooks were developed for teaching the general English module and the English for Vocational Purposes module respectively, with language competences trained separately in different textbooks. Other than their textbooks, students made fairly limited use of learning resources at school. One issue was that suitable and relevant materials available for students in the school libraries were limited; the other issue was that students needed proper guidance for selecting suitable materials. The most frequently used materials outside school were English songs and films.

Regarding the facilities, although schools claimed to be well-equipped, the availability of modern language learning facilities at school was still very limited. The most commonly-used facilities were the tape recorders and overhead TVs. To better cater

for students' learning needs and learning interests, schools should be equipped with modern language learning facilities to provide a more engaging and stimulating language learning environment.

6.3 Findings and Discussion

The qualitative study has provided an in-depth and detailed profile of the research participants (N=38), in particular of the student participants (N=23) chosen from the larger cohort (N=707). In synthesizing the data from the different sources – students, teachers, graduate students and employers – through interviews, classroom observations and document analysis, a set of commonalities concerning desirable language learning needs were identified. The deficiencies could be summarized into three levels of needs: (1) learners' learning needs, (2) teachers' teaching, and (3) resources and facilities, demonstrating the gaps currently existed between the target situation and the present situation.

6.3.1 Learning Needs

The deficiency analysis revealed that there were gaps between the TSA and PSA of learners' learning needs, with the results summarized in Table 6.19.

The deficiency analysis indicated that gaps existed between TSA and PSA, regarding learners' general language competences, communicative language competences and language skills. Given students' current language competences, effective measures need to be taken to deal with the language competence deficiencies.

(1) General Language Competences

With regard to learners' *declarative knowledge*, the qualitative study has revealed that school education needs to develop learners' knowledge of the world, especially knowledge of their specialty and knowledge of the workplace. As China is becoming more globalized, learners need to develop their socio-cultural knowledge and inter-culture awareness because the workplace expects their employees to understand and appreciate different cultures and acquire a better understanding of intercultural

relations at work. Learners – in particular those from the service-sector-oriented specialties – are expected to possess knowledge of other languages as customers may be from both English-speaking and non-English-speaking countries. Due to geographical and economic factors, Korean, Japanese and German are of prominent importance along with English in the current study.

Table 6.19 Summary of learning needs

Variables	Items	TSA	PSA	
General language competences	Declarative knowledge	Knowledge of the specialty and the workplace	√	
		Sociocultural knowledge of foreign countries	√	√
		Intercultural awareness	√	
		Knowledge of other languages	√	
	Skills & know-how	Practical skills and know-how	√	
		Intercultural skills and know-how	√	
Communicative language competences	Linguistic competences	Lexical competence	√	√
		Grammatical competence	√	√
		Semantic competence	√	
		Phonological competence	√	√
		Orthographic competence		√
		Orthoepic competence		√
	Sociolinguistic competences	Appropriate social language use;	√	
		Competence to understand different English speaking accents	√	
Pragmatic competences	Fluent and effective language use	√		
Language skills	Listening	(i.e., Service sector)	√	√
	Speaking	(i.e., Service sector)	√	√
	Reading	(i.e., Manufacturing sector)	√	√
	Writing			√

With regard to *skills and know-how*, there exist a need for the school-based curriculum to develop learners' social skills to deal with interrelationship at workplace, and to develop their vocational skills, in particular, the technical skills or the operational skills at workplace. Furthermore, the school curriculum needs to develop learners' intercultural communication skills so that learners can adjust themselves to the cultural diversity in the working world.

(2) Communicative Language Competences

With regard to the first aspect of communicative language competences – learner's *linguistic competences*, school education needs to develop learners' *lexical competence* as currently their competence is far from sufficient to deal with academic tasks and real life communication at work. The stock of students' vocabulary varied from about 100 to around 1,000 words, with a great majority of students having a vocabulary repertoire of just a few hundred words.

In addition to lexical competences, school education needs to develop learners' *grammatical competence* as learners mostly lack the ability to organize isolated linguistic forms into meaningful grammatical structures although the current school education focuses more on grammar explanation and overt mechanic grammatical practice. The language practices, however, are mostly isolated from a situational context.

Given learners' poor linguistic and grammatical competences, their *semantic competence* was insufficient. Learners were unable to deal with meaningful communication both in real life situations and at the workplace. School education hence need to develop learners' semantic competence so that learners can construct isolated linguistic units into meaningful language use.

Regarding *phonological competence*, the current school education over-emphasizes mechanical phonological training. School education therefore needs to develop learners' phonological knowledge and skills in facilitating their lexical, grammatical and semantic competences for communication. In addition to the knowledge of phonetic symbols, school education need to develop learners' phonological competence at a discourse level, that is, at levels above sentences.

Regarding *orthographic competence*, school education should provide students with more creative and productive writing practice rather than merely doing mechanical copying exercises at a lower cognitive level. This competence, however, is of relatively minor importance in the workplace.

Although most learners considered *orthoepic competence* essential to their effective language learning, their inside and outside school language learning and practice showed that, to a great extent, emphasis was placed on reading aloud from the textbook rather than on honing their productive and communicative speaking skills.

In view of the second aspect of communicative language competences – sociolinguistic competences, school education, in particular service-sector-oriented specialties, needs to cultivate learners' competence to comprehend the various social dimensions of language use as customers may come from different parts of the world and speak a variety of English. Currently, there are few such requirements on the social dimension of learners' linguistic knowledge and language use in school education.

The third aspect of communicative language competences is pragmatic competences. School education need to develop learners' pragmatic competences to put language forms into practical and effective use. The present school education overemphasizes the grammatical accuracy of language forms, at the expense of fluency and complexity aspects of language use (Skehan, 1998a). In the workplace, the latter two aspects are essential for effective communication.

In summary, both learners' general language competences and communicative language competences need to be developed in the current school education, in particular, the current school-based English curriculum. Learners' general language competences in relation to their target workplace and their communicative language competences, especially sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences, need to be developed to better serve learners' perceived needs as well as their present learning needs.

(3) Language Skills

The deficiency analysis revealed that among the four language skills, listening and speaking top the list in the target workplace, especially in the service sector. Reading is of secondary importance, followed by writing – the least important skill among the

four language skills in the service sector, whereas in the manufacturing sector reading was considered of relatively more importance. The present school curriculum, however, puts a much heavier emphasis on the receptive learning skills rather than the productive and interactive communication skills. The school curriculum also focuses on receptive reading skills (e.g., text- or text-related material reading) and receptive writing skills (e.g., copying texts and other mechanical writing activities) rather than training these skills more productively. School education, therefore, needs to stress productive communication skills, in alignment with receptive language skills.

6.3.2 Teaching Needs

The deficiency analysis has revealed that discrepancies exist between the TSA and PSA of teachers' teaching, as shown in Table 6.20.

Table 6.20 Summary of teachers' teaching needs

Variables	Items	TSA	PSA
General language competences	Declarative knowledge of the specialty and the workplace	√	
	Dual-specialist professionals	√	
Communicative language teaching	Linguistic usage		√
	Language use	√	
	Situational context	√	
Language skills	Knowledge to skill transfer	√	
Teaching model	Differentiated instruction	√	
	Direct instruction		√
Medium of instruction	L2+L1	√	
	L1+L2		√
Classroom management	Interactive activities	√	
	I-R-E mode (initiation-response-evaluation)		√

Given the identified deficiencies, effective measures should be taken to deal with the needs regarding teacher education. To develop learners' general language competences, teachers should develop their own *general language competences* in response to learners' needs. Teachers need to develop their declarative knowledge relevant to their students' specialties and targeted working world and become dual-specialist professionals. "Such features tend to favor the creation of individualized opportunities for making learning personally meaningful" (Waters &

Vilches, 2001, p. 136) for learners.

To develop learners' communicative language competences, teachers need to adopt *communicative language teaching*, focusing on situational language use with chunks as unit of organization rather than repetitive language usage with isolated linguistic elements as unit of organization through variety of language activities with meaning-focused experience in relation to learners' communicative needs and experiences (Lightbown & Spada, 1993).

Regarding *teaching models*, teachers should conduct the mode of differentiated instruction rather than the currently-adopted direct instruction, with teachers catering for learners' individual differences, learning to know learners' needs, and adjusting their teaching in response to learners' language competences through a variety of interactive activities. A more flexible differentiated instruction could therefore enable learners to achieve a flow state of happiness and achievement (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997) between the challenge of the task and their language skills in their process of learning. At present, a majority of teachers still adopted the direct instruction, focusing on lexical and grammatical competences rather than the meaningful language use, following the I-R-F pattern of turn-taking for knowledge transmission (Freire, 1970). The role the teachers play should hence to be "the guide on the side" rather than "the sage on the stage" (Murray, 2007, p. 750).

As far as the *medium of instruction* is concerned, teachers adopting a flexible differentiated instruction should be encouraged to use as much target language as possible to create a language learning environment for learners. At present, there were still a substantial number of teachers adopting forms of rigid direct instruction, with Chinese – the mother tongue – being predominantly used as the main medium of instruction.

6.3.3 Learning Environment Needs

The study has shown that discrepancies existed between the TSA and PSA of learning resources and learning facilities provided at different schools. The results of the

learning environment deficient analysis are summarized in Table 6.21.

Given the identified discrepancies, textbooks as chief learning resources at school need to be developed in conformity with the learners' current learning interests and needs and workplace requirements so that the linkage between school and work can be more consistent and relevant. Regarding the learning content, the learning materials need to be more skill- or process-based rather than structure-based, focusing on meaningful language use. Other than textbooks as chief learning materials, the availability of learning resources at school, such as the school library and the reading-room, needs to be in greater variety and be more suitable to learners' language competences. Moreover, teachers need to provide more learning guidance regarding learners' material selection.

Table 6.21 Summary of learning resources and facilities needs

Variables	Items	TSA	PSA	
Learning resources	Textbooks in use	Interesting	√	
		Difficult		√
		Interface user-friendly	√	
		Practical and vocational relevant	√	
		Integrated course module	√	
	Other learning resources	Resources available at the school library	√	
English songs and films		√	√	
Resources from outside the school		√		
Facilities at school	Labs	Language labs	√	
		Multimedia computer labs	√	
	Other facilities	Tape recorders	√	√
		Overhead TVs	√	√
		Chalk and blackboard	√	√

In view of learning facilities, schools as the chief educational institutions need to provide more modern language learning facilities for language teaching and learning, such as language labs and multimedia computer labs.

To summarize, given the deficiencies existing at each level of needs – learners, teachers, and learning environment, effective measures should be taken to deal with the discrepancies. Once the discrepancies have been identified, needs should be prioritized according to their immediate importance to learners.

6.3.4 Priority of Needs

With reference to Waters and Vilches' (2001) proposed NA model for implementing EFL innovations, the priority of needs in the current study is presented in the form of a matrix. The vertical axis consists of two main hierarchically-arranged levels of needs: primary *foundation-building* and secondary *potential-realizing* needs. As Waters and Vilches (2001) point out, in sequencing the priority of needs it is important to advance in a bottom-up fashion, that is, the lower level should be addressed first before moving on to a higher level of needs.

The horizontal axis is composed of three types of needs: (1) learners' learning, (2) teachers' teaching, and (3) learning resources and facilities (Table 6.22).

The priority of identified needs can further inform syllabus design, curriculum development and implementation, and language competence framework in senior secondary VE in mainland China. With reference to the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001, see 2.4), the current study has revealed that some categories receive more attention (i.e., linguistic competences) while other categories are not stressed to such an extent in the current curriculum development and implementation (i.e., sociolinguistic competences and pragmatic competences). Finally, the findings and priority of needs can better inform curriculum development (West, 1994), syllabus design (Nunan, 2006), the appropriate selection of materials and methods (Brown, 2006), and the provision of the language learning environment.

Table 6.22 Priority of Needs

Needs	Learners' learning	Teachers' teaching	Learning environment
Potential-realizing needs	General competences: Knowledge of other languages Communicative language competences: Sociolinguistic competences Pragmatic competences Language skills: Practical writing	General competences: Dual-specialist professionals Communicative language teaching: English language competences	Learning resources: Appropriate resources from inside and outside school Facilities: Multimedia computer labs & language labs
Foundation-building needs	General competences: knowledge of the working world Sociocultural knowledge of foreign countries and intercultural awareness Communicative language competences: Linguistic competences General sociolinguistic & pragmatic competences Language skills: Listening & speaking Reading Simple writing	General competences: Knowledge of the workplace Communicative language teaching: Differentiated instruction English as the chief medium of instruction Knowledge-to- skill transfer Interactive learning activities	Learning resources: Adaptive textbooks Facilities: Language labs & other modern language learning facilities Language learning software

Chapter 7 Deficiency Analysis: Explanation of Deficiency Causes

In the previous chapter, the NA study of three levels of needs – learners, teachers, resources and facilities – was described and discussed. In this section, the factors account for the current discrepancies are explored in answer to the third research question (i.e., RQ 3. Given the investigation of the present situation and target situation needs, what factors account for the current discrepancies?).

7.1 Data Description

In this section, the qualitative data, along with embedded quantitative data, are described, with reference to Gardner's socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985), in particular, the mini-AMTB (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). Three types of *Motivation* – *Integrative motivation*, *Instrumental motivation* and *Other motivation* – emerged from the quantitative and qualitative data analysis, along with *Other factors*, all accounting for the current language competence deficiencies.

7.1.1 Motivation

Motivation, as Dörnyei claims, “provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process: indeed, all other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent” (1998, p. 117). Like Dörnyei, Cummings and Davison also indicate that “motivation is a crucial component of engagement for learning” (2007, p. 620). In the adapted mini-AMTB (e.g., Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993), six variables - (1) *Integrativeness*, (2) *Attitudes towards the learning situation*, (3) *Motivation*, (4) *Instrumental orientation*, (5) *Language anxiety*, and (6) *Parent encouragement* - were measured, with some aggregated items, as shown in Figure 7.1.

The total complex of the three components – *Integrativeness*, *Attitudes towards the learning situation*, and *Motivation* – is referred to as *Integrative motivation* as one of

the two classes of reasons for language learning in Gardner’s socioeducational model (1985, 2000), the other class of reasons being *instrumental orientation*. Learners of *Integrative orientation* are reported to demonstrate reasons to interact and communicate with members of the target community for social reasons. The two classes of attitudes – *Integrativeness* and *Attitudes towards the learning situation* – are two correlated supports for *Motivation*, with *Motivation* as the most directly linked affective factor influencing *Achievement*. *Instrumental orientation* refers to reasons for learning the target language for practical reasons, such as getting a good job, getting a high salary, or getting a desired qualification. In addition to the two types of Motivation in Gardener’s mini-AMTB, *Other motivation*, such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, was also identified from the qualitative study.

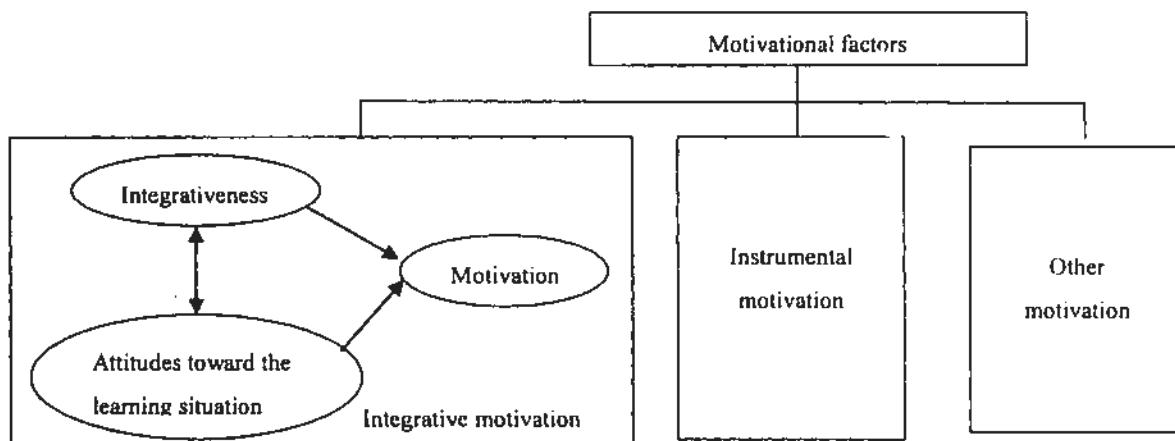


Figure 7.1 Motivational factors

The first four factors in the mini-AMTB are analyzed in the Motivation sector while the latter two factors are analyzed in the next section. The data analysis and research findings are presented in the following sections.

7.1.2 Other Factors

As stated in Gardner’s mini-AMTB (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993), *Other factors* are not directly associated with *Integrative motivation*; these factors exert an influence on learners’ *Language achievement*, or language competence deficiencies in the current

study, as presented in Figure 7.2.

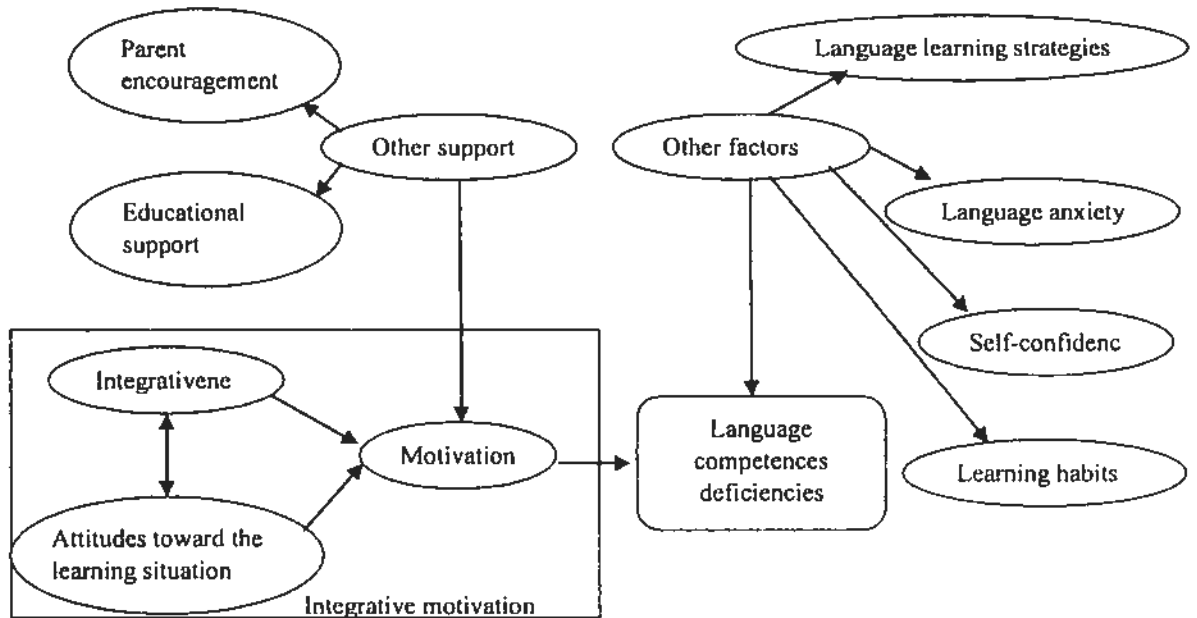


Figure 7.2 Other influencing factors

These other factors can be *language learning strategies* (Oxford, 1990), *language anxiety* (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989), *self-confidence with the language* (Clément, 1980). The qualitative data analysis indicated that *personal learning habits* are another factor, which accounts for individual differences and language competence deficiencies. *Language anxiety*, a factor in the mini-AMTB, is analyzed in this section.

In the mini-AMTB, there is another factor *Other support*, which exerts an influence on motivation, which in turn has an influence on learners' language achievement or language competence deficiencies in the current study. The factor *Parent encouragement* was originally included in the mini-AMTB. Another factor *Educational support* later emerged from the qualitative study. The data analysis and research findings of *Other factors* and *Other support* are presented in the following sections.

7.2 Results

The results of the qualitative study, along with an embedded quantitative study, are

presented in this section. The quantitative study of learners' general motivational determinants and the relationship between motivation and language achievement are presented first, followed with the detailed qualitative as well as quantitative interpretation.

7.2.1 Learners' General Motivational Determinants

With reference to using the mini-AMTB, Bernaus and Gardner (2008) recommend that "researchers direct their attention towards the major attributes in the socioeducational model by aggregating the item scales, rather than using the scales individually" (p. 390). Variables, therefore, resulted from the translated mini-AMTB for the current study were (1) *Integrativeness* (i.e., three items), (2) *Attitudes towards the learning situation* (i.e., two items), (3) *Motivation* (i.e., three items), (4) *Instrumental orientation* (i.e., a single item), (5) *Language anxiety* (i.e., two items), and (6) *Parental encouragement* (i.e., a single item), with scale of over one items being aggregated.

In the data analysis, the mean scores for the four aggregated items have been computed. The items of *Instrumental orientation* and *Parental encouragement* were not computed because each has only one item. Since all items were scored on a 7-point scale, all variables have possible scores varying from 1 to 7. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient (α) of each aggregated category is presented in Table 7.1:

Table 7.1 Reliability coefficients

Variable	Reliability
Motivation	0.83
Integrativeness	0.70
Language Anxiety	0.60
Attitudes towards the learning situation	0.56

An examination of Table 7.1 reveals that the reliability of the aggregated variables

varies from .56 (*Attitudes towards the learning situation*) to .83 (*Motivation*), with *Motivation* of high reliability. In Masgoret and Gardner's (2003) meta-analysis of AMTB (see 4.2.4.2.1), the mean Cronbach's alpha coefficients are .92 (*Motivation*), .90 (*Integrativeness*) and .93 (*Attitudes towards the learning situation*), which indicate high internal reliability. In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients are generally lower than those in Masgoret and Gardner's meta-analysis, in part because each variable consisted of only two or three items. Internal consistency (i.e., reliability) tends to decrease as the number of items decreases, other things are equal.

7.2.2 The Relationship between Motivation and Language Achievement

The purpose of the investigation was to investigate the relationships between the variables measured by the mini-AMTB and between these variables and language achievement, an important indicator of language competences. The procedure was conducted by focusing on the relationship among these variables using students as the unit of analysis. The relationship between *Motivation* and *Language achievement* among vocational senior secondary school learners was investigated by calculating the mean of each item under each of the four motivation/attitude variables – *Motivation*, *Integrativeness*, *Attitudes towards the learning situation*, and *Language anxiety*. After calculating the mean of the four variables, they were then correlated, together with two one-single items – *Instrumental orientation* and *Parental encouragement*, with *Language achievement*. The major results are presented in Table 7.2.

Brown (2005) states that “coefficients either positive or negative up to about +.40, or -.40 indicate fairly weak relationships” while “relatively strong correlations would be those that range from +.80 to +1.0” (p. 141). Among the six variables, none were very strongly correlated with *Language achievement* although the correlation coefficients were significant.

Table 7.2 Correlation of motivational measures and language achievement

Variables	INT	ALS	MOT	ANX	PE	INS	ACH
Integrativeness (INT)	1						
Attitudes towards the learning situation (ALS)	.59**	1					
Motivation (MOT)	.76**	.68**	1				
Language anxiety (ANX)	.09	.01	.11**	1			
Parental encouragement (PE)	.40**	.44**	.43**	.04	1		
Instrumental orientation (INS)	.48**	.52**	.54**	.17**	.36**	1	
Language achievement (ACH)	.22**	.21**	.25**	-.10**	.16**	.22**	1

Note: N=684; **p< 0.01, *p< 0.05.

In terms of the correlations between motivational variables, correlations between *Motivation* and *Integrativeness* (.76) and *Attitudes towards the learning situation* (.68) were shown to exhibit greater significance than the other variables. The evidence supports previous researchers' claims that *Integrative motivation* promotes successful language learning (Gardner, 1985, 2000; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997). The two supportive factors of *Motivation* – *Integrativeness* and *Attitudes towards the learning situation* correlated with each other at .59. *Instrumental Orientation* was associated strongly with *Motivation* (.54), which indicates that a larger number of students learn English for practical reasons, such as finding a good job. *Parental encouragement* correlated with *Instrumental orientation* (.36), which indicates that parents encouraged learners to learn English for pragmatic purposes. *Language anxiety* significantly correlated with both *Motivation* (.10) and *Instrumental orientation* (.17), although at a lower level. The correlations among variables demonstrate that the six variables do not exist in isolation but are interrelated to each other, and to a degree thereby have an influence on *Motivation*, which in turn

has an influence on *Language achievement*.

All six variables correlated significantly with the measure of *Language achievement*, with *Language anxiety* negatively correlated with *Language achievement* (-.10). The correlation between *Language achievement* and *Motivation* (.25) was higher than that for *Integrativeness* (.22) or *Attitudes towards the learning situation* (.21), indicating that students with higher levels of motivation performed better on the language test than those with lower motivation. The correlation for *Integrativeness* was almost the same as that for *Instrumental orientation*. The correlations for *Parental encouragement* (.16) and *Language anxiety* (-.10) were lower although still significant. The correlation for the overarching concept *Integrative Motivation*, with its three components – *Integrativeness*, *Attitudes towards the learning situation* and *Motivation* – was .26, higher than that for *Integrativeness* (.21). The above results illustrate how some motivation variables are more closely related than others to *Language achievement*.

Table 7.3 Stepwise regression predicting learners' language achievement

Variable	β	t	R^2	adjusted R^2	F
Constant	-.25	-.34*			
Motivation	-.26	-7.24**	.06**	.063	47.14
Language anxiety	.12	3.46**	.08**	.078	29.95

Note: ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$.

The study also indicates that *Integrativeness*, *Motivation*, *Instrumental orientation*, and *Attitudes towards the learning situations* were significantly related to the measure of *Language achievement*. Indeed, as shown in Table 7.3, entering all six variables into a stepwise regression revealed that only two variables – *Motivation* and *Language anxiety* – predicted unique variance in *Language achievement* (i.e., 6% and 8%).

In computing the regression, *Language achievement* was treated as the dependent

variable, with the other six variables as independent variables: *Motivation*, *Language anxiety*, *Integrativeness*, *Attitudes towards the learning situation*, *Parent encouragement*, and *Instrumental orientation*. Only two variables – *Motivation* and *Language Anxiety* – accounted for unique variance with *Language achievement* [$F(1,681)=47.14$ and $F(2,681)=29.95$]. In the *Language anxiety* subcategory, there were two items: *English use anxiety* (Q. 8. *I worry about speaking English outside class*) and *English class anxiety* (Q. 10. *I worry about speaking in my English class*). Of these two items, only the *English class anxiety* item predicted variance with regard to *Language achievement*. This indicates that the learners' apprehension of their language learning experience is more associated with the English course rather than with English use. The two values (.06 and .08) were significant, although at a lower level. Other variables exhibited no significance.

Statistical analysis indicated that *Motivation* and *Language anxiety* accounted for unique variance with *Language achievement*. The detailed interpretation of the extent that attitude/motivational variables contribute to language competence deficiencies are described in the next section.

7.2.3 Attitude/Motivational Factors

In this section, the results of the qualitative and quantitative study of the attitude/motivational factors are reported to see to what extent attitude/motivational variables contribute to language competence discrepancies. The results of the survey on participants' attitudes, and motivation with the mini-AMTB (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) are reported, along with the results of the qualitative study to triangulate the data. The results of the quantitative survey of 23 student participants are presented in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4 Attitude/Motivational statistics

Mnemonics	Integrativeness	Attitudes towards the Learning Situation	Motivation	Instrumental motivation
SA-SI-#01-SBR-BE-F	1.67	1.50	2.33	1.67
SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F	2.67	1.50	2.00	2.67
SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F	1.00	1.00	1.67	1.00
SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F	2.33	2.00	3.00	2.33
SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M	2.33	2.00	3.33	2.33
SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M	5.00	4.00	7.00	2.33
SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M	3.00	6.00	4.67	3.00
SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M	3.33	5.00	4.67	3.33
SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M	2.67	1.00	1.33	2.67
SA-SI-#11-WS-HSM-F	2.00	1.00	1.67	2.00
SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F	2.33	2.00	2.67	2.33
SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F	2.33	1.50	2.67	2.33
SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F	2.33	1.00	1.67	2.33
SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M	1.67	2.50	2.33	1.67
SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M	2.00	1.00	1.00	2.00
SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F	2.67	2.00	2.00	2.67
SC-SI-#19-LXC-TSM-F	1.33	1.00	1.00	1.33
SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F	3.67	3.00	3.67	3.33
SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M	4.33	4.00	6.67	4.33
SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M	2.33	1.50	1.33	2.33
SC-SI-#24-WSQ-TSM-F	3.33	1.50	3.00	1.00
SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F	3.67	3.00	3.67	3.67
SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F	1.33	1.50	1.67	1.33
Mean	3.34	2.75	3.58	2.17
SD	1.00	1.38	1.67	1.88

7.2.1.1 Integrativeness

In Gardner's socioeducational model, *Integrativeness* is one class of attitudes, referring to openness on the part of individuals to identify with the English language community. This factor measures the degree to which an individual's willingness and interest in social interaction with English speaking people. The quantitative data, as shown in Table 7.4, indicate that 19 students' integrativeness was relatively positive.

Student interviews triangulated the quantitative study that students were conscious of the importance of English and were expected to interact, communicate, and socialize with English speakers in their future life and career, as stated by the following students:

Wherever you go, it is quite likely that you will meet foreigners, and you should communicate with them.

(SC-SI-#22-SDN-TSM-F, L53) **PrimaryData186**

And then you can use English to communicate with people. Anyhow, I think English is important, and you can use it to communicate with people.

(SA-SI-#11-WS-HSM-F, LL60-62) **PrimaryData187**

You see, even cooks are required to learn English, let alone waiters and waitresses. They are even more in need of learning English because they need to have direct contact and communication with customers. So they need to learn English.

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL47-48) **PrimaryData188**

In case we become a tour guide and if we have foreign customers, we can then communicate with them in English. Otherwise, we'll feel rather awkward.

(SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F, LL95-96) **PrimaryData189**

Although a substantial number of students showed favorable attitudes towards English speakers, teacher interviews indicated that students in general did not have a strong orientation towards English learning. They were at a loss regarding their purposes for learning English. In the words of the teachers:

The general tendency at present is that students' incentives in learning English is getting more and more demotivated. They don't even have a short-term goal. Many students now, or a large group of students, are at a loss. They don't know what they are going to do in the future.

(SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL21-30) **PrimaryData190**

They all think that they won't be able to use English. Where will they be able to use English?" They don't think that English is useful. So they don't like to learn it.

(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL38-39) **PrimaryData191**

Some of the students now are especially at a loss. They don't know what they're going to do in the future. ... So for the students themselves, they aren't certain what

they want to be in the future.

(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL130-133) **PrimaryData192**

Since students did not have a perceived vision of how English would be related to their future, a large number of students were demotivated, and took a negative attitude towards English. In the words of one student and one graduate student:

I'm not interested in learning English.

(SC-SI-#18-ZJC-BE-M, L70) **PrimaryData193**

They feel that English learning is no fun. That is, they don't really want to learn English, but are forced to learn the language.

(MA-GS-#01-F, L30) **PrimaryData194**

Teacher interviews echoed the statement made above that a substantial number of students were demotivated to learn English, as commented by one teacher:

At present, students' English level is relatively poor. Many students don't have interest in English. About one fifth of the students in our class are relatively a bit better and have interest in English. The rest of the large group of students are in the state of being forced to learn, in the state of being forced to learn ...

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL27-31) **PrimaryData195**

7.2.1.2 Attitudes towards the Learning Situation

In Gardner's socioeducational model, Attitudes towards the Learning Situation is the other class of attitudes, referring to an individual's reaction to anything related to the English learning context, in particular, their attitudes towards their English teachers and the English course.

Table 7.4 indicates that a large majority participants (n=19) held relatively a favorable attitude towards the learning situation. The results of the qualitative study are further interpreted on the following two aspects: students' attitudes towards their English teachers and the English course.

(1) Attitudes towards the English Teachers

Student interviews revealed that students expected teachers to be more friendly and more willing to communicate with students. In the words of two students:

I wish the teacher's attitudes towards us could be gentler. Anyway, how to say, I think the teacher's attitude towards us should be more like a friend, and whatever we say to her she'll take a serious attitude towards it.

(SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F, LL72-74) **PrimaryData196**

I wish the teacher's attitudes towards each of the students could be more friendly.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, L161) **PrimaryData197**

Teachers were further expected to be humorous and more patient, and show more respect towards students, as two graduate students stated:

I expect teachers to be more humorous in teaching, and not too serious.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, L160) **PrimaryData198**

The other thing is that I wish teachers could show more patience to communicate with students, yeah.

(IT-GS-#05-F, LL88-93) **PrimaryData199**

Teachers are expected to be sort of more patient. Teachers shouldn't lose their patience just because some students can't understand them from the very beginning or things like that. There are many teachers who lose their patience just because they don't have patience to tell us, or to explain to us again after they've given an explanation. Teachers' words can easily influence students' incentives and let students feel that their self-dignity is hurt. So teachers should be patient.

Students also like teachers who are patient. If they like the teacher, then it's likely that they will like the teacher's lessons. So, teachers' patience can enable students to be more willing to learn English, yeah.

(IT-GS-#06-F, LL108-114) **PrimaryData200**

The role of teachers really counts. If the teacher is nice to you and pays attention to you, you'll get the sense that you grow interested in the course. If the teacher doesn't care about you and ignores you, you'll then feel that the course isn't interesting at all. Even though you like the course very much, if the teacher doesn't care about you, then your attitudes towards the course could be totally different.

(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL124-128) **PrimaryData201**

Teachers, moreover, were expected to show appreciation towards their students, which could help students to build up their self-confidence in learning English, as the graduate students remarked:

I wish teachers could at least show respect towards students rather than letting them feel from the teachers' regards that they were looked down upon once when they came into the school, that they wouldn't have a bright future, and that they would just work at the assembly line soon after their graduation. The teachers didn't show us any appreciation and didn't hold a positive attitude towards us. ... Well, the respect they hold towards students is really important. The respect that teachers hold towards us can let us respect ourselves, let us think that we are able to learn English, and let us rebuild our confidence to learn English.

(IT-GS-#05-F, LL83-86) **PrimaryData202**

Basically I expect teachers to be able to cater for each of the students in the class, yeah, so that no one will be left behind.

(MA-GS-#02-M, LL96-97) **PrimaryData203**

Students also expected teachers to give them encouragement and not to humiliate them in class, as stated by one student:

The key point is no matter the answers you give are right or wrong, the teacher can still give you encouragement. The teachers can also show willingness to help you after class and don't use any humiliating words in class ((makes a noise with her mouth)).

(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL205-206) **PrimaryData204**

Student interview also revealed that students expect to establish a harmonious relationship with teachers, with more interaction and communication between teachers and students, in the words of the following students:

The most important thing is that the relationship between teachers and students should be harmonious. When the teacher teaches in the front, the teacher should let the students in the class be willing to learn what she teaches so that the teaching can achieve its maximum effect. Otherwise, ((makes a noise with his mouth)) psychologically speaking, students nowadays have the sort of rebellious tendency, that is, if they dislike the teacher, then they don't like listening to the teacher's

lessons and if they really like the teacher, then they'll be more willing to listen to the teacher.

(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL136-140) **PrimaryData205**

I wish that there could be more communication between teachers and students.

(SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL118-119) **PrimaryData206**

I wish we didn't feel too nervous in front of the teacher. We could feel more relaxed.

(SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F, L184) **PrimaryData207**

Furthermore, teachers were expected to remind students of the importance of learning English for their future career and personal development. One graduate student remarked:

The other thing is when we first entered the vocational school nobody reminded us of the importance of learning English, and we ourselves didn't realize the importance of learning English. We thought that as a worker on the assembly line it was quite unlikely that we would need to use English and would get involved in the higher administration of the business. We didn't have any practice on English use and generally we didn't spend any time on English. Only when we went to work did we find that a group of us would still have a promising future. Even though for those students who work on the assembly line, they might still have an opportunity to have technical communication with foreigners. Only when we were at the workplace did we realize the importance of learning English.

(IT-GS-#05-F, LL101-105) **PrimaryData208**

Student interviews revealed that teachers' friendly and caring attitudes could exert a significant influence on students' attitudes towards the school education. In the words of the students:

Our English teacher is really nice, and she's really nice to me. ... I know she's very nice to me and I think I shouldn't make any trouble in her class. So I started listening to her in her class. It seemed that I was able to understand what she taught. When she asked me a question, I was able to answer it. It appeared that I was able to understand her class. So I think that I'm not that stupid, and started learning English. Once I start learning, I'm able to understand it.

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL201-205) **PrimaryData209**

After I came here, Ms D has been teaching us. She's really nice and so I began to like learning English.

(SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F, LL34-35) **PrimaryData210**

Yeah, I'm very happy that I can follow the teacher. The course, I feel, is not that difficult. And in the class, I feel that everyone is at the same level, and there is no need to care about other's opinions. In junior school days, the learning differences between students were great. Some students learned English very well, so the teacher always cared about those good ones. We didn't feel balanced, quite unbalanced sort of. Now in the senior secondary education, our English teacher is quite fair, and tends to care about everyone in her class. So I feel very happy, really very happy. I don't need to care about how others look at me.

(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL24-29) **PrimaryData211**

In reality, however, there still existed a number of teachers, who took a partial attitude towards those more capable few in class and had less communication and interaction with students. One student remarked:

In our English teacher's class, I don't know how to put it myself. Sometimes, when she teaches, there is little communication between us. Sometimes she just teaches in English, in English. Sometimes in Chinese. ... Then there is another point. The teacher is partial to good students. If the student's English is good, then the teacher will always ask those good students to answer her questions.

(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL99-134) **PrimaryData212**

It seems that teachers' friendly and respectful attitudes towards students could really exert a positive influence on students.

(2) Attitudes towards the English Course

Student interviews showed that students, especially poor language learners, held a negative attitude towards the English course. To students whose English was poor, the English course appeared almost a form of torture, as the students stated:

I can't follow the teacher. After learning a new word, I'll soon forget about it. ... In the English class, I can't remember what the teacher says. I've got a headache in the English class.

(SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, L37-44) **PrimaryData213**

How to say, I just can't understand the English lessons.

(SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, L104) **PrimaryData214**

I don't like listening to the teacher, and I don't want to listen to the English lessons, either.

(SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, L180) **PrimaryData215**

I don't like the English subject. I think it's not interesting.

(SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, L120) **PrimaryData216**

My classroom observation revealed that teachers in the above mentioned classes mostly adopted the mode of direct instruction. While in the classes where teachers adopted the more flexible differentiated instruction, students in general showed a more positive attitude towards their English lessons, as commented by the students:

I'm in the low-level English class. It's OK. I can understand a bit of what the teacher says. ... I'm in Class A, Class A. The class of the lowest level.

(SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F, L82-86) **PrimaryData217**

Now, I'm beginning to like the course. ... Yeah, my interest is a bit stronger than before.

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL29-32) **PrimaryData218**

My interest in English is now getting stronger. I'm more interested in learning now.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL35-36) **PrimaryData219**

Now I'm interested in learning English. At the beginning, when I first started learning, that is, when I couldn't understand, I disliked learning. I'm getting much better now.

(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, LL37-38) **PrimaryData220**

Both the classroom observation and the student interviews indicated that differentiated instruction and teachers' attitudes towards students could make a tremendous influence on learners' attitudes towards the learning situation.

7.2.1.3 Motivation

Motivation in Gardner's socioeducational model refers to goal-directed behavior,

measuring an individual's attitudes, desire, and effort to learn English. The quantitative data, as shown in Table 7.4 (see 7.2.3), indicated that a comparatively large group of students (n=17) were to some extent motivated. Although the quantitative study showed that most students were motivated, interviews with students revealed that most students had low motivational intensity, putting only a small amount of time and effort on English in their spare time, as the following students remarked:

(In my spare time, I just read English) about two or three times a week. ... Less than an hour. Just a little while.

(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, LL50-52) **PrimaryData221**

I don't spend much time on English. (The time I spend on English is just the class time. ... After the class, I almost spend very little time on English.

(SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, LL31-33) **PrimaryData222**

The time I spent on English is mainly in the class. After class, when going back home on Saturdays and Sundays, I sometimes can learn English for one or two hours. This is quite much, I think. (She laughed at this point)

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL63-65) **PrimaryData223**

And, other than the English class, I seldom learn English in my spare time.

(SA-SI-#01-SBR-BE-F, L100) **PrimaryData224**

I usually don't study English after class.

(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, L49) **PrimaryData225**

The small amount of time and effort spent on English outside class indicated that students had lower^f interest in English and expressed no desire to learn English. In the words of the students:

I have long given up English learning. (SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, L210)
PrimaryData226

I don't really want to learn English.

(SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F, L115) **PrimaryData227**

I've become demotivated. If I have motivation and if my motivation is high, then I'll

spend time on English. You see ever since I came to this vocational school, I've never spent time on English, except learning in class.

(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, LL160-162) **PrimaryData228**

Because of their low motivational intensity and low desire to learn English, the attitude students mostly held towards learning English was generally negative, as the student and the graduate student remarked:

To tell the truth, I've never really liked English, or have realized how important English will be to my future career. Nor has the teacher's teaching method really aroused my special interest in English.

(MA-GS-#01-F, LL103-105) **PrimaryData229**

When I first started learning English, I didn't pay special attention to it as I didn't consider there were a lot to learn in primary education. Then when I was in junior secondary school, I began to feel that English was getting more and more difficult. The more I wanted to catch up with the teacher, the more difficult I felt. I was then left behind. When I was left behind, my parents tried to let me catch up with the teacher by taking some tutoring lessons outside school. I did pretty poor at the entrance exam for senior secondary education. Now I'm terribly afraid of learning English.

(SC-SI-#22-SDN-TSM-F, LL20-23) **PrimaryData230**

Even for the few highly-motivated students, the time and effort they spent on English in their spare time was still limited.

After class, sometimes I learn English by myself. Sometimes I learn English mainly by myself. My main purpose is to learn English well.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL73-74) **PrimaryData231**

In my spare time, I sometimes read some English. If I don't understand, then I'll ask other students. Then if there are some good useful sentences, I'll probably write them down. It's the way I learn English.

(SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, LL59-61) **PrimaryData232**

A few students, however, became interested in learning English after coming to the vocational schools due to the flexible differentiated instruction that teachers adopted,



as stated by the following four students:

Now here at this vocational school I can generally follow the teacher and have incentives to learn. I feel quite happy to learn English now.

(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL21-22) **PrimaryData233**

Now I feel that I have incentives to learn, and I'm more interested in learning English than before. When I was in junior secondary school, my English was poor. Now, I'm more motivated and I'm especially fond of learning English.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL179-181) **PrimaryData234**

After all, it is mainly the issue of interest. When I have interest in English, I would like to learn a bit more.

(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL120-121) **PrimaryData235**

Now, if you have any interest, you'll find English very interesting and would like to recite a few more words. If you have interest, then it's easier to learn things by heart.

(SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, LL76-77) **PrimaryData236**

The flexible differentiated instruction adopted in language teaching and the teachers' friendly attitudes towards students resulted in students' improved attitude towards learning English, as commented by one student:

We should learn English well because foreigners, such as English people, can learn to speak Chinese well. If they can learn Chinese well, why can't we learn foreign language well. I wish I could learn English well.

(SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL193-194) **PrimaryData237**

7.2.1.4 Integrative Motivation

The qualitative and quantitative data analysis of the three aggregated variables of integrative motivation – *Integrativeness*, *Attitudes towards the learning situation*, and *Motivation* – shows that these three variables exert a great influence on learners' language-related affective disposition, determining language choice, and the general level of effort the learners intended to invest in the learning process (Dörnyei & Clement, 2001).

Although most students were aware of the importance of learning English, little time and effort was actually spent on their English learning outside school. Their attitudes were relatively more positive in the more flexible differentiated class. Students, further, expected teachers to be more friendly, caring and patient, and to show more respect towards students, with the courses conducted more in line with students' language competences.

Generally students have shown a somewhat negative integrative orientation towards English speaking people although they have demonstrated an interest in understanding foreign culture. The findings are in line with previous research that integrative motivation is more relevant to second language learners than it would be for students learning a foreign language (Dörnyei, 1990; Ellis, 1994; Oxford, 1996).

7.2.1.5 Instrumental Motivation

Instrumental orientation, along with integrative motivation, is the other type of reason for language learning. Unlike in countries where English is used as a second language, English in China is a foreign language, in particular for students in vocational education.

Table 7.4 (see 7.2.3) indicates that a large group of students (n=22) had a stronger instrumental motivation. Student interviews triangulated the quantitative statistics that students learned English for pragmatic reasons, due to its potential usefulness in the future. In the words of the following five students:

English is useful. I'm interested in it because it's useful. Now that China is getting more internationalized, English will surely be useful.

(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, LL48-49) **PrimaryData238**

I listen to the English class attentively because it is related with my future. If it has nothing to do with my future, then I won't listen to the English class.

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL129-131) **PrimaryData239**

I think English is useful. Well, some jobs require the use of English. So I wish I could

learn more at school.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL187-188) **PrimaryData240**

It is quite likely that we'll encounter English either in our work or in communication.

(SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, L57) **PrimaryData241**

English should be useful. Because companies now all need people who can speak English, people who can speak fluent English, to communicate with foreigners.

(SA-SI-#01-SBR-BE-F, LL34-36) **PrimaryData242**

Student interviews revealed that students learned English due to its relevance to their specialty and their future career. It was out of these pragmatic reasons that students chose to learn English, as the following students stated:

Learning English, the most important of all, is for the sake of my specialty. It is completely for the sake of my specialty that I choose to learn English.

(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL142-143) **PrimaryData243**

In terms of English learning, I feel that English is especially important to my specialty. So I especially want to learn. For one thing, it is very useful, otherwise I won't learn. For the other, English is very important to whatever specialty.

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL46-47) **PrimaryData244**

It is especially when I came to this school did I find out that English can cause some problems in getting a job. It is for the sake of my future job that I should learn English well. It is very important and I've just found it out.

(SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, LL23-26) **PrimaryData245**

I think English is important. In current society, you should master a language, or even several languages. I now feel that English is pretty important. It is not that you should learn the language well, but you should also be able to use it. Learning without use won't work. You should be able to use the language. Regarding your future work requirements, you should learn a few more languages.

(*ibid.*, LL208-212) **PrimaryData246**

Interviews with graduate students and the employer revealed that in the workplace English was essential for career development, such as job promotion in the workplace. One graduate student and one employer remarked:

In terms of job promotion, English is quite helpful, yeah. If your English is not good enough, then I believe none of hotel managers will hire a mid-level manager with poor English.

(SV-GS-#04-F, LL85-86) **PrimaryData247**

I think it's helpful for most of our workers today and people at the line. I don't think it is really required to fulfill the job, but if you, if young people are pretty interested in China to grow, right. So a lot of people are excited and there are a lot of opportunities out there, they are trying to get, increase the salary and so on. So if you are a young guy and you want to do something more than just for 20 years working in the line, they need to have to. If you want to be team leader or group leader level then from that level onwards, let's say, group leader level, then you need to have some basic skills. (SY-EP-G-M, LL143-149)

In comparison with integrative motivation, instrumental motivation seemed to be a more important reason for learners to learn English.

7.2.1.6 Other Motivation

In addition to integrative orientation and instrumental orientation, other reasons for learning English exist, such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Intrinsic motivation* is usually associated with high academic achievement and enjoyment by learners while *extrinsic motivation* is derived from outside of the performer (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The results of the qualitative data analysis are presented below:

(1) Intrinsic Motivation

The qualitative study revealed that the number of intrinsically motivated learners was fairly limited. Among 23 student participants, only two were intrinsically motivated to learn English.

For English learning, sometimes it mainly depends on you. Well, personally I want to learn English well.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL73-74) **PrimaryData248**

Speaking of learning English, if you don't want to learn the language yourself, nothing from outside can really exert an influence on you. It's mainly yourself who

really count. If you have the incentive to learn English, then you can learn it well.

(SC-SI-#24-WSQ-TSM-F, LL88-91) **PrimaryData249**

(2) Extrinsic Motivation

Many student participants, however, were driven by extrinsic motivation, such as passing exams, as stated by one student:

The things that the teacher requires us to recite are surely far from sufficient. You see we are going to take the higher vocational entrance exam. For our specialty – the air service specialty, if we don't have a higher vocational degree, then we won't be able to find a job, won't be able to find a job. For example, there's going to be a higher vocational entrance exam for senior secondary vocational students this year. If you have a look at the exam syllabus, you can see that it has many things. Some of them are phrases. There are a lot of phrases. Since we are going to take the exam, I have to read all those books, and memorize a lot of things. Some of the things the teacher has already taught us, but there are still quite a lot that we haven't learned at school. We need to read more and remember more so that we'll be able to do well in the exam.

(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL57-63) **PrimaryData250**

There were nonetheless students who learned English for other external reasons, such as getting higher scores, winning admiration from others or for the sake of face-keeping and face-saving, as remarked by the following four students:

The teacher gives us some extra scores for encouragement. I think the sort of scores is really important. It is especially important to me, which causes me to like learning English.

(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, L59) **PrimaryData251**

I think learning English can let others think that you've received good education. Moreover, foreign languages have now become a popular currency. If you can speak fluent English, then you can win admiration from others. That's my sort of thinking.

(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL144-145) **PrimaryData252**

I think English is important. Usually if you receive foreign tourists, you should at least to be able to speak a little English. When the guests ask you questions, if you

can't answer their questions in English, you'll feel really embarrassed. You'll feel that it's really face-losing and you'll feel really awkward.

(SC-SI-#19-LXC-TSM-F, LL45-47) **PrimaryData253**

Back at home I seldom learn English. Sometimes when going back home, I suddenly have the impetus to learn English. When I see people who can speak English very fluently on TV, I got the incentive to learn English well. Then I'll start to recite a couple of new words. I can recite things very quickly. I can remember those things very soon. But I'll forget half of them the next day. My English learning is just the way like this.

(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL38-41) **PrimaryData254**

The results of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis revealed that learners learned English out of various orientations: *Integrative motivation*, *Instrumental motivation*, *Intrinsic motivation* and *Extrinsic motivation*, which exert a direct influence on learners' language competences.

7.2.4 Other Attributing Factors

In the mini-AMTB, there are *Other support* and *Other factors*. The *Other support* exerts a direct influence on motivation, which in turn has an influence on learners' *Language achievement*. The *Other factors* scale, according to Gardner and Tremblay (1994), does not have a direct influence on *Motivation*, but has an influence on *Language achievement*. The results of the qualitative study as well as the quantitative study are presented in the following sections.

7.2.4.1 Other Support

In the mini-AMTB, there is only one factor included – *Parent encouragement*. In addition to the *Parent encouragement* factor, the other factor – *Educational support* – emerged from the qualitative data analysis. The detailed interpretation is presented below.

7.2.4.1.1 Parent Encouragement

The results of the quantitative survey are presented in Table 7.5.

Table 7.5 Parent encouragement statistics

Scale	Frequency	Percent
1	16	61.5
2	2	7.7
3	2	7.7
4	1	3.8
5	1	3.8
6	1	3.8
Total	23	100
Mean	1.61	
SD	1.41	

Table 7.5 indicated that a large percent (61.5%) of parents were extremely supportive towards their children's English learning. The qualitative data triangulated the quantitative statistics that parents often went out of their way to provide a family support system to encourage their children to learn English, as the following two students stated:

When I was young, I didn't like learning English. I especially didn't like learning English. By the time I went to the junior secondary school, we were expected to sit the entrance exam for senior secondary education. At that time I couldn't follow the teacher in class. Then my mum tried to let me go to other tutoring classes to learn English. During summer holidays, my mom took me to an informal English learning center, which allowed parents to audit classes. So my mom quitted her job, and went to the class with me every day, each single day.

(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL20-23) **PrimaryData255**

My mom has quitted her job for a few years. All these years, she's spent her time in accompanying me to study.

(ibid., L105) **PrimaryData256**

Since I started learning English, my Mom has been working together with me. I think, how to put it, half of my achievement attributes to my mom's effort. I think that in the informal English learning center, if my mom was not there with me, I wouldn't have

listened attentively to the teacher. Since my mom was there, sitting at the back of the class, I had to listen to the teacher attentively even though I didn't feel like learning English. But after class, when going back home, I had to depend on myself to learn English. I couldn't quite understand the lessons at the beginning. I did it completely in a rote learning manner. When I really understood what I had learned, really knew the way to learning English, then I became more autonomous and more depended on myself to learn.

(ibid., LL196-200) **PrimaryData257**

My mom says to me, "you should study well. If you want to go to an English learning center to learn English, I'm quite willing to pay as long as you learn." My mom always says this, "if you think you need, and then I'd like to pay." If I think a book is useful then she'll buy it for me. As long as I study, it's OK. My mom is quite happy to spend money on my study. Whenever I tell her that I want to go to the bookstore, my mum is always happy. 'How much money do you need?' my mom will ask. I told her that I don't know how much money I would need. 'Will 300 yuan be enough?' When I told her that it might not be enough. Then she would say, "take some more". Then she would say, "I'll go to the bookstore with you." ... My mom always says to me, "you should learn English well." I tell her that I know the importance of learning English. My mom especially cares about my English, fairly, fairly care about it.

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL248-256) **PrimaryData258**

Like parents elsewhere, parents had high expectations of their children and encouraged them to develop to their full potential. In the words of two students:

My parents have high expectations on me. ... They encourage me to study English. But they don't say the same thing repetitively. They mainly leave it to me.

(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, LL77-79) **PrimaryData259**

After my graduation, I want to continue my study. My mom says that she expects me to go to a higher vocational college.

(SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F, L100) **PrimaryData260**

Interviews with students revealed that parents considered English an important tool for pragmatic purposes, such as getting a good job or develop well along the career ladder. This was consistent with the quantitative study (see 7.2.2) that *Parental encouragement* correlated with *Instrumental orientation* (.36). Parents, therefore,

often encouraged their children to learn English well at school, as stated by the following five students:

My parents encourage me to study English well. They say, "if you can learn English well, then you can have a brighter future.

(SC-SI-#19-LXC-TSM-F, L99) **PrimaryData261**

My dad says, "learning English well is more important than anything else."

(SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F, L200) **PrimaryData262**

My parents expect my English level to become higher and higher.

(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, L208) **PrimaryData263**

My parents expect me to learn English well to find a good job.

(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, L113) **PrimaryData264**

My mom and dad work at our home restaurant and they are busy with restaurant work. They don't have time to monitor my study. Sometimes I don't go back home after school. I can only rely on myself to learn English at school or at home. But every morning my mom, every morning my mom would urge me to work hard, to work hard at English for my future and so on.

(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL44-47) **PrimaryData265**

Family as a key unit in society plays a significant role in students' personal and character development. However, many vocational students, according to the teachers, experienced inharmonious family relationships at an early age, which ruined their English learning and resulted in low language competences, as remarked by two teachers:

A majority of vocational students are from divorced, separated or single-parent families, which resulted in their diminished learning interest and declined academic achievement.

(HZ-IP-#01-F, LL56-58) **PrimaryData266**

Speaking of these children, I always think that they are not solely the ones to be blamed for their study. It's only that there are things that they can't change, such as the divorce and the separation of their parents. Sometimes I have sympathy on

them, even though sometimes the students act up in front of me. ... But after I became Mother, my attitude towards them gets more tender. When we had a talk after class, they told me that they treated me as Mother. When told, I became more sympathetic towards them. For example, there's a little girl in my class, whose mother has been in France for many years. Although the parents haven't got divorced, the father has developed his own affection for another woman. So out of anger, the girl shut herself from communication with others. Later, she told me that I remind her of her mother. There are many children like her.

(SC-TI-#03-DF, LL68-89) **PrimaryData267**

As one teacher indicated, family factor played an important role in developing or ruining students' language learning motivation.

I think student' low motivation was due to their families because in our vocational school many students are from families, relatively speaking, single-parent families. They experienced less family attention and care. So in terms of parent encouragement, the students experienced relatively less, which in turn affect their language competences. ... Relatively speaking, about half of the students in my class grew up in those single-parent families. Some of them lived with their grandparents from either maternal or paternal side, or with their relatives, since they were very young. Still there are a few students who were sent to live in the boarding school, the sort of boarding school. Many students have almost never experienced the cozy family environment and the family care, so they don't seem to care about others. We can see this when we teachers first got in touch with them. They were quite upset at the beginning. They didn't want teachers to take care of them as they haven't been taken care of for quite a long time. But gradually as time passed, students would accept the teacher and grow to realize that the teacher really cares about them. Only then will students develop the feeling that there is still someone in the world who really cares about them. It's the sort of feeling, yeah. I think it is not that students themselves don't like to study; various reasons contribute to their present status. It has formed a sort of vicious cycle.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL35-58) **PrimaryData268**

Parent encouragement, therefore, exerts an influence on learners' motivation to learn English.

7.2.4.1.2 Educational Support

Interviews with students and graduate students revealed that students generally showed a positive disposition towards English at the outset, with motivation declining over the subsequent couple of years due to the lack of educational support. The first two years in junior secondary education was a critical period, when most of them encountered learning problems, especially grammatical problems, in their English learning. As a result, they could not follow their teachers in class, as stated by one student and one graduate student:

We, the generation born after 1980s, started learning English since Year 1 at junior secondary education. No one was a poor learner from the very beginning in Year 1. We were all very interested in English at the beginning. I remember at that time when I was in Year 1, my English was very good and I was very interested in it.

(IT-GS-#05-F, LL54-55) **PrimaryData269**

When I started learning English, I was very interested in it. When back at home, my parents would urge me to learn the new words by heart. Things went along fine at the beginning. Then, since Year 1 at junior secondary education, ... It was also in Year 1 at the junior secondary school that we started to learn grammar. I started to have problems with grammar. Some of the grammar that the teacher explained in class I couldn't remember. When we were asked to do exercises, I couldn't understand the exercises even though the teacher had explained. And when we were asked to apply the grammatical knowledge learned, I had difficulty in applying grammatical knowledge to actual language use. From then on, I gradually became disinterested in English, and especially didn't like memorizing things.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL20-26) **PrimaryData270**

The learning problems or difficulties encountered, and the teacher-dominated grammar-focused instruction during such critical periods discouraged students from learning English, as remarked by the following three students:

The terrible grammar that the teacher taught, I didn't like to listen to. I didn't like listening to the teacher, and dislike listening to the teacher at all. And, little by little, I couldn't understand what the teacher taught. Finally, I completely couldn't understand what the teacher taught at all.

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL180-181) **PrimaryData271**

At that time, the teacher always taught grammar and the text in the class. So the class atmosphere was the sort of, sort of boring. And I felt a bit sleepy.

(SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, LL76-78) **PrimaryData272**

The way that the teacher taught was so rigid, not interesting at all. Also, the teacher didn't show any patience when teaching, which let the poor English learner formed the concept that they were incapable of reading and learning English. So they didn't want to learn. What's more, the teacher's teaching was not interesting at all.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL179-181) **PrimaryData273**

When students encountered problems in their English study, they could not seek timely support from their family as most of the parents had a fairly limited knowledge of English. In the words of the following five students:

My parents can't help me with my English. I have to rely on myself ((sign)).

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, L103) **PrimaryData274**

They don't know English at all.

(SA-SI-#01-SBR-BE-F, L189) **PrimaryData275**

They don't know English themselves, either.

(SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, L29) **PrimaryData276**

They can't help me with my English.

(SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, L53) **PrimaryData277**

My parents can't help me with my English as they both don't know much English. My mom knows a little and can urge me to remember things in English. She can only read some simple English. When it comes to more difficult English, she knows nothing. She can't do those exercises in English. She can only read some English words.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL51-54) **PrimaryData278**

Due to parents' limited repertoire of English, informal English teaching institutions or English tutorial classes seemed to be the only place that could provide the English learning help and support that their children needed. Almost all of the students

interviewed had an early experience of learning English outside the formal education system, as stated by the following four students:

At the very beginning, I didn't know much about English. Then my mom sent me to a tutoring English class. I went there to learn English after school, went there to learn after school. But still I didn't do well with my English, and I didn't quite like learning English.

(SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL25-27) **PrimaryData279**

When I was in Year 6 in primary school, I had an English tutor, who helped me with Year 7 English. Later I stopped going to the tutoring English.

(SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, L57) **PrimaryData280**

Ever since I was very young, I started learning English. At that time, my mom sent me to an informal learning center to learn English,

(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL14-15) **PrimaryData281**

I started learning English when I was in Year 4 at primary school because I did my Year 1 and Year 2 study not in this city. I moved back to the school here when I was in Year 4. Then my mom sent me to learn English in an informal training center, where we were mainly trained for our spoken English.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL18-20) **PrimaryData282**

Although parents had high expectation of students, the informal teaching institutions did not seem to contribute to students' language improvement as most of the students were forced by their parents to go there to learn. On the other hand, schools as formal learning institutions, however, did not seem to perform their due function of teaching according to students' learning aptitudes. Secondary education, both junior and senior secondary education, is the most competitive test-driven period in China mainland's educational system. In many cases, a teacher's teaching in a junior secondary school is closely linked with the number of students being admitted to senior secondary education, especially the key schools. Both students and teachers experienced great pressure in junior secondary education. Due to the pressure from within and outside the school, teachers developed a sophisticated attitude towards students. As one

teacher remarked:

The junior secondary teachers, I think, are very sophisticated. It's likely that we don't have a good understanding of them. It might be that they are under the test-driven pressure or because of other outside pressure.

(SC-TI-#03-DF, LL66-68) **PrimaryData283**

Amid the competitive test-driven culture, the sophisticated attitude that teachers held towards students made teachers only focus their attention on the most capable few, with less able students being ignored or even laughed at in large size classes. In most junior secondary schools, normal class size is over forty students, somewhat too big perhaps for teachers to cater to individual learning differences. The language learning environment at school was not supportive for poor language learners, as students retold their negative past learning experience:

But the teacher didn't pay attention to us. The teacher only paid her attention to the few top students, and didn't care about the few poor students. So ((makes a noise with her mouth)) I didn't do well with my English.

(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL49-50) **PrimaryData284**

Later the teacher just taught in such a way. My English was just so-so. The teacher only focused her attention on the students sitting in the front rows, those sitting in the front rows. The classroom in our junior secondary school was not the same as our present classroom. It was more spacious, with more students. It was the sort of long desk for two students, with four students forming a row. The eight students sitting in the first two rows are especially good at English. So in the English class the teacher mainly communicated with them. I was sitting in the front three or four row. ... But the teacher didn't even bother to look at me. Even though I was able to answer the questions the teacher asked, and even though I put up my hand, the teacher just didn't have a look at me because the teacher was afraid that I wasn't able to answer her questions well. And at that time if we weren't able to answer her questions correctly, other students would laugh at us. So I was always afraid that I couldn't speak correctly and that I could make mistakes. The teacher also never asked me to answer her questions, never asked me to answer her questions. If suddenly I was asked by the teacher, and I happened not to be able to answer her question correctly, then the whole class would laugh at me. All the students in the class would laugh at me. Then I became even more disinterested in English. I

always made mistakes and there were always a group of people laughing at me. So I became even more disinterested in learning English. Little by little, my English was left behind.

(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL147-157) **PrimaryData285**

In junior secondary school, there were huge differences between students. Some students are particularly good at English, so the teacher always cared about those good students. This didn't let us poor students feel balanced, the sort of psychological balance. So we didn't have any incentives to learn English. In the English class, we just hid ourselves at the back of the class, and the teacher just didn't care about us. So we finally gave up our hope of learning English.

(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL25-28) **PrimaryData286**

Research has indicated that classroom language learning experiences are important for developing motivation in EFL settings (Dörnyei, 1990). The teachers' attitudes held towards poor students and the lack of timely support from the formal educational system ruined students' self-dignity, self-confidence and self-concept, which made them further reluctant to perform in the English class. As a result, less able students became even more incompetent in English and had even lower motivation to learn English. Many poor language learners, therefore, became early casualties of the school system.

Both of the two factors discussed above – *Parent encouragement* and *Educational support* – are external factors, related to learners' language learning *Motivation*. Along with *Other support* factors, there are still *Other factors* related to learners' language competence deficiencies.

7.2.4.2 Other Factors

In the mini-AMTB, there is only one factor included – *Language anxiety*. The qualitative study emerged with the following three themes – *Language learning strategies*, *Self-confidence* and *Learning habits*. These factors exert an influence on language competence deficiencies.

7.2.4.2.1 Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies constitute meta-competence in the holistic competence model (Le Deist & Winterton, 2005). Learning strategies and the ability to learn are developed in the process of language learning, which enable learners to “deal more effectively and independently with new language learning challenges, to see what options exist and to make better use of opportunities” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 106). Student interviews indicated that students expected teachers to teach them effective cognitive learning strategies, such as vocabulary learning strategies, as three students stated:

What I'm really fond of is that teachers can teach us some special strategies to remember words and sentences, and the things like that.

(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, LL110-111) **PrimaryData287**

What we really want to know is to get to know the associative ways of remembering words.

(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, L113) **PrimaryData288**

I wish teachers could teach us some strategies so that we can remember words faster and making greater progress in English.

(SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, LL52-53) **PrimaryData289**

In reality, student interviews revealed that students lacked effective learning strategies in their language learning. The usual learning strategies they adopted were form-focused rote-learning strategies isolated from social context and social interaction (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006), as in the words of three students:

(The learning strategy I adopt) is just rote-learning method.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, L79) **PrimaryData290**

It's just learning by rote. ... To memorize new words. To memorize mechanically letter by letter. ... I haven't got (good learning strategies). I always forget things we've learned and forget them in a while.

(SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, LL85-91) **PrimaryData291**

It's just rote-learning, that is, learn everything by rote.

(SC-SI-#18-ZJC-BE-M, L24) **PrimaryData292**

Due to the lack of effective cognitive learning strategies, knowledge or information kept in their short-term memory could not be effectively and meaningfully turned into long-term memory, as remarked by two students:

The way I use to learn English is just rote-learning. Rote learning words and sentences. I don't have any effective learning strategies. So it is difficult to remember things. For example, a word is remembered today, and is forgotten two days later.

(SC-SI-#18-ZJC-BE-M, LL115-116) **PrimaryData293**

Basically, the strategy I use is to memorize a word whenever I encounter a new word in my study. Learn a word by heart when I encounter it. For example, there are many phrases in grammar. Now I mainly focus on such things as tenses.

(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL123-126) **PrimaryData294**

In addition to the letter-by-letter and word-by-word mechanical learning methods, translation (i.e., Chinese into English) was also adopted, as one student stated:

When the material is easier, I don't feel like having a headache. I can read it and then translate it into Chinese. If I can't translate it into Chinese, then I don't know what to do. ... For each short text, I usually read it first. After reading the text, I will memorize it. After memorizing the text, I'll translate the whole text. ... And then, I'll learn by rote the text in both English and Chinese. ... Because after translating English into Chinese, I'll know what it means. If I know what it means in Chinese, then I'll know how to read it in English.

(SC-SI-#22-SDN-TSM-F, LL83-92) **PrimaryData295**

Students themselves also acknowledged that they had not acquired effective learning strategies. In the words of a student:

It should be the ineffective learning methods. If I have mastered good learning strategies, it is quite likely that I can learn English well and become more interested in English.

(SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, LL77-78) **PrimaryData296**

In general, students lacked effective direct learning strategies, in particular memory strategies and cognitive strategies in their language learning (Oxford, 1990). Their ability of language learning was still object-regulated or other-regulated rather than self-regulated (Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008), with low level of metacognitive strategies, such as low attention span and self-learning ability, as two students remarked:

Usually in class, I can easily become absent-minded after a little while, get absent-minded after a while. That is, I often think of other things. I don't know why.
(SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL148-149) **PrimaryData297**

Sometimes I can't understand those materials myself. Self-learning is not as good as teacher's teaching.

(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, L107) **PrimaryData298**

In summary, students lacked the ability to make effective use of learning opportunities and effective strategies to organize their study, as shown in the Table 7.6.

Table 7.6 Language learning strategy deficiencies

Items	TSA	PSA
Direct strategies (i.e., memory, cognition, compensation)	√	√
Indirect strategies (i.e., metacognitive, affective, social)	√	

The study has revealed that learners lacked effective memory strategies and cognitive strategies, as well as appropriate phonological strategies. Their metacognitive learning strategies were at a relatively low level as a large majority of students were unable to manage their language learning in an effective way. Effective learning strategies, especially indirect learning strategies, such as metacognitive, affective and social strategies, should be developed towards more self-regulation (Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008).

7.2.4.2.2 Language Anxiety

Language anxiety measures learners' apprehension experienced in the English class or in situations where English is used. The qualitative study revealed that students

experienced different extents of apprehension when called upon to use English in class, as two students stated:

But I always feel nervous whenever the teacher asks me to answer her questions. I don't know what the matter is. ... I can't get completely relaxed. Whenever I'm asked to answer questions, I feel ... Yeah. I can easily forget things. My mind goes blank.

(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL129-134) **PrimaryData299**

For those serious teachers, I feel that I dare not to speak English with her for fear of making mistakes. If I want to speak English with her, then I have to speak a complete sentence. I don't like that kind of feeling in class.

(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL55-56) **PrimaryData300**

The quantitative regression analysis indicates that learners' apprehension of their language learning experience is more associated with English use in class. Along with their apprehension over speaking English in class, students expressed their anxiety about speaking English outside class, as two students remarked:

It was the first time for us to perform the play in public. We were so nervous that we made some mistakes. It happened that our class was the fourth to put on the play. The first one played was the same play as ours. We had no other choice, but to try our best to perform the play. We were so nervous because the play by the previous class was the same as ours. We were so stressful that we made a lot of mistakes. We made mistakes, spoke the wrong scripts, forgot the scripts, and even played the wrong parts.

(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL83-87) **PrimaryData301**

I didn't dare to greet foreigners. ... I didn't dare to greet them (because of my poor English). It's so embarrassing.

(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, LL139-144) **PrimaryData302**

Student interviews revealed that a friendly and harmonious atmosphere created in class might contribute to students' lessened apprehension and more relaxation in class, as two students remarked:

Before, in the last term, I felt a bit stressful, eh, because I'm not as good as other

students. I felt stressful. As time passes, Ms D always tells that we don't need to feel so nervous in her class. She has tried all sorts of means to let us not to be nervous in her class.

(SC-S#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL96-99) **PrimaryData303**

Sometimes the teacher can tell us some jokes in the English class. Then we will all have a good laugh, which makes us feel less nervous. I feel much better than before.

(SC-SI#20-CM-TSM-F, LL114-115) **PrimaryData304**

Teacher interviews revealed that teachers were aware of the apprehension that students experienced inside and outside class, with teachers trying various means to involve students into class activities. As one teacher remarked:

I told them, "when you get into society, there are many opportunities. It's not that the opportunity will fall upon you while sitting there. You have to try your best. It's not that you can gain the opportunity once you step into society. When you are at school, all I can do is to create the sort of opportunity you desire, the opportunity you want." I told them, "in our English class you can try to gain an opportunity, yeah.

(SC-TI#03-DF-12-F, LL253-256) **PrimaryData305**

The teacher tried to convey the message to the students that less apprehension of language use would enable them to be able to take up the challenge or opportunity in their future life and career. In the words of one teacher:

I once told them a story, a story of a man in red. The story was about a man. He was actually not the most excellent among many of his co-workers, but he wore a red sweater every day. Every now and then the boss would see him, see him occasionally. Yeah, after a while, the boss discovered that the man in red seemed to work pretty hard, and was actively involved into his work. I told them it was not that other workers didn't work as hard as him. Some might work even harder than him. But he has created a chance for himself. Next time, when there is an opportunity of promotion, the boss will probably think of the man in red. The man in red has created an opportunity for himself. I told them that the case can be applied to them. They need to win the opportunity for themselves. For example, if a travel agency comes for the interview and they dare not to have a try or even to put up their hand, what opportunity they will be able to get. Such messages are gradually

conveyed to them.

(SC-TI-#03-DF-12-F, LL256-264) **PrimaryData306**

The teacher's effort and encouragement has exerted an influence on her class so that students had less apprehension of language use in class, as the students in her class remarked:

Our English teacher doesn't ignore any student in her class. She never, never ignores anyone. If students don't like to answer her questions in class, she'll ask them to answer her questions or make dialogues with them. Basically, each one in the class will have an opportunity. I think the learning atmosphere created is very harmonious. ... Even when we make mistakes, our English teacher still encourages us. She won't make us feel embarrassed. ... I really like the learning environment in our class. First, the relationship between our classmates are very harmonious. Second, the relationship between the teacher and students are also very harmonious. Usually after class, we and our teacher are like friends. ... When we're on holiday, we add our English teacher into our QQ (i.e., online chatting group) and chat with her online. Yeah, the relationship between us is very harmonious. ... because we are no longer like what we were in the junior secondary school, being afraid of putting up our hands. Our English class now is just like games-playing. It's just very interesting, and nobody is afraid of having the English class.

(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL90-114) **PrimaryData307**

In the English class, I think all the class can get involved when our English teacher teaches. Students, whether they are good or bad at English or and whether they don't follow teachers in other classes, can all listen attentively in our teacher's English class. They can all get involved in our English teacher's class.

(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL133-134) **PrimaryData308**

Teachers' friendly attitude towards students helped establish harmonious group cohesiveness, with friendly group norms – the general rules of behavior within the group (Dörnyei, 2007) – established between the teacher and students, as illustrated in the above examples. Unfortunately, among all the six teachers interviewed and nine classroom observed, only one teacher had experimented various means to lessen students' apprehension to use English inside and outside class.

7.2.4.2.3 Self-Confidence

Interviews with teachers revealed that students generally had low self-confidence, which exerted an influence on their language competences, as the following three teachers remarked:

In our vocational school, there is a fairly greater part of students, whose English was fairly poor at junior secondary education and who don't have any confidence in themselves. Even in the English class, they themselves will think that they aren't good at English and that they can't understand the lessons. They themselves have lost confidence in themselves. There are a substantial number of these students.

(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL44-47) **PrimaryData309**

First, in view of students themselves, I think it might be that when they were at junior secondary school they were not cared about by the teacher due to their poor academic achievement. And then, because of their academic achievement, because of their poor academic achievement, they might feel humiliated and didn't even like to study, which has formed a vicious cycle. So when they came to the vocational school, it is quite likely that they lack self-autonomy and learning interest in English.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL32-35) **PrimaryData310**

Because he has never experienced the learning success, it can be said that he always feel depressed in the school learning environment.

(SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL68-69) **PrimaryData311**

Student's echoed confirmed teachers' comments that they had low self-confidence in their English study.

Sometimes I don't have self-confidence, as I don't know the sort of things such as grammar. Now I'm quite worried.

(SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F, L85) **PrimaryData312**

So the poor students formed the concept that now that they couldn't read and understand they didn't want to learn. Moreover, what the teacher taught isn't interesting to them at all. I think they were not confident in themselves.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL180-182) **PrimaryData313**

Teacher interviews revealed that the respect that teachers showed towards students

could help students build up their self-confidence, which in turn could exert a positive influence on their language learning, as remarked by one teacher:

Then my impression towards them is that the more you think these children in the senior secondary vocational school helpless, the more likely that they'll give up their hope of English learning. They will think that they are destined to be a loser, and what's the use of learning English. And they can behave even worse than this. But the more you respect them, the more hope you show towards them, they'll respect you more and would like to follow you. It's the sort of things like this.

(SC-TI-#03-DF, LL93-96) **PrimaryData314**

Teacher's respect shown towards students resulted in their increased self-confidence and improved language competences, as confirmed by the following three students:

The attitude that the teacher have shown towards you is the sort of respect that you feel. It's the kind of feeling that you're being taken care of. Whether you are good at English or not, the teacher concerns about you. It's quite unlike the feelings we experienced in the junior middle school. At that time you felt that the teacher always cared about others, those good students. You felt that you were ignored. So you always, always stayed behind, gradually you became silent in class, and the teacher took no notice of you. You got the feeling that you were not good, not good at English at all. But now, our English teacher Miss D has helped us establish self-confidence. Whether you're good or bad at English, she treats you the same with respect.

(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL43-47) **PrimaryData315**

Now I feel, I feel that English is not that difficult. When I listen more attentively in class, English doesn't seem to be that difficult. Gradually, I feel that I can almost talk about things in English. In the past, it was very difficult for me to introduce myself in English. Now I feel that it is not that difficult. I can now talk about myself. The feeling is really wonderful.

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL67-72) **PrimaryData316**

... I now feel that I'm very self-confident in this class. I really feel good.

(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL40-41) **PrimaryData317**

As student and teacher interviews have shown, students' early unsuccessful learning experience led to their demotivation and low self-confidence, which resulted in their

low language competences. The study also revealed that the respect that teachers showed towards students helped them build up their self-confidence. More effective measures need to be taken at schools and more respect and attention need to show towards learners to establish their self-confidence.

7.2.4.2.4 Learning Habits

Student interviews revealed that students attributed their lack of motivation and interest in learning English to their own poor learning habits, with such words as “laziness”, and “not hard-working” frequently used by students.

In the past, I was lazy, and I'm still pretty lazy.

(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, L92) **PrimaryData318**

Anyway, I didn't study at that time and was very lazy

(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, L52) **PrimaryData319**

Things went on well at the beginning. And then, in Year 1 at junior secondary school, in Year 1 I started to get lazy.

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL21-22) **PrimaryData320**

Actually, I started learning English pretty early. When I was in Year 2 at primary school, my mom started forcing me to go to an informal learning place to learn English. But at that time, I was too young to know the importance of learning English. I didn't work hard at English, and I haven't been working hard at it ever since I started learning.

(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL12-13) **PrimaryData321**

According to teachers, students' poor learning habits resulted in their poor language competences and demotivation in English, as one teacher remarked:

For example, in this class when students first came to the vocational school they had motivation. But boys like playing a lot. Sometimes they're so indulged in playing that they may learn one subject and ignore another. So they may catch up with one subject and lag behind in another subject. ... At the beginning, students was able to follow the teacher and answer some of the teacher's questions. But gradually they resumed their old habits of playing. Since they were lazy, they didn't like doing

homework and memorizing new words. They didn't like memorizing new words. Gradually, they couldn't catch up. Then they thought that since they couldn't catch up with the teacher, they didn't want to listen to the teacher in class.

(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL56-64) **PrimaryData322**

The teachers also indicated that students' lack of self-confidence and poor learning habits were, to a greater extent, caused by students' unstable emotional states and inconsistent learning performance in class.

The student, I tell you, I can't understand him. He has been like this for some time. He's always been like this. For one day, he may be very active in class, putting up his hand to answer questions. For the next day, he may be completely different. He may either not listen or sleep in class. He's such sort of student.

(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL256-260) **PrimaryData323**

The other point is that students are extremely emotional. On one day, he may be happy. Because he's happy, he may like to learn with you, and the learning may go on pretty smoothly. But on another day, he may be unhappy or something's gone wrong with him, he'll immediately lose his interest and won't listen to you. His study lacks consistence. He doesn't have the consistence. He may understand what was taught the first day, but got confused about what was taught the following day. The day after, he might not be able to follow the teacher, and he couldn't understand the lesson again.

(SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL223-227) **PrimaryData324**

In addition to their lack of perseverance in their English study, the friends students have made also exerted some negative influence on their English learning, as one teacher commented:

The next factor, I think, should be the social cause. Many of our students at vocational schools made friends with those early school-leavers, who left school to work in society before they finished their nine-year compulsory education. Our vocational students still keep contact with them. Their friends' working environment is quite different from that of the school. These friends may exert some influence on our students, both positive and negative. They may exert a negative influence on students who have already lost their interest in learning, which may result in their further disinterest and less incentives to learn English.

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL38-44) **PrimaryData325**

Learning habits, which students formed in their English learning, have been firmly set – with the corollary that it is difficult for them to change their old learning habits, as one teacher stated:

Students sometimes unconsciously use their old learning methods, the methods which have formed stereotype over the years. It's difficult for them to get rid of the stereotype.

(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL351-352) **PrimaryData326**

All these factors, both personal and social, prevented students from forming positive attitudes towards English and forming good language learning habits.

7.2.5 Summary

To conclude, this section has explored two categories of underlying causes – attitude/motivational factors and other attributing factors – of the language competence discrepancies of vocational school learners. The qualitative interviews with students, teachers, graduate students, inspectors and employer were triangulated with the data acquired through the quantitative survey.

The qualitative data has illustrated that attitude/motivational factors exert a great influence on the process of English learning. Regarding the attitude/motivational factors, three types of motivation – *Integrative motivation*, *Instrumental motivation* and *Other motivation* – have been described and analyzed, with *Instrumental motivation* playing a more dominant role in mainland China's vocational context. Both quantitative and qualitative studies have shown that *Motivation* is related to learners' *Language achievement*, an indicator of learners' language competences.

In addition to attitude/motivational factors, the current study has found that there are other attributing factors, influencing learners' language competences. The two categories of variable are: *Other support* and *Other factor*, with each consisting of its own sub-components. *Other factors*, such as *Language learning strategies*, *Language*

anxiety, Self-confidence and Learning habit, all contribute to learners' language competence deficiencies.

7.3 Findings and Discussion

In this section, the qualitative study with an embedded quantitative study has been conducted. The quantitative study has investigated learners' general motivational determinants and the relationship between *Motivation* and *Language achievement*. The qualitative study has provided a more enriched understanding and interpretation of the underlying causes of language competence deficiencies. The findings of the mixed-method study are presented in Figure 7.3.

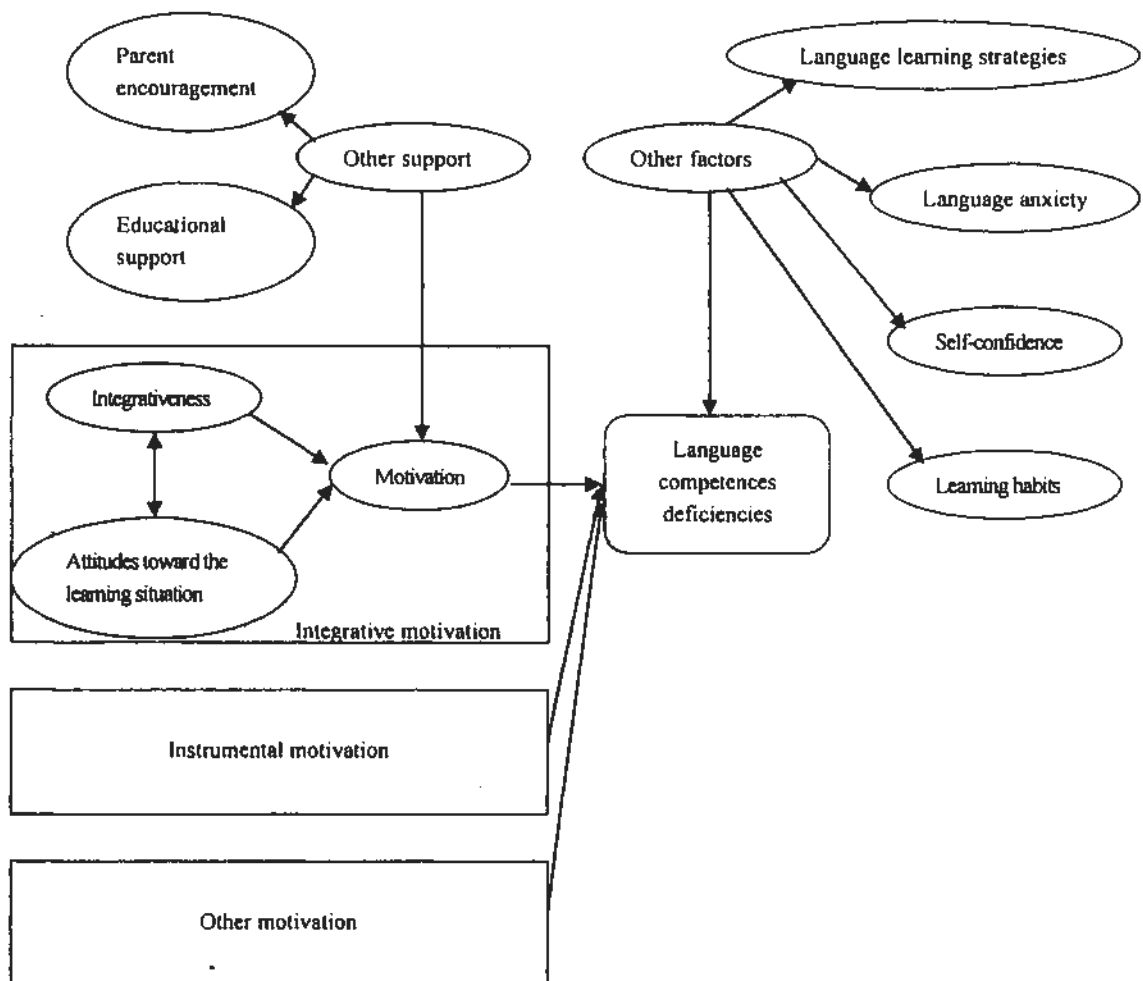


Figure 7.3 Underlying causes of language competence deficiencies

Figure 7.3 shows that there exist various types of motivation at senior secondary VE in

mainland China and that there are causal relationships between attitude/motivational factors and language competence deficiencies, as well as other factors and language competence deficiencies.

The quantitative study has demonstrated that there are positive relationships between indices of language achievement in the language test and attitudes, motivation, and orientations. The correlation of *Motivation* with *Language achievement* is higher than that for the other variables, as has been reported in previous studies (e.g., Clément, 1980; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001; Gardner, 1985, 2006; Noels, 2001b). The current findings are consistent with previous studies that *Motivation* plays a primary role in L2 learning, with *Integrativeness* and *Attitudes towards the learning situation* playing a supportive role (Gardner, 1985, 2000). The results further indicate that the variables do not operate independently, but are associated with one another.

In the light of Gardner's socioeducational model (Gardner, 1985), the qualitative analysis is in line with the quantitative study that *Motivation* plays a key role in English language learning. The three variables – *Integrativeness*, *Attitudes towards the learning situation* and *Motivation* – form *Integrative motivation*, a reason for learners to learn English. In the current study, *Instrumental motivation*, as another type of language learning orientation, outweighs the importance of *Integrative motivation* since a large majority of students learn English for pragmatic reasons, such as finding a good job or getting a promotion at workplace. In addition to the above mentioned two orientations, there is another orientation identified – *Other motivation*, which is essentially intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The three types of motivation coexist at senior secondary VE in mainland China, with *Instrumental motivation* playing a major role. Along with *Integrativeness* and *Attitudes towards the learning situation*, *Other support* – with two identified variables – also exerts an influence on *Motivation*. The external support from educational institutions and families, such as *Parent encouragement* and *Educational support*, has exerted a strong influence on learners' language learning *Motivation*, contributing to their present language competence

discrepancies.

The quantitative study has also demonstrated that not all the variables account for the unique variance in the stepwise regression. Only *Motivation* and *Language anxiety* account for individual differences in *Language achievement*. *Motivation*, along with *Language anxiety*, is a positive predictor of English *Language achievement* or *Language competence deficiencies*, with both being significant and correlating at a moderate level. In addition to the new identified variables, such as *Other motivation*, the qualitative study has enriched the mini-AMTB (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) with more identified variables in the current study, such as *Educational support* from inside and outside the formal school education and learners' *Learning habit*. The variable *Other factors*, with four identified variables (i.e., *Language learning strategies*, *Language anxiety*, *Self-confidence* and *Learning habit*), account for learners' individual differences (Dörnyei, 1990, 2001a & b). The findings have important implications for understanding which attitude/motivational factors or other factors account for language competence deficiencies of senior secondary VE in mainland China.

Conclusions can be drawn from the results in the study. First, all classes of variables are related to current language competence deficiencies. Second, many factors account for current language competence deficiencies, with *Motivation* exerting a more significant influence on learners' language competences. Although *Integrative motivation* for learning English is considered stronger than *Instrumental Motivation*, the correlation between *Integrative motivation* and *Language achievement* (.22) was almost the same as that for *Instrumental motivation* (.22) (see Table 7.2) as maintaining integrative motivation is not easy in an EFL context like China where

direct contact and communication with target language users is limited (Qin, 2002; Dörnyei, 1994a & b). It is more likely that *Instrumental orientation* can lead to successful language learning in an EFL context (Dörnyei, 1990, 2001b). The qualitative study has confirmed the quantitative study that among the three types of motivation, *Instrumental orientation* plays a leading role.

Chapter 8 Conclusions

The identified research questions first led to a comprehensive literature review of the two key concepts: language competences and needs analysis, which further led to the mixed methods research design and the empirical data analysis and interpretation. In this chapter, an overview of the current study is first described, followed by a summary of major research findings, suggestions, limitations and implications in the current study.

8.1 An Overview

In the current study, the research context of the essential background of senior secondary VE in mainland China was first introduced, with the research questions made salient against the contextual background. The research questions (RQs) in this study have been:

RQ 1. What is learners' general profile in formal senior secondary vocational education?

RQ 2. What discrepancies of needs currently exist between the target situation and present situation of senior secondary vocational school students in terms of their language competences?

RQ 3. Given the investigation of the target situation and present situation needs, what factors account for the current discrepancies?

Regarding the three research questions, the first RQ is a quantitative research question, the second RQ is a qualitative question while the third RQ is a qualitative question with an embedded quantitative question, aiming at exploring the *what* and *why* aspect of the research phenomenon. On the basis of the research questions, a mixed methods research design was depicted. In the quantitative study, stratified random probability sampling and two research instruments (i.e., the mini-AMTB and language achievement test) were introduced, followed by procedures for data collection, with the purpose of acquiring a general understanding of learners. The qualitative study,

along with an embedded quantitative study, was the primary focus of the current study, involving multiple sources and methods. The purposive sequential sampling of student participants and multiple purposive sampling of teachers, graduate students, inspectors and employer were described, along with the multiple methods of data collection (i.e., observation, interview and document analysis). The mixed-method data collection was then introduced, followed with the findings of both the quantitative and the qualitative studies. The major research findings are discussed in this concluding section.

8.2 Summary of Major Research Findings

Several important insights and recurrent themes emerged, regarding learners' language competences deficiencies.

8.2.1 General Demographic and Educational Profile of Learners

The quantitative study has presented a holistic profile of the student participants in the three selected schools, regarding their age, gender, specialty and family status, to name just a few. The study shows that there is a greater eight-year age difference among vocational school learners. Females in general outnumbered males, with females mostly from service-oriented specialties and males from manufacturing specialties. Unlike their senior secondary counterparts who are all from the city proper, the sources of vocational learners vary with a substantial number of them from rural areas. The investigation further indicates that most learners were from low SES families, with their fathers being workers, farmers or temporary workers. The language test further indicates that learners in general are of low language competences, with a substantial number of learners being poor academic achievers during their primary and junior secondary years. Moreover, learners from rural areas learned English at a later stage than those from urban areas. The investigation also shows that a great majority of learners were of low entry levels and generally spent less time and effort on English outside class.

8.2.2 Language Competence Deficiencies

Given the current learners' general demographic and educational profile, the mixed-method deficiency study has confirmed previous studies that there are discrepancies between the school curriculums and workplace requirements (Bünning, 2007; OECD, 1992; Psacharopoulos & Loxley, 1985). Several important insights and recurrent themes have been identified regarding learners' language competences at various curriculum levels, that is, at macro (i.e., the new NVES), meso (i.e., school-based curriculum) and micro (i.e., classroom teaching) levels, in view of three levels of needs – learners, teachers, resources and facilities.

8.2.2.1 Deficiencies in the New NVES

Regarding the two cognitive competence dimensions – general language competences and communicative language competences – in the new NVES (MOE, 2009b), it can be seen that the new NVES at the national level focuses more heavily on communicative language competences, with a rather weak focus on *general language competences*. The aspects of declarative knowledge, and skills and know-how are only mentioned in the section of “aims and goals” of the new NVES (see 2.5), the rest of the four sections (i.e., teaching content, skill requirements, teaching implementation, and evaluation and assessment) being on communicative language competences. Given the rationale of the new NVES to be “employment-oriented, competence-based, and learner-centered” (MOE, 2009b), the general language competences described in the new NVES cannot perform its due function of building up the linkage between school and work. As the TSA indicated, workplace expected learners to possess operational/technical competence, communication competence, interpersonal competence, as well as information competence while the qualitative interviews, classroom observations and document analysis showed that the new NVES still focused on isolated linguistic competences.

In view of the aspect of *communicative language competences*, the new NVES

assumed that the entry language proficiency of the targeted learners are approximately of the level of those who have completed their nine-year compulsory education without taking into consideration learners' other general characteristics, such as their family background, age, gender, age of starting learning English, learning habits and attitude/motivational and other factors. Research has indicated that all of these factors exert a greater influence on learners' language achievement (e.g., Dörnyei, 2003, 2005; Gardner, 1985, 2000, 2001). Although the new National English Curriculum (2001) for primary, junior and senior secondary education has been implemented since the new millennium, most learners enrolled into vocational senior secondary schools definitely have not met the minimum requirements of Level 5 for graduation from junior secondary schools as the current mixed methods study has disclosed. According to the new National English curriculum, learners are required to "demonstrate an ability to use 600-700 words and 50 phrases at Level 2; 1,500-1,600 words and 200-300 phrases at Level 5" (Wang, 2009, p. 99). Given learners' present language competences, it is difficult for a majority of learners to meet the minimum requirement of 1,700 words and 200 phrases of the linguistic competences, along with sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences prescribed in the new NVES (MOE, 2009b). Although the new NVES stresses the importance of stimulating and sustaining learners' motivation, the minimum requirements stipulated in the official curriculum still sounds challenging and unrealistic to a substantial number of learners given their current language competences and the limited teaching hours prescribed for the general vocational English module (i.e., 128-144 hours).

Regarding module classification, the new NVES includes three modules: (1) general English module (i.e., 128-144 hours), (2) extended general English module (i.e., not specified), and (3) English for Vocational Purposes module (i.e., 54-72 hours), with the general English module compulsory, extended general English module optional and English for Vocational Purposes module selective. The suggested teaching hours and the teaching contents signify that corresponding teaching materials should be

developed to cover the range and scope of English language competences. At present, textbooks in relation to each module have been developed. Given the diverse individual differences and diversity of vocational sectors, the current unified textbooks recommended by the MOE pose a number of challenges for both teachers and learners to deal with. The teacher and student interviews, moreover, revealed that the current classification of modules was artificial. The general English module and the English for Vocational Purposes module should be merged so that English for life and English for work might be integrated.

In general, language competence deficiencies exist between the national curriculum of the new NVES, the current implemented school curriculum and the targeted working world.

8.2.2.2 Deficiencies at the School Level

The new NVES, as the national intended curriculum, is a set of general guidelines for curriculum implementation at all the senior secondary vocational institutions in mainland China, such as national key schools, provincial key schools, municipal key schools, or schools affiliated to different bureaus. The multiple levels of schools may demonstrate different features and have different industry orientations, such as manufacturing, service or agriculture, since vocational education is closely linked with national and local economy and industries. The new NVES cannot serve as rigid principles for all types of schools at various regions. Given the school features and learner differences, each individual school should develop its own school-based curriculum in accordance with its own situational learning needs, involving such stakeholders as teachers, employers, graduate students, and students. Vocational schools as curriculum implementation institutions at the meso level are the actual place, where the new NVES is adapted, implemented and evaluated.

With respect to *general language competences*, the current school education has been infusing learners with more declarative theoretical knowledge and less hands-on

practical skills while workplace require learners to possess declarative knowledge of the working world, sociocultural knowledge of foreign countries, intercultural awareness and knowledge of other languages, along with practical vocational skills and intercultural skills and know-how. Due to lack of situational and situated learning provided at school, learners in general are unable to build a linking connection between what they learn at school and what they will use in the workplace.

In view of *communicative language competences*, the schools in general do not have their own school-based curriculum to guide teaching and learning at school. Teaching, however, is mostly conducted rigidly according to the textbooks recommended by the MOE or textbooks available to teachers, with some textbooks completely structure-based and bearing no relation with students' current life or future working life.

In view of the language learning environment created at school, the teaching and learning resources and facilities for supportive autonomous learning contexts provided are insufficient. Other than their textbooks in use, learners seldom make use of the learning resources inside and outside school. School libraries hardly contain any suitable learning materials, such as graded readers, for learners to use. Modern language learning facilities, such as language labs and multimedia computer labs, are not yet readily available to a substantial number of learners and teachers, with blackboard and chalk, tape recorders and overhead TVs as the major teaching aids.

8.2.2.3 Deficiencies at the Classroom Level

Classroom is the place where the implemented curriculum and the experienced curriculum take place. The qualitative interviews and classroom observations revealed that learners' language competences and their individual differences have not been sufficiently dealt with at the micro curriculum level.

In view of learners, since a substantial number of them come from different social and economic background, possess different learning styles (Gardner, 1999), and have

different learning experience, learners of senior secondary VE are of greater differences with regard to their language competences. To attract more learners, many vocational schools practice the open-door policy, with learners getting enrolled without even sitting the entrance exam. This has further created a huge discrepancy in learners' language ability and achievement.

In addition to their language ability differences, there exist eight-year age differences among learners. The heterogeneous age group has created a great challenge to classroom teaching. The quantitative questionnaire survey and the qualitative observations and interviews further disclosed that a great majority of learners were of low learning motivation and learning interest, along with low language competences.

With respect of *general language competences*, a substantial number of learners have insufficient knowledge of their future working world and lack practical vocational skills as most teachers themselves have insufficient knowledge of their students' specialty and their future workplace requirements. The isolation between school-to-work exists in most of the language classrooms.

Regarding *communicative language competences*, classroom teaching puts more emphasis on linguistic competences rather than the other two competences – sociolinguistic competences and pragmatic competences. Classroom teaching mostly centered on context-isolated linguistic elements, such as words and sentences, while in the workplace effective language use is more important. In the workplace, learners are required to possess sociolinguistic competences and pragmatic competences for effective communication. The current form-focused and structure-focused teaching has resulted in learners' incompetence of knowledge-to-skill transfer at real life and vocational situations.

Given learners' language competences and individual differences, the current teacher-centered and transmission-oriented direct instruction mode is incompetent to satisfy learning's learning needs. A substantial number of teachers still adopt the

textbook-based traditional grammar-translation and audio-lingual pedagogical approaches by teaching vocabulary and grammar in greater detail in Chinese, translating texts from Chinese to English and vice versa, memorizing grammatical paradigms via sentence-pattern drill repetition, and practice (Adamson & Morris, 1997; Spada, 2007). A large group of teachers are unable to make flexible and adaptive use of textbooks and teaching materials in accordance to learners' learning interest, language proficiency and learning needs. Under the teacher-fronted knowledge-transmission direct instruction, teachers perform the role of sage and are the only "significant others" (Williams & Burden, 1997) in the classroom with learners as passive receivers.

8.2.3 Positive Relationships between Motivation and Language Achievement

The quantitative study has indicated that there are positive relationships between motivational determinants (i.e., motivation, attitudes and orientations) in the mini-AMTB (e.g., Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) and language achievement. The statistical analysis is consistent with findings reported in other studies (e.g., Clément, 1980; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001; Gardner, 1985, 2001; Noels, 2001b) that the correlation of *Motivation* with *Language achievement* is higher than that for the other variables, indicating that language learning motivation plays an essential role in English language learning.

The quantitative study also shows that all six variables in the mini-AMTB – (1) *Integrativeness*, (2) *Attitudes towards the learning situation*, (3) *Motivation*, (4) *Instrumental orientation*, (5) *Language anxiety*, and (6) *Parent encouragement* – are associated with each other. *Integrative motivation* consists of three variables – *Motivation*, *Integrativeness* and *Attitudes towards the learning situation*. In Chinese vocational English context, *Instrumental orientation* plays a more important role than *Integrative motivation* since a substantial number of learners learn English for

pragmatic reasons. In the EFL context, such as in mainland China, it is more likely that *Instrumental orientation* can lead to successful language learning (Qin, 2002). The variable *Language anxiety*, however, does not have a direct influence on *Motivation*, but is one of the factors related to learners' *Language achievement*. The variable *Parent encouragement*, as one of supports, exerts an influence on *Motivation*. The regression shows that among all the six variables in the mini-AMTB only *Motivation* and *Language anxiety* account for individual differences in *Language achievement*.

8.2.4 Multiple Factors Contributing to Language Competence

Deficiencies

The current study has shown that multiple factors attribute to the current language competence deficiencies. The quantitative study shows that there are causal relationships between attitude/motivational factors and other factors. In addition to the variables in Gardner's mini-AMTB, other factors are identified through qualitative study, such as *Other motivation*, *Educational support*, *Self confidence* and *Learning habit*.

Regarding the attitude/motivational factors, there exist two motivation orientations in Gardner's mini-AMTB – *Integrative motivation* and *Instrumental motivation* (Gardner, 2001). In addition to these two motivation orientations, *Other motivation*, which includes extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, has been identified in the qualitative study. Unlike in other ESL context, where *Integrative motivation* plays a key role, a substantial number of learners of senior secondary VE in mainland China are instrumentally motivated to learn English, which is in consistent with other research findings (Dörnyei, 1998). The current mixed-method study has also revealed that a large majority of learners have low *Integrativeness* and negative *Attitudes towards the learning situation*, which contribute to their low language learning *Motivation*. In turn, the low motivation has exerted a negative influence on their language achievement.

In addition to the attitude/motivational factors, two other categories of attributing

factors – *Other support* and *Other factors* – have causal relationships with learners' current low language competences. Two types of external support – *Parent encouragement* and *Educational support* – have an influence on learners' *Motivation*. The study revealed that when learners encountered learning difficulties in English at junior secondary education, the school, as formal educational institution, did not provide timely academic support due to the prevailing test-driven culture. As poor language achievers, a large group of learners were ignored in class by teachers. Although most parents encouraged their children to learn English, they could not provide academic support at home due to their own educational background. Moreover, unhappy background family issues, such as divorce, separation and single-parent families, have exerted a negative impact on learners. Both *Parent encouragement* and *Educational support* have a direct influence on learners' low English learning motivation and low language competences.

The other category of attributing factor – *Other factors*, with its four identified learner-related subcomponents: *Language learning strategies*, *Language anxiety*, *Self-confidence*, and *Learning habit*, contributes to learners' low language competences. The qualitative study has revealed that a substantial number of learners have no effective language learning strategies. School education addresses more on mechanic rote-learning rather than strategy-guided language teaching and learning. Rote-learning is the most frequently used strategy that learners adopt in their language learning. Learners, moreover, experience apprehension both inside and outside English class due to their low self-confidence and poor learning habits formed in their English learning. All these factors contribute to learners' current low language competences and the discrepancies between the perceived vision and the present reality.

8.2.5 Summary of the Section

To summarize the major research findings of mixed-method NA study, the

quantitative study has presented a holistic picture of learners' demographic and educational profile. The qualitative study, along with an embedded quantitative study, has revealed that there are discrepancies between the current vocational curriculums and workplace requirements, with current curriculums, such as the new NVES, the school curriculum, and the implemented curriculum, being remote from the world of work and learners' future working life. The findings are in line with other research studies (e.g., Bünning, 2007; Cooke, 2005; Mayer & Solga, 2008b; Psacharopoulos & Loxley, 1985; Schulte, 2003). After the deficiency analysis, the quantitative study presented the results of learners' general motivational determinants and the relationship between *Motivation* and *Language achievement*. The study confirmed that there are positive relationships between motivational determinants and language achievement (e.g., Gardner, 1985, 2000; Gardner & MacIntyre; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997) in senior secondary VE in mainland China, with learners in general demonstrating low language learning motivation and poor language achievement. Further causal analysis revealed that attitude/motivational factors and other attributing factors, such as external support from family and educational institutions and other learner-related factors, contribute to learners' low language competences. The two-phase mixed methods explanatory study thus provides a more comprehensive NA study of English language competences in senior secondary VE in mainland China.

8.3 Recommendations

The purpose of conducting NA has not been solely to identify discrepancies or gaps, but to find possible solutions to bridge the gaps and narrow the discrepancies by working out a better curriculum at both the intended and implemented curriculum levels. On the basis of the researcher's growing insight into the research phenomena in the mixed methods study, five suggestions will now be proffered.

8.3.1 Better Linkage Between Education and Workplace

The deficiency analysis of the current study has revealed that there are gaps between the educational curriculum and workplace requirements, with each isolated from each

other. Given the current situation, vocational education in general and vocational English language curriculum in particular should be geared more closely with the world of work by building a better linkage between the educational system and the workplace (e.g., Cheung & Wong, 2006).

The new NVES, as the national curriculum yardstick, should incorporate the employable *general language competences* into the current language curriculums, with the general language competences made more salient than implicitly stated in the current document. The declarative knowledge of the working world and the essential vocational skills should be integrated with the communicative language competence teaching and learning, with a focus on learners' future career and personal development. It is in this sense that the new NVES as national curriculum will be more "employment-oriented" (MOE, 2009b).

Regarding the *communicative language competences*, the new NVES includes such linguistic competences as phonological, lexical and grammatical and semantic competences while the sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences are only slightly touched in the section of skill requirements. Given the effective communication requirements in the workplace, the language competence dimensions in the new NVES should be expanded to better meet the requirements from the world of work.

Meta-competence or the language learning strategies in the new NVES should be made more salient in the new NVES as they are the enabling tools to facilitate learners' present language learning and future lifelong learning. At present, a substantial number of learners still rely on rote-learning method. Given learners' sustainable development at the workplace, more effective language learning strategies, such as cognitive and indirect learning strategies, should be conveyed to learners to help them develop from object-regulated and other-regulated learners to self-regulated learners (Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008).

With respect of the current learner- and learning-diversity and specialty differences,

the national curriculum – the new NVES – should be made more flexible, covering more levels on its vertical language scales and integrate a more closer link between school and work along its horizontal descriptive scheme. The multi-level and more flexible national curriculum can serve as a better national guideline. Furthermore, the NA conducted for the development of the new NVES should not come to an end once the document as the national curriculum was issued. The social, political, educational, family, personal and affective factors may still pose challenging issues in the process of its implementation and decision-making. The NA study as an effective informing tool should be constantly conducted to inform future curriculum development of the target objective needs and the present subjective needs and wants of vocational learners so that the new NVES can perform its due function as the national curriculum guideline.

8.3.2 Developing School-Based Curriculums

Regarding its own vocational orientation and learners' learning needs, the universal national curriculum – the new NVES – cannot work effectively in each individual school's context. Each school should develop its own school-based curriculum, taking into consideration both learners' target situation needs, but also the practical realities that exist in different schools. To implement such a more balanced curriculum, teachers should be actively involved in school-based curriculum development so that the curriculum resulting from the process will be more suitable for implementation given individual school's contextual strengths and weaknesses.

Learners' *general language competences* should be more oriented towards learners' future working world to equip learners with better understanding of the working world and practical vocational skills. Schools should provide more situated workplace learning for learners so that learners will have ample opportunities to apply the theoretical knowledge learned at school to actual use in the workplace. The situated learning provided to learners will enable them to develop quickly from apprenticeship

learning and acquire a better understanding of the whole working system. Moreover, learners will have a better understanding of such competences as interpersonal competence, communication competence and information competence, along with communicative language competences.

Regarding the issue of *communicative language competences* in school-based curriculums, the cultivation of communicative language competences should be done in simulated or situated vocational context, rather than training learners' *linguistic competences* just for the sake of language usage itself. For instance, *phonological competence* should be trained from the basic phonetic symbols to above the sentence level. *Lexical competence*, the key focus of current classroom teaching, should be progressed from common core vocabulary to more specialized/technical items (Nation & Macalister, 2009). According to Nation and Macalister, "the first 1,000 words account for 75 per cent of the successive words in a text; the second 1,000 words account for 5 per cent of the successive words in a text" (2009, p. 73). The school-based curriculums should hence take into account of the first most frequently used 1000 and 2000 words, along with the most frequently used vocational vocabulary. When *grammatical competence* is concerned, the progression for grammatical items should be arranged on the basis of frequency and complexity in accordance to the real life and vocational situations. The organization and sequencing of grammatical items "should provide the best possible coverage of language in use through the inclusion of items that occur frequently in the language, so that learners get the best return for their learning effort" (Nation & Macalister, 2009, p. 38). Moreover, the theme-based, topic-related, notional and functional semantic syllabus should be adopted to develop learners' *semantic competences*. The language use rather than the form-focused language usage should be the focus of the action-oriented language syllabus design of the school-based curriculums.

In line with linguistic competences, the aspects of social interaction, politeness conventions and register differences should be taken into account in developing

learners' *sociolinguistic competences*. Moreover, all of the sociolinguistic aspects should be linked with real life and vocational situations so that learners will be able to know how to communicate appropriately at situations which they will encounter in the future. On the basis of linguistic competences and sociolinguistic competences, *pragmatic competences* should be developed, with focus on discourse competence and functional competence. Through more situated learning and hands-on practice relevant to learners' current life and future work, learners will be able to develop from a peripheral observer to an active participant by using language for meaningful communicative functions. In the future working world, it is common for people to change their jobs four or five times, the strong communicative language competences as well as general language competences will enable learners to pursue their vocational development more successfully along the career ladder.

In view of educational resources and facilities, a great variety of learning resources should be provided at school libraries for learners, in addition to their textbook materials. Modern teaching and learning facilities, such as language labs and multimedia computer labs, need to be made easily accessible to both teachers and learners, along with the current use of TVs and tape recorders, to enhance learners' motivational value and narrow down the digital divide (Murray, 2007). Moreover, computer-assisted language teaching should be encouraged at various levels of vocational education as the information technology can enable learners to have unlimited access to a wide range of learning resources (Legutke, Müller-Hartmann, & Ditfurth, 2007). Studies have indicated that information technology has greatly enhanced the possibilities for learner-centered approaches of learning and teaching (Ellis, 2003), and that learners are more interested in computer-assisted learning and are more likely to stay in class (e.g., Felix, 2008). It is therefore important to incorporate modern facilities into English language learning to overcome the traditional constraints of classroom learning.

Vocational schools should, moreover, take into account the amount of time available

for the course modules, such as the general English module and the English for Vocational Purposes module. At present, the required teaching hours for each of the three modules have been cut back. English as literacy education has not been on each individual school's agenda. To develop learners' English language literacy as more qualified human resources, more balanced school-to-work course modules should be developed with an orientation from learners' present foundation-building towards future potential-realization.

Finally, the development of a school-based curriculum is a dynamic process, with constant negotiation between different stakeholders (Adamson & Morris, 1997), such as inspectors, 'grassroots teachers', learners, future employers and graduate students. The multiple sources involved will enable the school-based curriculum to have a sustained vitality towards more balanced school-based curriculums.

8.3.3 Cultivating Qualified Dual-Specialist Professionals

Teachers are the driving forces in the curriculum implementation and an important part of the social change process (Fullan, 2007). Without their willingness, understanding, cooperation, and participation, no change can effectively take place (White, 1988). Unlike their senior secondary school counterparts, vocational school teachers are expected to become dual-specialist professionals – a language as well as vocational expert.

Given the expectation, vocational senior secondary schools should provide more opportunities for teachers to do situated workplace learning and practice so that teachers can get to know the line of work to become a vocational specialist, such as a certified tour guide. The qualitative study has shown that most teachers were unfamiliar with their students' future vocation. It is important that teachers be provided with ample opportunities of situated learning so that they can have a better understanding of what are required of learners at the workplace, as one inspector remarked:

I think schools should provide more opportunities for us teachers, who are teaching basic cultural literacy subjects, to do more situated learning. ... We teachers should first understand industry requirements and our learners' future job requirements so that the teachers can teach learners what learners are required to possess within two- or three-year learning at school. Only in this way can the teaching be more relevant to their specialty, to their future vocation, and only in this way can vocational teaching be effective.

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Once teachers become a vocational/technical specialist, they will be able to create more situated learning for learners, and will be able to adapt the learning materials more suitable to learners' future vocational needs. The separated general English (GE) module and the English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) module will then be better integrated.

In addition to the situated workplace learning, schools as well as other educational institutions should provide more in-service training opportunities for teachers so that they will be able to constantly upgrade their language competences. Once teachers are competent at English themselves, they will be more willing to use English as the medium of instruction in class, which, in turn, will create a better English learning environment for learners (Borg, 2006; Tsui, 2003). Their competence at English will further enable them to make more adaptive and creative use of English learning textbooks and other learning materials to meet learners' present learning needs and future target vocational needs. Further their competence at teaching skills will enable them to motivate learners, develop their language learning strategies, and design problem-solving activities. Schools as well as other educational institutions should provide constant professional support for teachers, where they will be able to go for professional and teaching seminars. At present, other than their in-school peer support few teachers have the opportunities to attend teaching workshops, seminars and conferences. One possible option is for schools to involve more practitioners from industry as adjunct language teachers to conduct team teaching with school teachers,

which will enable teachers to gain more practical knowledge and skills, and enhance links between industry and schools. Schools should consider providing teachers with more in-service training both inside and outside school. Moreover, schools should adopt favorable policies to attract more qualified dual-specialist professionals to teach and conduct team teaching at vocational schools.

Along with the situated workplace training, in-service educational training and support, schools and educational institutions should provide teachers with appropriate and adequate training to exploit new technologies, and with technical support both before and during instruction (Murray, 2007) so that teachers will be able to make effective use of new technologies in their classroom language teaching and learning (Debski, 2003; Kennedy & Levy, 2009; Stockwell, 2007). To become better school-based curriculum designers, teachers should be encouraged to make effective use of multimedia technology and multimedia resources, along with the TVs and tape recorders in use, to create an optimal language learning environment for learners.

8.3.4 Conducting Learner-Centered Differentiated Instruction

Given learners' language competence deficiencies and individual differences at the classroom level, teachers should be encouraged to change their conventional mode of direct instruction and adopt meaning-focused, context-related, and more eclectic differentiated instruction.

Teachers should be encouraged to make adaptive use of the learning content, process, and product according to learners' learning needs (Tomlinson, 2003; Wormeli, 2007), recognizing that "each student may follow a different path to knowledge" (Tomlinson & Strickland, 2005, p. 90). The learning content should be adjusted to suit the learners' language competence level before delivered to learners. Textbooks and materials should be designed or adapted ~~more~~ relevant to real-life and workplace situations, with course content more meaningful to learners. The learning content, moreover, need to be more interesting, motivating, and comprehensible (Krashen, 1982). The learning

materials should be more slightly beyond learners' current language competences but sufficiently comprehensible for them to understand, in low stressful environment (Krashen, 1981, 1982). More attention should be given to the high-frequency items in English. "Low-frequency items should be dealt with only when the high-frequency items have been sufficiently learned. It may be more efficient to teach the learners strategies for learning and coping with low-frequency items rather than for the teacher to present the low-frequency items themselves" (Nation & Macalister, 2009, p. 41). The appropriate 'graded readers' (ibid.), and a variety of authentic vocation-related materials should be adopted to cultivate learners' language skills.

Along with the exposure to meaningful and motivating comprehensible input, content organization should also be taken into account. If linguistic knowledge is transmitted to learners successively in large quantity and amount, learners will have no time to digest the knowledge or apply the knowledge into practical language skills. A large amount of linguistic knowledge will put a heavy cognitive information load on learners (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). The incomprehensible learning materials will thus, to a greater extent, lessen the learners' motivation and self-efficacy, and kill learners' desire to learn. Teachers should therefore include more interesting, authentic and meaning-focused input, relevant to learners' life and study, in a variety of real world and vocational contexts.

The process of learning should be a constant interactive negotiation between teachers and learners (Breen & Candlin, 1980; Candlin, 1984, 1987; Clarke & Winch, 2007), with more learner-initiated interesting classroom and extracurricular learning activities provided (Allwright, 2006). Such extracurricular activities can help create more authentic English learning opportunities for learners to actively participate and practice common-core language items. It is worthwhile in language teaching that learners are given ample opportunities and sufficient practice of re-use and re-structure language forms (Council of Europe, 2001) in situated contexts, as in the words of one inspector:

Students think that learning English is useless. To deal with such line of thought, at the beginning, we taught them some vocation-related knowledge as soon as they were enrolled. We've done some experiments on our English teaching. In relation with their specialties, we made a list of the things that they are going to deal with in their specialties. For example, we've done an experiment in a cookery class in a tourism vocational school. Most of the students in the class are boys. The students' English in the cookery classes is likely the poorest among the whole school. In the English class, we didn't use textbooks to teach them at the beginning, we just taught them the names of dishes and the seasonings. Each class, we didn't teach them many things, just five to ten dishes ... in relation to their future work. We first provided them some work-related knowledge, added some supplementary things and printed some more materials for them. Students felt that they were able to tell the things in English after the English class. So in this way, we've conducted our teaching relevant to learners' future vocation. For example, the cookery class in the vocational school has done pretty well on this aspect. Many of their students will work as chef in luxury hotels or go abroad to work. So it is quite likely that the chief chef will be a foreigner, and he may ask them to fetch or pass something. They can, at least, know the name of the items. So in our experimental teaching, we've made a list of all the possible items in the kitchen and their names in English, then we integrate these things in our teaching.

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These activities have helped learners improve their knowledge and their ability to use the knowledge (e.g., Spada, 2007) and move towards greater self-regulation (Lantolf, 2007) from basic understanding to higher-level thinking along Bloom's taxonomy (1956) through scaffolded teaching and learning (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006), as indicated by one inspector:

By building scaffolding tasks before the real authentic tasks, we try to guide students to do things in a step-by-step manner. Little by little, learners will be able to have confidence in doing things.

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Teaching, on the other hand, can be described as "the continuum of adaptation" (Stodolsky & Grossman, 2000) in learner-directed differentiated instruction. With the help of the significant others (e.g., more capable peers) in pair or group activities,

language teaching and learning can be conducted within learners “zone of proximal development” (Vygotsky, 1978) since active participation in communicative interaction “is a necessary and sufficient condition for language development” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 140). By allowing more flexible seating arrangements, teachers could pair low level learners with more capable and proficient learners to build a support system. The autonomous learning- and learner-centered community (Cotterall, 2000) created will help facilitate language learning (Long & Crookes, 1992), as one inspector commented:

We are currently experimenting two things: one is the activity class, that is, to use activities such as games to stimulate learners’ participating interest; the other is communicative class, which focuses on language practice. ... For example, in our communicative class, like what we’ve done in our classroom observation, we have done a lot of classroom observation. While doing classroom observation, what has impressed me most is the role play after the teacher’s explanation, in tourism and hotel specialties. In these classes, students were required to do some practice on the simulated hotel situations, the authentic situations. When learners get familiar with the language practice, the greatest advantage, I think, is that when they go to the workplace, and when they meet foreigners, they can automatically come up with “Can I help you?” I think, such kind of practice – the communication-focused practice in class – can be effective in cultivating learners’ future vocational competences.

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Through the autonomous learning, learners will be able to become self-regulated language learners with sustainable learning ability “to make choices in respect of objectives, materials and working methods in the light of their own needs, motivations, characteristics and resources” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 142).

In the learner-centered differentiated classrooms, teachers would exert time and effort to cultivate learners’ meta-competence, teachers should “train learners in how to learn a language and how to monitor and be aware of their learning, so that they can become effective and independent language learners” (Nation & Macalister, 2009, p. 38). The current rote-learning method should be directed towards strategy-guided learning,

with learners making effective use of language learning strategies, such as direct and indirect learning strategies (Oxford, 1994), both for current foundation-building and for future potential-realization (Waters & Vilches, 2001).

The evaluation of the learning outcomes should be more flexible and more competence-based, rather than solely test-driven summative evaluation. Conducting formative evaluation, such as learners' language portfolios, is of particular importance in vocational education. It is through the accumulative interactive evaluation of learners' language performance and language learning outcomes that learners will be able to access their own language learning progress and achievements made in the process of learning, and demonstrate their language competences to their future employers. Teachers can also make use of the language portfolios to assess learners' learning progress made in the process of learning, and utilize them as a reference for curriculum implementation and design.

Regarding the medium of instruction, the effective and appropriate use of mother tongue and target language is important in language learning. Research has indicated that the quantity and quality of target language input are crucial factors in L2 learning (Gass & Selinker, 2001; Gass & Mackey, 2007) while Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory viewed mother tongue as providing important scaffolding support for learners to negotiate form and meaning. The appropriate use of mother tongue and English plays key roles in learners' language learning. According to Spada, "in foreign language settings, where the learners' exposure to the target language is restricted to the classroom, it is advisable to maximize target language exposure and minimize L1 use" (2007, p. 281). It is therefore advisable for teachers to make effective use of the target language to create a language learning environment for learners.

To maximize learners' learning needs, learners' role in learning should be changed from passive recipients to active participants, with the teachers' role changing from knowledge provider to meaningful learning facilitators, organizer and counselors.

Given roles that teachers are expected to play, Legutke, Müller-Hartmann, and Ditfurth (2007) propose four role categories: *pedagogical, social, managerial, and technical*. In terms of pedagogical role, teachers should conduct teaching with a more meaningful language use orientation; in the social role, teachers should create a harmonious friendly learning environment; in the managerial role, teachers should make effective division of time frame in class, with learners taking more active participation, and; in the technical role, teachers should be able to make effective use of modern technology and facilities. In short, teachers should be able to deal with the diversity and complexity in the classroom in a more flexible and attentive way (Wormeli, 2007). Only when learners are actively involving in learning will language learning really take into effect.

8.3.5 Enhancing Learner Motivation

The present mixed methods study has revealed that learners in general demonstrate low motivation towards English learning. Enhancing learners' language learning motivation, hence, will be of paramount importance.

A great majority of learners are poor academic achievers in their previous learning experience. In the test-driven culture, many of them were ignored or looked down upon in the mainstream classes. They have low integrativeness towards English and hold negative attitudes towards the learning situation. Moreover, a substantial number of learners are from families of low social economic status, whose parents cannot provide academic support to their English study. As a result, learners have low motivation, low-self esteem and low self-confidence in English.

As Nation and Macalister (2009) point out, "Keeping the learners interested is a very important principle in language teaching" (p. 203). To stimulate learners' motivation and learning interest towards English, teachers should encourage learners to set achievable and realistic learning goals in their process of learning (e.g., journal writing), so that learners will be able to keep records of their progress and see their

continuing success, as one teacher stated:

Since this term, I began to let them write weekly journals. Each week, they set up one goal for the week. The goals can be pretty minor, such as not sleeping in class for the week or not sleeping for just half of the day if they used to sleep every day. Then, each Monday or Tuesday if I'm not free on Monday, I'll write my requirements of them in each of their journal, and tell them not to show what I've written for them to other students as it's a secret shared between us. The students are very happy about what I've written to them. Sometimes if I don't write much in their journals, they will say to me, "Teacher, you are so mean. You should write more for me." I think journal-writing is a good way of encouraging students.

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Teachers also should adopt appropriate teacher behaviors, such as treating learners as their equal and with more respect and dignity, showing patience towards the slow learners, and providing timely help when in need so that teachers can establish a good relationship with learners, maintain a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom, and provide appropriate group norms to promote a cohesive learner group (Dörnyei, 2001). The positive attitudes that teachers hold towards learners will help them build up their self-confidence and self-esteem, which will further help learners maintain their learning interest in the language. Harmonious relationship between learners and teachers will therefore be established for effective teaching and learning at vocational senior secondary schools, with learners gradually coming to value their language learning (Dörnyei, 2001).

The suggested possible solutions presented above are in consistent with other related research findings. For example, Dörnyei and Csizer (1998) have suggested 10 commandments for teachers to improve learners' motivation. Dörnyei (2001, p. 29) further grouped the strategies into four categories – (1) creating basic motivational conditions; (2) generating initial motivation by enhancing learners' language-related values and attitudes, increasing their goal expectancy of success, making the curriculum relevant, and creating realistic learner beliefs; (3) maintaining and promoting motivation by making learning stimulating and enjoyable, presenting tasks

in a motivating way, setting specific learning goals, protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence, allowing learners to maintain a positive social image, creating learner autonomy, promoting self-motivating learner strategies, and promoting cooperation among the learners; (4) encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation by promoting motivational attributes, providing motivational feedback, increasing learner satisfaction, and offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner. Since learners are more likely to become demotivated in language learning than in other subjects (Macaro, 2001), it is therefore more challenging and important to motivate learners in the process of language learning.

8.3.6 Summary

To sum up, this section has proposed five possible ways of meeting the needs. To deal with the issue of language competence deficiencies, it is important to establish the linkage between education and workplace requirements, and much effort should be devoted towards a more balanced school-based curriculum. In order to train vocational school learners into more employable qualified human resources, teachers should be encouraged to become qualified dual-specialist professionals. Only when teachers become dual-specialist professionals will they be able to integrate language teaching and learning into job-related context. To better cater to learners' diverse learning needs and current varied individual differences at senior secondary VE, teachers should be encouraged to move away from their current direct instruction towards differentiated instruction. However, language learning only takes place when learners themselves are motivated to learn and to participate. Stimulating or intriguing learners' language learning motivation will therefore be of crucial importance in improving learners' language competences. All the above mentioned possible suggestions and solutions attribute to a more "employment-oriented, competence-based, and learner-centered" (MOE, 2009b) English curriculum.

8.4 Limitations and Implications

Conducting research requires time, resources and the concerted efforts and expertise knowledge of researchers. Due to time, resources and expertise knowledge of the researcher, certain limitations in the current study must be pointed up.

One limitation in the current study involves the comprehensiveness of the data collected. For instance, only one employer was interviewed regarding workplace needs, as gaining access to employers was difficult due to time constraints, as was gaining their consent to be interviewed. Moreover, the mixed methods study was conducted in slightly over one month in one selected city, with the qualitative study immediately after the quantitative study. Although two pilot studies had been conducted before, both the size ($N=707$ & $n=38$) and sources (students, graduate students, teachers, inspectors and employer) of the participants were far greater. While coding the text data, some of the apparent saturation data in the field appear to have room for further investigation due to the researcher's personal research expertise. Sufficient time should therefore be taken into account in designing and conducting mix-methods inquiries.

The current study is a sectional mixed-methods study of language competences in senior secondary VE in mainland China. The findings from the current study have revealed the current status of learners' language competences. At present, all the studies about language competences in mainland China have been cross-sectional studies conducted at a defined time as they are easier and more convenient to conduct than longitudinal studies. The issues of how learners' language competences are developed at senior secondary VE and later in their future workplace have not been studied in the current VE studies. Given time and resources, longitudinal studies on language competences, such as long time ethnographic study, can be conducted in future to see how the organization culture can exert an influence on learners' language competences.

The current study is a comprehensive NA of language competences in senior secondary VE in mainland China, with the incorporation of such NA methods as language audit, target situation analysis, present situation analysis, deficiency analysis, and strategy analysis, within a month-long study. The current study has essentially been a discrepancy analysis. To gain a more comprehensive understanding of learners' language competences, more context-related on-the-spot means analysis should be conducted for a more balanced school-based curriculum.

8.5 Conclusion

The mixed methods NA set out in the current study has proved useful for understanding English language competences at senior secondary VE in mainland China, with the process revealing more significance and being useful in assessing learners' language learning motivation, language competence deficiencies and underlying causes. Although the study was conducted at only three vocational schools in one city, the findings present both a general learner profile and specific understanding of the research phenomena: (1) a substantial number of vocational education learners are poor language achievers with low motivation, (2) there exist discrepancies between the educational curriculums and workplace requirements, with school curriculums focusing on isolated aspects of linguistic competences and being remote from the world of work and learners' future life, and (3) many factors – social, educational, family as well as personal – contribute to the language competence deficiencies. The research findings support the three research questions posed at the outset of the research, and are consistent with other previous studies (e.g., Bünning, 2007; Chang, 2002; Lai & Lo, 2008; Schulte, 2003; OECD, 1992; Psacharopoulos & Loxley, 1985; Saul, 1998).

New insights have also been gained regarding English language competences in senior secondary VE in mainland China. The mixed methods NA study has provided an overview as well as a snapshot of the research phenomena. Regarding learners' needs

to develop their language competences, curriculum development can deal with learners' language learning needs at two hierarchical levels, transcending from foundation-building needs towards potential-realizing needs. With reference to the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001), a vocational English language competence framework, in particular the horizontal competence descriptive scheme, can be developed on the basis of the current study.

Overall, the study constitutes a potential and valuable source of information for meeting learners' needs in senior secondary vocational education as well as in other fields of education. It is anticipated that the current study will be of value to researchers and teachers conducting NA of English language competences, and will be adaptable to a wide variety of VE situations in creating meaningful and relevant experiences for learners. It is also hoped that the comprehensive mixed methods adopted in the current study can be applied to NA studies, with the involvement of multiple sources and multiple methods. Moreover, the current study shows that NA studies can be treated as a more complex dynamic and ecological system rather than simply a once-for-all product at the initial planning stage of curriculum development (Berwick, 1989; Brindley, 1989). NA should be conducted as a cyclic ongoing process (Long, 2005c; Richterich & Chancerel, 1980; Yalden, 1983). The development of learners' language competences on the basis of NA, therefore, requires the continuing commitment of teachers and learners, institutions and society at large in the whole process of curriculum implementation.

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Appendices

Appendix A Observation Protocol

Observation Protocol

Diana ZHAO

Heading: _____

Class: _____ Code No. _____

Date: _____

Number of student: _____ (M: _____ ; F: _____)

Teacher: _____ (M/F)

Lesson's title: _____

Teaching content: _____

Teaching facilities: _____

Classroom setting and organization (Draw a diagram on a separate sheet):

Students seating organization (Draw a diagram on a separate sheet):

Observation notes:

Descriptive Notes	Reflective Notes
Guideline: Subjects, dialogues, physical setting, events, activities, observer's behavior	Guideline: Reflections on analysis, method, ethical dilemmas and conflicts, observer's frame of mind
References: Teaching /learning: objectives, content, teacher's personal characteristics, teaching approaches, classroom interaction, teacher talking time (TTT), students' talking time (STT), interaction: (T-S & S-S), students' tasks, types of questions, classroom management and atmosphere	
Observer Comments:	

Appendix B Interview Protocol for Teachers

Interview Protocol for Teachers

Diana ZHAO

Heading: _____

School: _____ Code No. _____

Name: _____ Gender: ____ (M/F)

Code No. _____

Date of interview: _____ Time of interview: _____

Place of interview: _____

Opening remarks:

Hello, my name is Zhao Wen and I am conducting a project on vocational education for my PhD study. I would like to talk with you for about 30 minutes. The data from this interview will be anonymous in the dissertation. The interview is voluntary. Nobody from the school will have opportunity to get access to the data from the interview.

Interview question guideline

1. Educational background
2. History as a teacher
3. Views regarding teaching
4. In-service training
5. Views regarding students' most felt needs with regard to language competences
6. Views regarding the school English curriculum
7. Views regarding the school, resources and facilities (e.g., textbook, audio-visual aids, computer hardware and software)
8. Views regarding support systems within and outside school
9. Views regarding students' targeted language competences at workplace
10. Problems causing the current realities
11. Measures having been taken to deal with the deficiencies
12. Measures to be taken to further alleviate the deficiencies

Closing statement:

Thank you for your time. Are there any final comments you would like to add?

Descriptive Notes	Reflective Notes

Appendix C Interview Protocol for Students

Interview Protocol for Students

Diana ZHAO

Heading: _____
School: _____ Code No. _____
Class: _____ Code No. _____
Name: _____ Gender: _____ (M/F)
Code No. _____ Date of interview: _____
Time of interview: _____
Place of interview: _____

Opening remarks:

Hello, my name is Zhao Wen and I am conducting a project on vocational education for my PhD study. I would like to talk with you for about 30 minutes. The data from this interview will be anonymous in the dissertation. The interview is voluntary. Nobody from the school will have opportunity to get access to the data from the interview.

Interview question guideline

1. Family background and support
2. English learning experience
3. Attitudes towards English learning
4. The most felt needs with regard to language competences
5. The importance of English learning
6. Views regarding school English teaching
7. Views regarding the school, resources and facilities (e.g., textbook, audio-visual aids, computer hardware and software)
8. Views regarding support systems within and outside school
9. Views regarding language competences required at workplace
10. Views regarding language competences
11. Views regarding language teaching at school
12. Views regarding resources and facilities

Closing statement:

Thank you for your time. Are there any final comments you would like to add?

Descriptive Notes	Reflective Notes

Appendix D Questionnaire Survey

英语学习动机问卷调查 (English Learning Motivation)

亲爱的同学(Dear Student):

您好! 这份问卷的目的是想了解您的英语学习情况, 请您认真阅读各部分说明及内容, 并根据自己的实际情况如实回答。您所提供的情况将只用于本研究, 所有与本问卷相关的信息都将严加保密, 不会用于其它用途。非常感谢您真诚的合作与协助。(The purpose of the questionnaire is to find out some information about your English learning. Please read the instructions carefully and respond to the questions as best pertains to your own case by filling in the blanks with your information or selecting the appropriate number. All the information provided will be treated as confidential and will definitely not be used for any other purpose other than current research. Your full cooperation in taking your time and completely filling out the questionnaire would be greatly appreciated. Thank you in advance.)

第一部分 个人基本信息 (Part I Personal Profile)

1 姓名 (Name): _____

2 性别 (Sex): _____

3 出生日期 (Date of birth): _____

4 学习专业 (Specialty): _____

5 家庭背景 (Family background): _____

(1)城市(city)/(2)县城(county)/(3)农村(countryside)

6 学校类型(School type): _____

(1)国家级(national)/(2)省级(provincial)/(3)市级(municipal)

7 开始学习英语的年龄(Age of starting learning

English): _____ (1)8岁以下(before the age of eight)/(2)9-12岁(between 9 and 12)/(3)13-15岁(between 13 and 15)

8 每周课外学习英语的时间(Weekly English learning time after

school): _____ (1)少于3小时(less than 3 hours)/(2)4-6小时(between 4 to 6 hours)/(3)7-10小时(between 7 and 10 hours)

9 上学期的英语成绩(English score in the previous school

term): _____ (1)30-49分之间(between 30 to 49)/(2) 50-69分之间(between 50 and 69)/(3)70分以上(above 70)

10 入学时的英语成绩(English score upon entering the

school): _____ (1)30-49分之间(between 30 to 49)/(2) 50-69分之间(between 50 to 69)/(3)70分以上(above 70)

11. 父亲职业 _____ (1)工人(worker)/(2)

农民(farmer)/(3)个体经营者(self-employed)/(4)公务员(public

servant)/(5)无正式职业者(not formally employed)/(6)其他(others)

第二部分 调查项目(Part II Questionnaire)

下面是12个关于学习动机的题目，每个题目都有1-7个选项，分别表示七种程度与情况，1代表最强，7代表最弱。请根据您的实际情况，选择相应的数字，每题只能选择一项。(Below are 12 constructs on motivation on Likert scale, with 1 for the most positive, 4 for the neutral and 7 for the most negative. Please respond to the question pertaining to your own case. Note that for each item you can only select one number for your case.)

1. My motivation to learn English in order to interact with English speaking people is (我学习英语的动机是想同讲英语的人进行交流): STRONG (强) 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 WEAK (弱)
2. My attitude towards English speaking people is (我对讲英语的人的态度): FAVORABLE (友好) 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 UNFAVORABLE (不友好)
3. My interest in English is (我对英语的兴趣): VERY HIGH (非常高) 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 VERY LOW (非常低)
4. My desire to learn English is (我学习英语的愿望): STRONG (强) 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 WEAK (弱)
5. My attitude towards learning English is (我对学习英语所持的态度): FAVORABLE (积极) 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 UNFAVORABLE (消极)
6. My attitude towards my English teacher is (我对英语老师的态度): FAVORABLE (友好) 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 UNFAVORABLE (不友好)
7. My motivation to learn English for practical purposes (e.g., to get a good job) is (我学习英语是出于实用目的(例如:找份好工作)): STRONG (强) 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 WEAK (弱)
8. I worry about speaking English outside of class (我对在课外讲英语有顾虑): VERY MUCH (非常大) 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 VERY LITTLE (非常小)
9. My attitude towards my English course is (我对英语这门课的态度): FAVORABLE (积极) 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 UNFAVORABLE (消极)
10. I worry about speaking in my English class (我对在英语课上讲英语有顾虑): VERY MUCH (非常大) 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 VERY LITTLE (非常小)
11. My motivation to learn English is (我学习英语的动机): VERY HIGH (非常高) 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 VERY LOW (非常低)
12. My parents encourage me to learn English (我父母对我学习英语的鼓励): VERY MUCH (非常大) 1 ; 2 ; 3 ; 4 ; 5 ; 6 ; 7 VERY LITTLE (非常小)

Appendix E Language Test

I. 多项选择——从每题所给的四个选项中，选择一个正确的选项，并将答案涂到答题纸上。

##01. Allan: Is it going to be a nice day today?

Betty: I don't know. I'm not sure _____ it will rain or not.

A. when B. because C. as D. whether

##02. Allan: When did these two old friends last meet?

Betty: Oh, they _____ each other since 1997.

A. haven't seen B. won't see C. don't see D. didn't see

##03. Allan: What does Peter enjoy most?

Betty: Oh, he enjoys _____ at home.

A. working B. work C. to work D. worked

##04. Allan: Isn't it a nice day today?

Betty: Yes, there isn't a cloud _____ the sky.

A. on B. above C. in D. under

##05. Allan: Remember, Betty—after you _____ the bus, cross the road and walk straight on, you will find the hotel.

Betty: Thanks. It won't be a problem.

A. get off B. get on C. get in D. get up

##06. Allan: _____ fine day it is!

Betty: Yes, let's go swimming.

A. What B. How C. What a D. How a

##07. Allan: Who can do better? Jack or Jim?

Betty: I don't know. I think Jack is just _____ Jim.

A. so clever as B. as clever as C. clever than D. clever as

##08. Allan: I'm sorry, Betty. I was _____ late that I missed the train.

Betty: Oh, that's OK.

A. too B. so C. such D. very

##09. Allan: What's the matter _____ you, Betty?

Betty: I don't feel very well.

A. to B. for C. of D. with

##10. Allan: You'd better give up _____, Betty. It's bad for your health.

Betty: Yes, I know. I am trying.

A. smokes B. to smoke C. smoked D. smoking

II. 阅读理解——阅读下面三篇短文，根据短文内容，从每题的选项中选择
一个正确答案，并将答案涂到答题纸上。

Reading Passage 1

These days I'm very busy. I always work hard. My wife asked me to have a good rest. She said, "Listen, you've been too tired. You must have a good rest. If you don't, you will be more than tired." But I didn't pay any attention to her words. I went on with my work. Several days later, I felt very bad. I got a high fever and a cough. How regretful I was!

##11. These days the writer has _____.

A. much free time B. little free time C. no work

##12. When his wife says he will be "more than tired", she means he will be _____.

A. "not tired" B. "nothing" C. "ill"

##13. After talking to his wife, _____.

A. he had a rest. B. he worked hard as usual. C. he went to the doctor.

##14. "I felt very bad" here means the writer was _____.

A. not well B. regretful C. unhappy

##15. From the passage, we can see his wife's words are _____.

A. right B. wrong C. just so so

Reading Passage 2

Mr. Green had a few days' holiday, so he said, "I'm going to the mountains by train." He put on his best clothes, took a small bag, went to the station and got into the train. He had a beautiful hat, and he often put his head out of the window during the trip and looked at the mountains. But the wind pulled his hat off. Mr. Green quickly took his old bag and threw that out of the window too. The other people in the carriage (车厢) laughed. "Is your bag going to bring your beautiful hat back?" they asked.

"No," Mr. Green answered, "but there's no name and no address in my hat, and there's a name and an address on the bag." "Someone's going to find both of them near each other, and he's going to send me the bag and the hat."

##16. Where did Mr. Green go for his holiday?

A. To his hometown. B. To a big city. C. To the lake. D. To the mountains.

##17. How did he go there?

A. By bus. B. By bike. C. By train. D. On foot.

##18. The wind pulled his ____ off.

A. bag B. hat C. clothes D. carriage

##19. What did Mr. Green do with his bag?

A. He got off the train at once. B. He called for help.
C. He threw it out of the window. D. He began to cry.

##20. Why did he throw his bag out?

A. Because his wife asked him to. B. Because it was too old.
C. Because the wind was too strong. D. Because he wanted to get his hat back.

Reading Passage 3

At the age of thirteen, I began to keep a diary (日记) in English. At first it seemed difficult to me, but now it has become easy. I know it's not possible to learn English well without more practice (练习). I like reading, listening, and speaking. After school I often go to the school library to read English stories. My English teacher always helps me put some passages into English. I never have any time to watch TV. After I

finish writing my diary, I always try to correct mistakes with the help of the dictionary. I think that keeping a diary is one of the best ways to improve our English study.

##21. The writer began to write diaries _____.

A. when he was thirteen B. before he was 13 C. for 13 years D. when he was old

##22. _____ it was not easy for the writer to keep a diary in English.

A. At last B. At first C. Now D. Usually

##23. The writer says that it is _____ to learn English well without practice.

A. easy B. best C. possible D. impossible

##24. What does the writer say that he does NOT do?

A. Read English stories. B. Use a dictionary. C. Watch TV. D. Use the library.

##25. How does the writer correct some of the mistakes in his writing?

A. He uses a dictionary. B. He talks to his teacher. C. He goes to the library D. He reads English stories.

III. 完型填空——根据短文内容，从每题的四个选项选择一个正确答案，并将答案涂到答题纸上。

Jim is an American boy. __##26__ is twelve years old. He __##27__ a sister. __##28__ name is Joan. She is only ten. Jim is a middle school student. He __##29__ in a middle school. Jim's father is a doctor. He works in a hospital. He usually goes to work __##30__ car. He __##31__ home very early and comes back very late every day. He is very busy. Jim's mother is a teacher. She __##32__ in a middle school. It is not far from her home to school. So she usually goes to work by bike. Sometimes she goes there __##33__ foot. Jim's mother loves her work. She loves her students, __##33__. After class, she often plays games with her students and helps them with their homework. The students like her __##35__ and are always happy to see her.

##26. A. She B. He C. It D. You

##27. A. have B. had C. has D. is

##28. A. His B. Hers C. She's D. Her

##29. A. studies B. study C. studied D. studying

- ##30. A. for B. by C. of D. in
- ##31. A. gets B. comes C. leaves D. goes
- ##32. A. teach B. teaching C. is teaching D. teaches
- ##33. A. on B. for C. by D. with
- ##34. A. either B. very C. too D. even
- ##35. A. well B. very much C. much more D. too good

IV. 对话：根据所给场景及其内容，完成下列对话，并将答案涂到答题纸上。

Dialogue 1—At the doctor's

Doctor: Sit down, please. _ (##36) _ .	(##36) []	<p>A. How long has this been going on?</p> <p>B. Should I take some medicine?</p> <p>C. What seems to be the trouble?</p> <p>D. No, and I don't have a sore throat, either.</p> <p>E. Thank you for your advice, doctor.</p>
David: I don't feel good, and I've got a headache.	(##37) []	
Doctor: _ (##37) _	[]	
David: It started yesterday.		
Doctor: I see. Do you have a temperature?	(##38) []	
David: _ (##38) _	[]	
Doctor: It's nothing serious.		
David: _ (##39) _	(##39) []	
Doctor: No, just have a good rest. You have been working too hard, I think.		
David: _ (##40) _	(##40) []	

Dialogue 2--On the telephone

Secretary: (answers telephone) Good morning.	(##41)	
Betty: Good morning. ____ (##41)____	[]	
Secretary: Just a minute, please.		A. Oh, that's too bad.
Tom: Hello, Tom here!		B. What about next Friday?
Betty: Hi, Tom. Listen, I'm really sorry, but I can't come to dinner tonight. I have to work late.	(##42) []	C. May I speak to Tom?
Tom: ____ (##42)____		D. By the way, when are we going to play tennis again?
Betty: Yes, I really want to meet your parents.	(##43) []	E. Let's talk about it on Friday.
Tom: ____ (##43)____	(##44) []	
Betty: That's fine. ____ (##44)____	(##45) []	
Tom: I don't know. ____ (##45)____		
Betty: OK, I'll see you then. Bye.		
Tom: Bye.		

END OF TEST

TEST KEY:

Items

##01D

##02A

##03A

##04C

##05A

##06C

##07B

##08B

##09D

##10D

RCs

1. Tired BCBA
2. Mr Green DCBCD
3. Diary ABDCA

Cloze

• BCDABCDACB

Dialogues

1. Doctor CADBE
2. Phone CABDE

Appendix F Analytical Codebook

TSA	Expectation on learners' language attainments (general language and communicative language competences; language skills)	Knowledge/Declarative knowledge (savoir)	Knowledge of the world; Socio-cultural knowledge; Intercultural awareness; ...
		Skills and know-how (savoir-faire)	Practical skills and know-how; Intercultural skills and know-how; ...
		Ability to learn	Language and communication awareness General phonetic awareness and skills; Study skills; Heuristic skills; ...
		Linguistic competences	Lexical competence; Grammatical competence; Semantic competence; Phonological competence; Orthographic competence; Orthoepic competence; ...
		Sociolinguistic competences	Linguistic markers of social relations; Politeness conventions; Expressions of folk-wisdom; Register differences; Dialect and accent; ...
		Pragmatic competences	Discourse competence; Functional competence; Design competence; ...
		Strategic competences	Identifying cues/Inferring; Turn-taking (Repeated); Cooperating; Asking for clarification; Planning; Compensating; Monitoring and repair; ...
	Expectation on teachers' curriculum implementation	Curriculum implementation	Curriculum objectives; Content organization; Teaching mode; Teaching styles; Attitudes towards learners; Language learning environment; Language skills; ...
		Curriculum assessment	Formative: Portfolios; Projects; Participation in class; Presence; Summative: Paper-and-pencil tests; ...
	Expectation on institutions, resources and facilities	Educational institutions	Formal educational institutions; Informal educational institutions.
		Resources	Textbooks; Magazines; ...
		Facilities	Library; Language lab; Multimedia classrooms; TV; Tape recorders; Internet; MP3 and MP4; Mobile phone; ...

PSA	Learners' present learning needs	Knowledge/Declarative knowledge (savoir)	Knowledge of the world; Socio-cultural knowledge; Intercultural awareness; ...
		Skills and know-how (savoir-faire)	Practical skills and know-how; Intercultural skills and know-how; ...
		Ability to learn	Language and communication awareness; General phonetic awareness and skills; Study skills; Heuristic skills; ...
		Linguistic competences	Lexical competence; Grammatical competence; Semantic competence; Phonological competence; Orthographic competence; Orthoepic competence; ...
		Sociolinguistic competences	Linguistic markers of social relations; Politeness conventions; Expressions of folk-wisdom; Register differences; Dialect and accent; ...
		Pragmatic competences	Discourse competence; Functional competence; Design competence; ...
		Strategic competences	Identifying cues/Inferring; Turn-taking (Repeated); Cooperating; Asking for clarification; Planning; Compensating; Monitoring and repair; ...
	Teachers' curriculum implementation	Curriculum orientation	Curriculum objectives; Content organization; Teaching mode; Teaching styles Attitudes towards learners; Language learning environment; Language use activities: Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing; ...
		Curriculum assessment	Formative; Summative.
	Resources and facilities at institutions	Educational institutions	School environment.
		Resources	Textbooks; Magazines; ...
		Facilities	Library; Language lab; Multimedia classrooms; Prints; TVs; Tape recorders; Internet; MP3; Mobile phone; ...

Causes underlying the discrepancies	Affective factors	Existential competence (savior-être)	<p>Attitudes:</p> <p>Integrativeness (Integrative orientation; Interest in English; Attitudes towards English speakers);</p> <p>Attitudes towards the learning situation (English teacher evaluation; English course evaluation).</p> <p>Motivations:</p> <p>Motivation intensity;</p> <p>Desire to learn English;</p> <p>Attitudes towards learning English;</p> <p>Instrumental orientation;</p> <p>Language anxiety:</p> <p>English class anxiety;</p> <p>English use anxiety factors;</p> <p>...</p>
	Other factors	<p>Social factors</p> <p>Family factors</p> <p>Educational factors</p>	

Appendix G Transcription System

T	Teacher
L	Learner (not identified)
L1: L2: etc.,	Identified learner
LL	Several learners at once or the whole class
/ok/ok/ok/	Overlapping or simultaneous utterances by more than one learner
.../.....\...	Simultaneous speech
[]	Square brackets indicate the onset and end of a spate of overlapping talk
(do you understand?)/(I see)	Overlap between teacher and learner
=	Turn continues, or one turn follows another without any pause
...	Pause of one second or less marked by three periods
(4)	The number in brackets indicates the length of pause
(.)	A dot enclosed in a bracket indicates a brief pause
?	Rising or question intonation
CORrect	Emphatic speech: falling intonation
((4))	Unintelligible 4 seconds: a stretch of unintelligible speech with the length given in seconds
::	Lengthened phonemes (e.g., fla::g)
-	Incomplete or cut-off utterance or truncation (e.g., fla-the flag)
(())	A description enclosed in a double bracket indicates a non-verbal activity
hh	Audible exhalation (a sigh)
(*)	Unintelligible speech, with * equal to one syllable
i(s)	An informed guess of an unclear segment
(is)	An informed guess of an unclear word
(.....)	Untranscribable or missing words
-	Some words omitted
XXX	The presence of an unclear fragment on the tape
the	Unusual emphasis
THE	Higher volume than the preceding & following utterances
Paul, Peter, Mary	Capitals are only used for proper nouns
T organizes groups	Researcher's comments (in bold type)

Appendix H Primary Data in Chinese

PrimaryData001 in § 6.2.2.1.1

I think the best thing is for the school to make arrangement for students to go to the sort of their future workplace several times for practicum. For example, our school have connections with certain hotels, the sort of hotels which have long-term connection with our school. The school can make arrangement for students, even just once, for them to go and see their future working environment, which has relation with English use. Or the school can make arrangement for students to visit the sort of Western food restaurants, even just once, to gain an experience. The experience will do well to students. Otherwise, whatever and however we explain things to them in class do not make any sense to them. They can't build the connection (between what is learned at school and what is required at workplace). (我觉得最好的吧, 是他们能, 能到那个, 实习的时候吧, 学校能安排几次, 能到他那个厂, 工作。比如说什么什么宾馆跟咱们学校有那种联系, 长期往来那种, 提供实习生的, 能安排一次学生, 看一下那个工作的那个环境, 能和英语有关的, 或者是比如像那种西餐厅什么的, 嗯, 能提供一次, 就是体会一下, 其实那最好。要不然, 就是干说吧, 还怎么说也是, 也是不行。)

(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL166-170)

PrimaryData002 in §6.2.2.1.1

You've got to know each department, although you may not know each department well. In the case of eating and dining, you've got to know each department, each related department with eating and dining. It is not easy to have an understanding of all the other related departments at work. If you just learn eating and dining, without an understanding of lobby or sales, although they aren't closely related, I think you'll be confined solely to do service work all your life. You won't get the opportunity to be promoted across the career ladder. (因为你每个部门都学到了, 虽然说不一定每个部门学的都很精, 主要就是餐饮这一块, 但是你每个部门都学到的话, 对于你平时工作, 与其它部门相关的那些事情你都懂, 这样就挺不容易, 我觉得这个做的还不错。因为你干学餐饮这一块儿, 但是前厅或是销售你不学的话, 我想它也没有直接连带的关系, 你只能做一辈子的服务, 其它的你跳不出去。)(SV-GS-#04-F, LL110-114)

PrimaryData003 in §6.2.2.1.1

The luxury hotels really focus on rotation training. In my case, I worked at the bar, but I did a nine-month practice at the coffee bar. Take me as an example. I'm now working at the bar, if I just know about eating and dining, especially Chinese cuisine; I think it's far from enough, as you don't even know how to set the table for Western

cuisine. (而且星级酒店很重视就是交叉培训。如果你, 就像我在酒吧, 我曾经在咖啡厅实习了9个月, 嗯, 如果在酒吧一直学这样的就是餐饮, 中餐的这些东西, 我想应该是不够的, 因为西餐的摆台你都不知道。) (ibid., LL122-124)

PrimaryData004 in §6.2.2.1.1

They expect us to get a holistic understanding of the whole working system. They have an organization flowchart. For each department, we are required to go there to learn its main function, such as the function of the lobby, although we still focus on eating and dining since our specialty is hotel management. We are also required to learn housekeeping, but our main focus is still on eating and dining. Since all the departments are inter-related with each other, even though we work at the eating and dining department, we can understand the functions of other departments in the whole working system. (有一个总体的了解, 他们有一个组织机构图, 但是每一个部门呢, 我们都会去学习, 这个部门主要是做什么的, 前厅是做什么的, 我们但是主攻还是餐饮, 因为我们学的是酒店管理嘛, 以吃饭为主, 客房我们也有学, 只不过就是餐饮这面会加重一些, 学习的重点, 然后其它的部门呢, 都有一些连带的关系, 我们的餐饮部就可以知道其它部门的工作流程。) (SV-GS-#04-F, LL116-120)

PrimaryData005 in §6.2.2.1.1

My friends came to this vocational school. So I came here with them. (我朋友他们来我就跟着来了。) (SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, L118)

PrimaryData006 in §6.2.2.1.1

My family considered the specialty fine, so I came to the school. (家里说这个专业还可以, 就来学校报名了。) (SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, L85)

PrimaryData007 in §6.2.2.1.1

I don't know much of the workplace. ... It seems that the job market is in need of my specialty. (也不是太多吧。……现在市场好像是, 我估计急需那个, 人。) (SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, L157-159)

PrimaryData008 in §6.2.2.1.1

The majority of students in my class enjoy listening to English songs. Although our English is not good, we can learn English songs very quickly (我们班一般的都爱听英文歌曲, 虽然英语学得不好, 但是英文歌曲一听就会。) (SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL116-117)

PrimaryData009 in §6.2.2.1.1

Yeah, I especially like listening to English songs and seeing English films. (对, 我特

别喜欢听英文歌曲和看英文电影。)(SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, L54)

PrimaryData010 in §6.2.2.1.1

I usually like watching English films. I always see some English films. Although I can't always understand those films, I always like seeing the films in English. I think the English films are more vivid. (我平时喜欢看那个英文电影，就是总是看一些英文电影。也就是，虽然是有的时候听不懂吧，但是也是总是看，感觉原版的吗，比较是生动一些。)(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL51-51)

PrimaryData011 in §6.2.2.1.1

Students just don't know what use that English will perform in their future. (他就觉得说这个英语，这英语不知道干什么将来。)(SC-TI-#02-WJ, L142)

PrimaryData012 in §6.2.2.1.1

Most important of all, they don't think English will be useful in the future. It won't be of any use to them. (更主要，但还是觉得这个英语可能用不上将来，用不上。)(ibid., L186)

PrimaryData013 in §6.2.2.1.1

So many foreigners are coming to China. It's impossible for you to communicate with them in Chinese. At least, some of them can't speak English. (那老些外国人往中国来，你不可能汉语跟人家交流啊，他们毕竟有不会英语的。)(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL322-324)

PrimaryData014 in §6.2.2.1.1

If you want to work at a certain luxury hotel, then you should at least learn some other foreign languages, because at present in the hotel, there are not only English and American guests but also Koreans, Japanese and Germans. ...Acquiring other foreign languages can be of greater help to us in our work. Many employees in our hotel are now learning some Asian languages in their spare time. (如果是你以后你想要在星级酒店做，那你必须自己就要加强就是各方面的其它的语种，因为现在，因为酒店里面不光是外国，英文，英国人、美国人，它还有很多韩国人，像日本人，德国人啊，……就是会对我们以后会有更大的帮助吧，因为现在在我们酒店也有很多自己在私下在学一些小语种，嗯。)(SV-GS-#03-F, LL141-153)

PrimaryData015 in §6.2.2.1.1

In today's society, you should master a foreign language or even several more foreign languages. I think, the most important thing now is not just to learn English well but also to be able to use it. It doesn't make any sense if you just learn it without

being able to make use of the language. Moreover, you should learn a few more foreign languages in relation to your future workplace needs. (你现在这个社会, 你必须得掌握一门语言, 甚至是多门语言。我就是, 觉得现在, 就是最重要把英语, 给它, 不光是学好, 完得是会应用, 你学会了不会应用也不行。会应用, 然后是, 针对你工作以后的需要, 再多学些几门外语。)(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL208-212)

PrimaryData016 in §6.2.2.1.1

Yeah, I want to learn Japanese, Japanese and other Asian languages. (对, 我想学日语啥的, 日语呀, 其它的语言啥的, 小语种那些。)(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, L318)

PrimaryData017 in §6.2.2.1.1

I think vocational schools should teach more foreign languages, such as Asian languages and German. Now, I think knowledge of other foreign languages is pretty important. (我觉得这种职业学校应该加强一些, 多加一些比方说是什么小语种啊, 或者是德语啊, 我觉得现在就是挺重要的。)(SV-GS-#03-F, LL124-126)

PrimaryData018 in §6.2.2.1.1

It will be much better if schools can provide some other Asian language courses. It will be far much better. ... But to students, they can learn English first and then learn other foreign languages in their special interest class. If students, for example like myself, want to be promoted to a certain position in the hotel, I think they can take the special interest class, for example the Korean class ... (所以说我觉得, 在学校里面如果开些一些小语种的话会更好, 更好一些, 嗯。……但是, 如果说专是对就是学生来讲, 就是先开英语可以, 就是它课也就是一种像特长班也可以, 就是学生我觉得我自己以后我想要一个在酒店里面想要达到一个, 一个位置的话, 我觉得她就是可以报一下, 报一下我想学个韩语班, ……)(SV-GS-#03-F, LL143-149)

PrimaryData019 in §6.2.2.1.1

I think the school should provide some Asian language courses, yeah, if students would like to learn. I think there's no need to force them to learn. If they want to learn, they can just take the language class. We can provide such classes as Korean or German. This is just my suggestion, yeah. (我觉得应该开一些小语种, 嗯。然后, 如果她, 学生如果自己愿意去学, 我觉得没有必要去勉强她, 她如果想要去学, 那就报一个班儿, 我们可以开设一个韩语班啊什么的、德语班啊这样的, 这就是我的一个建议, 嗯。)(ibid., LL184-186)

PrimaryData020 in §6.2.2.1.1

The most important thing is the operational skills as well as your technical skill, which are both important. (重要的, 那就是真正的动手能力了, 这个, 对。还有你那

个技能的掌握情况，嗯，这个都挺重要的，嗯。)(MA-GS-#02-M, LL146-148)

PrimaryData021 in §6.2.2.1.1

For example, if we learn things now, I think the most important thing should be eating and dining. Even if we major in hotel management, eating and dining should also be dealt with. Other things, such as social skills, should also be concerned as well. (例如是我们现在如果学的话，我觉得最主要的，主攻的就应该是餐饮这块儿的，如果要是学习酒店管理的话，餐饮这块的英语也要主攻一下。其它的一些例如社交的一些东西，稍微扫一下就可以。)(SV-GS-#04-F, LL26-28)

PrimaryData022 in §6.2.2.1.1

I think social skills are very important. It seems that communication is really important. Whether you can adapt yourself to the environment around you or not depends on your social skills. (我认为交际能力比较重要吧，因为好像交际对于来说其实是挺重要的，而且就是你适不适应，能不能适应周围这个生活圈子啊，就是与你这个人的交际能力啊一些什么都挺有关系的，嗯。)(MA-GS-#02-M, LL140-142)

PrimaryData023 in §6.2.2.1.1

For example, in the workplace, I can see many newly graduate students, who don't have adequate vocational skills. It is quite likely that they have learned some theoretical knowledge, but in the workplace they lack practical vocational skills, such as how to hold a tray, how to pour wine to customers, to what extent should the wine be served, and knowledge of various kinds of wine. They appear to know nothing, you know, they especially lack practical vocational skills. When they hold things, they either break them or appear to be unprofessionally trained. (你像现在在我工作当中，有很多就是他们刚，就是没有接触过，可能在学校的时候学习过一些理论方面，但是实际操作的时候他们就发现特别生，就是这个怎么端这个托盘啊，怎么去给客人去倒酒啊，应该倒个8分满啊，几分满啊，还有各种酒的一些酒类啊，他们都不太懂，就是特别发生。然后端东西的时候，不是打了，就是，一看就是不是那种特别专业。)(SV-GS-#03-F, LL50-54)

PrimaryData024 in §6.2.2.1.1

The problem with our students is that although we teachers have spent a lot of time in training them, we give them a lot of vocational training. But when they really meet foreigners, they still can't speak out. There exists a problem. (但是我们的学生就有一个什么呢，虽然我们老师花了很多的精力给他培训，给他能以职业情境，给他做了很多的这个训练，但是真的一到外国人面对他的时候，他还是说不出来，就会有这样的一个问题存在。)(IP-#02-F, LL182-184)

PrimaryData025 in §6.2.2.1.2

I think for us Chinese to learn English it seems that more vocabulary would be better. (我认为咱们中国人学英语好像就是，还是就是词汇量多一点儿好。)
(MA-GS-#02-M, LL85-87)

PrimaryData026 in §6.2.2.1.2

I think we should remember more words so that our reading comprehension skills can be improved. (我感觉就是多背单词，能一就阅读，能提高阅读水平。)
(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, L45)

PrimaryData027 in §6.2.2.1.2

I basically have no vocabulary. ... I only know a few (fixed expressions). (基本上没有。……稍微会几个吧。)(SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, LL104-108)

PrimaryData028 in §6.2.2.1.2

When English is concerned, I know no more than 100 words, just a couple of tens, which I know their meaning, and am able to speak. (英语啊，也不能超过100个，几十个吧也就，就是能懂得什么意思，还会说的。)(SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, L176)

PrimaryData029 in §6.2.2.1.2

My vocabulary isn't large. It's about 1,000, around 1,000 words. (词汇量——也不多，也就一千来个，一千左右吧。)(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, L98)

PrimaryData030 in §6.2.2.1.2

As to my English vocabulary, how to say, I myself feel that my English isn't good, because my vocabulary is fairly limited. Sometime when I see a word, the word looks familiar to me, but I don't know how to say it in English. Sometimes when I read a text, I can read the whole text. But if asked to translate the text into Chinese, I don't know what the sentences in the text mean. My vocabulary is terribly limited. (然后怎么说呢，我们同学吧，我就属于词汇量，英语怎么说呢，我自己都觉得英语不是特别好，因为词汇量特少，就有的时候单词，知道这个单词，但是不知道怎么说，有的时候一讲讲课文，拿起来，我全都给读下来了，但是让我翻译，我不知道是什么意思，就是词汇量掌握的特少。)(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL102-106)

PrimaryData031 in §6.2.2.1.2

Foreigners speak English so fast that you can't understand what they're talking about at all. And sometimes, even if you can say a little English, but because of your limited vocabulary, you can hardly answer the foreigners' questions. (就是外国人说

话太快了，你根本听不懂他在说什么，而且有的时候属于你现在会几句英语，怎么说，由于词汇量问题吧，基本能答不上来什么。)(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL124-125)

PrimaryData032 in §6.2.2.1.2

For language use in the future, grammar is more important than those isolated individual words. (语法以后说话，净用语法，不用单词也。)(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL122-123)

PrimaryData033 in §6.2.2.1.2

You should know more words and grammar. Those things can't be remembered just once for all, you should learn them again and again, and read them time and again to consolidate your learning. (就是什么语法和单词还是需要懂些，那些东西吧，它不是说这次背完了，以后肯定就记住，这得反复地去看，反复地去念，完事能，才能更好地巩固吧。)(SC-SI-#24-WSQ-TSM-F, LL96-97)

PrimaryData034 in §6.2.2.1.2

The problem is that there are a lot of problems with grammar. (问题就是((makes a noise with his mouth))语法，在语法里头，存在很多问题。)(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, L113)

PrimaryData035 in §6.2.2.1.2

I have no difficulty in memorizing vocabulary, but my grammar is still poor. (背单词不费劲，就是就是语法什么的还差点。)(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, L71)

PrimaryData036 in §6.2.2.1.2

Unlike Chinese which is our native language, English is sometimes very complicated. You know, the various sorts of grammar are really difficult to understand. (因为英语不像是汉语是母语嘛，所以有的时候就比较复杂，就是各种语法会比较难懂。)(SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, LL48-50)

PrimaryData037 in §6.2.2.1.2

Sometimes I've no self-confidence because I don't know much about grammar. Now I'm quite worried. I can't read those grammar books, the books that I bought at junior secondary school. I can't understand those books at all. It was the sort of things like that. (就是有时候就没有自信，就是那个语法什么的都不懂，现在，然后挺着急的。……然后就是家里那个初中时候订的那个书，语法书，都，看都看不进去，就那种。)(SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F, LL85-89)

PrimaryData038 in §6.2.2.1.2

I still have problems with English grammar, problems with some grammatical phenomena. Anyway, I have difficulty in doing exercises. Sometimes when you want to make a sentence, how to say, the sort of pattern drill exercises. You know the meaning in Chinese, but it's still difficult to write down the sentences in English. There's still another type of sentence transformation exercise. That type of exercise is relatively easier. Once you are required to translate Chinese into English, it's not easy. Sometimes I can't understand the grammar. ... Now I spend more time mainly reading the sort of things like tenses. (看那个英语语法有问题, 有的语法有点儿问题。反正怎么地, 做题吧费点儿劲就是。有的时候你想个句子, 嗯—怎么说呢, 就它有那个题型, 这一旦汉语出来了, 让你写这个句子就不好写了, 还有那个就是给你一些词形让你给它改成什么句子, 那样的就好做了, 一旦就是用汉语给它改成, 用汉语让你写英语的时候, 不好写了就, 有时候就整不明白那语法了。……然后现在就是主要就是, 多看看时态什么的这些东西。)(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL116-125)

PrimaryData039 in §6.2.2.1.2

Students like us should not only memorize, memorize sentences, but also ... need to know what they really mean. So, I need to know more words, you know. I need to know how to combine the words into sentences, you know. What's the use of knowing many words without knowing how to make sentences with them? You should know how to turn them into sentences. (我就是, 像我们这种, 我觉得得, 嗯, 背呀, 背两句, 了解它们那个……也得知道他们那些就是, 那叫啥来的? ((pauses and smiles))对, 我得认识两个单词, 你知道不? 你说, 也得知道这几个单词怎么组成句子呀, = ……你说, 你知道那老些单词不会做句子有啥用啊, 你得知道怎么把它们变成句子。)(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL337-341)

PrimaryData040 in §6.2.2.1.2

But my requirement is that they should not only be able to learn things by heart, but can also make use of what they've learned. They need to know the meaning and why it is used that way. Maybe I'm a bit more demanding. (但是我的要求是, 希望他们不仅能背下来, 而且是都能会, 知道是什么意思, 为什么这么说, 可能要求多一点。)(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL53-54)

PrimaryData041 in §6.2.2.1.2

We learned grammar in junior secondary school. But still there are some grammatical aspects that I can't remember. When we do the exercises, and sometimes when the teacher explains, we can't fully comprehend the grammar. And when in use, we can't put the language knowledge into meaningful language use. (上初中就讲语法了, 就有些地方, 就是, 老师讲了, 但是有的还是记不住, 然后, 平

时那个，做题，有时候老师讲，讲是讲，就是有时候那个，不能完全理解，然后，应用的时候就应用不上。) (SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL22-24)

PrimaryData042 in §6.2.2.1.2

The teacher we had in junior secondary school, our English teacher. When we learned Oxford English, the teacher only asked us to recite, to rote learning those consonants and the things like that. I can't remember anything now. We never learned to use those things. I've just started to use those things. After her explanation of the text, the teacher would teach us how to read, and then gave us a test to see how well we could recite. She didn't teach us how to use those things, and we never learned to use them. She just talked, talked about those things in one class until finally all of us could recite. Although we could all recite the things in the end, we don't know how to make those rote-learning things into meaningful use, that is, how to put them into meaningful use. (就像老师，咱老师那前儿，初中应该是讲英语那个牛津吧，讲那前儿光叫咱们背，背那些生母啊就那些，就那些东西，我现在都不咋记得了，不用了，现在刚会用那些东西。然后就讲，讲完教咱怎么读了，然后再考一遍怎么背了，她没教怎么用，然后都不用。她就那一堂课专门突突那些东西，然后，到最后全都全是背是背下来了，都不知道怎么用，那怎么去用啊。) (SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL226-231)

PrimaryData043 in §6.2.2.1.2

If you want to learn English well, you need to know phonetic symbols. (学英语得会，会那个音标。) (SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, L111)

PrimaryData044 in §6.2.2.1.2

The phonetic symbols, the phonetic symbols are very important. I think if you know the phonetic symbols, then it's easier to remember words. If words can be easily remembered, then it can be extended to sentences. (音标，音标很重要((laughs)), 我觉得音标你要会了，单词就好记了。单词好记，就能发展到整个句子什么的应用。) (SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL233-234)

PrimaryData045 in §6.2.2.1.2

In the past, I just followed the teacher to read the words and expressions. When reciting the text, I just memorized the text word by word, the way quite different from foreigners who speak consistently with liaison. I expect to learn after our English teacher, to read the words with liaison. ... Yes, I wish I could speak with liaison and reduction like the way foreigners speak. It's OK if I can just sound like foreigners. (我就是跟着老师，读单词，读一些句子短语。就是老师，像我原来都是一个单词一个单词的背，完全是没有什么像外国人那样连带性地说话，我就跟着老师学呗。两个单

词，像什么，反正就是，跟着老师学，能那个……对，能连上，就感觉能跟外国人一样，大致就行。) (SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL81-86)

PrimaryData046 in §6.2.2.1.2

For vocabulary learning, the most important thing is to know the phonetic symbols. Once you know the phonetic symbols, it is easier to remember words. Usually if you know the phonetics, you can remember the words more quickly. It's especially much faster. It's almost the case that once you know the phonetic symbols, you can pronounce the words. It's quite likely that some letters are always represented in the same phonetic symbols. You can just think about how the word is pronounced, and then you'll know how it can be written. There might be some words that you may not encounter them before, but sometimes once you heard the word is pronounced, you know at once its written form. In that way, you get familiar with the phonetic symbols. (这个，这个单词呢，主要就是音标，你只要音标抓住窍门了，你音标全学明白了，单词也就好背了。一般会音标的背单词都快，都是特别地快，几乎你看完音标，音标，你总用那个音标，你总读它，大概那个单词，你假如就一个音标，有的就发那个音，那个音就是那两个字母，你一想那个单词怎么读，你就知道怎么写了，有的单词你都不认识，但是有的时候你一读完你就知道这个单词应该怎么写，那样音标就用习惯了。) (SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL65-69)

PrimaryData047 in §6.2.2.1.2

But I think there are quite a few of students who may not know phonetic symbols. For me, I still can't recognize all the phonemes now. (但是我相信有些人可能音标都不太会，就像我现在有几个音标都认不全。) (SV-GS-#04-F, LL162-163)

PrimaryData048 in §6.2.2.1.2

When I went to junior secondary school, I started going to some tutoring classes to learn phonetic symbols. After that, I got to know some phonetic symbols. Since I didn't spend much time on English, I could only know some simple phonetic symbols, words and sentences. Even till now, my knowledge of English is still at this sort of level. (完上初中，开学就补课，补音标，完才会点音标，完，但也不怎么学，就会点简单的句子，还会点单词，会点音标，到现在也这样((smiles))。) (SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F, LL15-16)

PrimaryData049 in §6.2.2.1.2

We can't understand what foreigners are saying to us because they speak very fast with the sort of pronunciation and liaison. We don't know anything about those things. Actually, we know the sentence, but when a foreigner speaks, we get puzzled and can't make sense of it. (人家说的听不懂啊，说的特别快什么的，或者是

发音什么地方，连读什么的，然后咱们根本都不知道怎么回事。其实这个句子——明明懂，然后她一说，懵了，根本都不知道怎么回事。)(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL132-134)

PrimaryData050 in §6.2.2.1.2

Well, to tell the truth, in the luxury hotels the opportunity of writing is pretty rare. In the workplace, no guest will ask you to help him write an English word. The chances of writing a word are pretty rare, although writing should be learned at school. ...

Usually we don't write. ... We don't need to write words at all. (对，因为说实话在星级酒店写的很少，你在工作的时候没有客人会让你帮我写一个英文单词，这样的机会率很少，虽然一定要学，我们一般情况下都不会用这个写。……根本就不会写这个单词。)(SV-GS-#04-F, LL73-80)

PrimaryData051 in §6.2.2.1.2

Each time when we finished learning a unit, the teacher would give us a dictation. If we made a mistake, the teacher would then ask us to write the correct forms of the words or expressions ten times. We were then given another dictation, and then repeated the writing and copying actions another ten times. The action would continue repetitively. (就是每次老师，一个单元结束以后，都会就是，让我们去听写，如果错了的话，就是让我们写十遍，然后十遍，然后再继续在上面再去重写，就再重新听写那种。)(IT-GS-#06-F, LL128-131)

PrimaryData052 in §6.2.2.1.2

What the teacher requires us to do isn't that kind of questions that you need to answer by yourself. It's the sort of things like copying words and texts. (那老师讲的也不是那种自己回答，都是比如说写单词什么的，抄课文之类的。)

(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, LL182-183)

PrimaryData053 in §6.2.2.1.2

I simply ask them to copy the text, and the words and expressions, and yet they still dislike doing these things. (我就简单抄抄课文，抄抄单词，他们还嫌烦呢。)

(SB-TI-#01-LXY, L644)

PrimaryData054 in §6.2.2.1.2

Shouldn't your pronunciation be correct? (发音得发，不得准吗?)

(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, L132)

PrimaryData055 in §6.2.2.1.2

Usually the way we learn English is to read more. It would be quite nice if we can do more reading practice of words, phonological symbols, and things like that. (平常学

英语，就是多读，勤读单词、还有音标之类的，就不错了。)(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL73-75)

PrimaryData056 In §6.2.2.1.2

Anyway, I wish I could do more reading aloud practice. (反正，就是多读吧。)
(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, L45)

PrimaryData057 In §6.2.2.1.2

Now I think that reading aloud is important whether my orthoepic competence is good or bad. Even though I may make mistakes, it doesn't matter. In junior secondary school, even if I know how to read, I dare not to read aloud. If I still behave the way as I did in junior secondary school, then I'll never be able to learn English well. (现在感觉就是，不管好不好都大声读出来。嗯，说错了也没啥事，就是像初中那种，那样式的。明明会也不敢读的那种，我感觉学—永远都学不会那种。)
(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL75-78)

PrimaryData058 in §6.2.2.1.2

When back at home, I will read aloud. The teacher says that reading aloud is good for our oral English improvement, so I do reading aloud, recitation and writing. (在家，大声读。老师说大声读对提高口语有好处，然后就读、背、写。)
(SA-SI-#11-WS-HSM-F, L81)

PrimaryData059 in §6.2.2.1.2

Although we have given them a lot training, when they are face in face with foreigners they still are not able to communicate with them. There exists such a problem. (给他做了很多的这个训练，但是真的一到外国人面对他的时候，他还是说不出来，就会有这样一个问题存在。)(IP-#02-F, LL183-184)

PrimaryData060 in §6.2.2.1.2

Because in the luxury hotels, our guests are from various places of the world. Of course it'd be much better if they are all Americans or Englishmen ((smiles)). ... Right. If we have a Korean guest and when he asks for coffee, it'd be really bad if we can't understand him ((smiles)). So it's really a contradictory issue. No matter how well you've learned English at school, when the guests are hungry, for example, our Irish guests, who have very strong accents, we can't understand many of the words they say. ... We generally don't have many problems in our daily communication in English. After being in the workplace for a period of time, we could understand what a customer tried to communicate with us. But still sometimes there might be some misunderstandings. ... It's mainly due to the guest's accent.

(因为在星级酒店嘛，客人不一样，有的是，要是，当然是美国人和英国人就能好一点。……对，如果你遇到韩国人的话，他说咖啡的时候，你真的听不懂，所以这个就是很矛盾的一件事。虽然你英文学的再好，当他们一饿就是，包括我们接触的阿尔兰客人，他们阿尔兰的口音特别重，说好多单词你都听不懂的。……就是我们英语一般沟通上嘛，应该没什么困难，但是因为时间长了，听他说你也应该懂，但是有的时候你还是发现一些小的误区。……还是就是他发音的问题。)(SV-GS-#04-F, LL29-40)

PrimaryData061 in §6.2.2.1.2

Self-practice doesn't work. There are still some discrepancies between us and foreigners. We still can't distinguish what they are talking about when they speak. (光自己读不行，自己读还是和那个人家语音有差距，就是到时候你一听吧，你听不出来这是什么东西。)(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M LL161-162)

PrimaryData062 in §6.2.2.1.2

Once in face-to-face communication with the foreign teacher, I couldn't understand him. I couldn't understand what the foreign teacher was talking about. (一换上外教，听不懂。就是跟外国的老师英语什么的，我什么也听不懂。)(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL132-133)

PrimaryData063 in §6.2.2.1.2

But there still exists a problem for our students. Although our teachers have spent a lot of time and effort in giving them English training, in vocational context, when they really face foreigners, they still can't talk. There still exist such problems. (但是我们的学生就有一个什么呢，虽然我们老师花了很多的精力给他培训，给他能以职业情境，给他做了很多的这个训练，但是真的一到外国人面对他的时候，他还是说不出来，就会有这样的一个问题存在。)(IP-#02-F, LL182-184)

PrimaryData064 in §6.2.2.1.2

I think now the most important thing is to learn English well. It is not just to learn it well, you should also be able to use it. It won't be of any use if you just learn it without being able to use it. (我就是，觉得现在，就是最重要把英语，给它，不光是学好，完得是会应用，你学会了不会应用也不行。)(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL209-210)

PrimaryData065 in §6.2.2.1.2

Still you need to use English more. What's the use of it if you can't put the language learned into actual use even though you've learned a lot? (还是，你得多说，你说你学那老些你也不说，留着有啥用啊。)(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL341-342)

PrimaryData066 in §6.2.2.1.2

You should be able to comprehend and to use the language. You need to let others understand what you're trying to say. If you just copy, know how to change the tenses and things like that, it's true that you know how to change these things. The key point is that you don't understand what others are talking about. What on earth is the use of the language you've learned? (你得能听懂，你得会说，你得让人家也能听懂你说的是什么。你光就是，照搬的那么，学什么又是时态，这那地，是懂了，啊怎么怎么地，变什么，会了。那关键人家说啥，你听不懂，你说什么人家听不懂，这不是白学嘛。) (SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL217-219)

PrimaryData067 in §6.2.2.1.2

Actually in students' future workplace, they don't need to do the sort of things, such as doing exercises, those grammatical sort of things. What is really required is the use of subject and predicate to form sentences, without making quite obvious mistakes. For example, like the practice they have now, when they talk with foreigners, even though they make mistakes, the foreigners can still understand them. With time passing, they can generally communicate in English. (其实职业他们将来就是就业，也不用去，再去涉及到一些答题、语法的一些，基本上主谓造句什么的，不是太明显错误吧，我觉得现在，虽然我带他们，我觉得跟老外对话的时候就是错一点，他也能够听得懂，然后时间长了，基本也就行了。) (SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL83-87)

PrimaryData068 in §6.2.2.1.2

The other problem is that students can learn the dialogue by heart very fluently and can role play the dialogue pretty well in the simulated situation. But when they really in communication with foreigners, they can't put the language into effective use. (还有一个就是说我在课堂上对话可以说是背的滚瓜烂熟或者哪怕是模拟一个情境给他做role play，做得都非常好，为什么一看到外国人就说不出来?) (IP-#02-F, LL186-188)

PrimaryData069 in §6.2.2.2

I think listening and speaking should be more important. To these senior secondary vocational students, it depends more on their future vocational needs, the needs of the vocational sectors, such as hotels, tourism. These vocational sectors have more interaction with foreigners. It is quite likely that these sectors have higher demands on students' listening and speaking skills, that is, students should be more skillful at these skills. (可能比较多的话还是在听说方面，因为对职高学生来讲的话，像行业的需求就像刚才我提到的，宾馆啊，旅游啊，这些话就是与人打交道比较多的行业，那么可能就是说对学生的听和说方面的要求是比较高的，要求是能够熟练地来运用。)

(IP-#01-F, LL97-99)

PrimaryData070 in §6.2.2.2

I think that listening and speaking are more important. ... A majority of students will work in hotel and restaurant service sectors. When serving customers, students simply need to understand what their customers are saying and conduct simple communication, which, I think, will be quite sufficient. (我认为还是听说能力挺重要的，……大多数学生都是从事这个餐厅和客房服务的比较多一些，他们只是说在和别人沟通的时候呢，能听懂对方说什么，然后进行简单的交流，我觉得这样就够了。)

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ-07-F, LL238-242)

PrimaryData071 in §6.2.2.2

I think listening and speaking are the most important skills. To the air service specialty students, listening and speaking are definitely the most important. You need to be able to comprehend, but it won't be of any use if you can't speak in English. You should communicate with people. What's the use of language? Isn't it used for the sake of communication? (我觉得听和说最重要。主要是说，他们这专业不就是那个，对他们来说肯定是听和说最重要的。你会听，有的空乘学生能听懂，但是你不会说也没有用啊，应该跟人家交流吧。语言干什么的？不就是用来交流的么。)

(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL471-473)

PrimaryData072 in §6.2.2.2

First of all, you need to be able to comprehend. Listening should take at least 60%. This is the most important skill. Because if you can't understand, you don't know what or how to serve customers. Second, you need to be able to speak. Speaking is definitely a more important part of skills. ... Listening and speaking are especially important in luxury hotels. If you can communicate well with customers, or communicate quite appropriately with guests, and if customers can really understand you and are willing to communicate with you, then in the process of your daily communication, you can have a better understanding of each other.

Sometimes customers would like to share with you some of their life stories. After hearing his stories, then you feel that you've become friends. Listening and speaking skills are very helpful for job promotion. Well, if your English isn't good enough, I believe no luxury hotel managers would like to choose a poor English speaker. (首先听，听应该最少得占个60%，这个是最主要的，因为你听不懂你不知道要给客人拿些什么或怎么做；第二个就是读，要会说，会说当然也是很大的一部分。……尤其像在星级酒店，你如果跟客人聊得很，很，就是很恰到好处，客人也很理解你，很帮助你，而且平时你们在聊天过程当中，会有一些就是，互相会了解一些，

互相的就是，事情啊，或者是有人喜欢和你说一些他的小秘密，你听完之后你就觉得，唉你们俩就是朋友了((smiles))。而且在升职的这一块儿，也有很大的帮助的，对。因为你英文不太好的话，我相信任何一家酒店要是老总的话，都不会选择一个英文不好的。) (SV-GS-#04-F, LL75-86)

PrimaryData073 in §6.2.2.2

Among the four skills, I think speaking is the most important. Take me as an example, it's quite likely that my English proficiency, or my ability to take the test, isn't better than students at school. But my spoken English is much better than them because I often use English at work. It's quite likely that my grammatical competence in taking the exam is not as good as those students, but my spoken English is good as I use English every day. I think at present school education should focus more on spoken English. Speaking skills should be more stressed. (听说读写我觉得最重要的还是读方面，像现在比方说我现在，可能我的英语水平，可能笔答，我可能还也许没有这个，没有学生的，就是我们正常考试我可能没有他强，但是口语方面可能，捎带的就是能比他口语能，因为经常说嘛。你在工作中经常说，但是可能，语法上的如果是兼考试的话，可能会没有人家强，但是一说的这方面，基本天天都在说，就是觉得这个，主要应该现在抓的就是这个口语方面，应该是多说。) (SV-GS-#03-F, LL128-132)

PrimaryData074 in §6.2.2.2

Relatively speaking, I think I will take reading and speaking as secondary consideration. (读写吧我想，我相对来说就是会次要考虑。) (MA-GS-#01-F, L144)

PrimaryData075 in §6.2.2.2

To tell you the truth, in the luxury hotels, the chances of using writing are quite rare. When at work, no guest will ask us to help write a word. Such chances are pretty narrow. ... Among the four skills, writing only takes a few percent or just more than 0%. Usually we are not required to write. (因为说实话在星级酒店写的很少，你在工作的时候没有客人会让你帮我写一个英文单词，这样的机会率很少。……写，写基本上占个百分之，百分之零点零几吧，我们一般情况下都不会用这个写。) (SV-GS-#04-F, LL73-77)

PrimaryData076 in §6.2.2.2

With regard to reading and writing, I should say that the enterprise doesn't have high demands on these skills. Speaking of reading, it's quite likely that our vocational students can't reach the standard required by the workplace. So relatively speaking, the requirement for reading and writing is not very high. (那么对于读写方面的话呢，应该说，这方面企业好像没有提出比较高的要求，因为一旦牵扯

到阅读这些方面的话，可能我们中职学生还达不到，那个水准，所以相对来说可能读写方面的要求不是特别高。) (HZ-IP-#01-F, LL99-102)

PrimaryData077 in §6.2.2.2

In terms of reading and writing, the specialties in our school are mostly related with hotel service. It's quite likely that student might work at the front desk in the future. All they are required to do is to be able to read what others have written. Seldom will they be required to write some simple sentences. (读和写，像比如我们学校饭店专业比较多一些，他们可能就是在前台，这样的学生可能将来用的，别人写的东西他能看懂，或者他要写一些简单的单子，这个比较少。) (SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL238-240)

PrimaryData078 in §6.2.2.2

I think the importance of skills varies from specialty to specialty. It depends on students' future job requirements. Generally speaking, service-sector-oriented specialties may have higher requirements for listening and speaking skills whereas for manufacturing-sector-oriented specialties students rarely have any opportunity to use English. (我觉得可能还是不同的专业它可能要求还是比较大，我觉得这点可能还是要，看他的职业岗位群对这个专业学生的要求，一般来讲比如说，像服务类的话，它可能对学生的听说能力要求就比较高，那么有一些理工科的，特别是有一些专业，他可能就说根本都用不上。) (IP-#02-F, LL77-80)

PrimaryData079 in §6.2.2.2

I think listening is more important to us. I've realized these days that listening is especially important although the teacher has trained us on this aspect. ... I think listening is fairly important and we should do more listening practice. (我觉得听，因为咱们吧，我觉得，最近有这种感悟，其实学挺多了，什么句型什么的，但是老师也领着，也练听力，其实我觉得听力特重要。……就是觉得听力挺重要，应该多听听。) (SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL132-136)

PrimaryData080 in §6.2.2.2

I think listening is more useful, but I'm very poor at listening. (应该听有用，但是我还最不擅长听((smiles))。) (SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, L51)

PrimaryData081 in §6.2.2.2

I think speaking is more important. For example, if you study well or if you have an opportunity to go abroad, and if you can understand what people are talking to you and communicate with people in English, then it would be really nice. Anyway, speaking is fairly important as you can communicate with people. (应该是说吧。……因为我感觉就是，如果说你的学习成绩够好或者说你发展好了，到外国，然后你能听

懂人家在说什么。然后你也可以和人家用英语交流，我感觉，反正说挺重要的，可以和人谈话。)(SA-SI-#11-WS-HSM-F, LL59-62)

PrimaryData082 in §6.2.2.2

Because companies now need people to be able to speak English. Spoken English and things like communicating with foreigners. ... So speaking is more important. (因为现在公司都需要这种英语呀，口语呀和什么，和外国人打交道都需要。……还是说比较重要。)(SA-SI-#01-SBR-BE-F, LL34-37)

PrimaryData083 in §6.2.2.2

But the main teaching method that our English teacher adopted was explaining the text. For example, she might start with explaining a very short text about food or about asking directions. Following that, it was the dictation of the new words. We were then asked to read and write repetitively. Finally, the teacher would explain the exercises in the textbook, which were mainly multiple choice and fill-in the blank exercises. ... We were mainly taught in such a way. (但是我们的英语，是英语老师讲课的主要方式是，来了之后先讲一篇课文，一篇很短很短的短文，短文的内容是现在的食物了，还有就是问一下这个道路应该怎么走啊，问一下路，然后再听写几个就是新词汇，反复的去写，反复的去读，嗯，最后再讲讲课后的习题，但是课后的习题它的题型可能主要就是选择题和填空题，……嗯，主要就是这样的方式。)(IT-GS-#05-F, LL36-41)

PrimaryData084 in §6.2.3.1.1

I think knowledge of the workplace is definitely helpful. In particular, that's why I teach with more at ease, just like the sort of fish in the water. Regarding the hotel related specialty, I myself have done a lot of situated experiential learning, and I know those things inside and out. I've acquired the tour guide certificate, and have worked as a tour guide. So when I teach, what I teach sounds very convincing to the students, yeah. (我觉得肯定有帮助，尤其吧，就为啥呢，其实我上课就是比较如鱼得水一点呢，这个饭店的专业我就亲身经历过，我亲自干过好多东西，我就是脑子里有数，然后我还考过导游证，我也带过团，所以我就跟他们，就我一说什么，他们就比较有说服力，嗯。)(SC-TI-#03-DF, LL303-305)

PrimaryData085 in §6.2.3.1.1

There are about twenty of us, who took part in the training, and only about ten obtained the certificate. ... I just couldn't understand the specialty knowledge taught. (我们好像是有20多人培训吧，有10个左右就是人家，就是出师了。……实在是听不懂。)(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL321-323)

PrimaryData086 in §6.2.3.1.1

There are some disconnections between school and work. For example, many of our teachers graduate from English education major. The knowledge we learned at the university was mostly concerned with teaching methodology, educational psychology and so on. As English teachers, we know little about those vocational specialties. Only when we started teaching, did we begin to read specialty-related books. In our English teaching, it's quite likely that we encounter certain specialty-related knowledge, and our knowledge is fairly inadequate when vocational knowledge is concerned. The chances for us to go outside the school and to go to the workplace for vocational practice are pretty rare. We are completely at a loss concerning what kind of workers the industry requires, what English language competences workers need to possess, and on what aspects of language competences they need to improve. (不衔接的地方, 比如说, 像我们很多老师都是, 嗯英语教育专业毕业的, 我们学的可能大多数都是教学法啊、心理学这方面的, 我们老师对专业课本身就不是非常了解, 但是我们在工作之后呢, 我们利用课余时间, 自己去看一些这样的专业书, 或者是有问题的时候要去向专业老师请教的。所以在教学中嘛, 因为我们职业学校很多都是专业性很强的一些专业, 因为我们英语教学呢也是, 就是有一些专业性强的东西, 我们老师在这方面就有一些欠缺。而且我们到外边去, 到企业去看的机会、去实习的机会也比较少, 所以对现在企业需要什么样的人, 就是在英语方面他需要哪些能力, 需要哪些面上的提高, 这我们都还是有些迷茫的东西。)

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL204-211)

PrimaryData087 in §6.2.3.1.1

After all, our job is to serve students, and students will in turn serve industries and society. Since we don't know industries, our teaching can't be workplace-oriented. But if we know the workplace requirements, we can then teach them words and sentences related to their workplace needs. Actually, how much English that they can really make use of in their working environment we don't know. We might have taught them quite a lot of knowledge, which they can hardly make use of at workplace. Whereas what is really required in the workplace, we teachers don't know how to teach them. So I think industries should let us teachers go into the enterprise and have a better understanding of our students' future work environment. This is especially beneficial to our students' English learning. (因为我们毕竟是为学生服务, 学生将来要为企业服务, 为社会服务的, 那我们本身对企业不是很了解, 所以我们在教学的时候就这种目的性就不是很明确, 那我们可以把这个知识讲给他, 教给他单词、教给他句子, 到底在他工作的环境中能用上多少, 有一些可能我们教了很多, 他们工作环境中根本用不上多少, 而他们需要的我们老师还不知道应该怎么去教他们, 所以我觉得这个应该是让他们在, 让我们老师能够走进这个企

业，去多了解一下他们将来工作生活的环境，这样对学生的学习呢，我觉得特别有好处。) (SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL214-220)

PrimaryData088 in §6.2.3.1.1

You see there are now some new specialties, many new specialties, such as trail service and air service, in our school. We teachers actually You see the underground railway system has not been built up in the city. We don't know what service our future underground system will need. We can only teach them some simple routine service English, such as selling tickets. But there are other things, such as equipment, and we don't know the names of the equipment in English. If we can go for vocational practice in the companies, and if those companies are really willing to provide us an opportunity, how to say, if they really welcome us to learn in the enterprise, then we can have a better understanding of the companies. Actually many companies just make do with our site-visiting. When we go to a workplace, people in the companies just show us around the workplace. All right. That's all for the site-visiting. So sometimes the school can do nothing about the site-visiting. It is a social issue, anyway. (因为你看我们现在的专业吧就挺多的，新开的专业，像地铁、空港这样的专业，我们老师其实，你看城市现在地铁也没有建成，我们就是将来地铁它需要怎么样的服务，可能说简单的，什么售票啊这样的我们可以教他，不是里面还有其它的一些设备啊怎么说啊，我们都不是很了解。如果我们能够走进这个企业当中，他们可以确实把我们当做，怎么说呢，就是挺愿意让我们在那边学的，有很多企业他们也是为了应付我们，去了给我们看看，行了没事了，……那行了，走了吧，就这样的。所以可能是学校有的时候也没有办法，这个也是一个社会问题，反正。) (SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL228-235)

PrimaryData089 in §6.2.3.1.2

I wish teachers could pay more attention to those students with poor English foundation, and, I don't know how to put it in words, cultivate their English learning interest. (就是说希望他们能多关注关注一些基础差的学生。怎么说呢，然后多培养一下他们的兴趣。) (IT-GS-#06-F, LL162-163)

PrimaryData090 in §6.2.3.1.2

With regard to teaching, I think that if teachers could teach more systematically or are willing to listen to each individual student's opinion or things like that, then each student would have a good starting point, yeah. ...I expect that teachers could teach more systematically. For example, if you missed a lesson, then the teacher could give you some more extra explanation to help you make up the lesson. In that way, you could be more interest in your English study. If you have missed a couple of

lessons and the teacher continued with her explanation, then you wouldn't be able to follow the teacher. Gradually, you would lose your learning interest in English, yeah. (我感觉就是好像在教学方面吧, 就是老师如果说能系统一点儿, 或者说就是单独的每个学生, 就是听听每个学生的意见啊, 或是怎么怎么样, 就是每个学生都有一个好的学习的出发点, 嗯。……就是老师要能系统一点, 就是比如说像你吧这节课啊, 拉了什么东西啊, 老师能稍微给你们讲讲, 给你带一点儿, 把你拉的给你稍微补一点, 让你以后学习兴趣更好一点儿。如果说你有几堂课跟不上了, 然后老师接着讲, 你本身就听不懂, 然后逐渐逐渐的, 对这个英语就失去了那种学习的兴趣, 嗯。)(MA-GS-#02-M, LL163-174)

PrimaryData091 in §6.2.3.1.2

To those students who would like to cooperate with you, they prefer to have some question-and-answer activities in class, eh, some group activities, more interaction with situations, those created situations, and more games. They really like to get involved in the activities. (就对于一些可以能够跟你配合的学生来讲吧, 他, 比较是一些课堂上的提问, 诶, 一些课堂的小组活动, 一些互动, 包括情景, 创设情景, 还有一些游戏吧, 一些活动, 他都是挺能接受的。)(SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL124-126)

PrimaryData092 in §6.2.3.1.2

I expect that we could have more spoken English practice, situational practices and the things like that, so that we can apply what we've learned to practical use. (要多增加就是一些口语的练习了, 场景练习啊什么的, 能学以致用。)(IT-GS-#05-F, LL111-112)

PrimaryData093 in §6.2.3.1.2

T: Next one. I'm going to have some friends over for dinner. Ok. Here in this sentence there is a phrase. We can treat it as a phrase: have some friends over for dinner, which means to invite some friends for a dinner together. Eh, OK. That's right. Suppose we have some friends sharing a room in a dorm, what are the friends called? (这里头有一个短语, 可以给它算作一个短语吧, have some friends over for dinner, 就是, 一些朋友在一起。聚聚餐。诶, 对了, 那好了。如果说, 我们, 嗯, 这一个寝室的室友, 室友叫什么来着?)

LL: Roommates.

T: Eh, that's right. Then when we want to say '这一个寝室的室友在一起聚餐呢?' (哎, 对了。那我们, 这一个寝室的室友在一起聚餐呢?)

T & LL: I'm going to have some roommates over for dinner.

T: Eh, all right. Then what about your classmates? (诶, 好了。那我们同学在一起聚

聚餐呢?)

LL: I'm going to have some classmates over for dinner.

T: Classmates.

LL: Classmates.

T: Over for dinner. Ah, all right. Now there's a new organization. It's called '粉丝团', isn't it? These're somebody's '粉丝'. All right. Let's get some '粉丝' for a get together. What is '粉丝' called? (啊。好了, 那现在还有一个新兴的组织, 叫什么? 粉丝团, 是不是? 这些, 都是谁谁谁的粉丝。那好了, 找一些粉丝来聚一聚吧。粉丝什么来着?)

LL: Fans.

T: Fans. Ah, now make up a sentence. (哈, 说吧。)

LL: I'm going to have some fans over for dinner.

T: Fans over for dinner. Ok, very good. (挺好。)

(SC-CO-#07-TSM2)

PrimaryData094 in §6.2. 3.1.2

T: NOW, let's look at the conversation. Hello, Mary! Merry Christmas! Merry Christmas! What's meaning?

LL: 圣诞快乐!

T: 圣诞快乐! Ok. Merry Christmas. Ok. Then what about if I want to say '新年快乐'? (那如果说, 新年快乐呢?)

LL: Happy New Year!

T: Happy New Year. Ok. Then what about '春节快乐', which we have learned in junior secondary education? (那以前我们初中学过, 春节快乐是什么?)

LL: Happy Spring Festival!

T: Happy Spring Festival! OK. I remember in 2009 Spring Festival, Da Shan, the one who played in the cross-logue program – the Five Senses Arguing for Their Share of Contribution. He spoke of '春节快乐!', but he did not say 'Happy Spring Festival!'. What did he say? Chinese New Year! Yes, it also means '春节快乐'. He didn't say 'Happy Spring Festival!', which means also '春节快乐'. OK, when you hear these words, what would you say? How would you answer? (好, 我记得在今年的这个春晚上, 那个大山, 就是说那个五官争功的时候, 他说了一个, 春节快乐! 他

就没说Happy Spring Festival! 说的是什么? Chinese New Year. Happy Chinese New Year! 就是, 也是春节快乐((writes on the blackboard))! Ok, 当你听到这样的话的时候, 你应该说什么啊? 应该怎么样回答?)

LL: Thank you. The same to you.

T: Eh, Thank you. The same to you. ((The teacher writes on the blackboard))
(SC-CO-#07-TSM2)

PrimaryData095 in §6.2.3.1.2

The skill transfer is a thorny problem. ... To deal with the issue of skill transfer, we provide opportunities for students to go to companies for vocational practice for a week after a period of learning at school. Then they come back to school to study, and then go to the workplace for practice again. We did school learning and vocational practice alternatively when we taught trade and commerce spoken English. For example, after I taught the lesson, I might give students some assignment, such as receiving a foreign guest or selling clothes or doing other things, using the knowledge we've learned. Then we asked students to do a reflection of the situated context. They were then asked to apply it to actual use, and we teachers also go to the workplace. To answer the problems encountered in the process of practical learning, we gave them more intensive training, that is, more intensive training on certain aspects so that their knowledge can be transferred into skills. I think the main focus of our skill training should be listening and speaking. (技能迁移就是一个很大的问题。.....这个迁移的问题, 那么就是让学生, 就是在学习一段完了以后就去企业实习一周, 完了以后再上来, 再学习, 然后再实习。这样子这个交错对我们老师在教这个商贸口语的时候, 他就是这样, 就是说我可能布置了作业, 我这周教了这几个, 我布置就是让你用这些话去接待一个外国人或者是让你推销掉一件衣服, 还有让你去做一件什么样的事情, 完了以后你把你当时的情景做一个反馈, 让学生做一个反思, 然后就是一个非常真实的案例, 然后我们老师也下去做调研, 完了在针对这些过程当中出现的问题, 再给他再做训练的时候, 就是更多的在某些方面再做些强化, 就是用它的技能实现这个迁移, 最主要的我觉得可能在我们英语, 就是听说方面的这个训练。) (IP-#02-F, LL190-201)

PrimaryData096 in §6.2.3.1.2

At present, students basically hide behind when they see foreign customers. Before we do the situated workplace training, it was usually the team leader who moved forward to greet customers. The other employees would just stay behind. Now after the situated workplace training, students are able to step forward to greet customers, and ask what they would like to order. The team leader only comes out when they

have difficulties in communicating with customers. I think students now are at least not afraid of communicating in English. In the past, when they saw foreigners they were afraid of making greetings. Even such simple things as 'hello', they dare not use to greet foreigners. After such situated training, the effects are quite obvious and the enterprise has also provided us with positive feedback. (就是学生现在,基本上就是说,至少看到外国客人来了以后,不会说往后缩了,以前都是店长上,他一般工作人员都会往后缩,现在基本上都比较敢于,就是最起码敢于上去打打招呼,问问要什么东西,碰到不会的,可能再让店长出面什么这样子的。感觉至少敢交流了,不会以前一看到外国人,虽然自己其实像最简单的像Hello这些东西,谁都会说,但是他碰到了都不敢说,现在这样训练下来效果还是蛮好的,这个商家的反应也还不错。)(IP-#02-F, LL202-207)

PrimaryData097 in §6.2.3.1.2

T: ... Now let's do vocabulary dictation. OK, I'll ask a few students to come to the blackboard. Any volunteers? If you put up your hand, please make sure that you can write them all correct. (先听写几个单词。好了,找几个同学。有举手的没有?举手可是上来都得写对啊。)(SB-CO-#04-CNC5)

PrimaryData098 in §6.2.3.1.2

Actually, I wish I could teach students more grammar although in my class I should focus more on oral English. But I always think that they don't seem to understand the grammar. So sometimes I try to teach them more grammar, explain more grammatical knowledge so that students can consolidate their grammatical knowledge. Otherwise, I'm afraid that they can't catch up with the textbook currently used in our class. That's what I've been thinking about. So sometimes I try to spend more time on grammar in my class. ... But I think teaching those (manufacturing-specialty-oriented) students English clauses, teaching them clauses is more difficult than going to the moon. (其实这门课我就希望我讲的语法还能多一点,其实应该侧重于口语多一点。但是我总觉得他们好像还不是很明白,所以我有时候就带着把语法就讲的再多一点,再深一点儿,再让他们再巩固一点,要不然,怕他们跟不上这本书。我就这么想的,所以有时候语法我就拉出来,多讲点。.....但是我记得教他们句子,教他们从句,语法一简直就是比登天还难。)(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL529-540)

PrimaryData099 in §6.2.3.1.2

T: Please read after me according to the phonological symbols. (跟我来照着音标读一遍。)...

T: Eh, let's read it again. (嗯,再读一遍。)...

T: OK. Let's turn back to Page 27. There are a few phrases in the vocabulary part. Turn back to Page 27. Please read after me. (好，大家把书翻回来。看单词部分还有几个词组啊，翻回到27页，再来跟我读一遍哈。)

(SA-CO-#01-TRSM4)

PrimaryData100 in §6.2.3.2.1

So in our teaching, I think the 'layered teaching' is very important. With respect to different students, we should use different textbooks and adopt different teaching methods. We should also set up different requirements for different students, especially for those poor English learners. If the requirements are too demanding, then they will make no sense to the learners. They will think that it is too demanding for them to reach. (所以我觉得，可能我们在教学当中，这个层次性就非常重要，就说对于不同的学生，我们就应该用不同的教材不同的教法，然后给他以不同的要求，特别是对有一部分我觉的比较差的学生，如果提了过高的要求可能意义也不大，他完了他就觉得高不可攀，更不想学了。)(IP-#02-F, LL85-88)

PrimaryData101 in §6.2.3.2.1

Teachers should adopt some effective measures and methods. They should stop the way of asking students to rote learning new words and things like that. (然后也要讲求一些方式、方法，就是不要再去，总是去背单词啊什么的。)(IT-GS-#05-F, LL110-111)

PrimaryData102 in §6.2.3.2.1

I wish teachers' teaching wouldn't be too rigid. I wish the class could be more lively and the textbook learning could be associated with some interesting stories. (((makes a noise with her mouth)))老师讲课，不是怎么死板，挺活泼，然后，嗯，能接触某个故事，然后结合课文之类的(((makes a noise with her mouth))).)
(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL1049-106)

PrimaryData103 in §6.2.3.2.1

We also expect teachers to be able to create animate learning atmosphere in their class so that we can have more interest in learning. (再一个老师，对老师要求就是，上课有气氛，里头掺杂一点儿什么活跃气氛，对咱，我们也都有兴趣学习。)
(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, LL153-154)

PrimaryData104 in §6.2.3.2.1

I: ... I noticed that each time in your lesson you would start with Everyday English. (我看每一次上课前你都有一个Everyday English.)

T: That's right. (对对对。)

I: The materials are not included in the textbook, but are developed by yourself.

Right? (那是你自己的, 不是教材里有的, 是吗?)

T: Yeah, I try to find some suitable materials for students. Sometimes I read the *English Hope* magazine. After reading the magazine, I'd like to add something to the textbook. Every day I would encourage my students to speak English for five or six minutes. I give them some sentence patterns and phrases, ask them to learn them by heart, and practice them with their partners. I've been teaching teaching them in this way. (我自己找, 就是有的时候我就看什么《希望英语》了, 还有就是, 看完杂志, 有点什么东西我就往里加。就每天吧, 有个五六分钟, 就让他们张嘴就去说, 就这样给他们点儿短语了, 给个句型了, 让他背下来, 然后同桌之间练, 就这样。)

I: Have you been using the method since the beginning of the school term? (这个方法, 从开始入学你就一直坚持这样做吧?)

T: Yeah. I think the textbook should be supplemented with something. Something needs to be added to the textbook. I've been doing this in my teaching. (嗯, 对。我就觉得这个教材吧, 就还应该给它补点啥, 完了我说怎么办呢? 就这样吧。)

(SC-TI-#03-DF, LL191-201)

PrimaryData105 in §6.2.3.2.1

Sometimes I taught them some English songs, once or twice a month. I choose those songs which are easy and can enhance their learning interest. Seven or eight songs in one semester. Within the four-month long semester, I can teach them more than one song a month. (再就是, 有时候我那个给他们教一些那个, 就是一个月吧, 能有一次, 到两次, 给他们教点英文歌曲。就是挑一些挺简单的那种, 然后他们也挺感兴趣的那种, 特别多, 能有个7、8首吧, 就一学期就够了。一学期4个月的话, 然后那个, 就是一个月能教一首左右。)(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL67-70)

PrimaryData106 in §8.2.3.2.1

The seating arrangement in my English class is different from their usual seating arrangement. In my English class, as long as they don't talk nonsense with each other, they can sit with whoever that can help with their English learning. ... I generally respect the students' choice, but still I need to monitor a bit. (我就是, 座位, 平时上课的座位和上英语课的座位不一样。上英语课就是, 怎么样效果好你就可以怎么坐, 就只要不说话, 就是不唠闲嗑。……基本上我尊重他们的意思, 但是我得把握一下。)(SC-CO-#07-TSM2, LL216-217)

PrimaryData107 in §6.2.3.2.1

For example, we usually talked about layered or tiered teaching before. To me, I ask them to form one-on-one partnership. I tell them now that our country stress affiliated responsibility, we can also form affiliated responsibility in our study. If your partner can't understand what we've learned, then both of you will get punished. Eh, this has been working pretty well. Those students who didn't like to follow the teacher can now learn with the help of their classmates. (就是，比如说以前，经常说分层次教学么，我的感觉就是，我现在就是让他们形成一帮一((laughs))，一帮一。我说现在国家不都是连带责任么，咱们学习也连带责任，你同桌要是不会，那我就你俩一起罚。诶，还挺好，就有那一点儿都不跟你学的，你要这样让同学带着他，那他倒还学了。) (SC-CO-#07-TSM2, LL029-212)

PrimaryData108 in §6.2.3.2.1

I've created an ABCD method. For instance, in a sentence, the chunks of A, B and C are fixed while the chunk D is for substitution. You can substitute it with the things you like, such as adverbial of time, adverbial of place, people or predicate verbs. Basically it's the substitution of sentence patterns. ... The ABCD method can also be used in English-Chinese translation. For example, I'm now teaching a class, the students of which are going to enter higher vocational education. The students sometimes just do the sentence translation according to the sentence order. I tell them that if they divide the sentence into A, B, C and D chunks, then they can do it accordingly. When we were at Year 1 at primary school, we did the sort of reordering exercise. So I've used the method to teach them translation. It's been used for some time and I think the effects are pretty good. Through the sort of practice, students gradually have regained their self-confidence. (我自己编了一个ABCD法。就是，这个句子吧，这ABC三块是固定的，那D可以随便换。那就是我把前面的背住了，随便换，那不随便，愿意说啥就说啥么？比如说，时间状语啊、或者地点啊、人物啊，或者是谓语动词，就是有一些句套子，我感觉。……完还有呢，就是那个，就是在英汉互译的时候，比如说，像我在教高职班，学生有的时候，就是按照那个语序去给你翻译，我说你可以把那个换成那个，分成ABCD块。咱就像小学的，小学一年级不是有那个那种题么？就是把这个打乱的把它放在正确的顺序，这不是可以完全按照这种方法来。然后时间长了我感觉这个效果也挺好的，就是练，然后他们慢慢的都找到自信了。) (SC-TI-#03-DF, LL168-174)

PrimaryData109 in §6.2.3.2.1

I call the method – matrix method. The reason I name it matrix method is that in doing vocabulary learning, we can list the synonyms vertically, such as *harm*, *hurt* and so on. In this way, when you think of a word, you can think of its synonyms,

which have similar meaning. Horizontally, you can remember such words as *care*, *careful*, *carefully* and so on. In this way, it's easy to master the language points. And if I can think of one word, then I can remember a list of words vertically and horizontally. So in this way, I can associate words in a most efficient and effective way. (就是我就给它叫这个, 纵横交错法((laughs)). 我给这个起的名, 就是说吧, 在串知识点的时候吧, 我们可以把就是那个像近义词, 比如说像这个harm, 还有那个什么hurt, 就是这些类似的, 我可以竖着排列, 是不? 我说这样的话, 你只要想起一个词, 那么剩下的一串, 意思就都差不多。横向的就比如, 那个care, careful, carefully, carefulness 什么的, 这些, 横着串的。这样的话, 知识点掌握的不就是牢固么? 而且说, 我只要能想起一点, 我就能串出一串来, 这样不是事半功倍么((gaps)).) (SC-TI-#03-DF, LL186-192)

PrimaryData110 in §6.2.3.2.1

Eh, we expect teachers to have more interaction, more interaction with students. Teachers shouldn't just give the rigid explanation of those texts, vocabulary and things like that. Teachers should stimulate students' learning interest. If teachers can tell students some stories related with the texts, then students will be more interested in listening to the teacher. Once students have the learning interest, they would like to listen to the teacher. (啊, 老师就是多互动, 就是与同学多互动, 就是不能光死板的讲那些课文, 讲一些什么单词什么的。你得就是让同学听着有兴趣, 假如跟这个课文什么的, 就是有关的故事什么的, 给同学讲一讲什么的, 那样同学能爱听点, 他有兴趣他就爱听。) (SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL86-89)

PrimaryData111 in §6.2.3.2.1

I think the interaction, the interaction can help me understand things faster. Because unlike Chinese – our mother tongue, English is very complicated. Its various forms of grammar are really difficult. I expect teachers can give us some life-related examples and occasionally do some interactive games with us. This can help us remember things faster. (就是互动, 感觉互动会比较就是, 自己理解能快一些, 因为英语不像是汉语是母语嘛, 所以有的时候就比较复杂, 就是各种语法会比较难懂, 要是切合实际的一种例子, 偶尔跟我们做一些互动游戏, 记得特别快。) (SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, LL49-51)

PrimaryData112 in §6.2.3.2.1

It's quite nice to do some games. ... For example, eh, the guessing games. ... Or the games about English spelling, such as word chain. Very Interesting. (简单做些游戏吧。就是挺好的。……比如说那种—嗯—猜谜游戏。……或者是说, 就是英语那样的拼写, 单词那样, 接龙那种, 那挺有意思的。) (SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL158-162)

PrimaryData113 in §6.2.3.2.1

I expect to have dialogue practices or the sort of English games. ... Let me see. For example, the teacher speaks the first half of a sentence and students continue with the latter half of the sentence. ... (对话,或者是,做什么英语游戏啦,之类的。……想一想((noise from the playground))比如说老师说前半句完了,同学接后半句。)
(SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, LL78-82)

PrimaryData114 in §6.2.3.2.1

Teachers, in particular excellent teachers, can use whatever methods to have students highly involved into classroom teaching. The involvement is not just simply the participation of some activities but the focused attention on teachers. In the process of teachers' classroom teaching, students can concentrate their attention on teachers. The attention of students is centered on teachers' classroom teaching so that they can get completely immersed into the classroom teaching. This is, of course, an ideal sort of teaching. (那么应该说优秀的老师,不管他采用什么样的方法,那么总体呈现的一种局面就是说,他的学生参与度很高,这个参与度可能不仅是参与一些活动,就是说他可能关注老师,他在这个老师在讲述一些什么的过程当中,那学生也能够注意力比较集中的来听,就是他整个的一个状态是—在这个课堂教学,沉浸在这里面的,那么这个是比较好的一种。)(IP-#01-F, LL165-168)

PrimaryData115 in §6.2.3.2.1

Since last year, we have implemented the stratified ability-based teaching in some specialties, such as cooking and hotel specialties, according to students' entry English scores and the oral and written test given by our own school. We then divided students into three ability levels. To those relatively high-ability students, we designed some operational situational dialogues to improve their listening and speaking skills. A large majority of students could catch up with the course. To those mid-ability students, we tried to simplify the textbooks and incorporated some teaching contents that they were willing to learn. Eh, to those low-ability students, who showed no interest at all in English or who had a headache upon reading English, we tried to use interest enhancement teaching methods to design some simple games, cards or rhymes. We just designed some simple things for them to learn. The stratified ability-based teaching has been experimented for nearly a year in our school, and we can see that students of different levels have improved and benefited from the layered teaching. So we think that the stratified tiered/layered teaching is rather practical at vocational senior secondary schools. (因为我们从去年开始呢,在一些专业,在烹饪、饭店专业进行了分层教学,根据学生入学时的成绩和我们学校自己组织的笔试和口试呢,经过考核之后呢,我们分成三个层次,是。相对

比较好的学生呢，他们，我们在教学中就可以给他设计一些，嗯，可操作性强的一些情景对话啊，然后提高学生的听说能力，大部分学生都能跟上。中间那层学生呢，我们就是把教材尽量给他们简化一些，给他安排适合他们的一些内容，很能够乐意接受的这种教学方法吧。嗯，最低一点儿层次的学生呢，他们就是可以说对英语学习一点兴趣都没有，然后看着英语就头疼的那种，所以我们老师呢就尽量地用兴趣教学法吧，设计一些比较简单的游戏啦，这些卡片啦，然后或者是让他们，给他们编一些顺口溜了这样的，就是挺，挺简单的东西，让他们去接受。相对来说，经过大约快到一年了，然后我们实验呢就感觉和以前相比，各个层次的学生，在他所学的那个层面上，都有所提高，都有所收获，所以我们就感觉这个分层教学还是比较实用的，在职业学校。) (SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL89-99)

PrimaryData116 in §6.2.3.2.1

I have to force them all day every day. You know, if they don't do their homework, then nobody in the class is allowed to go home after school. All the class should stay at school to finish their homework. (我天天逼他们那。你不知道啊，不写作业的，放学，谁也不许走，就在这儿写。)(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL109-111)

PrimaryData117 in §6.2.3.2.1

Students don't take in any knowledge. They don't take in anything unless I force them. If they can't recite the text that we have learned, they aren't allowed to go back home the next day. This immediately takes into effect. They can recite the text at once, and they can recite it. You have to treat them this way. Only when they are treated this way, are they able to recite. They're the sort of students who can move one step forward when you push them. ... (他都，不往里面进，不往里面记，除非我逼着他，这堂课课文你不背下来，明天放学你别走。就这招最好使，马上立刻给你背出来，不背不背的。就得这么的，开始背，就是打他一下走一步那样的学生 ……) (ibid.)

PrimaryData118 in §6.2.3.2.1

T: ... Now look at this sentence (那么这句话), Elephants are the biggest animals living on land. What does this sentence mean? (什么意思啊?)

T & LL: 大象是 - - 最大的动物。后面还有呢, living on land, 生活在陆地上最大的动物。

T: 最大的动物。

(SB-CO-#04-WL-CNC5)

PrimaryData119 in §6.2.3.2.1

T: ... The first sentence. (第一句话。) First sentence, L3.

L3: Read Jimmy's card to me please, Penny 请你把吉米的明信片念给我听。

T: Ok, sit down. Ok, read, read. The word in Chinese is '读'. OK. It also has the meaning as in 'reading a book'. In this sentence it means to read postcards. '把吉米的明信片念给我听一听, 彭妮'. (OK, sit down. 坐下。OK, 对了对。Read, read这个词, 读, 对吧。它有看的意思, 看书, 在这里是读明信片的意思, 把吉米的明信片念给我听一听, 彭妮, 啊。)

(SB-CO-#01-AS1-F)

PrimaryData120 in §6.2.3.2.1

T: ... No.3. Do you often take activities that are bad to your health? Bad. What's the meaning? Bad. What does the word 'bad' mean? (后面有一个单词, bad 是什么意思?)

L: 有害的。

T: '有害的', what else does it mean? (有害的, 还有么?)

L: 不好的。

T: '不好的, 坏的。' Then, what does the sentence mean? (不好的, 坏的。那么这句话应该什么意思啊?)

L: 你经常参加对你身体不好的运动么?

T: 'Take' means '参加', 'activities' means '活动'. Then, what about the last word 'health'? What does the whole sentence mean? L23. (参加, activities, 活动。然后呢? 最后一个, health, 那这句话连起来是什么? L23.)

L23: 你经常参加对你身体不好的运动么?

T: Ok. Sit down, please. Very good. Do you often take activities that are bad to your health? (非常好, 大家经常参加对身体不好的运动么?)

LL: No.

T: No. Excellent. You are all good students. I'm very glad to hear that you can all answer the questions. (最好了, 大家都是乖学生, 听到这样的话, 大家这样的回答, 很高兴啊。)

(SA-CO-#09-HSM1)

PrimaryData121 in §6.2.3.2.1

T: Please open your book and turn to page ... Look at the vocabulary part. As usual,

we first look at the words on Page 27. The first part. The phonetic symbols are on Page 120. Let's look at the phonetic symbols. I give you 30 seconds to get yourself familiar with the phonetic symbols. The first six words on Page 120 should be mastered in this lesson. I give you 30 seconds. Now try to read these words by yourself OK. Stop here. Ok, stop here. Now read the phonetic symbols after me. You're poor at phonetic symbols. Please read the phonetic symbols after me. (大家先把书翻到...这个单词部分。按照惯例我们还是先看单词，27页，第一部分啊，它的音标在120页。大家先看音标，给大家半分钟的时间自己熟悉这个音标哈。120页的前6个单词是我们这节课要掌握的。给半分钟，自己试着读一下哈。.....好了，到这儿。来跟我照着音标读一下哈。大家音标很薄弱，跟我来照着音标读一遍。)

(SA-CO-#01-WJ-TRSM4)

PrimaryData122 in §6.2.3.2.1

T: B. Answer the following questions. The first one, L1. Are rich persons successful? (Initiation)

L1: No. (Response)

T: No, they aren't. (Feedback)

(SC-CO-#06-YHY-BE1)

T: ... Now let's look at the first sentence in the text, the first sentence. There is a new word. (Initiation) (.....那么看一下第一句话，第一句话，这里有一个单词。(The teacher wrote the word "biggest" on the board.))

LL: The biggest. (最大的。) (Response)

T: The biggest. (Feedback) Then what's its original form? (Initiation) (最大的。它的原型是什么?)

LL: Big. (Response)

T: Eh, big. (Feedback) Then what form is this? (Initiation) (这是它的什么形式? (Referring to the word on the board.))

LL: The superlative form. (Response) (最高级。)

T: The superlative form. (Feedback) (最高级。)

(SB-CO-#04-WL-CNC5)

PrimaryData123 in §6.2.3.2.1

Relatively speaking, the mode of instruction is still unsatisfactory. There still exists

the traditional teacher-centered teaching. Teachers just talk throughout the class while ignoring students' feedback. At present, there still exist a substantial number of teachers. (比较不理想的呢, 可能还是传统的那种, 以老师为中心的, 就是, 自己从头到尾在讲, 然后也不管学生的这个反馈的, 这种老师目前来说还是存在的, 而且应该说还是有一定数量的。) (IP-#01-F, LL169-171)

PrimaryData124 in §6.2.3.2.2

I still think that the language learning environment is essential. It would be better if we can always use English. If the environment is good, then we don't need to learn English very systematically. (我觉得, 还是得有这个口语环境, 最好就是能总说英语什么的, 环境好的话, 就是根本不用怎么系统学就会了。) (SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL74-75)

PrimaryData125 in §6.2.3.2.2

That English teacher teaches in a more flexible way. She doesn't teach solely after the textbook. She seldom reads after her textbook. From the beginning of her class, she communicates with students in English. If students can't understand her, then the teacher will use other simple English, and will speak slowly. Only when students completely can't understand her in English, will she begin to use Chinese. (然后那个老师讲的就是比较活一点, 就是因为她不是完全照书上讲, 她就是很少看书, 她就跟学生, 从她上课开始, 因为她基本上就一直说话, 就用英语, 然后比方学生听不懂, 老师就是换一种简单的语言说, 一点点开始说, 然后如果还是听不懂的话, 老师才开始用汉语。) (SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL177-182)

PrimaryData126 in §6.2.3.2.2

T: And this is a pillow. Pillow, pillow. Look, he's messy. What should we say to him? (然后看他乱七八糟的, 应该说什么?)

LL: Make up your bed.

T: OK. Very good. (非常好。)

T: Then this is a lazy lady. The dressing table is very dirty, so we can say? (然后这个是一个 lazy lady啊, 我们说梳妆台上很脏, 所以是什么?)

LL: That's a dirty dressing table.

T: Ok.

...

T: ... OK. Now, let's ask students to come to the front to role play the dialogue. It's

the Spring Festival, with fire crackers outside. People are wearing new clothes. Two friends have just met. What should they say? Ok. L11. (好了, 那来, 找同学再来练一下。过年了, 噼里啪啦外面放鞭炮呢, 新衣服也买好了, 两个朋友见面了, 应该说什么? 来, L11.)

L11: Hi, L12. Happy Spring Festival!

L12: Hi, L11. The same to you.

(SC-CO-#07-TSM2-F)

PrimaryData127 in §8.2.3.2.2

T: ... The second sentence. What does "at birth" mean? Well, look at the words and expressions, which is below the vocabulary part. The phrase "at birth" is one of the three phrases. "At birth" means "出生时, 出生时". Now let's look at the sentence – "a baby elephant weights about" How much does it weight? 90 kilograms, 90千克. Then, please remember the phrase "at birth", which means "在...出生时, 出生时". Now next sentence – "which is about the weight of a grown man". What does it mean? "它是一个成年人的体重." That's to say "它刚出生的时候就有90千克, 是一个成年人的体重, 成年人的体重." What's after "It's about". He's about 90 what? What does "HIGH" stand for? (.....那么第二句, at birth 什么意思? 嗯, 单词下面那个词组。这3个词组之中的一个, at birth 出生时, 出生时, 那么看这句话, a baby elephant weights about 大约重多少? 90 kilograms, 90千克。那么一个小象在出生时大约重90千克。那么at birth, 记住这个词组, 在...出生时, 出生时。下一句 which is about the weight of a grown man. 说什么? 它是一个成年人的体重。那么就是说它刚出生的时候就有90千克, 是一个成年人的体重, 成年人的体重。It's about ... 下面是什么? 他大约90什么? HIGH表示什么?)

LL: 高

T: It's height. What's its height? 90 centimeters. Now, next sentence. Look at the next sentence. "When it reached the age of 12 years, ", 当它长到.....(它的高度。高多少? 90厘米。看一下, 下一句。When it reached the age of 12 years, 当它长到.....)

T & LL: 12岁的时候。

T: "It doesn't", what happened. Here's a phrase "grow anymore". What does "not anymore" mean? (It doesn't 不再怎么啦? grow anymore, 这里有个词组。not anymore, 什么意思?)

T & LL: 不再 再也不

T: "当它到达12岁的时候," what happened? "就再也不" (当它到达12岁的时候, 它怎么了? 就再也不)

LL: 长大了

T: 嗯, 再也不长了, 再也不长了。

(SB-CO-#04-WL-CNC5)

PrimaryData128 in §6.2.3.2.2

T: OK. Sit down, please. Eh, let's turn to Page 205. Listen to the tape. The tape is very, eh, the tape ... After listening to the tape, you'll find that it's very interesting. Don't laugh. Be sure not to laugh. OK. Turn to Page 205. Look at the text. It's a dialogue between an old woman and her daughter. The woman in the tape really sounds like an old lady. Don't laugh. Be sure not to laugh. (好。Sit down, please. 嗯, 我们把书翻到205页, 听一下这个录音。这个录音比较, 嗯, 这个录音.....((The teacher is manipulating the tape-recorder in the front of the class.))。这录音啊, 你们可能听了以后, 可能会觉得比较有意思。别笑啊, 千万别笑。((The teacher is rewinding the tape to the right place.))OK. 把书翻到205页。看下课文哈, 是一个老太太和她女儿的对话。这个老太太很像老太太说的, 别笑啊 千万别笑。)(SB-CO-#05-LXY-AS1)

PrimaryData129 in §6.2.3.2.2

T: OK. Sit down, please. OK. Sit down. These few words are actually very easy. When we first started learning English, almost all of us have learned these few kinds of animals. Open your book. The text. We're going to learn the text. Let's first look at the topic of the text. What does 'elephant' mean? (Ok. 坐下啊。好了, 坐下。这几个单词其实很简单, 我们在最开始学英语的时候几乎都能学到这几种动物。书打开, 课文。我们把课文今天讲一下啊。首先看一下课文的题目, elephant 什么意思?) (SB-CO-#04-WL-CNC5)

PrimaryData130 in §6.2.3.2.2

Our English teacher, eh, I don't know how to put it, sometimes has little communication with us. Sometimes she speaks in English, and sometimes she just teaches in Chinese. (我们老师上课, 然后, 嗯, 不太, 怎么说呢, 有的时候, 上课的时候沟通就是少, 有的时候就是直接用英语, 有的时候用英语说, 有的时候就是用汉语。)(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL99-102)

PrimaryData131 in §6.2.3.2.2

The problem lies in the speed that the teacher speaks with us. She's afraid that we can't hear her clearly or we can't understand her so she tries to speak as slowly as

possible, by speaking word by word in English. (关键现在我们老师和我们说话语速什么的, 怕我们听不清, 还有就是听不懂, 就是尽量放慢, 一个单词一个单词的这么说。)(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL120-122)

PrimaryData132 in §6.2.4.1

Textbooks should be made more interesting. (教材更有趣味一些。)(SC-TI-#02-WJ, L187)

PrimaryData133 in §6.2.4.1

Speaking of textbooks, the most important thing is still on how to motivate students' incentives in learning when using textbooks. I think this is really worth doing. (如果从教材来讲, 最重要的还是那句话, 就是学生翻开那个书啊, 就是说, 就是这个兴趣还是怎么调动, 我觉得这个事情真是值得的。)(SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL301-302)

PrimaryData134 in §6.2.4.1

Students should prefer those more interactive textbooks, which are relatively easier. Students should be more willing to accept those less difficult textbooks. (学生呢, 更应该能喜欢一些互动强一些的教材, 比较知识浅一些的, 知识点简单一些的东西, 他可能更容易接受些。)(SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL38-40)

PrimaryData135 in §6.2.4.1

If textbooks can include less difficult mini-dialogues and miniature situations, then students may have interest to learn. (如果说一些简单的小对话、小情景啊, 学生还能有兴趣去学一些。)(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL74-75)

PrimaryData136 in §6.2.4.1

Students, we should say, prefer to learn things with situations, which are more vivid and more interesting. Relatively speaking, students have less interest in things with more grammar and language points. Regarding the textbook design, if the textbook looks lovely and attractive, then student would be more likely to learn. And if the whole articles or the whole textbook is crammed with English words, then students are afraid of using it. (学生嘛, 应该说他更喜欢一些就是说有场景的, 能有一些生动的、激起他兴趣的东西, 相对于这个一些语法点、知识点比较多的内容, 他可能说兴趣小一些, 或者说从教材角度来讲, 如果说那个教材看起来挺可爱的, 挺引人入胜的, 他能更加喜欢一些, 如果说这篇文章, 这个教材都是英文字母的, 他就有点畏惧了。)(SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL94-99)

PrimaryData137 in §6.2.4.1

I think textbooks should have less focus on grammar with shorter and more

practical materials. (我觉得应该是把这个语法再淡化点, 就是尽量就是短小一些, 实用性一些比较好一些。) (SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL83-85)

PrimaryData138 in §6.2.4.1

I think textbooks should be made easier according to our actual language level. They shouldn't be made too difficult. Textbooks should be written in accordance to our actual language competences ((makes a noise with her mouth)). (我觉得应该比较简单点, 然后, 切合实际点就行, 别太难了, 跟层次走。) (SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL159-160)

PrimaryData139 in §6.2.4.1

I wish the textbooks could be more related to our specialty. For example, our specialty is mechanics, but the whole textbook has no vocabulary related to mechanics. We didn't have any opportunities to use the vocabulary in our future work. ... I think vocational English textbooks should be different from those of senior secondary English textbooks. Definitely they should be easier, but with a different focus. (能和普通的高中教材能有所区别, 那简单是肯定要简单, 但是方向能不太一样。……能变得更加有专业性一些, 因为我们学机械加工的, 那整本书连机械加工词汇都没有, 那以后也用不到啊。) (IT-GS-#05-F, LL113-120)

PrimaryData140 in §6.2.4.1

Well, textbooks should also be made in accordance to our specialty. The knowledge in the textbook should be reinforced according to their specialties and the sort of things, yeah. Well, it's not good if we all use one set of textbook. I think textbooks should be developed in accordance to students' learning aptitudes. (嗯, 就是, 还得是根据专业那个, 根据专业然后强化它这个, 这个专业的东西, 对。就是, 都学那个一套教材还是有点儿, 不太好, 就是还得因材施教吧。) (SC-SI-#24-WSQ-TSM-F, LL164-165)

PrimaryData141 in §6.2.4.1

It would be nice if textbooks are more related to real life. (就是教材编的跟现实生活的很相近, 就是差不多了。) (SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, L123)

PrimaryData142 in §6.2.4.1

There were things in the workplace that we didn't learn at school. For example, the boot-shaped goblets. Of course, we couldn't learn English just for the sake of one hotel. We should learn to say things in general. But some of the things are very special. At present each hotel definitely has its own special items. Some of the items are not included in the textbook. For example, the word 'lemon tongs'. In the

workplace, when guests ask for them, we don't know what they want. There are also other words, such as mustard, which we don't learn at school at all. So I think our English teaching should be more related to the present hotel situations, with the inclusion of such things as utensils and dinner service sets. Such words should be collected from the workplace and be included into the textbooks. I think the information could enrich the textbooks. There are many other things that we can encounter in the workplace. Although we've learned many things at school, in the past few years in the workplace, we've never had the opportunity to use them. There are still other things, which we haven't learned at school, but we actually make frequent use of them in the hotel. Actually they've been used very extensively. I still think that textbooks should include those frequently used items in luxury hotels. (有些东西我们真的是没学过, 包括, 嗯, 比如说他说的靴型杯啊, 我们因为, 针对的酒店, 当然我们不可能说针对你这一家酒店来讲我们的英文, 要各处都知道的, 但是有些东西包括奇特一点的, 现在的星级酒店肯定会有一些奇特的东西。例如在课本上可能见不到的, 包括就是, 嗯, 比如说, 柠檬夹这些东西可能是在课本上没有这个, 这个单词, 但是当客人面的时候你就听不懂, 不知道他在说什么; 还有一些芥末, 黄芥末, 你根本就听不明白, 所以我觉得应该适应一下现在的酒店的用餐啊或者是它的用具、餐具, 应该再收集一些英文单词加入到课本里面, 这样会好一些。因为好多东西, 有些东西你可能已经学了, 但是真的是两年当中你都从来都是一句没说过, 但是有些东西没学, 酒店真的是用上了, 而且是用的非常多, 非常广泛, 我觉得还是应该在星级酒店收集一些他们经常用到的东西。) (SV-GS-#04-F, LL40-51)

PrimaryData143 in §6.2.4.1

If the textbook could provide some specially designed situations, then we teachers could design some specific and operable situations according to our students' language competences. I think such textbook designs could better serve our teaching needs. (如果在教材上就是给设定好一些, 一些大块的情景, 然后我们老师再根据我们学生的实际, 设计一些具体的、可操作性的这样情景, 我觉得对教学应该是更好一些。) (SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL79-81)

PrimaryData144 in §6.2.4.1

I: Then what aspect do you think textbooks should focus on if they are to better serve the needs of senior secondary vocational students? (那你觉得教材要是适合中职的学生, 应该是个, 更倾向于那个方面?)

T: For those service-oriented students, the focus should be more on communication. (服务行业的么, 交流, 沟通, 这方面, 多一点。)

(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL518-519)

PrimaryData145 in §6.2.4.1

I know that the books we use now are divided into general English textbooks and vocational English textbooks. ... But if the textbook could have a small section, just a small section of essential English integrated with vocational English. The small section is ... If textbooks could integrate the two modules, we can then directly transfer to the vocational module after the general English module study. (就现在我知道的那书是分基础模块和职业模块。……那你像如果这本书的话，是有一个小块，有这么一小块，缩到把基础的知识单拿出来就加到职业英语，这一小块就是……这样的话就是在课堂的时候，就完事了，直接马上就能衔接到职业，就从职业模块里头，抽出基础知识。) (SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL325-331)

PrimaryData146 in §6.2.4.1

I think textbooks could be designed in this way. For example, if the textbook is for tourism specialty. Then the textbook could include the core vocabulary in the new NVES, the stock of vocabulary that is required to master. But after learning the vocabulary, after I've taught the essential knowledge, I can immediately make use of the vocabulary for vocational activities. Students can learn the essential English words in the dialogue, which are also included in the new NVES. In this way, students can learn the vocabulary both required in the syllabus and used in the vocational field. ... That is, to combine the two modules into one in the textbook. (我就合计，比如一翻开，然后，比如说是这个专业的话，旅游专业的书，这就是一个旅游专业的书。然后在这个专业里边，这些基础词汇是英语教育大纲，就要求你掌握的，但是这个词完事之后，我刚教完的基础知识，马上，比如说我现在做完活动，你就在对话里头去找刚才我那个，然后他也把大纲里的单词，这样的话就把大纲里的单词编成跟它是一样的。……就编到一本书。) (SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL341-347)

PrimaryData147 in §6.2.4.1

Actually, I think we can do an experiment. ... For example, the manufacturing-sector-oriented students will stop learning general English when they're in Grade 2. It's not that they don't have the English course, but that they have such a crammed schedule for their specialty courses. It's quite likely that it will be months later that they can learn English for Vocational Purposes. By then, they might have forgotten the things they've learned in the general English. (其实是，我就觉得可以试一试。……因为像我们有的是二产的，他们二年级他们就不学，就不开基础了，有的时候不是说不开，或者说有的时候他们专业都学不过来，这样的话基础可能学完了，他隔月时间才能学专业英语，基础就忘了。) (SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL361-366)

PrimaryData148 in §6.2.4.1

For Year 1 students, we use *New Concept English* for listening and speaking class. For Year 2 students, we use some spoken English textbooks related to tourism and hotels. (听说我们那个一年级就是学的是《新概念》，主要是这个听力、口语啊，二年级呢，就是，我们也使用一些跟旅游饭店有关系的口语教材。)(SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL90-91)

PrimaryData149 in §6.2.4.1

I think the textbook is all right. But sometimes I get the feeling that we can't put what we've learned into practical application. (我感觉教材还可以，就是有的时候，应用不上，我感觉。)(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, L202)

PrimaryData150 in §6.2.4.1

Relatively speaking, I think many of our English teachers consider the teaching content in the textbooks somewhat difficult, in particular the Essential English series. The textbooks are more suitable for those students who want to go to higher vocational education, because the syllabus designer of the textbook still focus on grammar. (教学内容，相对来说，我觉得我们很多老师都认为有一些难，就是它还是我们现有的高教社的教材，这个基本版还是倾向于这个，这个升学的。因为它很多的课程的设置还是挺重视语法啊这方面的。)(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL68-71)

PrimaryData151 in §6.2.4.1

I think the textbook is not suitable for our students. Students in our school, in particular those manufacturing-sector-orientated students, are very poor at English. It's too difficult for them to learn such difficult things, let alone to master them. (我觉得这本教材太不适合——咱们现在的学生，这学校的学生，尤其是一、二产的学生，他们根本什么都不会。上来就让他们学这么难的东西，更不会了。)(SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL17-20)

PrimaryData152 in §6.2.4.1

The series of textbook surely can't stimulate student's learning interest because they can't understand the things in the textbook. They can't understand the things even from the first unit. The textbook made them feel difficult. Everything should start from something easy to more difficult. If the starting point is fairly difficult and is getting more and more difficult in the later part, then it is a torture for both students and teachers. I think the book series is too difficult, especially for those teachers teaching the textbook series. (这本教材，它肯定是学生没法有积极性，因为本身他就不会。第一课开始他就不会，他就觉得难，什么东西都是由易从难，才行。一开始就

难，以后更难，那就是难为学生一样，也是难为老师，我觉得，太难了。等这个基础课，就是教基础版的这个老师。) (SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL268-271)

PrimaryData153 in §6.2.4.1

S: I don't like the textbook (Essential English). When I open it, there is nothing I can understand. I can't understand anything at all. If I can understand what those things mean, I may want to read it and try to understand what it means. (不喜欢。……就是，一翻开就是，没有什么可读的，就是也不明白，然后要是能明白什么意思，也能试试读一读，理解理解这个文章什么意思。)

I: Then, do you think the passages in the text are difficult or uninteresting? (那你觉得文章是读不懂，还是觉得没意思?)

S: I can't understand it at all. It's just that I can't understand what the texts are about. (是读不懂，不是，是读，就是根本不知道文章写的是什么。)

(SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, LL230-235)

PrimaryData154 in §6.2.4.1

S: I think ((makes a noise with her mouth)) Hotel English is easier. The textbook that we've started learning. (我觉得((makes a noise with her mouth))还是宾馆职业英语，那个比较简单。 ((makes a noise with her mouth))现在我们开始学那个。)

I: How about the *Essential English*? (那基本版的那个呢?)

S: *Essential English*, I think it isn't as easy as Hotel English, and it's more difficult for us to understand. (基本版，基本版的那个，我觉得没有那个简单，然后， ((makes a noise with her mouth))理解起来比较困难。)

(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL186-190)

PrimaryData155 in §6.2.4.1

The *Hotel English* is more closely related to our specialty (i.e., Hotel Service and Management), and we can make use of the things learned when we later work at hotels. But *Essential English*, I think, seems to be of little use in our future daily life. (然后，那个宾馆英语，就比较贴合咱现在学饭店的，以后到宾馆了能用上。但是有的我认为，有点像那个基础版英语，好像以后日常用不上。)(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, LL135-137)

PrimaryData156 in §6.2.4.1

That textbook – Hotel English – has some sort of relationship with us. But that English book (i.e., *Essential English*), I think, is useless. (那个教材，宾馆英语现在跟

咱们还能靠近点儿吧，那个英语，我感觉没什么用。)(SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F, LL169-170)

PrimaryData157 in §6.2.4.1

I: Do you read some other materials after school? (那现在还有没有课外读一些其他的读物?)

S: Never. (从来没有。)

(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL175-176)

PrimaryData158 in §6.2.4.1

I: Other than your textbook, do you read other books after school? (那现在下课之后，除了教材之外，还看别的书吗?)

S: No ((smiles)). (不怎么看了。)

(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL75-76)

PrimaryData159 in §6.2.4.1

No, even till now I still don't know where the school library is. (没有，现在，我都不知道在哪呢图书馆，那个。)(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, L139)

PrimaryData160 in §6.2.4.1

S: We sometimes go to the school library in our spare time. (图书馆，我们，业余时间会去的。)

I: To borrow some English books? (有借英语书吗?)

S: English books? ((smiles)) Oh, no. (英语书啊? 没有。)

I: Do you read English books in your spare time? (那平时课外的英语书有看吗?)

S: I don't read English books in my spare time, but I listen to teachers tentatively in class. (课外英语书，我不怎么看，但是课上的那些我很认真学。)

(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL120-123)

PrimaryData161 in §6.2.4.1

I: Have you ever borrowed any English books or English reading materials from the school library? (那在学校里面，你有没有借一些英语书啊? 课外读物之类的书从学校图书馆?)

S: No, never. (没有。)

(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL93-94)

PrimaryData162 in §6.2.4.1

I've read the sort of books, with English on one page and Chinese on the other page. Basically, I don't understand English, so I just read Chinese. (我读过, 就是那种, 就是那个, 这面是英文, 然后这面是汉语, 那样式的, 基本英文读不明白, 然后就读汉语了(She laughed before she finished the sentence.).) (SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL71-73)

PrimaryData163 in §6.2.4.1

After school, I mainly read our textbook Hotel English. I also read other books. For instance, last time I went back to my former junior secondary school and borrowed a few English books to read at home. But some of the books are too difficult and I have to look up almost all the words in the dictionary. Because the materials are difficult, I didn't read much. (课外。书上的东西, 顶多, 主要可能就是, 看书上那个职业《宾馆英语》书。然后, 课外的我也看。课外, 那趟我回去一趟学校, 就是我原先的初中, 然后跟老师借了几本外语, 搁家看。但是, 有的都太难了, 都得查字典, 然后那个可能, 相对看的就少一点。)(SA-SI-#11-WS-HSM-F, LL90-94)

PrimaryData164 in §6.2.4.1

Sometimes I go to the Internet café, to listen to songs and search for materials. ... Sometimes I read the English song scripts. (有时候就, 有时间就去, 然后听些歌, 查些资料。.....有时候看歌词。)(SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL83-86)

PrimaryData165 in §6.2.4.1

English songs are beautiful. I listen to them via the Internet or MP3. (英文歌挺好。上网的时候或者是MP3, 都听听。)(SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, L68)

PrimaryData166 in §6.2.4.1

Yeah, I especially like listening to English songs and see English films. (对, 我特别喜欢听英文歌曲和看英文电影。)(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, L127)

PrimaryData167 in §6.2.4.1

Speaking of books, I went to our school library the other day, which I think is very similar to those at the university. The library has many famous books. We also have a reading room in our school. The materials in the library and the reading-room are different. The books in the library are mostly novels, foreign novels. The materials in the reading-room are fine, with such magazines as *English Saloon* and *English Week*, but our students seldom go to read the English magazines ((laughs)). They

prefer to read books in Chinese. (图书啊，图书的话现在，哦我那天去看了，也就是，我觉得跟我们大学那种挺像的，好多都是什么名著。然后，但是阅览室，我们分图书馆和阅览室吗，图书馆里的书基本上是一些小说，外国小说什么的，然后阅览室里边还行，阅览室里边的《英语沙龙》，《英语周报》什么的，但是我看我们学生还是很少到那去拿那个，他们都愿意看中文的。)(SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL233-237)

PrimaryData168 in §6.2.4.1

I didn't go to the school library. Usually I bought materials to read at home, and I generally prefer staying at home. I like buying books to read at home. When finishing reading the materials, I'll go to the library to find some more. ... I usually go to the biggest bookstore in the city. ... And sometimes, I go to other bookstores to buy books. And I've even been to the provincial library to borrow books. (没有。我就是，一般都家里有资料，一般，我就是比较爱在家待着(laugh)。然后，把书都买到家里来看，看完，再去图书馆里去找。……去北方图书城。……然后，还有的时候去，去那个新华书店。……去书店买书，然后，还有那个，省图书馆，去过。)(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL114-120)

PrimaryData169 in §6.2.4.1

I usually borrow books from my classmates. ... The books we often read are English textbooks and some short stories. (看书，然后同学有就借一下。……啊，英语教材，然后，一些小故事。)(SA-SI-#01-SBR-BE-F, LL148-155)

PrimaryData170 in §6.2.4.1

Sometimes, I read some materials, which I bought when I was at junior secondary school. The sort of grammar books with pictures, which we don't learn at school. (有时候就是看，就是一些中学那时候买的什么，语法的，带图的那种东西，现在就是没涉及到那些东西，看的。)(SC-SI-#19-LXC-TSM-F, LL28-70)

PrimaryData171 in §6.2.4.1

The materials I use are: the high frequency *English Expressions*, the most frequently used *Harvard English*, ... and the phonological book the most suitable to Chinese – *International Phonetics*. I think the book *International Phonetics* is good, which points out the phonological mistakes that Chinese often make. And there are also other books, such as *Jiangbo English*, *New Concept English*, *English Grammar* and so on. (嗯，我是一，那个是一，一个是高频率的，就是《英语用语》，然后还有一个是，最常使用的那个——然后什么《哈佛英语》呀。……然后是那个，最适合中国人的，啊，音标，《国际音标》。我觉得那本书挺好，就是把中国人发，发音那些错误地方都纠正了，还有就是那个，适合中国人的《江博英语》那个，《新概念》，《英语语法》，就这些。)(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL225-231)

PrimaryData172 in §6.2.4.2

Speaking of teaching facilities, I expect our school to be well-equipped so that we can listen to more English materials with the use of the facilities. (教学，就是设施全点，让咱听什么的，都是那种全面。)(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, L153)

PrimaryData173 in §6.2.4.2

If multimedia facilities are provided, then for each vocational situation I can at least make use of the resources I have on hand. For example, in the case of hotel English or the things they need to learn about Western and Chinese food, I have many video materials, right. If we could watch the video with explanation with the aid of the multimedia facilities, the learning effects would definitely be much better, yeah. (要是有多媒体设备的话，至少每一个场景，就是我现在现有的资料，比如说那个宾馆英语，或者是他们是有那个学西餐的、学中餐的，我现有就是很多那个视频的资料，对。通过看那个视频，他那个就是带讲解的了，然后用那个多媒体那种屏幕什么的，肯定效果还能好，对。)(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL79-82)

PrimaryData174 in §6.2.4.2

It (computer-assisted language learning) is very helpful. All the films we see are in English. We've been learning English as well as enjoying the film. We've been enjoying while learning. I think the way of learning is very interesting. (帮助挺大的。嗯，全都是英文版的，边看就是，同时你就是享受，你也很就是挺高兴的。然后，你学习学着了。((pause))觉得挺有意思的。)(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL172-174)

PrimaryData175 in §6.2.4.2

So in comparison with computer-assisted language learning (CALL), the mode of classroom teaching with teachers holding a textbook in the front is very boring. In fact, students regard the textbook-centered teaching uninteresting, and we teachers think the same. I think, English teaching especially in vocational schools should be more diverse and full of activities so that students' incentives can be motivated. It can thus become a virtuous cycle with teachers willing to teach and students willing to learn, which is very important. (所以相比来说，就像我们老师在课堂上，干捧着一本书讲啊，这种挺枯燥的，确实，学生感觉没意思，老师也觉得挺没意思的。应该我觉得，英语教学尤其在职业学校，应该多样、丰富多彩一点啊，各种活动，然后调动学生的积极性，嗯。这样就是老师也愿意教，学生也愿意学，就是成为一种良性循环，这个挺重要的。)(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL192-195)

PrimaryData176 in §6.2.4.2

Students these days are good at accepting new things. How can we keep them

sitting there the way when we were treated at school? They are more active and can't sit there listening to teachers for long. ... Yes, they can sit in the classroom for English classes for one week, and then two weeks. But if there's nothing new to stimulate them, they'll lose their English learning interest. (因为现在的学生吧, 他接受新事物的能力挺强的, 你总是这样老一套的不像我们以前上学的时候能坐住哈, 他们现在就是都挺活跃的, 坐不住。.....对, 没有什么新的东西刺激他吧, 他就感觉, 时间一长, 一周这样上行, 下一周又是这么上, 哎呀老师总是这样的, 他们就觉得没有新意, 嗯。)(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL197-201)

PrimaryData177 in §6.2.4.2

Each time we have classes in the multimedia lab, students all actively participate in classroom activities and look forward to the next class when we'll have another class in the lab. (每次上这样课的时候吧, 学生都是参与的积极性挺高的, 然后都挺盼着下一次课什么时候我们还能上这样的课。)(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL190-192)

PrimaryData178 in §6.2.4.2

I've collected a lot of software, but I can't show my students the software in the English class. I can't use the software in class. If I could use the software, surely students' incentives can be motivated. Like us, students also like seeing pictures. So with pictures and situated scenes, they would definitely like to learn. (我的课件特别多, 现在没法给他们, 对, 没法用就是。如果课件的话, 孩子本身就是爱看图片, 包括咱们也是, 看图片肯定要比单独讲, 就是那个要调动积极性, 对。有图片了, 然后有那种场景了, 那他肯定就是, 能够爱学吧。)(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL86-89)

PrimaryData179 in §6.2.4.2

Sometimes when we have two English classes, the teacher will arrange us to go to the language lab (on the sixth floor) to see English films. The teacher usually asks us to write down some useful sentences that we can understand. It's a good way to practice our listening comprehension. (然后我们平时有的时候, 两节英语课的时候, 老师组织大家那个上那个语音室去看, 看那个英文电影, 然后让我们把一些有用的句子什么的, 或者是, 只要能看懂的, 给它记下来。就是去练听力嘛, 这挺很好。)(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL168-171)

PrimaryData180 in §6.2.4.2

(The facilities that teachers use are) tape recorders and TVs. (录音机, 然后还有那个电视。)(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL105)

PrimaryData181 in §6.2.4.2

Speaking of teaching facilities, I think the teaching facilities in our school are not

well-equipped. This might be due to some objective factors. The facilities that we can use in class are tape recorders. The teaching-assisted CDs, which are affiliated with our textbooks, are all very good. But as our facilities – the hardware facilities are not well-equipped; we can't use the CDs in class. I think it's really a pity and a great waste. Other use of facilities is just confined to playing films via the overhead TVs in the classroom. (如果说教学资源这方面呢,我觉得学校的教学资源,嗯,不是很完善,这个可能也受一些客观因素影响,像我们在课堂上能用的也就是录音机,其它的像我们教材里面配的那些教学光盘,都挺好的,但是我们这个设备,硬件设备没有那么完善,所以我们都应用不了,我觉得这也挺可惜、也挺浪费的。其它的像我们就是有的时候能在教室里面放点闭路电视,看点电影赏析。)(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL184-188)

PrimaryData182 in §6.2.4.2

I don't know there's a language lab. We haven't been there to have our English class. (不知道,我们班没去过。)(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, L107)

PrimaryData183 in §6.2.4.2

It's basically very difficult for us to use that multimedia lab. There's only one lab for all the subjects. Our whole school has just one lab, the multimedia lab on the sixth floor, yeah. (因为咱们那个多媒体,现在就基本上,挺费劲的,所有的科,一共就一个那个,整个全校就一个可以用的那个,6楼的那个电化教室,对。)(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL82-85)

PrimaryData184 in §6.2.4.2

We can use the multimedia lab once a month. Usually I let students see some good film clips, and involve them into some interactive activities. But such chances are fairly rare, so students especially treasure the opportunities. (在电话教室里也就是一个月左右一次吧,能带学生看一些比较好的一些短片啊,也有一些互动啊,这样的不是很多,但是这样的机会,学生也特别珍惜。)(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL188-190)

PrimaryData185 in §6.2.4.2

We take it for granted that the effects should be better, but in fact sometimes it is contrary to our expectations. When students come to the lab, we seem to have more difficulties in getting them focused. In the classroom we can manage them, but in the language lab, each of them is behind a booth, doing their own business. They think that once they're in the language lab they can listen to music or see English films. They'll think things like that. Those are the things that they think about when computer-assisted language learning is mentioned. But when I keyed in some exercises, the classroom would become too chaotic to manipulate. ... Not only was

their learning interest not motivated, but also they became absent-minded as everything in the computer lab appeared new and afresh to them. I think ...

computer-assisted language learning hasn't really become the chief teaching aid.

(我们觉得效果应该能好, 然后呢, 但是其实还是, 有的时候还是事与愿违, 学生到这儿之后, 你好像更没有在教室里集中他们, 因为在教室你还能拢得住, 到那之后他都一个一个猫在那里面之后, 他反倒就是, 他都根本不干什么了, 完了他觉得你一到语音室了, 不是他会第一时间不会想到你是这种课件教学或者什么的, 老师, 那个听片吗? 听音乐吗? ((laughs))好一点的。老师放英文电影吗? 就这样似的。他们第一印象肯定是这么想的, 然后那阵我记得我用课件打出来的一些题, 在教室里就很难调动了。.....不但兴趣没有调动起来, 有的时候他们可能在教室, 他们还能学着点, 在这可能他就溜号了吧, 瞅哪都是挺新鲜的东西, 我觉得还是.....还没有成为那种主要的教学辅助。) (SB-TI-#06-PPP, LL216-232)

PrimaryData186 in §7.2.1.1

Wherever you go, it is quite likely that you will meet foreigners, and you should communicate with them. (怎地到哪都可能遇到外国人, 就是怎地也得交流。)

(SC-SI-#22-SDN-TSM-F, L53)

PrimaryData187 in §7.2.1.1

And then you can use English to communicate with people. Anyhow, I think English is important, and you can use it to communicate with people. (然后你也可以和人家用英语交流, 我感觉, 反正说挺重要的, 可以和人谈话。)(SA-SI-#11-WS-HSM-F, LL60-62)

PrimaryData188 in §7.2.1.1

You see, even cooks are required to learn English, let alone waiters and waitresses. They are even more in need of learning English because they need to have direct contact and communication with customers. So they need to learn English. (你看, 大厨子都学英语呢, 更何况服务员了=更得学了, 因为与客人直接交流的, 更得学了。)

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL47-48)

PrimaryData189 in §7.2.1.1

In case we become a tour guide and if we have foreign customers, we can then communicate with them in English. Otherwise, we'll feel rather awkward. (就是万--咱们以后做导游了, 要是外国客人就是可以用外语跟他交流, 要是不会的话, 就感觉挺尴尬的。)(SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F, LL95-96)

PrimaryData190 in §7.2.1.1

The general tendency at present is that students' incentives in learning English is

getting more and more demotivated. They don't even have a short-term goal. Many students now, or a large group of students, are at a loss. They don't know what they are going to do in the future. (从这个整体现状来说吧, 现在越来越觉得学生学习的积极性不太高, 总是感觉这个英语呢, 他不知道近期一种什么目标。.....现在很多孩子, 可以说大部分孩子都是挺茫然的, 他也不知道将来想干什么。) (SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL21-30)

PrimaryData191 in §7.2.1.1

They all think that they won't be able to use English. Where will they be able to use English?" They don't think that English is useful. So they don't like to learn it. (就是感觉, 他们都感觉我也不用啊,或者我去哪里去说英语去? 他们觉得没有用, 然后就不爱学。) (SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL38-39)

PrimaryData192 in §7.2.1.1

Some of the students now are especially at a loss. They don't know what they're going to do in the future. ... So for the students themselves, they aren't certain what they want to be in the future. (但是现在有的学生他, 特别茫然, 他也不知道他将来能去干啥,所以他们本身就是说, 也不是那么太明确将来的目标去做什么, 对。) (SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL130-133)

PrimaryData193 in §7.2.1.1

I'm not interested in learning English. (不感兴趣。) (SC-SI-#18-ZJC-BE-M, L70)

PrimaryData194 in §7.2.1.1

They feel that English learning is no fun. That is, they don't really want to learn English, but are forced to learn the language. (觉得没什么意思, 就说不是从心里想要去学的, 而是被逼迫去学的。) (MA-GS-#01-F, L30)

PrimaryData195 in §7.2.1.1

At present, students' English level is relatively poor. Many students don't have interest in English. About one fifth of the students in our class are relatively a bit better and have interest in English. The rest of the large group of students are in the state of being forced to learn, in the state of being forced to learn ... (学生英语现状我觉得是, 他们主要还是英语水平相对比较低一些, 很多学生对英语没有, 没有兴趣, 整个我们班能有差不多五分之一那样的孩子吧, 对英语应该说成绩稍微好一点儿, 对英语还是比较有兴趣的, 剩下大部分学生就是逼着上课, 逼着学的那种状态,)

(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL27-31)

PrimaryData196 in §7.2.1.2

7

I wish the teacher's attitudes towards us could be gentler. Anyway, how to say, I think the teacher's attitude towards us should be more like a friend, and whatever we say to her she'll take a serious attitude towards it. (就是稍微温柔点的, 然后就是一嗯, 怎么说呢, 反正感觉吧, 感觉那个老师挺好的, 就是, 就是像朋友似的, 然后说什么话都可认真可认真去听了那种。)(SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F, LL72-74)

PrimaryData197 in §7.2.1.2

I wish the teacher's attitudes towards each of the students could be more friendly. (对每个同学的态度什么都和蔼一点儿。)(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, L161)

PrimaryData198 in §7.2.1.2

I expect teachers to be more humorous in teaching, and not too serious. (感觉老师上课应该风趣一点, 然后不要太严肃。)(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, L160)

PrimaryData199 in §7.2.1.2

The other thing is that I wish teachers could show more patience to communicate with students, yeah. (另外一个就是可能要更加有耐心跟这个学生去交流什么的, 嗯。)(IT-GS-#05-F, LL88-93)

PrimaryData200 in §7.2.1.2

Teachers are expected to be sort of more patient. Teachers shouldn't lose their patience just because some students can't understand them from the very beginning or things like that. There are many teachers who lose their patience just because they don't have patience to tell us, or to explain to us again after they've given an explanation. Teachers' words can easily influence students' incentives and let students feel that their self-dignity is hurt. So teachers should be patient. Students also like teachers who are patient. If they like the teacher, then it's likely that they will like the teacher's lessons. So, teachers' patience can enable students to be more willing to learn English, yeah. (老师一定要是有点儿耐心的那种, 不要是说因为有的同学一开始听不懂或什么的, 有很多老师, 就因为听不懂, 老师就没有耐心告诉你了, 或者告诉你一遍以后就不愿意再对你讲了, 那样的话就很容易打消学生的积极性, 就让学生感觉特别伤自尊心的那种, 所以一定要有耐心, 那样的话, 学生也特别感觉喜欢老师。喜欢那老师他就喜欢学那老师的课, 所以就是, 这样会让学生更加喜欢英语, 嗯。)(IT-GS-#06-F, LL108-114)

PrimaryData201 in §7.2.1.2

The role of teachers really counts. If the teacher is nice to you and pays attention to you, you'll get the sense that you grow interested in the course. If the teacher doesn't care about you and ignores you, you'll then feel that the course isn't

interesting at all. Even though you like the course very much, if the teacher doesn't care about you, then your attitudes towards the course could be totally different. (管老师挺大关系，如果老师对你好的话，挺看重你的话，你就感觉对这门课程也特别感兴趣，如果老师就是不太看重你，连理都不理你，上课不瞧你一眼的话，那你就感觉你对这门课程就一点儿意思都没有。就算你再喜欢的话，那老师关于老师问题的话，对那个课程也会有很大的改变。) (SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL124-128)

PrimaryData202 in §7.2.1.2

I wish teachers could at least show respect towards students rather than letting them feel from the teachers' regards that they were looked down upon once when they came into the school, that they wouldn't have a bright future, and that they would just work at the assembly line soon after their graduation. The teachers didn't show us any appreciation and didn't hold a positive attitude towards us. ... Well, the respect they hold towards students is really important. The respect that teachers hold towards us can let us respect ourselves, let us think that we are able to learn English, and let us rebuild our confidence to learn English. (我觉得在学生一入学的时候，老师最起码要认可这些学生，不要在心里面一进校门的时候就让自己的学生觉得通过眼神啊，通过老师最基本职业学校的每个老师都是觉得，来这儿上学的学生肯定将来都不会有太大的出息，就是毕业之后就是直接往生产线上一送，就属于那种，所以就不会对我们太赞赏啊，不会太肯定我们。……对，真是很重要的，他也让我们尊重我们自己，就觉得我们自己还是有药可救的，可以重新树立起信心来，去认真学习啊什么的。) (IT-GS-#05-F, LL83-86)

PrimaryData203 in §7.2.1.2

Basically I expect teachers to be able to cater for each of the students in the class, yeah, so that no one will be left behind. (基本上我希望老师能照顾到全班，嗯，感觉就不让每一个学生都掉队。) (MA-GS-#02-M, LL96-97)

PrimaryData204 in §7.2.1.2

The key point is no matter the answers you give are right or wrong, the teacher can still give you encouragement. The teachers can also show willingness to help you after class and don't use any humiliating words in class ((makes a noise with her mouth)). (关键是在课堂上不管是回答错了还是对了，然后，给予鼓励。然后，在课下希望帮助你，在课上没有什么刺激性的语言。) (SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL205-206)

PrimaryData205 in §7.2.1.2

The most important thing is that the relationship between teachers and students should be harmonious. When the teacher teaches in the front, the teacher should let the students in the class be willing to learn what she teaches so that the teaching

can achieve its maximum effect. Otherwise, ((makes a noise with his mouth)) psychologically speaking, students nowadays have the sort of rebellious tendency, that is, if they dislike the teacher, then they don't like listening to the teacher's lessons and if they really like the teacher, then they'll be more willing to listen to the teacher. (最重要的就是学生和老师之间, 首先就得融洽一些, 因为—老师在前面讲课, 学生在下面主要是能听进去讲课, 这才叫是, 能把这节课能学好。要不然, 就是, 有的学生现在嘛, 小孩儿就是有一种逆反心理, 就是感觉烦这个老师就不爱听这老师的课, 要是比较喜欢这老师, 就是能够, 能够就是爱听一些。)(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL136-140)

PrimaryData206 in §7.2.1.2

I wish that there could be more communication between teachers and students. (是老师跟学生的沟通应该多一些。)(SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL118-119)

PrimaryData207 in §7.2.1.2

I wish we didn't feel too nervous in front of the teacher. We could feel more relaxed. (……跟咱, 就是不用太拘谨的那种, 能放松一些。)(SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F, L184)

PrimaryData208 in §7.2.1.2

The other thing is when we first entered the vocational school nobody reminded us of the importance of learning English, and we ourselves didn't realize the importance of learning English. We thought that as a worker on the assembly line it was quite unlikely that we would need to use English and would get involved in the higher administration of the business. We didn't have any practice on English use and generally we didn't spend any time on English. Only when we went to work did we find that a group of us would still have a promising future. Even though for those students who work on the assembly line, they might still have an opportunity to have technical communication with foreigners. Only when we were at the workplace did we realize the importance of learning English. (另外一个就是, 我们在刚开始入学的时候, 没有什么人去提醒我们, 我们自己也不知道英语是那么的重要, 觉得我们生产线上的工人吗, 可能接触不到啊, 也参与不到公司的高层什么的, 没有这方面的练习什么的, 所以一般人可能都不怎么去学习。但真正走上工作岗位才发现, 哪怕有一部分还是很有发展的呢, 哪怕技术生产线上的同学, 他也会接触到一些技术交流跟国外的什么的, 那时候才发现英语真的很重要。)(IT-GS-#05-F, LL101-105)

PrimaryData209 in §7.2.1.2

Our English teacher is really nice, and she's really nice to me. ... I know she's very nice to me and I think I shouldn't make any trouble in her class. So I started listening to her in her class. It seemed that I was able to understand what she taught. When

she asked me a question, I was able to answer it. It appeared that I was able to understand her class. So I think that I'm not that stupid, and started learning English. Once I start learning, I'm able to understand it. (咱们英语老师特别好, 对我老好了 ((smiles)). ……我就合计老师挺好的, 老师对我这么好, 我就不能捉她, 我就指定得听她课, 她课听听我就会了((smiles)). 完老师一问我, 我就会了。我还合计我怎么还会了呢, 完儿就合计, 我也不那么笨呢, 那就学呗, 学一学就会了。)

(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL201-205)

PrimaryData210 In §7.2.1.2

After I came here, Ms D has been teaching us. She's really nice and so I began to like learning English. (后来就, 就是考这了嘛, 考这儿之后, D老师教了, D老师教得, 感觉D老师人挺好的, 然后就挺爱学。)(SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F, LL34-35)

PrimaryData211 in §7.2.1.2

Yeah, I'm very happy that I can follow the teacher. The course, I feel, is not that difficult. And in the class, I feel that everyone is at the same level, and there is no need to care about other's opinions. In junior school days, the learning differences between students were great. Some students learned English very well, so the teacher always cared about those good ones. We didn't feel balanced, quite unbalanced sort of. Now in the senior secondary education, our English teacher is quite fair, and tends to care about everyone in her class. So I feel very happy, really very happy. I don't need to care about how others look at me. ([[嗯, 能跟上, 挺开心的, 这个课程感觉还是挺简单的。完学着就是班级里吧, 也感觉都差不多, 然后学的都那样, 也不用在意什么什么眼光。初中他们就是差别特别大, 有的就学的特别好, 所以老师都总拽着那些好的, 就给人感觉就是心里不太平稳, 平衡那种的, 也就没什么积极性了, 就往后面一躲, 老师也不怎么管你了, 完也就那样了。完到高中, 老师也都挺公平的, 都抓着, 所以感觉学的挺好, 特开心, 也没什么在意别人的眼光。])

(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL24-29)

PrimaryData212 in §7.2.1.2

In our English teacher's class, I don't know how to put it myself. Sometimes, when she teaches, there is little communication between us. Sometimes she just teaches in English, in English. Sometimes in Chinese. ... Then there is another point. The teacher is partial to good students. If the student's English is good, then the teacher will always ask those good students to answer her questions. (然后那个, 我们老师上课, 然后, 嗯, 不太, 怎么说呢, 有的时候, 上课的时候沟通就是少, 有的时候就是直接用英语, 有的时候用英语说, 有的时候就是用汉语。……然后还有一点就是, 老师就是属于偏重于, 有的时候老师偏重于, 就是学习好的学生, 然后这个孩子英语

好，我上课就总叫他之类的。) (SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL99-134)

PrimaryData213 in §7.2.1.2

I can't follow the teacher. After learning a new word, I'll soon forget about it. ... In the English class, I can't remember what the teacher says. I've got a headache in the English class. (跟不上，记一个，一会儿就忘了。……上课，听不进去，听的脑袋直疼。) (SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, L37-44)

PrimaryData214 in §7.2.1.2

How to say, I just can't understand the English lessons. (就是怎么说呢，听不明白，就是。) (SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, L104)

PrimaryData215 in §7.2.1.2

I don't like listening to the teacher, and I don't want to listen to the English lessons, either. (不爱听，我不想听。) (SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, L180)

PrimaryData216 in §7.2.1.2

I don't like the English subject. I think it's not interesting. (不喜欢，没意思这个科，感觉，没有意思。) (SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, L120)

PrimaryData217 in §7.2.1.2

I'm in the low-level English class. It's OK. I can understand a bit of what the teacher says. ... I'm in Class A, Class A. The class of the lowest level. (我在那个不怎么好的那个班，还行。她说的能听懂点。……在a班，a班。……最不好的那个。) (SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F, L82-86)

PrimaryData218 in §7.2.1.2

Now, I'm beginning to like the course. ... Yeah, my interest is a bit stronger than before. (我现—在才刚刚喜欢。……嗯，有一点了，比以前强多了。) (SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL29-32)

PrimaryData219 in §7.2.1.2

My interest in English is now getting stronger. I'm more interested in learning now. (然后现在就是，就是积极性上来了，就爱学了。) (SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL35-36)

PrimaryData220 in §7.2.1.2

Now I'm interested in learning English. At the beginning, when I first started learning, that is, when I couldn't understand, I disliked learning. I'm getting much better now. (有，现在行了，原来，刚开始学那时候，就是比较，不会那阵儿，不爱学，现在还行。)

(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, LL37-38)

PrimaryData221 in §7.2.1.3

(In my spare time, I just read English) about two or three times a week. ... Less than an hour. Just a little while. (两, 两三次呗。……也就没到一个小时, 就看一会儿。)

(SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, LL50-52)

PrimaryData222 in §7.2.1.3

I don't spend much time on English. (The time I spend on English is just the class time. ... After the class, I almost spend very little time on English. (不太多, 嗯, 就上课的时间吧。……下课基本上算是没有了。)) (SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, LL31-33)

PrimaryData223 in §7.2.1.3

The time I spent on English is mainly in the class. After class, when going back home on Saturdays and Sundays, I sometimes can learn English for one or two hours. This is quite much, I think. (主要就是隔学校上课的时间。然后, 搁家, 就是能周六、周天再就是周六周日能偶尔, 有时候, 能看一两个点。就是, 然后, 就是, 这就算多的了, 我感觉。 (She laughed at this point)) (SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL63-65)

PrimaryData224 in §7.2.1.3

And, other than the English class, I seldom learn English in my spare time. (这个……除了上课之外很少。) (SA-SI-#01-SBR-BE-F, L100)

PrimaryData225 in §7.2.1.3

I usually don't study English after class. (我通常下课不会看...。) (SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, L49)

PrimaryData226 in §7.2.1.3

I have long given up English learning. (对英语早就放弃了。) (SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, L210)

PrimaryData227 in §7.2.1.3

I don't really want to learn English. (就是压根都不想学。) (SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F, L115)

PrimaryData228 in §7.2.1.3

I've become demotivated. If I have motivation and if my motivation is high, then I'll spend time on English. You see ever since I came to this vocational school, I've never spent time on English, except learning in class. (这动机不足, 有这种想法。如

果要是足的话，我—那有时间就学了，看我这，到这个学校我一直没，没怎么看，除了上课。)(SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, LL160-162)

PrimaryData229 in §7.2.1.3

To tell the truth, I've never really liked English, or have realized how important English will be to my future career. Nor has the teacher's teaching method really aroused my special interest in English. (就是从来没有说从内心里面觉得真正喜欢这个东西，觉得这个东西对于自己的将来有多重要，也没有因为说老师的这种教学模式让我对这门语言有什么特别的，有兴趣的方向。)(MA-GS-#01-F, LL103-105)

PrimaryData230 in §7.2.1.3

When I first started learning English, I didn't pay special attention to it as I didn't consider there were a lot to learn in primary education. Then when I was in junior secondary school, I began to feel that English was getting more and more difficult. The more I wanted to catch up with the teacher, the more difficult I felt. I was then left behind. When I was left behind, my parents tried to let me catch up with the teacher by taking some tutoring lessons outside school. I did pretty poor at the entrance exam for senior secondary education. Now I'm terribly afraid of learning English. (一开始学习的时候没怎么在乎，说小学英语也没有什么玩意儿，然后之后到中学了就感觉越来越难，越来越难，越撵，想撵也撵不上去了，然后就拉下了，拉下来的时候，家长就管，管之后，补课怎么怎么的，完事然后中考的时候也得了那个，得的少，然后就是((makes a noise with her mouth))现在就特怕英语((smiles))。)(SC-SI-#22-SDN-TSM-F, LL20-23)

PrimaryData231 in §7.2.1.3

After class, sometimes I learn English by myself. Sometimes I learn English mainly by myself. My main purpose is to learn English well. (下课.....就是有的时候看看，有的时候也是自己，就是，主要还是想把英语学好。)(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL73-74)

PrimaryData232 in §7.2.1.3

In my spare time, I sometimes read some English. If I don't understand, then I'll ask other students. Then if there are some good useful sentences, I'll probably write them down. It's the way I learn English. (在那个闲暇时，有的时候会看一些，不会的话，会大概的问一下。然后，或是比较好的什么句子，会大概会记一下，这样的。)(SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, LL59-61)

PrimaryData233 in §7.2.1.3

Now here at this vocational school I can generally follow the teacher and have

incentives to learn. I feel quite happy to learn English now. (感觉现在课程也都比较能跟得上, 学习也都挺有积极性的, 跟的挺开心的。) (SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL21-22)

PrimaryData234 in §7.2.1.3

Now I feel that I have incentives to learn, and I'm more interested in learning English than before. When I was in junior secondary school, my English was poor. Now, I'm more motivated and I'm especially fond of learning English. (我感觉我现在积极性上来了, 然后就比以前爱学了。我以前初中, 那个学习不好吗, 现在积极性上来了就特别喜欢学。) (SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL179-181)

PrimaryData235 in §7.2.1.3

After all, it is mainly the issue of interest. When I have interest in English, I would like to learn a bit more. (完了就是兴趣, 兴趣上来了, 就是特别喜欢, 就想多学一点。) (SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL120-121)

PrimaryData236 in §7.2.1.3

Now, if you have any interest, you'll find English very interesting and would like to recite a few more words. If you have interest, then it's easier to learn things by heart. (现在就是可能说你有点兴趣, 就觉得英语挺好玩儿, 没事背两个单词玩儿, 有兴趣就记得就比较牢。) (SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, LL76-77)

PrimaryData237 in §7.2.1.3

We should learn English well because foreigners, such as English people, can learn to speak Chinese well. If they can learn Chinese well, why can't we learn foreign language well. I wish I could learn English well. (就说应该把英语, 学好。因为就身为外国人就是像英国之类的人, 都可以把中国话, 中文学好, 那为什么我们不能把外国语学好, 就希望好好学吧。) (SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL193-194)

PrimaryData238 in §7.2.1.5

English is useful. I'm interested in it because it's useful. Now that China is getting more internationalized, English will surely be useful. (有用, 就因为有用我所以才对有兴趣, 对它。现在中国也走上国际化, 所以说, 肯定能有用, 这个。) (SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, LL48-49)

PrimaryData239 in §7.2.1.5

I listen to the English class attentively because it is related with my future. If it has nothing to do with my future, then I won't listen to the English class. (认真听啊 ((seriously)). 因为跟我有关嘛, 跟我没关的, 我就不听了, 毕竟以后得用, 就得听。) (SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL129-131)

PrimaryData240 in §7.2.1.5

I think English is useful. Well, some jobs require the use of English. So I wish I could learn more at school. (我觉得有用。也就是那个，有的工作必须要那个，学会英语吗。完事我希望我现在那个，能多学点。在学校的时间能多学点。)(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL187-188)

PrimaryData241 in §7.2.1.5

It is quite likely that we'll encounter English either in our work or in communication. (在工作或者交谈都能遇到了。)(SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, L57)

PrimaryData242 in §7.2.1.5

English should be useful. Because companies now all need people who can speak English, people who can speak fluent English, to communicate with foreigners. (应该能用上。因为现在公司都需要这种英语呀，口语呀和什么，和外国人打交道都需要。)(SA-SI-#01-SBR-BE-F, LL34-36)

PrimaryData243 in §7.2.1.5

Learning English, the most important of all, is for the sake of my specialty. It is completely for the sake of my specialty that I choose to learn English. (学习英语—最重要的是，((makes a noise with his mouth))首先吗，首先我是完全是看在就是我学这个专业上，然后来学习英语的。)(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL142-143)

PrimaryData244 in §7.2.1.5

In terms of English learning, I feel that English is especially important to my specialty. So I especially want to learn. For one thing, it is very useful, otherwise I won't learn. For the other, English is very important to whatever specialty. (上课吧，我就感觉对于我这个专业英语挺重要的，所以我，所以我就特别想学，如果没有用的话我也不学。再说英语现在对什么专业来说都挺重要的。)(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL46-47)

PrimaryData245 in §7.2.1.5

It is especially when I came to this school did I find out that English can cause some problems in getting a job. It is for the sake of my future job that I should learn English well. It is very important and I've just found it out. (尤其是到了这所学校吧，才发现因为就业的时候会有很大的问题，为了将来嘛，所以说英语还是应该好好学习一下。挺重要的，才发现。)(SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, LL23-26)

PrimaryData246 in §7.2.1.5

I think English is important. In current society, you should master a language, or even several languages. I now feel that English is pretty important. It is not that you should learn the language well, but you should also be able to use it. Learning without use won't work. You should be able to use the language. Regarding your future work requirements, you should learn a few more languages. (我觉得，特别重要。你现在这个社会，你必须得掌握一门语言，甚至是多门语言。我就是，觉得现在，就是最重要把英语，给它，不光是学好，完得是会应用，你学会了不会应用也不行。会应用，然后是，针对你工作以后的需要，再多学些几门外语。) (ibid., LL208-212)

PrimaryData247 in §7.2.1.5

In terms of job promotion, English is quite helpful, yeah. If your English is not good enough, then I believe none of hotel managers will hire a mid-level manager with poor English. (而且在升职的这一块儿，也有很大的帮助的，对。因为你英文不太好的话，我相信任何一家酒店要是老总的话，都不会选择一个英文不好的。) (SV-GS-#04-F, LL85-86)

PrimaryData248 in §7.2.1.6

For English learning, sometimes it mainly depends on you. Well, personally I want to learn English well. (就是有的时候看看，有的时候也是自己，就是，主要还是想把英语学好。) (SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL73-74).

PrimaryData249 in §7.2.1.6

Speaking of learning English, if you don't want to learn the language yourself, nothing from outside can really exert an influence on you. It's mainly yourself who really count. If you have the incentive to learn English, then you can learn it well. (本身这个东西吧，如果说自己不想学的话，那个外观怎么教育你都没有用，主要是看你自己的想法。如果想学的话，怎么都能学好。) (SC-SI-#24-WSQ-TSM-F, LL88-91)

PrimaryData250 in §7.2.1.6

The things that the teacher requires us to recite are surely far from sufficient. You see we are going to take the higher vocational entrance exam. For our specialty – the air service specialty, if we don't have a higher vocational degree, then we won't be able to find a job, won't be able to find a job. For example, there's going to be a higher vocational entrance exam for senior secondary vocational students this year. If you have a look at the exam syllabus, you can see that it has many things. Some of them are phrases. There are a lot of phrases. Since we are going to take the exam, I have to read all those books, and memorize a lot of things. Some of the things the teacher has already taught us, but there are still quite a lot that we haven't learned at school. We need to read more and remember more so that we'll

be able to do well in the exam. (老师让你背的那些东西肯定不够。就像看今年就开始报大专了咱们，咱们专业你要是没大专的话，就上不去，就不让你参加工作。那今年那不有那个高升专，高升专那个嘛，不有那个大纲嘛，然后它那个英语可多了。有的，那全是那个短语啊，贼老多，完了看，我们就是准备报那个高升本呢，然后看那个书什么的，老多老多段意啥的了，就得背那个，背啊，有的就是老师讲过，有的就是没讲过，就得多看一看，多记一记，到时候考试也能用上。)(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL57-63)

PrimaryData251 in §7.2.1.6

The teacher gives us some extra scores for encouragement. I think the sort of scores is really important. It is especially important to me, which causes me to like learning English. (还加分，鼓励分，然后觉得那分特重要，对于自己特重要，就爱学了。)(SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, L59)

PrimaryData252 in §7.2.1.6

I think learning English can let others think that you've received good education. Moreover, foreign languages have now become a popular currency. If you can speak fluent English, then you can win admiration from others. That's my sort of thinking. (感觉嘛学英语,特别是能让外边人能够感觉你的知识文化比较高, 外语比较流通一些, 就是让别人羡慕一些吧, 就是这么感觉的我((makes a noise with his mouth)).)(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL144-145)

PrimaryData253 in §7.2.1.6

I think English is important. Usually if you receive foreign tourists, you should at least to be able to speak a little English. When the guests ask you questions, if you can't answer their questions in English, you'll feel really embarrassed. You'll feel that it's really face-losing and you'll feel really awkward. (感觉就是挺重要的, 一般就是((makes a noise with her mouth))要是接待外国游客就必须得会两句英语, 你要是一句都不会, 人家问你, 连问题都回答不上, 自己都感觉没面子, 不好意思。)(SC-SI-#19-LXC-TSM-F, LL45-47)

PrimaryData254 in §7.2.1.6

Back at home I seldom learn English. Sometimes when going back home, I suddenly have the impetus to learn English. When I see people who can speak English very fluently on TV, I got the incentive to learn English well. Then I'll start to recite a couple of new words. I can recite things very quickly. I can remember those things very soon. But I'll forget half of them the next day. My English learning is just the way like this. (回家很少看, 就是有时候回家吧, 到家的时候, 诶, 学英语的劲头上来了, 就是, 尤其是看电视的时候, 一看别人英语说得呱呱的, 然后我就想, 诶,

以后得好好学，然后就开始背俩个单词，背背，我背也快，一会儿就全背下来了，就是背下来，第二天就能忘个50%，另一半还记得，就这样。)(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL38-41)

PrimaryData255 in §7.2.4.1.1

When I was young, I didn't like learning English. I especially didn't like learning English. By the time I went to the junior secondary school, we were expected to sit the entrance exam for senior secondary education. At that time I couldn't follow the teacher in class. Then my mum tried to let me go to other tutoring classes to learn English. During summer holidays, my mom took me to an informal English learning center, which allowed parents to audit classes. So my mom quitted her job, and went to the class with me every day, each single day. (我小时候就不爱学英语，特别不爱学，到初中以后，英语不考试嘛，像参加中考什么的，然后上学英语就跟不上了，然后我妈就想办法给我补课。那前儿是暑假吧，然后我妈带我去补课班，那个补课班可以就是家长陪着去上课，然后我妈就不上班，天天陪我去上课，成天的。)(SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL20-23)

PrimaryData256 in §7.2.4.1.1

My mom has quitted her job for a few years. All these years, she's spent her time in accompanying me to study. (我妈都几年没上班了，竟看着我学习了。)(ibid., L105)

PrimaryData257 in §7.2.4.1.1

Since I started learning English, my Mom has been working together with me. I think, how to put it, half of my achievement attributes to my mom's effort. I think that in the informal English learning center, if my mom was not there with me, I wouldn't have listened attentively to the teacher. Since my mom was there, sitting at the back of the class, I had to listen to the teacher attentively even though I didn't feel like learning English. But after class, when going back home, I had to depend on myself to learn English. I couldn't quite understand the lessons at the beginning. I did it completely in a rote learning manner. When I really understood what I had learned, really knew the way to learning English, then I became more autonomous and more depended on myself to learn. (我一开始学英语，觉得，怎么说呢，一半是靠我妈，一半是靠我。我觉得，我就是上那个补课班的地方学，没有我妈，我可能不那么认真去听课，我妈在后面坐着，想不听也得好好听。听完之后，回家然后，主要是靠自己背，一开始也听不明白，全自己去背，最后学明白了，真的就是入门了一些，那就靠你自己去理解，慢慢去理解出来。)(ibid., LL196-200)

PrimaryData258 in §7.2.4.1.1

My mom says to me, "you should study well. if you want to go to an English learning

center to learn English, I'm quite willing to pay as long as you learn." My mom always says this, "If you think you need, and then I'd like to pay." If I think a book is useful then she'll buy it for me. As long as I study, it's OK. My mom is quite happy to spend money on my study. Whenever I tell her that I want to go to the bookstore, my mum is always happy. 'How much money do you need?' my mom will ask. I told her that I don't know how much money I would need. 'Will 300 yuan be enough?' When I told her that it might not be enough. Then she would say, "take some more". Then she would say, "I'll go to the bookstore with you." ... My mom always says to me, "you should learn English well." I tell her that I know the importance of learning English. My mom especially cares about my English, fairly, fairly care about it. (我妈就说你好好学, 你要是说补课我就给你补, 你好好学就行, 我妈就这个意思。你说啥, 我可以给你, 我认为有用我可以给你买, 只要你学, 怎地都行, 我妈就这个意思。我要一说上书店, 我妈可乐意了, 我妈说你要多钱, 我说不知道, 给你拿300够不够? 我说可能, 不够吧, 那就多给你拿点, 你要多钱吧? 我说不知道, 那我陪你去。……我妈一天老跟我说, 你那英语得好好学啊, 我说, 我知道了。我妈也特别, 特别在意我英语, 特别特别在意。) (SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL248-256)

PrimaryData259 in §7.2.4.1.1

My parents have high expectations on me. ... They encourage me to study English. But they don't say the same thing repetitively. They mainly leave it to me. (期望高。……督促, 学习肯定督促。但是, 凡多话他们也不说, 主要都看我自己。) (SB-SI-#09-ZS-CNC-M, LL77-79)

PrimaryData260 in §7.2.4.1.1

After my graduation, I want to continue my study. My mom says that she expects me to go to a higher vocational college. (我毕业之后, 就是——想继续学习吧, 我妈说让我上大专。) (SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F, L100)

PrimaryData261 in §7.2.4.1.1

My parents encourage me to study English well. They say, "if you can learn English well, then you can have a brighter future. (让我好好学, 说到时候将来就是你把英语学好了, 就能够发展好一点。) (SC-SI-#19-LXC-TSM-F, L99)

PrimaryData262 in §7.2.4.1.1

My dad says, "learning English well is more important than anything else." (我爸说, 以后学英语学好了比什么都强。) (SA-SI-#14-SXX-HSM-F, L200)

PrimaryData263 in §7.2.4.1.1

My parents expect my English level to become higher and higher. (期望我英语, 水

平越高越好。) (SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, L208)

PrimaryData264 in §7.2.4.1.1

My parents expect me to learn English well to find a good job. (父母期望我也就是，找个好工作呗。) (SB-SI-#10-ZRJ-CNC-M, L113)

PrimaryData265 in §7.2.4.1.1

My mom and dad work at our home restaurant and they are busy with restaurant work. They don't have time to monitor my study. Sometimes I don't go back home after school. I can only rely on myself to learn English at school or at home. But every morning my mom, every morning my mom would urge me to work hard, to work hard at English for my future and so on. (我爸我妈在那个,自己家的饭店,在饭店忙活,就是一点时间都没有,父母本身就忙,然后那个,我有时候放学也不着家,就是只能靠我自己,在学校能学就学,在家不学的话,但我妈妈每天早上都是,早上都是督促我好好学习好好学习,为了将来这那的。) (SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL44-47)

PrimaryData266 in §7.2.4.1.1

A majority of vocational students are from divorced, separated or single-parent families, which resulted in their diminished learning interest and declined academic achievement. (我觉得作为家庭的原因,因为职高学生里面,就是家庭破裂的、离异的、单亲的,这些比较多,所以造成他们,就是对于学习的兴趣跟成绩的下滑。) (HZ-IP-#01-F, LL56-58)

PrimaryData267 in §7.2.4.1.1

Speaking of these children, I always think that they are not solely the ones to be blamed for their study. It's only that there are things that they can't change, such as the divorce and the separation of their parents. Sometimes I have sympathy on them, even though sometimes the students act up in front of me. ... But after I became Mother, my attitude towards them gets more tender. When we had a talk after class, they told me that they treated me as Mother. When told, I became more sympathetic towards them. For example, there's a little girl in my class, whose mother has been in France for many years. Although the parents haven't got divorced, the father has developed his own affection for another woman. So out of anger, the girl shut herself from communication with others. Later, she told me that I remind her of her mother. There are many children like her. (就是我总觉得吧,对这些孩子来讲,你说谁不愿意学习好啊,只不过有一些是他没办法扭转的,比如说父母,离异,不在一起。……有时候我就是挺心疼他们的,就包括有的学生啊,就是,他跟我,就是他有时候跟我耍小脾气什么的。……但是吧,有小孩了以后吧,有时候我就好像更,温情那面多一点儿,然后包括他们私底下跟我沟通也是,老师,咱们有时候

拿你当妈。她这么一说吧，我就有时候看他们就可怜了。比如说有个小女孩，母亲在法国都好多年了，父亲好像就是又，也没有，母亲父亲也没离婚，但是父亲也有另外一份情感了吧，然后她就是，好像上了那个劲儿就不和别人沟通，就是生气也好，她就不跟别人沟通。然后后来，就曾经跟我说过一句话，老师我看你我想我妈了，就这样的孩子……。) (SC-TI-#03-DF, LL68-89)

PrimaryData268 In §7.2.4.1.1

I think student' low motivation was due to their families because in our vocational school many students are from families, relatively speaking, single-parent families. They experienced less family attention and care. So in terms of parent encouragement, the students experienced relatively less, which in turn affect their language competences. ... Relatively speaking, about half of the students in my class grew up in those single-parent families. Some of them lived with their grandparents from either maternal or paternal side, or with their relatives, since they were very young. Still there are a few students who were sent to live in the boarding school, the sort of boarding school. Many students have almost never experienced the cozy family environment and the family care, so they don't seem to care about others. We can see this when we teachers first got in touch with them. They were quite upset at the beginning. They didn't want teachers to take care of them as they haven't been taken care of for quite a long time. But gradually as time passed, students would accept the teacher and grow to realize that the teacher really cares about them. Only then will students develop the feeling that there is still someone in the world who really cares about them. It's the sort of feeling, yeah. I think it is not that students themselves don't like to study; various reasons contribute to their present status. It has formed a sort of vicious cycle. (我觉得是家庭原因，因为我们职业学校很多学生的家庭啊，嗯，单亲家庭相对多一些，家庭关心这方面就差一些，所以在家长督促学习啊，对学生应有的关心这方面也都相对要差一些，所以也造成了学生，这方面比较缺失一些。……相对来说，像我们一个班级里面有一半左右的学生，都是那样的。他们有的是从小就跟着奶奶住、姥姥住，或者是跟着亲戚住，有的个别的孩子就一直在那个长托，包括那个学校就是那种长时间的寄宿学校，几乎就是有很多学生根本就感受不到家庭的那种温暖、那种关心，所以他们也不在乎别人怎么关心不关心他。就包括有时候我们老师，你开始和他接触的时候，他就会有一种挺反感的，你不用管我了，没有人管我了，但时间长了可能感觉这小孩，他渐渐就会接受你，感觉确实老师从心里上去关心我了，他就有那种感觉就是，还有人在这个世界上挺关心我的，就这种感觉，嗯。我觉得学生其实也不是说他们本身不愿意学习，有各种原因就导致他们对现在，就是一种恶性循环吧。) (SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL35-58)

PrimaryData269 In §7.2.4.1.2

We, the generation born after 1980s, started learning English since Year 1 at junior secondary education. No one was a poor learner from the very beginning in Year 1. We were all very interested in English at the beginning. I remember at that time when I was in Year 1, my English was very good and I was very interested in it. (我们80后基本都是从初一开始的, 初一的时候没有学生一上来就是差学生, 学生开始学都是很感兴趣。记得我当时初一的时候, 学习外语是非常好的, 也很感兴趣。)
(IT-GS-#05-F, LL54-55)

PrimaryData270 in §7.2.4.1.2

When I started learning English, I was very interested in it. When back at home, my parents would urge me to learn the new words by heart. Things went along fine at the beginning. Then, since Year 1 at junior secondary education, ... It was also in Year 1 at the junior secondary school that we started to learn grammar. I started to have problems with grammar. Some of the grammar that the teacher explained in class I couldn't remember. When we were asked to do exercises, I couldn't understand the exercises even though the teacher had explained. And when we were asked to apply the grammatical knowledge learned, I had difficulty in applying grammatical knowledge to actual language use. From then on, I gradually became disinterested in English, and especially didn't like memorizing things. (开始的时候就挺感兴趣的, 然后那个单词什么家长回家督促背。然后就是, 开始的时候很好, 然后那个, 六年级, 初一吧, 六年级, ……然后那个, 就是不是特别爱背单词了。然后那个等到初一的时候, 上初中就讲语法了, 就有些地方, 就是, 老师讲了, 但是有的还是记不住, 然后, 平时那个, 做题, 有时候老师讲, 讲是讲, 就是有时候那个, 不能完全理解, 然后, 应用的时候就应用不上, 然后那个, 就是后来, 越往后就是不是特别喜欢英语, 就不特别爱背了。)(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL20-26)

PrimaryData271 in §7.2.4.1.2

The terrible grammar that the teacher taught, I didn't like to listen to. I didn't like listening to the teacher, and dislike listening to the teacher at all. And, little by little, I couldn't understand what the teacher taught. Finally, I completely couldn't understand what the teacher taught at all. (老师讲的那些乱七八糟的语法, 不爱听, 不爱听也不听, 然后一点儿一点儿地, 一点儿都不会了, 到最后尾儿了, 老师讲的啥我都听不懂。)(SA-SI-#04-WY-HSM-F, LL180-181)

PrimaryData272 in §7.2.4.1.2

At that time, the teacher always taught grammar and the text in the class. So the class atmosphere was the sort of, sort of boring. And I felt a bit sleepy. (以前就是, 老师讲那个语法和课文, 然后比较, 气氛就有点那个, 闷就感觉。完就有点, 发困。)

(SB-SI-#05-LL-MDM-M, LL76-78)

PrimaryData273 in §7.2.4.1.2

The way that the teacher taught was so rigid, not interesting at all. Also, the teacher didn't show any patience when teaching, which let the poor English learner formed the concept that they were incapable of reading and learning English. So they didn't want to learn. What's more, the teacher's teaching was not interesting at all. (就是老师讲的太刻板了, 没意思。或者是, 老师教的不耐心, 然后, 就是造成他们这种观念, 就是看不懂、听不会, 然后也不想学, 老师讲的没意思。) (SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL179-181)

PrimaryData274 in §7.2.4.1.2

My parents can't help me with my English. I have to rely on myself ((sign)). (帮不上, 就是靠自己。) (SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, L103)

PrimaryData275 in §7.2.4.1.2

They don't know English at all. (不懂。) (SA-SI-#01-SBR-BE-F, L189)

PrimaryData276 in §7.2.4.1.2

They don't know English themselves, either. (他们也不会。)
(SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, L29)

PrimaryData277 in §7.2.4.1.2

They can't help me with my English. (帮助不了。) (SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, L53)

PrimaryData278 in §7.2.4.1.2

My parents can't help me with my English as they both don't know much English. My mom knows a little and can urge me to remember things in English. She can only read some simple English. When it comes to more difficult English, she knows nothing. She can't do those exercises in English. She can only read some English words. (帮不上。爸爸、妈妈他们都不会。然后, 就是我妈稍懂一点, 就是能督促我背点东西, 她能就是简单地还能会读, 难的她就不会了。题啥的就看不明白, 单词啥的还能会读点。) (SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL51-54)

PrimaryData279 in §7.2.4.1.2

At the very beginning, I didn't know much about English. Then my mom sent me to a tutoring English class. I went there to learn English after school, went there to learn after school. But still I didn't do well with my English, and I didn't quite like learning English. (刚开始学英语也懂的也不太多。然后我妈就给我报了个英语班, 我没事放学

的时候我就去学去，放学没事就去学去，完事后来学的就不是太好，不怎么太学英语了。) (SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL25-27)

PrimaryData280 in §7.2.4.1.2

When I was in Year 6 in primary school, I had an English tutor, who helped me with Year 7 English. Later I stopped going to the tutoring English. (六年级的时候请过，补初一的，补补就，不去了就。) (SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, L57)

PrimaryData281 in §7.2.4.1.2

Ever since I was very young, I started learning English. At that time, my mom sent me to an informal learning center to learn English, (从我很小的时候，就开始学了，那个我妈以前就是，小的时候就给我送那个学习英语，.....) (SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL14-15)

PrimaryData282 in §7.2.4.1.2

I started learning English when I was in Year 4 at primary school because I did my Year 1 and Year 2 study not in this city. I moved back to the school here when I was in Year 4. Then my mom sent me to learn English in an informal training center, where we were mainly trained for our spoken English. (小学四年级开始，那个，因为我一年、二年没在这边上，然后也没学过，然后四年的时候上这儿面来了。妈妈就让我在冠亚(An English training center)补英语，然后，那个，主要是口语呗。) (SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL18-20)

PrimaryData283 in §7.2.4.1.2

The junior secondary teachers, I think, are very sophisticated. It's likely that we don't have a good understanding of them. It might be that they are under the test-driven pressure or because of other outside pressure. (现在的普教老师这一块儿，可能咱们就是不太了解哈，但是就是从升学压力啊，再包括就是一些很多的，外界的原因好，就是我感觉，普教的那些老师吧，就是很世故。) (SC-TI-#03-DF, LL66-68)

PrimaryData284 in §7.2.4.1.2

But the teacher didn't pay attention to us. The teacher only paid her attention to the few top students, and didn't care about the few poor students. So ((makes a noise with her mouth)) I didn't do well with my English. (但是老师不重视，前几名还是比较重视的，后几名老师就不管了，然后，学的就不怎么好了。) (SA-SI-#13-ZS-TRSM-F, LL49-50)

PrimaryData285 in §7.2.4.1.2

Later the teacher just taught in such a way. My English was just so-so. The teacher

only focused her attention on the students sitting in the front rows, those sitting in the front rows. The classroom in our junior secondary school was not the same as our present classroom. It was more spacious, with more students. It was the sort of long desk for two students, with four students forming a row. The eight students sitting in the first two rows are especially good at English. So in the English class the teacher mainly communicated with them. I was sitting in the front three or four row. ... But the teacher didn't even bother to look at me. Even though I was able to answer the questions the teacher asked, and even though I put up my hand, the teacher just didn't have a look at me because the teacher was afraid that I wasn't able to answer her questions well. And at that time if we weren't able to answer her questions correctly, other students would laugh at us. So I was always afraid that I couldn't speak correctly and that I could make mistakes. The teacher also never asked me to answer her questions, never asked me to answer her questions. If suddenly I was asked by the teacher, and I happened not to be able to answer her question correctly, then the whole class would laugh at me. All the students in the class would laugh at me. Then I became even more disinterested in English. I always made mistakes and there were always a group of people laughing at me. So I became even more disinterested in learning English. Little by little, my English was left behind. (老师后来就是这个样子, 我学习成绩吧一般属于, 老师就是偏向中学教室的前一排((a teacher comes in)), 前一排。后来老师就是, 中学的教室不像现在的教室, 教室比较大, 学生比较多。然后大概是两个那种双人桌, 并在一起, 就是一排是四个人那样的, 前面两排就是8个人是英语特别好的, 所以老师就是上课主要是跟他们沟通。我当时是坐在第3、4排。……老师完全就是连看都不看你一眼, 上课就算问到问题我会, 举手了, 但老师都不看我, 就是因为老师怕你说不好。然后那个时候还有就是我们要是说不好, 别人会笑话我们, 总怕说不好, 怕说错, 就是老师就总不叫你, 总不叫你。老师突然, 你就说不好了, 全班同学哈哈, 全班同学一起笑你, 然后你就更不爱学。总说, 哎哟我总说错, 一堆人一起笑我, 就更不爱学英语了, 英语就这么一点点落下了。) (SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL147-157)

PrimaryData286 in §7.2.4.1.2

In junior secondary school, there were huge differences between students. Some students are particularly good at English, so the teacher always cared about those good students. This didn't let us poor students feel balanced, the sort of psychological balance. So we didn't have any incentives to learn English. In the English class, we just hid ourselves at the back of the class, and the teacher just didn't care about us. So we finally gave up our hope of learning English. (初中他们就是差别特别大, 有的就学的特别好, 所以老师都总拽着那些好的, 就给人感觉就是心里不太平稳, 平衡那种的, 也就没什么积极性了, 就往后面一躲, 老师也不怎么管

你了，完也就那样了。) (SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL25-28)

PrimaryData287 in §7.2.4.2.1

What I'm really fond of is that teachers can teach us some special strategies to remember words and sentences, and the things like that. (特别喜欢的，就是，老师就教点特别的方法记下单词吧，或是记一下语句儿之类的东西。)

(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, LL110-111)

PrimaryData288 in §7.2.4.2.1

What we really want to know is to get to know the associative ways of remembering words. (主要就那种，就像是，嗯，联想法就是记一个单词。)(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, L113)

PrimaryData289 in §7.2.4.2.1

I wish teachers could teach us some strategies so that we can remember words faster and making greater progress in English. (记单词还给我们讲一些什么小窍门什么的，记得更快一些，然后英语提高的也快。)(SC-SI-#21-SHY-TSM-M, LL52-53)

PrimaryData290 in §7.2.4.2.1

(The learning strategy I adopt) is just rote-learning method. (背呀。)
(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, L79)

PrimaryData291 in §7.2.4.2.1

It's just learning by rote. ... To memorize new words. To memorize mechanically letter by letter. ... I haven't got (good learning strategies). I always forget things we've learned and forget them in a while. (就是背，.....然后就背单词，.....一个字母背。.....没有，总是听也记不住，一会儿就忘。)(SB-SI-#06-ZXB-MDM-M, LL85-91)

PrimaryData292 in §7.2.4.2.1

It's just rote-learning, that is, learn everything by rote. (就是背，死记硬背。)
(SC-SI-#18-ZJC-BE-M, L24)

PrimaryData293 in §7.2.4.2.1

The way I use to learn English is just rote-learning. Rote learning words and sentences. I don't have any effective learning strategies. So it is difficult to remember things. For example, a word is remembered today, and is forgotten two days later. (单词，在背单词和句子，缺少那种方法，很难记住，例如今天背下来了，过两天就忘了。)(SC-SI-#18-ZJC-BE-M, LL115-116)

PrimaryData294 in §7.2.4.2.1

Basically, the strategy I use is to memorize a word whenever I encounter a new word in my study. Learn a word by heart when I encounter it. For example, there are many phrases in grammar. Now I mainly focus on such things as tenses. (我现在基本上就是看一个生单词就记一点儿, 看一个生单词就记一点, 语法里面不全是单词词组嘛, 然后现在就是主要就是, 多看看时态什么的这些东西。) (SB-SI-#16-RGQ-AS-M, LL123-126)

PrimaryData295 in §7.2.4.2.1

When the material is easier, I don't feel like having a headache. I can read it and then translate it into Chinese. If I can't translate it into Chinese, then I don't know what to do. ... For each short text, I usually read it first. After reading the text, I will memorize it. After memorizing the text, I'll translate the whole text. ... And then, I'll learn by rote the text in both English and Chinese. ... Because after translating English into Chinese, I'll know what it means. If I know what it means in Chinese, then I'll know how to read it in English. (就是简单一点的我就不头疼了, 我就会读, 然后翻译吧, 不怎么会翻译明白, 然后就懵了。……每个短文都得先读, 读完之后, 然后背, 背完之后就全部都给翻译过来。……英语、汉语一起记啊((smiles with a sign))。……因为英语翻译过来了, 你汉语就能知道什么意思, 汉语知道什么意思, 英语你也就能读出来了。) (SC-SI-#22-SDN-TSM-F, LL83-92)

PrimaryData296 in §7.2.4.2.1

It should be the ineffective learning methods. If I have mastered good learning strategies, it is quite likely that I can learn English well and become more interested in English. (((makes a noise with his mouth))应该是学习方法不得当, 要是掌握了学习方法不就能学进去了吗, 不就越来越有兴趣了。) (SB-SI-#07-XJP-MDM-M, LL77-78)

PrimaryData297 in §7.2.4.2.1

Usually in class, I can easily become absent-minded after a little while, get absent-minded after a while. That is, I often think of other things. I don't know why. (就是我平时上课的时候, 就是听一会就走神, 听一会就走神, 就是, 就会想别的事, 说不好((smiles)).) (SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL148-149)

PrimaryData298 in §7.2.4.2.1

Sometimes I can't understand those materials myself. Self-learning is not as good as teacher's teaching. (有的时候看不明白自己, 怎么也没有老师讲的好((smiles)).) (SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, L107)

PrimaryData299 in §7.2.4.2.2

But I always feel nervous whenever the teacher asks me to answer her questions. I don't know what the matter is. ... I can't get completely relaxed. Whenever I'm asked to answer questions, I feel ... Yeah. I can easily forget things. My mind goes blank. (但是, 我感觉没事儿老师叫我的时候我总是紧张, 不知道怎么回事儿 ((smiles)), 嗯。……完全没有放松下来, 就是一叫我起来的时候, 感觉=……对, 对, 对((smiles))。很容易就忘了, 大脑一片空白, 就是。)(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL129-134)

PrimaryData300 in §7.2.4.2.2

For those serious teachers, I feel that I dare not to speak English with her for fear of making mistakes. If I want to speak English with her, then I have to speak a complete sentence. I don't like that kind of feeling in class. (严肃的老师就感觉不敢跟她说, 感觉生怕跟她说一个词就要把一句话都说出来, 我挺不喜欢的。)(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, LL55-56)

PrimaryData301 in §7.2.4.2.2

It was the first time for us to perform the play in public. We were so nervous that we made some mistakes. It happened that our class was the fourth to put on the play. The first one played was the same play as ours. We had no other choice, but to try our best to perform the play. We were so nervous because the play by the previous class was the same as ours. We were so stressful that we made a lot of mistakes. We made mistakes, spoke the wrong scripts, forgot the scripts, and even played the wrong parts. (第一回在那个公开的那个场合, 说英语比较紧张一点, 有的就是说错了, 而且碰巧就是我们班是第四个, 第四个演。第一个演的话剧和我们一样, 然后是没办法, 然后就说那也得硬着头皮演啊。然后就是因为太紧张, 还有就是说因为前一个班跟我们一样, 因为有一个有压力嘛, 英语就是, 口语就是说错, 说错了, 说串了, 忘词了, 还有着急就是说乱了, 已经。)(SC-SI-#17-GT-BE-F, LL83-87)

PrimaryData302 in §7.2.4.2.2

I didn't dare to greet foreigners. ... I didn't dare to greet them (because of my poor English). It's so embarrassing. ((smiles))没有敢主动去打招呼。……不敢, 太丢人了 ((smiles))。)(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, LL139-144)

PrimaryData303 in §7.2.4.2.2

Before, in the last term, I felt a bit stressful, eh, because I'm not as good as other students. I felt stressful. As time passes, Ms D always tells that we don't need to feel so nervous in her class. She has tried all sorts of means to let us not to be nervous

in her class. (之前, 上学期我是感觉是有一点儿, 嗯, 不如别的学生啊或者是怎么, 感觉有一些压力。后来—就是平时戴老师总是那个教导我们嘛, 就是说—嗯, 不能, 就是, 嗯, 以各种方式就是让我们, 嗯, 能够能够理解, 嗯。)(SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL96-99)

PrimaryData304 in §7.2.4.2.2

Sometimes the teacher can tell us some jokes in the English class. Then we will all have a good laugh, which makes us feel less nervous. I feel much better than before. (因为老师在课堂上就是, 会有时候说一下笑话, 然后我们都会笑一下, 所以就是, 不是那么紧张了, 然后觉得应该还好一点儿吧。)(SC-SI-#20-CM-TSM-F, LL114-115)

PrimaryData305 in §7.2.4.2.2

I told them, "when you get into society, there are many opportunities. It's not that the opportunity will fall upon you while sitting there. You have to try your best. It's not that you can gain the opportunity once you step into society. When you are at school, all I can do is to create the sort of opportunity you desire, the opportunity you want." I told them, "in our English class you can try to gain an opportunity, yeah. (我说的吧, 你走在社会上, 很多机会, 不是说你坐着, 机会啪一下掉在你脑袋上, 你得去争取。你这种争取不是说我到社会上就能适应的, 你在学校, 在教室这块, 我能做到的, 你想要得到什么样的机会, 我就给你什么样的机会。我说比如说咱们在上课上, 那有可能。)(SC-TI-#03-DF-12-F, LL253-256)

PrimaryData306 in §7.2.4.2.2

I once told them a story, a story of a man in red. The story was about a man. He was actually not the most excellent among many of his co-workers, but he wore a red sweater every day. Every now and then the boss would see him, see him occasionally. Yeah, after a while, the boss discovered that the man in red seemed to work pretty hard, and was actively involved into his work. I told them it was not that other workers didn't work as hard as him. Some might work even harder than him. But he has created a chance for himself. Next time, when there is an opportunity of promotion, the boss will probably think of the man in red. The man in red has created an opportunity for himself. I told them that the case can be applied to them. They need to win the opportunity for themselves. For example, if a travel agency comes for the interview and they dare not to have a try or even to put up their hand, what opportunity they will be able to get. Such messages are gradually conveyed to them. (对, 我以前还给他们讲过一个故事, 就是《红色毛衣》的故事。就是讲这个有一个人, 在整个一些人当中工作, 其实他并不是最出色的一个, 但是因

为他天天穿红色毛衣，那老板呢就说好像是不经意间会看到他，不经意间会看到他，诶，过了时间长了发现，诶，这穿红色毛衣的，这个人好像工作也挺卖力的，也挺积极的。我说并不是别人干活不如他，有可能比他还强，但是他可能就给了自己这个机会，老板下回，一个，假如说有一个提升的机会，就会想到，诶，那个穿红色毛衣的那个人，不错啊，可以给他这个机会。我说你们也是一样，你得要自己去争取，比如说人家那个海外还是青旅来面试来了，你连去都不敢去，连举手都不敢举，你还有啥机会啊。这样的，慢慢的渗透。) (SC-TI-#03-DF-12-F, LL256-264)

PrimaryData307 in §7.2.4.2.2

Our English teacher doesn't ignore any student in her class. She never, never ignores anyone. If students don't like to answer her questions in class, she'll ask them to answer her questions or make dialogues with them. Basically, each one in the class will have an opportunity. I think the learning atmosphere created is very harmonious. ... Even when we make mistakes, our English teacher still encourages us. She won't make us feel embarrassed. ... I really like the learning environment in our class. First, the relationship between our classmates are very harmonious. Second, the relationship between the teacher and students are also very harmonious. Usually after class, we and our teacher are like friends. ... When we're on holiday, we add our English teacher into our QQ (i.e., online chatting group) and chat with her online. Yeah, the relationship between us is very harmonious. ... because we are no longer like what we were in the junior secondary school, being afraid of putting up our hands. Our English class now is just like games-playing. It's just very interesting, and nobody is afraid of having the English class. (我们，我们戴老师就是平时，不会—不会那个藐视就是每一个学生，就是基本上每个学生，要是不爱发言了，就是主动叫他起来，就是和他对话什么的，感觉比较融洽吧。……说错了然后我们戴老师也是以鼓励的方式来鼓励你，也不会就是—怎么怎么的。……感觉挺喜欢的，首先就是我们班同学，同学之间比较融洽，然后师生之间也比较融洽，我们和戴老师都比较，平时下课的时候都像朋友似的，嗯。……放假的时候，就是加我们老师QQ，和老师聊聊天啦什么的。嗯，也比较融洽。……因为我们，嗯不像以前念初中的时候，啊就是举手啊，害怕或者是怎么的。因为现在我们就像是上英语课，就感觉像是玩游戏似的，((makes a noise with his mouth))就是感觉蛮有意思的，谁也不会有恐惧感什么的。) (SC-SI-#23-HHR-TSM-M, LL90-114)

PrimaryData308 in §7.2.4.2.2

In the English class, I think all the class can get involved when our English teacher teaches. Students, whether they are good or bad at English or and whether they don't follow teachers in other classes, can all listen attentively in our teacher's English class. They can all get involved in our English teacher's class. (上英语课，

我感觉戴老师讲的时候全班都能听进去，不管学习好不好啊，就是上课有的不听的，上英语课都听，被老师一带都能听进去了。)(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL133-134)

PrimaryData309 in §7.2.4.2.3

In our vocational school, there is a fairly greater part of students, whose English was fairly poor at junior secondary education and who don't have any confidence in themselves. Even in the English class, they themselves will think that they aren't good at English and that they can't understand the lessons. They themselves have lost confidence in themselves. There are a substantial number of these students.

(咱们的职业学校能有一大部分，就是属于那种，初中本来就基础不好，然后本身他自己也没有信心的那种，就是在包括在讲课的时候，他自己吧，就是，嗯，自己本身就是那个，觉得我不行，我听不懂，就，自己首先就那个没有信心，有相当一部分这种同学。)(SA-TI-#05-ZN, LL44-47)

PrimaryData310 in §7.2.4.2.3

First, in view of students themselves, I think it might be that when they were at junior secondary school they were not cared about by the teacher due to their poor academic achievement. And then, because of their academic achievement, because of their poor academic achievement, they might feel humiliated and didn't even like to study, which has formed a vicious cycle. So when they came to the vocational school, it is quite likely that they lack self-autonomy and learning interest in English. (首先学生自身的呢，我觉得他是在中学的时候相对来说成绩就比较低，可能是不受关注啊，然后成绩，因为成绩低，他可能感觉自卑就更不愿意学，成为一种恶性循环，所以他到这来呢，可能说这种自主学习的能力也很差，没有兴趣。)(SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL32-35)

PrimaryData311 in §7.2.4.2.3

Because he has never experienced the learning success, it can be said that he always feel depressed in the school learning environment. (因为他一直没体验到这种成功的体验，一直说这个环境中他都是说，可能挺受压抑的。)(SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL68-69)

PrimaryData312 in §7.2.4.2.3

Sometimes I don't have self-confidence, as I don't know the sort of things such as grammar. Now I'm quite worried. (就是有时候就没有自信，就是那个语法什么的都不懂，现在，然后挺着急的。)(SC-SI-#26-ZTS-TSM-F, L85)

PrimaryData313 in §7.2.4.2.3

So the poor students formed the concept that now that they couldn't read and

understand they didn't want to learn. Moreover, what the teacher taught isn't interesting to them at all. I think they were not confident in themselves. (就是造成他们这种观念, 就是看不懂、听不会, 然后也不想学, 老师讲的没意思。我觉得, 他们也是对自己不自信。) (SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL180-182)

PrimaryData314 in §7.2.4.2.3

Then my impression towards them is that the more you think these children in the senior secondary vocational school helpless, the more likely that they'll give up their hope of English learning. They will think that they are destined to be a loser, and what's the use of learning English. And they can behave even worse than this. But the more you respect them, the more hope you show towards them, they'll respect you more and would like to follow you. It's the sort of things like this. (然后对他们感触挺深, 就是其实像他们孩子啊就是, 你越认为他, 咳, 你不行, 你考个中职学校, 你有啥出息呀? 他就越认为, 我就这样了, 你还管我干啥呀, 甚至于我还能比这更不好呢, 但你越尊重他, 你越给他希望, 诶, 他反而就越尊重你, 他越能跟你走, 就这样。) (SC-TI-#03-DF, LL93-96)

PrimaryData315 in §7.2.4.2.3

The attitude that the teacher have shown towards you is the sort of respect that you feel. It's the kind of feeling that you're being taken care of. Whether you are good at English or not, the teacher concerns about you. It's quite unlike the feelings we experienced in the junior middle school. At that time you felt that the teacher always cared about others, those good students. You felt that you were ignored. So you always, always stayed behind, gradually you became silent in class, and the teacher took no notice of you. You got the feeling that you were not good, not good at English at all. But now, our English teacher Miss D has helped us establish self-confidence. Whether you're good or bad at English, she treats you the same with respect. (老师就是看你, 就是比较, 也比较看重你就感觉, 就是对你感觉也挺比较重视的, 不管你学的好不好老师对你, 能比较抓你, 不像初中那样, 就是感觉老师就抓着别人, 抓着那些好学生, 就感觉老不理你, 你就一直一直就搁后面一躲, 慢慢就也不发言了, 老师也不管你了。感觉心里上就感觉自己不行, 就是一点都不行, 现在感觉戴老师给我们的自信心挺大的, 她对谁都是不管好不好, 对你都比较尊重。) (SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL43-47)

PrimaryData316 in §7.2.4.2.3

Now I feel, I feel that English is not that difficult. When I listen more attentively in class, English doesn't seem to be that difficult. Gradually, I feel that I can almost talk about things in English. In the past, it was very difficult for me to introduce myself in

English. Now I feel that it is not that difficult. I can now talk about myself. The feeling is really wonderful. (现在觉得, 你搁, 根本就是, 我觉得就是, 英语我觉得, 好像就不是那么难了。我学英语也不能说是特认真仔细学, 就感觉上了两堂英语课, 听着听着, 慢慢地就觉得, 这些东西好像差不多都能说。以前用英文介绍自己时, ……就, 就觉得特费劲, 现在觉得, 诶, 这也不费劲呀, 张口就能来, 感觉, 是挺好的。)

(SA-SI-#03-WZ-HSM-F, LL67-72)

PrimaryData317 in §7.2.4.2.3

... I now feel that I'm very self-confident in this class. I really feel good. (……感觉在这个班级里面特有自信心, 我感觉都特好。)(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL40-41)

PrimaryData318 in §7.2.4.2.4

In the past, I was lazy, and I'm still pretty lazy. (我这人吧, 原来吧, 懒。现在我也懒。)(SB-SI-#15-TZ-AS-M, L92)

PrimaryData319 in §7.2.4.2.4

Anyway, I didn't study at that time and was very lazy. (反正也不太学, 比较懒。)(SA-SI-#12-HSQ-HSM-F, L52)

PrimaryData320 in §7.2.4.2.4

Things went on well at the beginning. And then, in Year 1 at junior secondary school, in Year 1 I started to get lazy. (开始的时候很好, 然后那个, 六年级, 初一吧, 六年级, 六年级开始就懒了。)(SA-SI-#02-LYH-HSM-F, LL21-22)

PrimaryData321 in §7.2.4.2.4

Actually, I started learning English pretty early. When I was in Year 2 at primary school, my mom started forcing me to go to an informal learning place to learn English. But at that time, I was too young to know the importance of learning English. I didn't work hard at English, and I haven't been working hard at it ever since I started learning. (我其实就是, 我感觉我学习英语学习的挺早的, 我从二年级我妈就开始逼着我上补课班了, 但是那阵儿小, 不在意, 就也没好好学((smiles)), 一直都没好好学。)(SC-SI-#25-JY-TSM-F, LL12-13)

PrimaryData322 in §7.2.4.2.4

For example, in this class when students first came to the vocational school they had motivation. But boys like playing a lot. Sometimes they're so indulged in playing that they may learn one subject and ignore another. So they may catch up with one subject and lag behind in another subject. ... At the beginning, students was able to follow the teacher and answer some of the teacher's questions. But gradually they

resumed their old habits of playing. Since they were lazy, they didn't like doing homework and memorizing new words. They didn't like memorizing new words. Gradually, they couldn't catch up. Then they thought that since they couldn't catch up with the teacher, they didn't want to listen to the teacher in class. (像这个，这个班么，它就是刚来的时候也有动机，但是男孩不是玩心多么，他有时候玩儿，然后胡虏一个这个了吧，那边又抓不住了，完了抓这个了吧，那边又抓不住了。……然后可能刚开始，代答能跟上，然后后来又爱玩，又懒，不爱写作业，不爱背单词，就是背单词不爱背，那你渐渐的，肯定就跟不上了。跟不上他就觉得，反正我也跟不上了，那我就听了。) (SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL56-64)

PrimaryData323 in §7.2.4.2.4

The student, I tell you, I can't understand him. He has been like this for some time. He's always been like this. For one day, he may be very active in class, putting up his hand to answer questions. For the next day, he may be completely different. He may either not listen or sleep in class. He's such sort of student. (这学生吧，我跟他，我跟你说不明白这学生，这学生的问题不是一天两天了。他就这样，就是今天我可积极了就是上课，猛举手发言了，第二天，他可能就变一副嘴脸，要么不爱听课，要么上课在那睡觉，就这么一个学生。) (SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL256-260)

PrimaryData324 in §7.2.4.2.4

The other point is that students are extremely emotional. On one day, he may be happy. Because he's happy, he may like to learn with you, and the learning may go on pretty smoothly. But on another day, he may be unhappy or something's gone wrong with him, he'll immediately lose his interest and won't listen to you. His study lacks consistence. He doesn't have the consistence. He may understand what was taught the first day, but got confused about what was taught the following day. The day after, he might not be able to follow the teacher, and he couldn't understand the lesson again. (另外孩子还有一点就是情绪化特别严重，他今天高兴了吧，……他今天高兴了他可爱跟你学了，这学的简直可好了、可顺畅了，他哪天郁闷了，然后他哪天有什么事了，他马上他就蔫了，他就不听了，而且他学习也缺乏一个持续性，你说他没有持续性，他今天讲的会、他明天讲的不会，他后天，他接不上这个茬，他又不会了。) (SC-TI-#02-WJ, LL223-227)

PrimaryData325 in §7.2.4.2.4

The next factor, I think, should be the social cause. Many of our students at vocational schools made friends with those early school-leavers, who left school to work in society before they finished their nine-year compulsory education. Our vocational students still keep contact with them. Their friends' working environment

is quite different from that of the school. These friends may exert some influence on our students, both positive and negative. They may exert a negative influence on students who have already lost their interest in learning, which may result in their further disinterest and less incentives to learn English. (然后再一个, 我觉得应该是社会原因吧, 因为我们有很多学生他们的同学在初中的时候就流失到社会上工作了, 然后我们的学生还和他们有一些必然的联系, 因为有一些学生他可能是说, 工作的环境不一样, 然后对我们的学生的就这种影响有一些是正面的, 但有一些也是负面的, 所以如果是负面影响的话, 对你学生, 本来相对来说, 就不是很重视学习的学生来说, 可能就导致他们更没有学习这种兴趣和积极性了。) (SA-TI-#04-LMJ, LL38-44)

PrimaryData326 in §7.2.4.2.4

Students sometimes unconsciously use their old learning methods, the methods which have formed stereotype over the years. It's difficult for them to get rid of the stereotype. (他们有的时候, 下意识的吧, 他那个方法。他那个自己的方法已经在脑袋里成形了, 成模式了就不愿意跳出那个圈儿。) (SB-TI-#01-LXY, LL351-352)

PrimaryData327 in §8.3.3

I think schools should provide more opportunities for us teachers, who are teaching basic cultural literacy subjects, to do more situated learning. ... We teachers should first understand industry requirements and our learners' future job requirements so that the teachers can teach learners what learners are required to possess within two- or three-year learning at school. Only in this way can the teaching be more relevant to their specialty, to their future vocation, and only in this way can vocational teaching be effective. (我觉得, 就是可能作为学校方面, 能够提供更多的机会, 来关注我们作为文化基础课老师, 跟企业行业的这个接轨。……就是说, 首先提出我们老师要了解行业企业的需求, 了解我们学生那个就业岗位的要求, 完了以后你才能在这两年或者三年的过程当中给与我们学生他所需要的, 这样才是一个专业对口, 那个就业岗位对口的一种教学, 那才是一种有效的职业教学。) (IP-#01-F, LL195-216)

PrimaryData328 in §8.3.4

Students think that learning English is useless. To deal with such line of thought, at the beginning, we taught them some vocation-related knowledge as soon as they were enrolled. We've done some experiments on our English teaching. In relation with their specialties, we made a list of the things that they are going to deal with in their specialties. For example, we've done an experiment in a cookery class in a tourism vocational school. Most of the students in the class are boys. The students' English in the cookery classes is likely the poorest among the whole school. In the

English class, we didn't use textbooks to teach them at the beginning, we just taught them the names of dishes and the seasonings. Each class, we didn't teach them many things, just five to ten dishes ... in relation to their future work. We first provided them some work-related knowledge, added some supplementary things and printed some more materials for them. Students felt that they were able to tell the things in English after the English class. So in this way, we've conducted our teaching relevant to learners' future vocation. For example, the cookery class in the vocational school has done pretty well on this aspect. Many of their students will work as chef in luxury hotels or go abroad to work. So it is quite likely that the chief chef will be a foreigner, and he may ask them to fetch or pass something. They can, at least, know the name of the items. So in our experimental teaching, we've made a list of all the possible items in the kitchen and their names in English, then we integrate these things in our teaching. (就是针对学生觉得没有用这个方面, 我们一般呢就是在一开始, 我们现在很多学生都搞一些, 就是一进校就给他一些专业方面的渗透, 那么我们在英语教学上面也是这样的, 就是结合他专业的东西, 给他列一点他专业里头会涉及到的。比如说像那个, 我们在旅游英语学校, 就做烹饪那个班, 烹饪班的男孩子基本上他是, 对英语是, 就烹饪班的学生可能是最差的, 分数最低的。那完了以后我们老师就说, 一开始我们不教这个教材, 我就教你这个菜怎么说, 那个菜怎么说, 这个调料怎么说, 每节课不教多, 也就教5到10个。……结合他的工作实际。先给他渗透一下这些东西, 给他补充一些东西, 印一些材料给他, 完了他就会觉得, 诶, 我学了这个以后, 我就会说这个了。完了以后呢, 也是结合他那些, 这个学校专业介绍, 比如说他们, 像我们的烹饪学校做的还是不错的, 他们有很多学生都会到一些星级饭店去做厨师, 有的甚至到国外去就职, 那么这个, 首先就你的厨长有可能他就是个外国人, 别的不说, 最起码他让你递个什么, 拿个什么, 你要知道吧。所以我们一开始老师, 就做了一个实验, 他就是把那个厨房里所有会出现的东西, 给他列了一些词汇, 然后就结合这些。) (IP-#02-F, LL219-232)

PrimaryData329 In §8.3.4

By building scaffolding tasks before the real authentic tasks, we try to guide students to do things in a step-by-step manner. Little by little, learners will be able to have confidence in doing things. (那么我们在做的时候, 就是怎么样把在任务前的一些东西给它处理到位, 铺垫到位, 然后呢一步一步的引导学生尝试着去做一点, 慢慢的他就有一些信心去做点儿事情。) (IP-#02-F, LL215-218)

PrimaryData330 In §8.3.4

We are currently experimenting two things: one is the activity class, that is, to use activities such as games to stimulate learners' participating interest; the other is communicative class, which focuses on language practice. ... For example, in our

communicative class, like what we've done in our classroom observation, we have done a lot of classroom observation. While doing classroom observation, what has impressed me most is the role play after the teacher's explanation, in tourism and hotel specialties. In these classes, students were required to do some practice on the simulated hotel situations, the authentic situations. When learners get familiar with the language practice, the greatest advantage, I think, is that when they go to the workplace, and when they meet foreigners, they can automatically come up with "Can I help you?" I think, such kind of practice – the communication-focused practice in class – can be effective in cultivating learners' future vocational competences. (我们在尝试的呢, 目前来看呢主要是两种: 一个是, 那个活动课程。就是通过一些活动, 然后是一些游戏, 来激发学生的参与的兴趣; 还有一个呢, 就是一种交际课堂, 那么这个交际的话比较注重它的一些语言的操练。……比如说我们的, 那个交际课堂, 像我们在调研的过程当中, 听了很多课, 那么尤其我印象比较深的, 在一些旅游、宾馆这些旅服专业的听课的过程当中, 就发现, 就是老师在教授这些东西了, 完了以后, 他必定会有一些角色的扮演。要求学生就是, 模拟那个宾馆的实景, 实际场合, 来进行一些操练。那么, 在这个操练熟练了以后的话, 我觉得最大的一个优点就是, 学生他进入岗位碰到这样的情况以后, 他不需要再去想, 诶我见到个老外应该怎么说, 他可以脱口而出, Can I help you? 我觉得就是说, 像这样的一个, 就是比较注重交际的这么一种课堂情况下面, 还是对学生就业能力来讲还是比较有效的。) (IP-#02-F, LL149-160)

PrimaryData331 in §8.3.5

Since this term, I began to let them write weekly journals. Each week, they set up one goal for the week. The goals can be pretty minor, such as not sleeping in class for the week or not sleeping for just half of the day if they used to sleep every day. Then, each Monday or Tuesday if I'm not free on Monday, I'll write my requirements of them in each of their journal, and tell them not to show what I've written for them to other students as it's a secret shared between us. The students are very happy about what I've written to them. Sometimes if I don't write much in their journals, they will say to me, "Teacher, you are so mean. You should write more for me." I think journal-writing is a good way of encouraging students. (我从这学期开始让他们每周写周记, 然后你就写一个, 我这周定一个目标, 然后就很小, 然后就, 哪怕我这周上课不睡觉了, 甚至我以前天天睡觉, 我这半天儿没睡, 就这样的。完然后, 我每周, 有时候周一没有时间, 就周二, 我就给他们写, 一个一个本儿写, 就是我对你的要求啊什么的, 然后我就说这个写的东西不准给别人看, 是咱俩之间的秘密。然后, 有的同学说, 诶诶, 怎么怎么样了, 有的同学, 诶, 他们可高兴了。写的, 完了有时候我要是不给他们写, 老师, 你真抠, 你多给我写点呗, 就这样的, 我觉得这样挺好。) (SC-TI-#03-DF, LL354-361)