SFL in L2 Writing Teacher Education: A Case Study of an EFL Pre-service Teacher in Conceptualizing Grammar

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SFL IN L2 WRITING TEACHER EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF AN EFL PRE-SERVICE TEACHER IN CONCEPTUALIZING GRAMMAR

A Dissertation Presented

By

WAWAN GUNAWAN

Submitted to the Graduate School of the University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

September 2014

College of Education

Language, Literacy and Culture
SFL IN L2 WRITING TEACHER EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF AN EFL PRE-
SERVICE TEACHER IN CONCEPTUALIZING GRAMMAR

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College of Education
DEDICATION

To Nenden, Hefina, and Raidan, who always keep my dreams alive
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation could not have been completed without the support and assistance of a wide variety of individuals. My deepest gratitude to all faculty, cohort, and friends in LLC (Language, Literacy, Culture) who have contributed to this achievement. I want to mention all of those important individuals, but the available room limits my acknowledgement of every individual. Below I would like to acknowledge my committee members, a participant of this study, few of friends and institutions, and family.

I would have never been able to finish this dissertation without the guidance and continued support of my committee members. I would like to express my sincere and deepest gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Margaret Gebhard for her excellent guidance, caring, and patience in apprenticing me toward the completion of my dissertation. I feel grateful to have her as my chair and advisor who has been interested in my study since my earliest conversation about SFL and genre pedagogy as well as my future trajectory upon the completion of my doctorate. My sincere and deepest thanks go to the other committee members: Dr. Laura Valdiviezo and Dr. Briankle Chang. Dr. Valdiviezo facilitated me with supportive and productive atmosphere for learning and research since my participation in her Ethnography course where my research began to form. Her continued support toward the completion of my dissertation was invaluable. Dr. Chang never quit supporting me in completing my study as soon as I could. His support for the
completion of my doctorate and his optimism about my future career is the best encouragement that I will never forget.

This dissertation would not have been possible without an in-service teacher’s willingness to participate in my study. I would like to express my special thanks to Amanda Chen (Chenling) for her generosity and enthusiasm in providing time, thoughts, and information for my study. I am grateful for her cooperation as a research subject, friend, and colleague.

This dissertation would not have been confidently presented and completed without help from friends. Friends in the College of education have contributed to the completion of my study. I am grateful to have I-An Chen, currently an LLC doctoral student, who has been collaborating with me in coauthoring a journal article and, at the same time, helped me sharpen the content of my dissertation. Her invaluable feedback and sweet attitude contributed to an excellent atmosphere for writing. I would like to thank Holly Graham for helping me collect data in my first stage of data collection. I would also like to thank my cohort: Keiko Konoeda, Dylan Larke for always keeping in touch with me. My journey began with them in a course in the college of education and continued working together as a team in organizing some events in LLC. Margaret Felis and Andreas Atzineri, thank you for your support in an on-campus job search and for always having time for me and family. The conversations in the farm with Margaret and Dylan on job interviews and strategy in answering questions inspired me about how I focus on answering my research questions.
I would have never afforded to stay in the US and complete my dissertation without the contribution of the following agencies. First, I would like to thank Fulbright and the Indonesia University of Education for their financial support during the first three years of my doctoral program. Second, I would like to thank the UMass Labor/Management Workplace Education program for trusting in my skills and giving me the opportunity to teach classes during my doctoral studies. This opportunity financially supported me, thus carried me through graduation.

Finally, I would like to thank my family – Nenden, Hefina, and Raidan – for their love, trust, understanding, and sacrifices to keep my dream alive. They were always here cheering me up and standing by me through the good and bad times. I also owe my parents for their endless prayer and best wishes during my doctoral study, away from their home.
ABSTRACT

SFL IN L2 WRITING TEACHER EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF AN EFL PRE-SERVICE TEACHER IN CONCEPTUALIZING GRAMMAR

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English education globally has been challenged by an increasing need for academic English practices to support access to content area knowledge and scholarly exchanges. However, EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers often lack the linguistic and pedagogical knowledge of how academic texts work to construct meanings in specific disciplines and how to design effective academic literacy instruction accessible to all students.

This study, therefore, is aimed at responding to the intensifying demand for academic literacy instruction in international contexts by investigating an EFL teacher's participation in MATESOL program in North America informed in part by Halliday’s SFL (Systemic Functional Linguistics) and Martin’s genre theory. The study focuses on exploring how this teacher’s conceptions of grammar shifted, if at all, over the courses in the teacher education program and how the teacher’s classroom practice during the first year in her career reflect, if at all, the perspective of language learning.
This study is informed by two main conceptions as the theoretical frameworks. First, Halliday and Martin’s social conception of language and language learning serves as the theoretical basis informing the pedagogical knowledge that the teacher develops. Second, a sociocultural approach to teachers’ knowledge development serves as a framework to understand how the teacher conceptualizes a more functional conception of language and language learning for academic literacy instruction in a sustained process of teacher learning with respect to the teacher’s whole lived experiences.

This study uses an ethnographic method of data collection and analysis. The data were collected from multiple sources including field notes, instructional materials, audio tapes, email exchanges, interviews, textbooks, and course assignments. Data collection focused on documenting this teacher in conceptualizing of grammar over her participation in the teacher education program and over one year of teaching experience upon completion of her MATESOL program. In analyzing these data, this study involved coding and categorizing processes to generate patterns of themes with reference to the research questions.

This study is expected to contribute to an effort of preparing teachers with the expertise of teaching academic literacy and development in international contexts by considering how local contexts shape their pedagogical knowledge development.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ABSTRACT</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LIST OF TABLES</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>xiii</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LIST OF FIGURES</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>xiv</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# CHAPTER

1. INTRODUCTION OF THE STUDY AND METHODOLOGY ....................................1

   1.1. Introduction: Background of Study and Problem Statements ...................1
   1.2. Purpose of the Study and Research Questions ...................................7
   1.3. Methodology .................................................................................9
      1.3.1. Data Sources .......................................................................9
      1.3.2. Participants .....................................................................17
         1.2.2.1. Focus Participant ......................................................20
      1.3.3. Transcription ..................................................................22
   1.4. Limitations of the Study ..........................................................23
   1.5. Significance of the Study .........................................................24
   1.6. Overview of Chapters ...............................................................28

2. LITERATURE REVIEW OF SFL AND GENRE THEORY .................................30

   2.1. SFL/genre-based Pedagogy .........................................................30
   2.2. SFL/genre-based Pedagogy Teaching and Learning Cycle and Its Orientation to Critical Praxis .................................................................44
   2.3. Critiques to SFL/genre-based Pedagogy and Its Implementation ..........52
   2.4. Critical Praxis Using SFL/genre-based Pedagogy ...........................54
   2.5. Research Studies into the Implementation of SFL/genre-based Pedagogy in EFL Contexts .................................................................59
      2.5.1. Helping Students Engage with the Dominant Discourse ............61
         2.5.1.1. Emphasizing Generic Structures of Genres .....................61
         2.5.1.2. Emphasizing Generic Structures of Genres, Register Variables, and Critical Praxis ..........................................................67
6.1.1. Reinstating Academic Writing vis-à-vis Traditional Perspective of Language and Language Learning in the Context of Education in Taiwan ..........142
6.1.2. Maintaining SFL/genre-based Conception of Grammar to Develop Literacy Education and Conceptualize Diversity in Taiwan ..............................................................................147
6.1.3. Relating the Concept of Scaffolding to the Conception of Learning and Teaching-based on SFL/Genre Pedagogy ..........153

6.1.3.1. Valuing the Concept of Scaffolding as Embedded in SFL/Genre-based Teaching and Learning Cycle .................................................................153
6.1.3.2. Challenging the Concept of Scaffolding as Embedded in SFL/Genre-based Teaching and Learning Cycle ..............157

6.1.4. Using SFL/genre Knowledge as a Tool of Analysis to Evaluate Students' Writings .................................................................165

6.2. Summary ..................................................................................................................................................................................170

7. CONCEPTIONS OF GRAMMAR IN INSTRUCTIONAL PLANS AND PRACTICES ........................................................................171

7.1. Designing an Instructional Plan based on Genre and Register Conceptions .................................................................171

7.1.1. Developing Knowledge-based Instructional Design: Capturing Genre and Register Knowledge Relation in an Instructional Design.................................................................173
7.1.2. Using SFL/Genre-based Conception of Grammar as Rubrics to Evaluate Students' Writings ..................................................183

7.2. Challenges in Applying SFL/Genre-based Conception of Language Learning .................................................................193

7.2.1. The Challenges of the Envisioned Context of Classrooms ..........194

7.3. A Conception of Grammar in an Actual Teaching Situation: Dominant Roles of a Textbook .................................................................200

7.3.1. Teaching Practice by Following an Institutionally and Collegially Suggested Textbook ..............201
7.3.2. Excluding Academic Writing Course in the Curriculum ..........210

7.4. Summary ..................................................................................................................................................................................221
8. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS .................................................................224

8.1. Summary of the Findings ...........................................................................224

8.1.1. Discussion .............................................................................................225

8.1.1.1. Chenling’s Conceptions of Grammar:
A Sociocultural Perspective ............................................................................225

8.1.1.2. Grammar and Academic Literacy Learning
and Development in EFL contexts .................................................................234

8.2. Summary of the Study ..............................................................................237

8.2.1. Implications ............................................................................................241

8.2.1.1. Implications for Academic Literacy Education
and Policy Reforms in EFL Contexts ..............................................................241
8.2.1.2. Implications for Teacher Education ..................................................245
8.2.1.3. Implications for Future Research Directions .................................248

8.3. Summary of the Chapter ..........................................................................250

APPENDICES

A. TRANSCRIPT CONVENTIONS ..................................................................253
B. INTERVIEW PROTOCOL ...........................................................................253
C. SELECTED INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTS .................................................256

BIBLIOGRAPHY ............................................................................................260
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Data Collection and Analysis</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Participants of the Class</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. International EFL Teachers’ Profiles</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Themes in the Implementation of SFL/genre-based Pedagogy in EFL Contexts</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The Use of SFL/genre-based Approach to Design Literacy Instruction</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Conception of Grammar and Instructional Design as Shown over the MATESOL Courses in Transition to Actual Teaching Situation</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Individual Description to Understand Diversity in Support for Academic Literacy Instruction</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Using SFL/genre-based Conception of Language and Language Learning as a Tool of Analysis to Support Implications</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Chenling’s Conception of Grammar and Design of Instruction: Curriculum Design</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. An Instructional Plan Based on Knowledge of Genre and Register – A leadership Project</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Evaluation of Students’ Writings and Further Recommendation</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Summary of English Teaching in Internship Project</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Summary of Findings and Implications</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Phases of Data Collection</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Model of Levels of Language</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Metafunctions in Relation to Genre</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Map of Genre in School</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. SFL/genre Teaching and Learning Cycle: First Appearance</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. SFL/genre Teaching and Learning Cycle: Next Appearance</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Topics in ESL Instruction</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Vocabulary Learning</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Focus on the Instructional Design in Taiwan</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Sample of Exclusion of Meta-knowledge about Language</td>
<td>209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Fun English Learning in Textbook</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Reading and Writing Instruction</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION OF THE STUDY AND METHODOLOGY

1.1. Introduction: Background of Study and Problem Statements

Increasingly English is becoming the lingua franca in international communication for social, economic, and academic purposes (Baker, 2009; Snow, Kamhi-Stain & Brinton, 2006). English has been the most preferred language used in both professional and international communication (e.g., Crystal, 1997; Warschauer, 2000; Hasan & Akhand, 2010; James, 2008; Matsuda, 2003). English is also used to meet the need for commerce across the globe. Business and industry workers are required to have the proficiency in English to participate in global exchanges of information and economic enterprises as well as for political and social reasons (Pennycook, 2007a; 20007b; Canagarajah, 2006). In schools, English language instruction is shaped by the need for learners’ heightened proficiency in gaining access to content knowledge and participating in a variety of communities of practice (e.g., Crystal, 1997; Warschauer, 2000; Hasan & Akhand, 2010; James, 2008; Matsuda, 2003; Schleppegrell & O'Hallaron, 2011). Therefore, learning academic literacy needs to focus on building awareness among learners of using language across contexts which challenge the intelligibility and sensitivity of context dynamics. For example, it is important for learners to have awareness in using language for daily conversations and in schools to complete disciplinary assignments, by which learners gain access to social and political capital that comes from earning advanced degrees (Matsuda, 2007; Schleppegrell, 2004; Martin & Rose, 2008).
The increasing demand for EFL students to know how to use disciplinary discourses in school, and later the globalized workplace, is evidenced by the increase in the use of English as a world language in disciplinary publications. In the 1980s, English in scientific periodicals comprised 85% of papers in biology and physics, 75% in medical papers, 69% in mathematics, 67% in chemistry (Crystal, 2003). A decade later, the use of English as the academic lingua franca expanded to 90% of 1,500 papers listed in journals in linguistics and English education (Crystal, 2003). The need of English for scholarly exchanges contributes to making it necessary for more than 235 million people to learn English as a second or foreign language in the 1990s and 1.5 billion people in the 2000s (Crystal, 1997; 2003). Therefore, some scholars claim that the recent trend requires a new call for teaching “international academic English” (e.g., James, 2008, p. 99) and academic writing to prepare learners for participating in professional communities (e.g., Ferenz, 2005; Hasan & Akhand, 2010, p. 78, Matsuda, 2003; 2007).

The globalized use of English as the academic lingua franca has made English the most widely taught world language, often replacing other world languages taught in schools such as Spanish, Chinese, and Arabic, and intensifying the efforts among countries to provide support for learning English to communicate in and across the curricular subjects (e.g., Butler, 2004; Crystal, 2003; Hu, 2004; Kirkgoz, 2008). Butler (2004), for example, describes how Japan, Taiwan, and Korea officially offer English in elementary school levels despite the unpreparedness of teachers to provide quality instruction. Similarly, Kirkgoz, (2008) discusses how the Turkish government has begun to push English instruction into younger and younger grades
in the hopes of preparing K-12 students to participate in international communication, despite the lack of teacher readiness. Likewise, Hu (2004) describes how since 2000 China has added more hours for English instruction to support students in K-9 schools but has not attended to the professional development needs of English instructions, making more instruction not necessarily beneficial. Hu (2004) states:

A majority of the teachers (53% for the ordinary schools and 69% for the key schools) had never received any formal professional training. In general, the teachers had a weak grounding in pedagogy, lacked professional competence for the subject and knew very little about recent developments in foreign language education both at home and abroad. (pp. 12 – 13)

Teacher unpreparedness for attending to academic literacy is more specifically related to the fact that EFL teachers often lack the linguistic and pedagogical knowledge of how academic texts work to construct meanings in specific disciplines and how to design effective teaching instruction accessible to all students (e.g., Butler, 2004; Coxhead & Byrd, 2007; Cummings, 2003; Gebhard, Graham, Chen, & Gunawan, 2013; Schleppegrell & O'Hallaron, 2011; Yasuda, 2011). For example, Coxhead and Byrd (2007) write:

The place of language instruction in the writing classroom remains unclear for many teachers who want to teach composition skills while faced with evidence in student writing that many of their students have yet to develop the linguistic resources necessary for communicative competence as academic writers. Part of the lack of clarity about the status of language teaching in the composition class may result from limited access to information about language-in-use, the approach to language analysis used in many corpus-based and functional studies of grammar/ vocabulary where the focus is on ways that language is actually used for communication. (p. 130)
Teachers’ lack of linguistic resources to teach composition skills is due to their reliance on the traditional conception of grammar, which does not necessarily support academic literacy development. Some characteristics of language instruction based on the traditional conception of grammar have reduced the functional use of language. For example, Butler (2004) identifies that language instruction across contexts is intensively focused on grammar and translation, resulting in insufficient communication skills among students. More specifically in the context of Asia-Pacific region, Crystal (2003) and Nunan (2003) indicate that academic literacy instruction is not well supported by the existing policy context. Namely, language learning focuses on drills and practice in producing grammatical correct sentences to meet the demands of the language assessment rather than support for more advanced academic literacy development.

The studies above indicate that teachers’ unpreparedness for academic literacy instruction is related to lack of apprenticeship toward more functional and meaning making perspective of language and language learning because the traditional perspective of language alone is not helpful in teaching advanced literacy skills including literacy instruction in EFL contexts (e.g., Fang & Schleppegrell, 2010; Gebhard & Martin, 2011; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rose & Matrin, 2008). Therefore, there is urgency to introduce teachers to a more functional and meaning making conception of language and language learning based on Halliday’s SFL (Systemic Functional Linguistics) and Martin’s genre theory. This functional perspective of language and language learning is explicitly developed to support literacy learning and development (e.g., Byrnes, 2009; 2013; Halliday, 1993, 2007; Martin & Rose,
From this functional perspective, students learn grammar as a semiotic resource in terms of register variables in language use consisting of field (the content), tenor (who is communicating with whom), and mode (how the communication unfolds), as a resource to construct meanings (Halliday, 2009). Within cultures, registers are construed to make socially recognizable meanings in accomplishing certain tasks. The recognized register configuration enacts a text type or “genre”, which is defined as a “staged, goal-oriented social process” (Martin, Christie, & Rothery, 1978, p. 59). This social process in academic writings in schools is associated with purposes of using language either for describing, narrating, synthesizing, analyzing, defining, evaluating, or persuading in which each purpose shows typically recognized patterns of register variables (Derewianka, 1990; Rose & Martin, 2012).

Despite the urgency to move teachers toward a more functional and meaning making conception of language, studies into how a teacher education program fosters such a perspective in EFL contexts are very limited. There are very few studies to date in Spanish, German, and English education across contexts exploring how a more functional and meaning making conception of language and language learning is introduced. Byrnes (2009), for example, used SFL/genre-based approach in a college level program to foster the development of 14 writers of German through a longitudinal study in an effort to support the college program in advocating the development of multiple literacies. The program apprenticed learners’ academic writing in integrating content oriented language learning through content oriented genre based curriculum in sequence of courses to support
learners in experiencing how to make meanings from the available semiotic resources in textual contexts. In Spanish learning context, Colombi (2009) used SFL/genre-based pedagogy for teaching Spanish as a heritage language in a college level in the United States to support the development of Spanish in the family context for its use in advanced literacy practices. This study attempted to build awareness among learners of discourse semantics and lexico-grammatical features of academic Spanish. In this program, the students were presented with knowledge of grammar informed by Halliday’s theory of language and Martin’s genre perspective to facilitate learning of language of schooling in general and academic language use under the framework of theme-based curriculum. The students were also facilitated with instruction, which apprenticed them to have an understanding of genre movements from the most personal to academic use of language. Focusing on K-12 teacher education, Gebhard, Holly, Chen, and Gunawan (2013) attempted to introduce Halliday’s perspective of language and Martin’s perspective of genre into pre- and in-service teachers of English in the United States. Their study investigated how the teachers who were attending a teacher education program in a University in North America adapted a conception of grammar informed by Halliday and Martin’s perspective of language learning to design academic literacy instruction. The pre- and in-service teachers demographically were categorized into “domestic”¹ and “international”² EFL teachers. Although the pre- and in-service teachers’ professional and cultural backgrounds varied, the focus of introducing Halliday’s concept of language and Martin’s genre perspective was predominantly

¹ Domestic teachers are pre- and in-service teachers who work in the United States
² International teachers are EFL teachers who work outside the United States
targeted for teaching English as a second language in K-12 education. In this study, Gebhard, et al. investigated how the teachers developed their conceptions of grammar over the 14 weeks of participation in the program and envisioned some potentials and peril of using SFL/genre conception of language learning in their local socio-political contexts.

These studies highlight how teacher education programs have attempted to foster the use of more functional and meaning making perspective of language in the classroom. However, these studies do not specifically focus on fostering EFL teachers into a more functional perspective of academic language learning. The study (e.g., Gebhard, et al, 2013) addressed the teachers’ conceptions of grammar, and yet it did not investigate how EFL teachers develop pedagogical knowledge in a longitudinal way nor did it study the participants’ actual teaching practices to understand if teachers’ pedagogical conceptions change in practice (e.g, Andrew, 2006; Borg, 2006).

1.2. Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this dissertation is to contribute to the existing scholarships on the use of SFL/genre based pedagogy in teacher education programs attended by pre-service EFL teachers. This main reason for making an effort to contribute to the scholarships in this area is to meet an urgent need for a long sustained acknowledgement of academic literacy as meaning making (Byrnes, 2013). Byrnes illustrates this urgency in the following ways:

First, that our ability to understand writing as meaning-making, content learning, and language learning will depend on teachers being able to transform instructional settings into social spaces that realize this possibility; second, that the development of writing abilities, particularly academic
writing abilities, requires that teachers practice a carefully considered writing pedagogy as contrasted with an assumption that writing abilities develop naturally and on their own; and third, for such a pedagogy, teachers will need to be able to draw on thorough and systematic knowledge of how the very forms of language shape our ways of knowing, most especially disciplinary ways of knowing. (Byrnes, 2013, p. 96)

To more specifically support teachers in gaining systematic pedagogical knowledge, this dissertation puts central a conception of grammar applied to Halliday's SFL and Martin's genre theory, which is explicitly stated as a concept to support academic literacy earning and development (e.g., Byrnes, 2009; 2013; Halliday, 1993, 2007; Martin & Rose, 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012; Janks, 2010; New London Group, 1996), as a resource for making linguistic features visible to support writing development (Gebhard, 2010; Gebhard & Martin, 2011) and as “a resource available to users of a language system for producing texts” (Knapp & Watkins, 2005, p. 32). This conception of grammar is introduced in a teacher education program to facilitate teachers to acknowledge writing as meaning making. Thus, this case study attempts to contribute to making effective professionals who have a solid concept of how meanings are realized and made visible to support learners’ literacy learning and development. In making this effort at the level of teacher education programs, this case study attends to an assumption about teachers’ practices in classrooms which cannot be explained as straightforward results of knowledge development in a teacher education program (Borg, 2009; Johnson, 2006; Sesek, 2007). Therefore, this case study puts teaching and teacher as central to contributing to the impacts of literacy instruction.

To achieve these purposes, this case study investigates teacher knowledge development in a teacher education program, in a transition to actual teaching, and
in actual teaching practices. More specifically this study seeks to provide an in-depth portrait of an Asian EFL teacher, named “Chenling” (pseudonym), in making sense of and implementing a conception of grammar applied to a more meaning making and functional perspective of language and language learning drawn on the work of Halliday and Martin to support academic literacy learning and development. This concept was introduced in a course in MATESOL program in a university in North America in which Chenling was enrolled. This case study began by investigating Chenling’s conceptions of grammar since her participation in the course in her first semester of the MATESOL program. In an attempt to describe and analyze teacher professional development in a longitudinal way attending to contexts of teaching and learning, this study is guided by the following two main questions.

1. How does Chenling’s conception of grammar change, if at all, over her participation in the MATESOL program informed by SFL/Genre-based pedagogy?

2. How does Chenling’s teaching classroom practice during her first year in her career reflect, if at all, a perspective of language learning informed by SFL/genre-based pedagogy?

1.3. Methodology

1.3.1. Data sources

This study uses a methodology which is representative of an ethnographic approach. Data collection and analysis in this study follows the procedure of the ethnographic qualitative case study method (Dyson & Genishi, 2005, Dyson, 1993;
Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1999; Gebhard, Chen, Graham, & Gunawan, 2013). A qualitative case study is characterized as an effort to make messy complexity of human experience interpretable by detailing local specificity and abstract phenomena for the production of meaning and its dependence on contexts (Dyson & Genishi, 2005). An individual interaction is understood as being mediated by complex social contexts (e.g., Anderson, 2010; Dyson, 1993; Willet, 1996). These complex social contexts are described as a “thick description” (e.g., Geertz, 1973, p. 4), which is constructed by drawing on a variety of sources of data, multiple methods of analysis, and heavily subjective analytic strategies in answering stated research questions (Dyson & Genishi, 2005; Yin, 2006).

**Figure 1: Phases of Data Collection**

Data collection for this study took place in four phases over three years. In Phase One, the data collection focused on documenting Chenling’s interaction in a course that introduced masters students to Halliday’s SFL and Martin’s genre over 14 weeks. The data collection in this phase relied on observational field notes, transcribed classroom discussions, formal and informal interviews, formal and informal email exchanges, and Chenling’s course assignments. The course assignments included Chenling’s process of conducting a genre and register analysis of a reading selection and an instructional design to support L2 learners in deconstructing a text. The second assignments included the participant’s work on a
genre and register analysis of an L2 student writing sample and designing of instruction to support the students’ academic literacy learning and development. In phase one, the interview data were generated from formal interviews which were conducted once and informal interviews which took place four times. All interviews were transcribed.

More specifically, Phase One data collection involved collecting data through field notes from classroom observations, interviews, and artifacts collected from the focus participant at the beginning of school year in September 2009. I audiotaped the interaction and formal and informal interviews, and then transcribed them. I also collected relevant documents such as Chenling’s weekly class assignments which consisted of one-two pages of reflection on the readings of the week and exercises on SFL to get familiar with its terminology and concepts, paper drafting assignments which led to the completion of a final semester paper, email correspondences, mid and final semester papers, and curricular materials. I observed and took field notes at least for two hours in every weekly meeting from 4:00 – 6:30. During the process of field note taking, I conducted interviews in November 2009. Over the period of time, I also collected relevant documents such as Chenling’s pages of reflection, drafts of mid and final papers, exercises on SFL, and curricular materials. At the end of the academic year, I collected Chenling’s final paper which I documented in few drafts based on what she wrote and submitted. I also kept tract of email exchanges with the focus participant. In addition, I gained information from informal interviews with Chenling in many occasions such as
before and after the class meetings, over mentoring times, and during break times. I wrote the information as part of the field notes.

In Phase Two, the data collection focused on documenting Chenling’s assignments from the other courses she attended in a transition to designing instruction for EFL academic literacy learning and development. She attended the following courses: *Language and language learning* (670), *Foundation of bilingual, ESL, and multicultural education* (677), *Teaching, reading, and thinking* (684), *Managing culturally responsive classrooms* (594A), *Testing, assessment, and evaluation in language literacy and culture* (611), *Principles of first and second language learning and teaching* (616), *Teaching reading and writing at the secondary level* (681), *Practicum: ESL (English as a Second Language)* (500L), *Workshop in LLC (language literacy and culture) development* (692L), *Organization for curriculum development* (EDUC 665), and *Social justice issues in education* (EDUC 691E). The total credits required to graduate from the teacher education program were 33 credits. In this phase, I collected Chenling’s final projects from each of the courses, conducted two formal interviews and documented email correspondences. At the beginning of school year in January 2010, I continued collecting data. I continuously communicated with Chenling through email correspondences and formal and informal meetings. The formal meetings were treated as recorded formal interviews, while the informal meetings were documented as part of the field notes. The data sources in Phase Two consisted of formal and informal interviews, email correspondences, final assignments of the courses that the focus participant enrolled to complete the program. In addition I followed Chenling’s presentation in
the school conferences organized and attended by faculty and graduate students. In this occasion, Chenling presented her work on the opportunities and challenges of SFL/genre based curriculum design for English education in Taiwan.

Phase Three data collection focused on documenting information about Chenling's summer internship applying SFL/genre based curriculum unit in Taiwan. I did not directly observe her classroom practices but collected a curriculum unit as the main source of data and formal and informal interviews to gather and follow up information about her summer internship in Taiwan. This data collection was also supported by information in the leadership project, reporting how she conducted teaching practices and evaluated her actual teaching during her internship. I collected learning materials which were based on a textbook to see how Chenling integrated her SFL/genre based instructional design with available resources.

Phase Four data collection focused on documenting how Chenling planned, implemented, and assessed her teaching in the first year of her career as a teacher in Taiwan from September 2011 to May 2012. Included in this phase were email correspondences to gain information on her teaching experiences and artifacts in the form of textbook and curriculum unit of grade 7 in Taiwan. In this phase, data collection focused on investigating if Chenling reflected conceptions of grammar that she had learned from the teacher education program in her actual teaching. I focused on communicating some challenges and opportunities of using SFL/genre based conception of grammar. While learning from the textbook she was using in her teaching, I wrote questions through emails to investigate what she covered in her instruction and how she taught the lessons in the textbook. Since I noticed that
the textbook used the meta-knowledge of the traditional grammar, my area of investigation focused on how she approached the textbook in her instruction. The main investigation was to gain information whether she approached the textbook and instruction with functional conception of grammar or traditional grammar. I relied on the textbook to interpret how she shifted conceptions of grammar in her first year career as a teacher.

In conducting interviews across the four phases of data collection, I followed the procedure of semi-structured interviews. This interview strategy is argued as one of the powerful ways of generating data by not exacting the interviewees to follow the designed questions (e.g., Bateman, 2004). In this context of research, semi structured interviews are able to open other issues from which I am able to find themes relevant with issues of how Chenling conceptualized grammar. The interviews were guided by the following topics: language learning experiences, educational backgrounds, reasons for being an English teacher, reasons for enrolling into a teacher education in the United States, her view on EFL education, her views on the integration of grammar, her views of learning grammar in the SFL course, some aspects of SFL, writing education, and her strategy of teaching English in her country. In some other opportunities, the interviews were related to substantial issues of grammar learning, for example, her initial concepts of grammar, initial understanding of grammar, views on the language education system in Taiwan, and knowledge of the existing English education practices in Taiwan (See Appendix B for interview protocols). The interviews usually lasted for an hour although it was initially planned for 30 minutes. The interviews were taped and transcribed.
Data Analysis

To analyze these data, I followed an ethnographic procedure as outlined by Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw (1999). The analysis focused on coding field notes and other supporting artifacts to generate themes with reference to the research questions in four phases. In the first phase of analysis, I conducted a close examination to the entire data collected from September 2009 to December 2009 by assigning codes to find emerging themes and patterns (referring to Emerson, et. al, 1999). The analysis focused on the data generated from the four phases of data collection. First, the analysis of data from the first phase of data collection involved coding of classroom observation field notes, interviews, email exchanges, course assignments including Chenling’s drafting toward her final paper, exercises on SFL and genre theory, and reflections. Second, the analysis of the data collected from the second phase of data collection involved coding to generate themes from final assignments and syllabus of the courses that the focus participant attended other than the course in SFL and genre theory, email exchanges, and interviews. Third, the analysis focused on the data collected when the focus participant conducted an internship. The analysis involved coding to generate themes from the curriculum unit, interviews about the focus participant’s summer internship, and the leadership project (the report on the summer internship). Fourth, the analysis focused on coding the data collected over the first year of her career in Taiwan. The analysis involved coding of email communications and textbook contents to generate themes about the focus participant’s actual teaching practice in Taiwan. In the process of analysis, the codes were developed from the first through the third phases of
analysis. While coding and categorizing the emerging patterns of themes through the three phases of analysis, theoretical memos were developed to substantiate the responses to the first research question. The emerging codes and themes such as “behaviorist concept”, “grammar as a formula”, “writing as insignificant practice”, “feeling undermined by groups”, that I interpreted from the focus participant’s interaction, talk, and texts were put into categories. To answer the second research question, this study relies on the coding of the data collected in the fourth phase. The emerging codes and themes in this phase of analysis such as “textbook orientation”, “academic writing”, “collegial influences” were connected with the codes and themes developed in the first through the third phase of analysis to find consistencies and inconsistencies of the focus participant’s conception of grammar and classroom practices (See Table 1 for the summary of phases in data collection and analysis). Theoretical memos were then developed to substantiate responses to the second research question.

To further substantiate the themes generated from the four phases of analysis above, further coding of the collected artifacts was conducted in the following ways. First, I closely read the university’s broad vision and the school’s vision which may be related to the philosophical bases of the course in SFL and Martin’s genre theory. Second, I gained information from the organization of courses. Third, I underlined the related meanings from the content of the course in SFL (e.g., content of weekly meetings, general description of books required for the course, objectives of the course from the syllabus) to describe the underlying
meanings of the course material selection and made connection with the broad objective of the course and institution.

1.3.2. Participants

This qualitative case study is based on the activities of its participants: the researcher, the instructor of the course, classroom participants, and the focus participant (See Table 2).

I situate myself as the main participant in this context of research. My socio-historical and cultural background shapes my positionality which may or may not allow me to see the meanings from data and other significant points in the process of data collection and analysis. My sociocultural background as a male Southeast Asian doctoral student shaped how I interacted with the female focus participant in collecting data. On the other hand, I was connected with the international EFL teachers in this study due more to having shared experiences in teaching EFL than others such as cultural similarity and shared educational practices in schools. The focus participant is Chinese while I am more associated with a typically physical feature of west Javanese Indonesian. In collecting data, I often began a conversation with the teachers about issues related to teaching English as a foreign language. One of the prominent issues that we discussed in the conversation is the fact that academic writing is not a high priority in the curriculum of EFL. Further, having a similar background as an international student in the United States with the international EFL teachers also helped me understand how they participated in a classroom in the context of education in the United States. In conversations with the focus participant, I was aware of her often being marginalized in graduate school.
seminar discussions. For example, she often had difficulties in gaining and retaining communications with domestic teachers in large and small group discussions. The focus participant expressed this experience in an informal interview, “I feel under pressured with classmates in the course” (Field notes, 10/07/2009). I was also aware that being an international graduate student and first year participation in the graduate study contributed to the degree to which she engaged in the course. Thus, I took part in supporting the focus participant as well as other international EFL pre-service teachers in navigating studying in the United States context. In addition, my positionality as a TA (teaching assistant) of the course shaped the focus participant in providing information about the course and its content. The information which was gained from interviews may not have reflected the focus participant’s objective points of view about the course given that I played a role in evaluating their work. The information I gained from the focus participant was also shaped by my positionality as an advocate of SFL/genre-based pedagogy and the focus participant who had just begun to learn the pedagogical concept.

This research is also influenced by the instructor of the course. The instructor was professor O’Connell (pseudonym), a white female professor and an SFL pedagogy advocate. Professor O’Connell’s areas of interest are related to discourse analysis, second language learning, and academic literacy research and practices. She is known as the leading instructor for SFL and genre pedagogy in the College of Education and among scholars through her publications. In this course, she provided classroom activities to apprentice teachers in using SFL/genre based pedagogy as a concept of English language teaching. She shared her perspectives,
research, and experiences in using SFL/genre based pedagogy to enhance effective language teaching and learning. Her influence was especially significant when the focus participant participated in the course. In managing this course, she worked with me and the other TA, a white female doctoral student interested in SFL and genre pedagogy to improve students’ literacies in the context of the United States. She is a United States born teacher of English language learners at a middle school in an urban area. She worked with the local teachers while I worked with the international EFL teachers.

Additionally, the teachers participating in the course had inevitably shaped how I collected data; and therefore, shape the results of the research. In the classroom there were 17 teachers enrolled. The 17 teachers consisted of ESL/EFL pre-service teachers, ESL/EFL pre-service teacher educators, and secondary English pre-service teachers. The rest of the population included one male US born teacher and four international EFL teachers from Asia. The population of the classroom was diverse in terms of their professional backgrounds. About 25% of the population had professional backgrounds other than teaching. Among the international EFL pre-service teachers, one held a bachelor degree in English education, one in English for business, and the other two teachers in mathematics and computer science, and journalism. They attended the teacher education program to have a qualification for teaching English as foreign language (See Table 3 for a summary).
### Table 1: Data Collection and Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Unit of Analysis</th>
<th>Phases</th>
<th>Data Collection</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Documents Collected</th>
<th>Data Analysis</th>
<th>Core constructs and Conceptual Framework</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RQ# 1 How does Chenling’s conception of grammar change, if at all, over her participation in MATESOL program informed in part by SFL/Genre-based pedagogy?</td>
<td>1 teacher</td>
<td>Phase 1</td>
<td>• Field notes of classroom observation (14 weeks of observation)</td>
<td>11 sessions, 60 pages one space or about 5 pages for each session</td>
<td>• Universit y website;</td>
<td>• Read and reread field notes for coding and emerging themes (Emerson, et., al. 1999)</td>
<td>Teachers develop their knowledge through their lived experiences in social contexts (Johnson, 2006); Teacher development and learning change over time (Johnson, 2006); Teachers’ knowledge is co-constructed and negotiated (Johnson, 2006; Johnson &amp; Lantolf, 2007).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Formal interviews: 11/30/2009 (on average 60 minute interviews)</td>
<td>10 pages transcribed formal interview</td>
<td>• Program description/handbook; course description;</td>
<td>- e.g., Emerging coding: e.g., language as a formula; under pressure; grammar is important; grammar is boring; SFL makes sense; impossibility to teach writing</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Informal interviews: 9/15/2009 (in classroom), 10/9.2009 (in the lobby of the school).</td>
<td>6 pages transcribed informal interviews</td>
<td>• Curricular materials (syllabus, weekly agenda);</td>
<td>- Emerging themes: e.g., behaviorist perspective in understanding language; defining grammar at a sentence level; initial understanding of language from social perspective; the nature of a first year graduate student.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>• Formal &amp; informal email exchanges (3 formal email exchanges and 7 informal email exchanges)</td>
<td>15 pages email messages (8 pages);</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• Course assignments - 6 kinds of reflection/9 reflection pages - Exercises) - Mid &amp; final semester papers</td>
<td>6 kinds of reflection pages/9 reflection pages 7 page exercises 55 page papers</td>
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<td>Phase 2</td>
<td>• Papers: - Course 1 (670): 55 pages (2 papers) - Course 2 (684): (2 paper) - Course 3 (611): (1 paper)</td>
<td>Final papers of each of the courses (20 – 50 Pages per paper)</td>
<td>• Syllabus of each of the courses attended</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Content analysis</td>
<td>The interacting factors shape how teachers design instruction (e.g., Johnson, 2006; Johnson &amp; Golombek,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase 3</td>
<td>Papers:</td>
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<td>- A curriculum unit (1 paper)</td>
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<td>- A leadership project (1 paper)</td>
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<td>Formal interviews: 05/09/2011 (on average 60 minute interviews)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Email correspondences</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases 4</th>
<th>Papers:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Formal &amp; informal email exchanges (17 formal email exchanges 5 informal email exchanges)</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ#2</th>
<th>How does Chenling’s teaching classroom practices during her first year in her career reflect, if at all, SFL/genre-based perspective of language learning?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| Transcribed interviews (15–20 pages of single space per interview) |
| 4 pages of email correspondences |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook</th>
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</table>

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<tr>
<th>Phase 4</th>
<th>Papers:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30–50 pages per paper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transcribed interviews</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 pages of email correspondences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coding and emerging themes (Emerson, et., al. 1999)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| The sociocultural, political, and historical context shapes teacher knowledge development (Luke, 2000; Johnson, 2006; Pennycook, 2007) |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher knowledge is mediated by social practices (Lortie, 1975; Lantolf, 2006)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Formal interviews: 01/24/2010, 04/15/2010; 01/24/2011 (on average 60 minute interviews) |

Informal interviews: 4/29/2010 (the school of education) (on average 10–15 minute conversations) |

Formal & informal email exchanges (3 formal email exchanges and 3 informal email exchanges) |

Transcribed interviews (15–20 pages of single space per interview) |

4 pages of email correspondences |

Textbook |

Content analysis |

Coding and emerging themes (Emerson, et., al. 1999) |

The interacting factors shape how teachers design instruction (e.g., Johnson, 2006; Johnson & Golombek, 2011) |

Teacher knowledge is mediated by social practices (Lortie, 1975; Lantolf, 2006)
Table 2: Participants of the Class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5.8% (1)</td>
<td>US Born Participants</td>
<td>76.5% (13)</td>
<td>EFL&amp;ESL Teachers; Secondary School teachers</td>
<td>70.6% (12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>94.2% (16)</td>
<td>Asian Chinese</td>
<td>23.5% (4)</td>
<td>Other backgrounds</td>
<td>29.4% (5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: International EFL Teachers’ Profiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher / Course Section</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Identified as</th>
<th>Languages spoken and/or used academically</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Teaching/work experience</th>
<th>Career goals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chenling</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Taiwanese</td>
<td>Mandarin / English</td>
<td>BA Info. &amp; Comp. Sci.</td>
<td>4-year Math &amp; Computer teaching - secondary level in Taiwan</td>
<td>EFL teaching - secondary level in Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qiang</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>Mandarin / English</td>
<td>BA English Ed.</td>
<td>2-year EFL teaching - secondary level in China</td>
<td>EFL teaching - secondary level in China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jiao</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>Mandarin / English</td>
<td>BA English</td>
<td>1-year teaching - elementary level in China</td>
<td>ESL &amp; EFL teaching - college level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Gebhard, et. al, 2013)

1.3.2.1. Focus Participant

I have chosen one of the four international EFL pre-service teachers to be the focus participant (Henceforth, Chenling) to provide an in-depth analysis of how grammar knowledge is conceptualized over time. Chenling (pseudonym) was not selected because she was representative of the international EFL pre-service teachers in the class although she may have values representing them. Of the four international EFL pre-service teachers, she was in late twenties and, like two other international EFL teachers, she held a bachelor degree in non-English education and had a few years of experience in teaching English and non-English subjects.
Chenling came to the United States to enroll in a master degree to gain a social capital, as a graduate of the institution in the United States, in the hope for more acknowledgement in her society as an EFL teacher and more pedagogical knowledge. Additionally, Chenling had no specific expectation regarding what she would learn in the masters program. According to Chenling, gaining new pedagogical knowledge is a plus and tool to apply to teaching English in her country.

Chenling was an international EFL pre-service teacher from Taiwan. She was from a middle upper class Asian family as her parents had been able to support her in a masters program at the university in the United States. Before being admitted to this program, she earned a bachelor degree in math and computer science from a university in Taiwan. To receive a licensure (an official certificate of permission to work as a teacher) in teaching, she spent four years of teaching math and computer in Matsu, a small island Taiwan, after she had earned the bachelor degree in the area of study. However, upon receiving a licensure, she decided to change her career path to teaching EFL as she gained more interest in EFL. As a requirement enforced by the licensure policy, she had to go back to Matsu island to teach English for at least one year. She recognized Matsu as a small island where resources for teaching were not as rich as those in big cities such as Taipei, but she had no objections to return to the island. This MATESOL program in the College of Education at a university in North America was the first formal teacher education which prepared her to be an EFL teacher and experience in the US.

Chenling’s positionality as a first year international graduate student influenced how she provided data at the beginning of her participation in MATESOL.
program, while her first year participation in the course of SFL/genre-based pedagogy was a crucial stage of the data collection. For example, being a first year student, she showed less verbal interaction, expected fixed answers to problems, and needed time to integrate with other participants from different cultures.

1.3.3. Transcription

In transcribing data from interviews and classroom discussions, I refer to a transcription method which informs that there is no standardized way of transcribing but there is a process of selectivity relying on the purpose of the study (e.g., Cameron, 2001; Fairclough, 1992; Ochs, 1999). Based on the perspective, “there is no set procedure for doing discourse analysis; people approach it in different ways according to the specific nature of the project as well as their own views of discourse” (Fairclough, 1992, p. 225). In the same way provides principles of transcription which indicate no standardization but reliance on purposes of a project, which leads to selectivity Ochs (1999) of data. Ochs argues regarding the crucial points in transcribing verbal data: “A more useful transcript is a more selective one [...] but selectivity should not be random and implicit [...] rather a transcriber should be conscious of the filtering process [...] the basis for selective transcription should be clear” (p. 167). Based on these principles, some features of talks that may be included in transcriptions are “to lay out talk on the page, to represent prosodic, paralinguistic and nonverbal features, and whether to use non-standard spelling to give a more realistic impression of the speakers’ pronunciation” (Cameron, 2001, p. 43). Referring to the above principles of data transcription, in transcribing audio taped data (interview, classroom discussions, small group
discussions, and tutoring conversations), first, I kept the data as they are to maintain its truth: “what is opposed to what ought to be?” (p. 167). In this case, Ochs provides symbols to represent non-verbal interaction in talks. Second, considering the principle of “a more useful transcript is a more selective one”, I selected the transcription for analysis based on what is required to answer the research questions as a filtering process after I transcribe all of the videotaped data related to the focus participant.

1.3. Limitations of the Study

This study has several limitations generally ascribed in qualitative research. The first limitation is related to the conclusion of this study which draws on a particular aspect of a phenomenon. If we intend to generalize the result of the study, drawing a generalization from studies on a particular aspect of a phenomenon could potentially lack strong arguments. I have chosen one focus participant instead of a group of participants to generate findings and discussions which address a broad aspect of teachers’ conceptions of grammar. I also think that the description of a large context such as a global context still leaves other aspects related to language learning unidentifiable and unexplored to claim for a generalization from this study.

Second, the fact that I did not engage in a direct observation of the focus participant’s actual teaching practices limits this study in an effort to achieve a solid and stable explanation of the promise and peril of SFL/genre-based pedagogy implementation. This study relies on long distance communications to capture the portrait of how the focus participant conducts actual teaching. Instead, this study provides more description of how the teacher conceptualizes grammar at the level
of envision of the conceptual application for the participant’s future teaching contexts.

Third, another possible limitation relates to the available data which generate findings. I rely on the data from field notes to code and arrive at some findings. Since the focus participant did not show much verbal interaction in the classroom, I rely on a description of the classroom and the focus participant’s written assignments to provide a thick description. In addition, I will rely on interview data to complete the field notes.

Fourth, the other limitation is the way I collected data in the focus participant’s transition to actual teaching which did not involve observations of how the focus participant incorporated her conception of grammar in the other courses she took upon the completion of the course in SFL/genre-based pedagogy. I only relied on the final project she wrote to see how her conceptions of grammar were manifested in designing curriculum and instruction. This approach missed capturing some interacting points in the classrooms which may have changed or enhanced her knowledge of grammar. To anticipate this possible lack of details in tracing the focus participant’s development in conceptualizing grammar and designing academic literacy instruction, the collection of the final assignments of each course was followed up by interviews.

1.4. Significance of the Study

The significance of this study addresses three points, which relate to the relationship between theory of grammar and its actual application, and an effort of
raising awareness among teacher educators of teacher education program about apprenticing teachers from diverse socio-cultural contexts.

First, the study into grammar and its application for teaching academic English is not new. However, the gap between linguists and educators or teachers of language remains to be a prevalent issue in relation to the way in which linguistic theory is best integrated into teaching academic language. To date an earlier time as I can track when the issue became one of the concerns in the TESOL journal was White’s (1974) arguments drawing a connection between what linguists had theorized and teachers of language tried to implement in classroom practices. White describes the gap as a long bridge to connect what grammarians theorize and what teachers are doing with language in classroom practices which should be solved by identifying “the common core”, that is, “the basic language code which the teacher hopes his pupils will acquire” (p. 403). The need for developing genre and register in EFL contexts responds to such a gap as individuals develop register in school and out of school contexts. In line with Halliday, White believes that register knowledge provides “general properties of language varieties of this kind that is the common core” (p. 403). As such, this study points out the significance of developing academic literacy in EFL contexts from SFL and genre pedagogy to contribute to the increasing need of academic literacy as a way to build awareness of language use for different purposes from daily language practices. In its contribution to the increasing need for academic literacy instruction in EFL contexts, this study points out how learning and teaching to mean should operate in teaching academic literacy
which develops learners’ literacy skills at a discourse level and how teachers conceptualize and develop it accordingly in response to the needs of local contexts.

Second, in addressing grammar for teaching academic literacy and supporting literacy development, this study may bring significance for teacher educators in considering which grammar is more appropriately given at the level of teacher education to provide teachers and students with knowledge of language as resource for making meanings in various contexts. This study supports other studies in different contexts in supporting SFL/genre based conception of grammar to support literacy learning and practices in various contexts. For example, studies into SFL/genre-based pedagogy among ELL in the United States (e.g. Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Otei’za, 2007; Aguirre-Mun’oz, Park, & Boscardin, 2008; Brisk & Zisselsberger, 2010; Gebhard, Chen, & Britton, in Press; Gebhard, Harman, & Seger, 2007; Gebhard, Shin, & Seger, 2011; Schulz, 2011) show how SFL/genre based conception of grammar to support students in successfully meeting a high stake test and in accelerating those with lack of exposure in more academic language to engage in academic schooling practices. Other studies in Canada such as Mohan and Slater (2006) and Huang and Mohan (2009) respectively used SFL/genre based conception of grammar to support students in learning science registers and helped students learn language, content and culture in an integrated assessment. The potential of SFL/genre-based pedagogy in EFL contexts has also been warranted by other studies (e.g., Schleppegrell & O’Hallaron, 2011; Fang, Schleppegrell & Cox, 2006; Coffin & Donohue, 2012; Liardet, 2011) which show close connections between SFL and academic language teaching and learning and how academic texts
in a range of subject areas pose distinctive lexicogrammatical and lexical features as a resource for meaning making. This study confirms that SFL/genre based conception of grammar responds to teachers’ inquiry regarding which conception of grammar is more applicable to teaching how meanings are constructed (e.g., Gebhard & Martin, 2011).

Third, this study raises awareness among teacher educators regarding the local contexts which contribute to teachers’ shifts of the pedagogical knowledge offered in a teacher education program. The shifts of their conceptions of grammar suggest that teacher education is not the only place where teachers learn theories for practices because teachers continuously adjust their understanding of pedagogical concepts with immediate sociocultural forces. The enforced policy in their future workplace could be the most interacting factor that shapes their pedagogical concept and its application in actual teaching. More specifically, this study informs teacher educators several issues in preparing teachers with educational linguistics. The study suggests that teacher educators should be aware of the fact that teachers’ prior experiences, current activities, and envisioned future contexts are extremely influential in shaping how and why teachers make decisions for actual teaching situations. In addition, teacher education programs can serve as sites for learning and development towards a knowledge based conception of pedagogy that could significantly contribute to the success of existing language educational reforms in EFL contexts. As indicated in the implications of this study, this study support other studies (e.g., Fang, Sun, Chiu, and Trutschel, 2014; Gebhard, Graham, Chen & Gunawan, 2013; Harper & Renie, 2008) in informing that the use of
SFL/genre based conception of grammar which could potentially contribute to the reforms of language learning towards access to content knowledge and meaning makings in various contexts are constrained by the existing driven assessment policy which is language form oriented.

1.5. Overview of Chapters

Given that the main focus of this study is to explore how an EFL teacher shifts her conceptions of grammar longitudinally over her participation in a teacher education program and in her first year of teaching experience, the following chapters are designed to connect the themes of this study. Chapter Two explores Halliday’s SFL and Martin’s genre theory. This exploration is aimed at describing linguistic and pedagogical knowledge introduced to the teachers in the teacher education program. To stretch to the current concerns of using SFL/genre based conception of grammar in recent studies, this exploration includes theoretical bases of the theoretical development into pedagogical concept, critiques of using SFL/genre based conception of grammar, critical praxis of using SFL/genre based conception of grammar, and reviews of studies into using SFL/genre based conception of grammar in EFL contexts to identify trends of using the conception of grammar in teaching academic literacy. Chapter Three includes a sociocultural theory to theoretically inform the way in which teachers shift their conceptions of grammar. This chapter is aimed at providing bases for understanding teacher knowledge development especially in L2 teacher pedagogical knowledge for teaching EFL.
Chapter Four presents context of the study by describing more specifically the context of this case study. This chapter focuses on portraying the context where the focus participant participated in the teacher education program in part informed by SFL/genre based pedagogy. This chapter also includes the courses in the teacher education program in which she participated in learning to teach and understand other concepts that could facilitate learning and teaching practices. Chapter Five provides an in depth portrait of the focal teacher in shifting her conception of grammar in the teacher education program which is in part informed by Halliday’s SFL and Martin’s genre theory. Chapter Six provides a continued portrait of the focal teacher in using or not using the conception of grammar as gained from the teacher education program in one year of teaching experience. Chapter Seven provides summary of findings and discussion of the findings from the sociocultural perspective of teacher knowledge development as theoretically explored in chapter Three. The final chapter, Chapter Eight, includes implications which address academic literacy education in EFL contexts, language policy in EFL contexts, teacher education programs, and future research directions.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW OF SFL AND GENRE THEORY

SFL and genre theory (SFL/genre-based pedagogy) and the review of its pedagogical practices in EFL contexts serve as the theoretical basis that informs the knowledge that the teacher develops in this study. This chapter focuses on exploring some key terminology in SFL and Martin’s genre conception of grammar and issues regarding instructional practices using this pedagogical approach (Christie, 1990, 1999; Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Halliday, 1993; Halliday, 1994; Halliday, 2009; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin 1997, 2009, 2000; Martin & Rose, 2008; Rose and Martin, 2012).

2.1 SFL/Genre–based Pedagogy

SFL/genre-based pedagogy is a pedagogical concept which was initially developed in Australia at the University of Sydney to support academic writing development by providing explicit instruction of a text type and making visible linguistic resources of the text. SFL is the conceptual basis of genre development. SFL focuses on theory of language which is based on how people get things done with language and other semiotic systems within cultural contexts in which they interact and it focuses on how the use of language and other semiotic systems shape the development of cultural semiotic systems (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Two of the main constructs in SFL which reflect social contexts for people to get things done with language are systemic and functional. First, language being systemic means that there is no binary theory of language which involves dichotomies such as Chomsky’s competence and performance, or Saussure’s langue and parole
(Christie, 1990; Halliday, 1994; Bloor & Bloor, 1995 & Veel, 1997). Halliday (1994) states that “SFL would not dissociate the system from the instance, language from text, langue from parole, competence from performance, or other related oppositional pairs” (p. 94). Rather, Halliday views the two acts of meaning as a unity of classes of phenomena which is further stated as a unite identity (parole) and meaning potentials (langue). The acts of meanings are described as semantic in nature and as a subclass of semiotic acts. In this sense, Halliday (2009) expounds that the acts of meaning consist of a process of making choices from meaning potentials, which are dynamic, modifiable, and differentiated. Second, language is functional. Being functional means that language systems should be useful and purposeful to get things done in real life (Halliday, 2009). Christie (1999) and Martin (1997) refer to being functional in SFL as a system which provides purposeful and useful modeling of language.

The system of choice and function in SFL is reified through Halliday’s trinocular conception of meaning, that is, ideational resources for realizing reality, events, and experiences; interpersonal resources for realizing negotiations to accomplish social relations; and textual resources for managing the flow of information. These three conceptions of meanings are referred to language metafunctions, which are projected into register variables of field to construct ideas; tenor to enact relationships; and mode to organize the flow of information either through oral or written or media assisted channel of communication (Halliday, 2009). The register variables, in other words, instantiate the meaning potentials embedded in the three language metafunctions, which simultaneously operate in
making meanings and serve as a basis for variations of language in relation to contexts. As the diagram below shows, the acts of meanings are illustrated as discourse semantics which is construed by the system of register or lexicogrammar (Halliday, 1994; Martin, 2009).

Figure 2: Model of Levels of Language (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2009, p. 13)

The discourse semantics of spoken and written communication, which represents the functional purposes of using language, is constructed by the strata of lexicogrammar and phonology. At the level of lexicogrammar, a configuration of meanings is realized by the choice of field, tenor, and mode (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). The configuration is also meaningful by the choice of phonological expressions in spoken communications. In particular, the three language metafunctions simultaneously participate in the meaning making processes instantiated through the choice of register variables. First, the field is construed through experiential meanings, such as, the choice of participants and processes (realized by many kinds of verbs). Second, the tenor is construed through interpersonal meanings, such as, the choice of modality (e.g., can, will, perhaps),
adjuncts (e.g., this year, at home), and adjectives (e.g., excited, glad). Third, the mode is construed through textual meanings, such as, the choice of sequencing device to make messages sound cohesive or through the channel of communication (e.g., written or spoken or mediated by technology). The context of situation “specified with respect to field, tenor, and mode, plays a significant role in determining the actual choices among the possibilities” (Halliday, 2009, p. 55).

The choice of register serves to instantiate how a social context leads to explore meaning potentials to respond to an immediate context and to achieve the purpose of communication (Halliday, 1994). When individuals engage in communicating an idea or event or experience, they make choices with regard to the context of situation. For example, when individuals are involved in the discourse of giving comments, such as, on an advertisement, they may use different choices of register to achieve the purpose of communications and to acknowledge whom they are speaking with. In providing a negative comment, they may express “your advertisement is misleading” or “you are a load of crooks” or “perhaps, it is not what you said” or some other possibilities. In the expression “your advertisement is misleading”, the choice of register “your advertisement” acts as the field to realize the participant and “is misleading” acts as the field to realize the relational process. When the idea is expressed to a person with a lower status or with a certain degree of emotion, the idea may be packed in this way: “you are a load of crooks” indicating the changes in the field (“you” instead of “your advertisement”). The relational process (are a load of crooks) in this instance serves to attribute a value to the field. The same idea may be expressed with the tenor to enact politeness with the
The choice of the field ("they" instead of "you" and "your advertisement") and the addition of "perhaps" (tenor) to show politeness simultaneously construe meanings expressed for different purposes and audiences. In terms of mode, those spoken expressions may be conveyed differently if they are communicated in a written form or with textual conjunctions to relate to other fields.

Martin and his colleagues in the 1970s and 1980s developed a genre concept in association with Halliday's functional concept of language. The development into a system of genre evolved from an action research project in 1979 which attempted to intervene in the process of writing development in primary and secondary schools (Martin, 2000). The main focus of the genre approach is to meet the demand for writing in schools (Christie, 1999; Martin, 2009; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rothery, 1994). In other words, Martin and his colleagues elaborate Halliday's conception of language and education to provide a more essential tool to support students to read and write.

Figure 3: Metafunctions in Relation to Genre (Martin, 2009, p. 12; Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 23)
As illustrated in the model of language above, language use is construed by two main contexts: genre and register to respectively realize the context of culture and the context of situation (Martin, 2009; Martin & Rose, 2008). Each of the register variables is projected through Halliday’s metafunctions of language. The notion of the context of culture and the context of situation originates from Malinowski, a renowned British anthropologist in 1935 as a concept to describe that texts are shaped by and shaping contexts (Christie, 1999). Martin and his colleagues refer to Malinowski’s concept of the context of culture and the context of situation as adapted in Halliday’s theories of SFL. Halliday defines “the context of situation as the environment of the text and the context of culture as the environment of the linguistic system” (1996, p. 361).

However, Martin and his colleagues have developed the concept of the context of culture and the context of situation differently from Halliday. Martin and his colleagues use the term genre to realize the context of culture and separate it from the register system (Martin, 2009). Martin recognizes that, in Halliday’s SFL, genre is embedded in the tenor, one of the register variables, but he separates genre from the register system to “allow for shifts in field, tenor, and mode variables from one stage of a genre to another” (Martin, 2009, p. 13). In making a connection with schooling context, Gebhard and Harman (2011) indicate that Martin’s use of Halliday’s constructs of the context of culture and the context of situation is to capture the language of schooling which reflects canonical patterns of genre moves and variation in register choices as an attempt to achieve the purpose of communication, address audiences, and fit with the channel of communication (see
Martin & Rose, 2008). Martin acknowledges variations that may happen to the field such as variations in subject matter, in the tenor such as in terms of formality, and in the mode such as abstraction. Such variations according to Martin can unfold in some instantiations of the same genre. Therefore, as shown in the model above, Martin illustrates how genre acts as a context to mobilize language use and as a context of culture which leads language choices at the level of register to achieve its social purposes. According to Martin (e.g., Martin, 1993; Martin, 2009), genre and register simultaneously construct the meaning making process instantiating and realizing the trinocular conception of language. This concept has been developed especially in response to school needs for literacy education by apprenticing students in learning to read and write academically. For example, Rose and Martin (2012) provides a map of how genre works for the production of text, which shows genre developments and variations in schools.

**Figure 4: Map of Genre in School (Rose and Martin 2012, p. 128)**
The model above confirms that Martin’s conceptualization of genre is “a theory of the borders of our social world, and our familiarity of what to expect” (2009, p. 13). The model shows what information should be present in certain genres and be distinctive from other genres of texts. The model also shows how information should be organized to meet the conventions of genres. The diagram informs about systematically analyzing and selecting a text of a certain genre. The genres presented in the diagram may have been familiar to teachers but how to explicitly name them may not be familiar among teachers (Rose & Martin, 2012). Therefore, this diagram presents the some common purposes of constructing a text whether to engage, inform, or to evaluate. The purpose shapes staging in constructing a text. For example, if teachers teach students to construct meanings in a text to engage readers, they focus on how the authors commonly use language to engage readers. In the diagram, the stages include the teaching of the aspects or moves of the genre: sequencing of events or not sequencing of events, complicating or not complicating stories, resolution to the complication or unresolved way of engaging readers, and sharing feelings or judging behavior. The choices in the stages of engaging readers unfold as there are many ways to engage readers. Rose and Martin note:

There are five main types of stories: a recount simply recounts a series of events, but in a narrative the central characters resolve a complication; anecdotes share feelings about a complicating event that is not resolved, while an exemplum judges people’s character or behavior. Unlike the other story types, news stories (in Western broadsheet newspapers, especially in English ones) are not sequenced in time, but engage the reader with a newsworthy event and then report angles on it. (p. 129)
The diagram shares some samples of working with genre of texts. Rose and Martin indicate differences in terms of stages in engaging readers across cultures. In their example, news stories in Western newspapers sequence information based on trustworthiness instead of chronological order. The quote above indicates that the purpose of writing a text is implicated in the stages of ordering and selecting kinds of information. The diagram also includes types of purposes in informing which brings consequences on the stages that follow. To inform could be set up in the genres that are grouped into chronicles, explanations, reports, and procedures, each of which has typical features of staging and information structures. Similarly, to evaluate could be grouped into text response and argument genres which are constructed by typical ways of using language such as to express feelings in text response genre or to support one point of view in argument genre. Martin (2009) describes that writing a genre involves choices which are available in groups of relatable generic tasks.

In teaching of writing, Martin’s concept of genre plays a crucial role as a tool for making linguistic resources visible by mobilizing stages of writing which necessitate certain structures of language (Knapp & Watkins, 2005). The role of Martin’s genre theory is also to make visible the inherent valuable language necessary to achieve the purpose of writing. Given that academic writing owns valuable language use as deconstructed through the genre theory, genre advocates (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Hyland, 2007) argue that academic English could potentially accelerate L2 and foreign language learners in the development of valued language and reasoning abilities in the target language. The diagram shows
that teachers’ knowledge of genre is crucial in developing students’ academic writing because it enables teachers to have the expertise in making visible the grammatical patterns in texts and valuable language to achieve the purpose of communicating through texts and innovating those patterns for different purposes and contexts (Macken-Horarik, 2012). Teachers need to understand how language and other semiotic means work in making meanings including academic language practices and literacy across the disciplines (Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Gebhard, et., al. 2013; Martin & Rose, 2008; Schleppegrell, 2004). This genre perspective echoes Martin’s argument about learning to write, that is, “you can’t write if you don’t control the appropriate register and genres” (Martin, 2009, p. 162).

Despite differences in the concept of genre from Halliday’s SFL, there are conceptual and pedagogical arguments that Martin and his colleagues have drawn on Halliday’s SFL for conceptualizing the genre theory as such. For example, in developing the concept of genre to realize Halliday’s definition of the context of culture, Martin (2009) argues that the model of genre in school supports Halliday’s concept of the context of culture as the potentials and range of possibilities available in language as a system. Martin (2009) notes that adding the level of genre serves “to coordinate resources, to specify just how a given culture organizes this meaning potential into recurrent configurations of meaning, and phases of meanings through stages in each genre” (p. 12). The function of genre in the system of discourse semiotics, as the diagram indicates, is to guide the achievement of social purposes of working with texts through the stages of assembling meanings. The stages also
indicate that there are variations of doing things with language to achieve different social purposes.

Another conceptual argument which explains how Martin and his colleagues have developed Halliday’s concept of the context of culture is relating to Halliday’s perspective of human engagement with language and other semiotic systems over time in societies in terms of logogenesis, ontogenesis, and phylogeneis as meaning potentials (see Martin 1997; 2009). Martin refers to the term “‘logogenesis’ for the longer time frame of the development of language in individuals, ‘ontogenesis’ for maximum time depth and ‘phylogeneis’ for the expansion of culture” (Martin, 1997, pp. 8 – 9). In other words, Phylogenesis provides “the environment for logogenesis in a way that a culture in its evolution provides “the social context for the linguistic development of individuals, and the stage this development has reached in the individuals provides resources for the instantiation of unfolding text” (Martin, 1997, p. 9). Martin describes that, conversely, logogenesis provides the material (i.e., semiotic goods) for ontogenesis, which in turn provides the material for phylogenesis. In this case, as Martin (1997) illustrates, individuals are positioned in a culture while they act as a social subject with available meaning potentials. Individuals “engage dynamically with texts as they unfold (logogenesis) or positioned and repositioned socially throughout their life (ontogenesis) and a culture reworks hegemony across generations (phylogenesis)” (Martin, 1997, p. 10). As logogenesis provides the material, it serves as a process of instantiation of the texts in individuals’ engagement with language. The instantiation of the texts is made sense by the hegemony of culture (phylogenesis). As individuals participate
in expanding social networks, they are apprenticed to networks of knowledge through their participation in specialized activities and engagement with available semiotic resources (ontogenesis) (Martin, 1999).

In Martin's genre theory, the evolution of culture and individual development as meaning potentials is in construal relationship with the context of situation. The tight construal relationship of making meanings between the context of culture and the context of situation, as Christie and Unsworth (2000) maintain, implies a strong focus on the transmission of discourse competences. The process of meaning making is not related to the lists of rules, or based on what individuals can produce neurologically, or what has been prescribed, but to the simultaneous construct of the context of culture and the context of situation. Language, register, and genre constitute the meaning potentials which are dynamic as a text unfolds and social subjects involve in the evolution and reproduction of culture where meanings are constructed (Martin, 1997). Coffin and Donohue (2012) reiterate the concept of genre pedagogy from SFL perspective to support literacy learning in a way that “literacy practices are both individual behaviors that participants display in a literacy event and complex and abstract social phenomena which include the larger social and cultural meanings that participants bring to, and deploy, in their participation in a literacy event” (p. 65).

A pedagogical argument which explains that Martin’s genre approach has drawn on Halliday’s SFL is a shared concern in developing linguistics based literacy pedagogy. Christie (1993) argues that Halliday’s theorization of SFL supports literacy learning and instruction (e.g., Halliday, 1996). Further, Martin (1993)
maintains that SFL has been related to literacy education since its inception in Australia and it serves as a resource for teachers to teach writing. Before Martin developed the concept of genre for teaching literacy, Halliday had published *the Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching* in 1964 in which he related linguistic concept and English literacy education (Christie & Unsworth, 2006). Halliday’s perspective of literacy education manifests in his three types of language teaching, that is, “prescriptive (referring to practices that prescribed preferred expressions, such as, I did, rather than I done), describe (referring to methods of describing language much as a linguist does), and productive (involving students in using the resource of their language in powerful ways)” (Christie & Unsworth, 2006, p. 218).

Since the publication of Halliday’s work, the studies into register variables in educational contexts since the 1970s had been growing (Hasan, 1996). During the period, there was an increasing need for learning grammar from SFL perspective to support teachers and students at schools in working on school tasks (Christie & Unsworth, 2006). Teachers more affirmatively needed functional grammar which was applicable at schools especially upon Halliday’s publication of introduction to functional grammar in 1985 (Christie & Unsworth, 2006).

In response to the needs for applicable functional grammar in schools, Martin and colleagues follow Halliday’s concern about providing students and teachers with resources in literacy learning and teaching. For this purpose, Martin defines genre in a more accessible characterization for literacy instruction as:

*A staged goal-oriented social process: (i) staged: because it usually takes us more than one phase of meaning to work through a genre; (ii) goal-oriented: because unfolding phases are designed to accomplish something and we feel*
a sense of frustration or incompleteness if we are stopped; (iii) social: because we undertake genres interactively with others. (Martin, 2009, p. 13)

The concept of genre, which is a staged, goal oriented social processes (Martin 1993; Rothery, 1994; Martin & Rose, 2008), shows how a text achieves social purposes with more than one step. The concept also shows how genres differ and fit for certain purposes and local contexts (Martin & Rose, 2008). The steps in the application of the genre concept of pedagogy refer to a system in supporting the process of construing the features of texts and contexts, and a whole text learning and production rather than sentences as a basic unit through which meanings are made and negotiated (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Gebhard & Martin, 2011; Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Martin, 1993; Martin, 1993). According to Cope and Kalantzis in their review on Martin’s genre approach to pedagogy, there is a potential of genre based literacy practice to be critical in a way that it serves as “a tool of how well a text manages to communicate, and a tool which does not bind speakers and writers to formulaic adherence to canonical genres” (p. 89). Expounding Cope and Kalantzis, Byrnes, et. al, view another potential of the genre pedagogy as a bifunctional concept addressing language and literate culture. In their perspective, Martin’s genre approach to pedagogy facilitates simultaneous acquisition of language and cultural contents through reflexive engagement in various genres, which include questioning, analyzing, reflecting on language. By bringing the linguistic theory as an educational concept (Martin, 1997; Christie, 1999), literacy education from SFL based genre perspective embraces the intersection of language of daily life and language of schooling such as the language commonly used across the curricular subjects. As Byrnes, at, al. suggest, various genres are included in learning academic
literacy. The followers of the genre pedagogy have thus far extended Halliday’s (e.g., 1994) concept of contexts of language use which addresses the intersection of daily life and schooling. In this sense, Halliday notes that due to the intersection of daily life and schooling discourses, language learning is required whether in the forms of learning language, learning through language, or learning about language, all of which involves learning to understand things in more than one way. Further, Halliday relates written culture to education for which Halliday provides a case of children learning. Halliday illustrates that “Children learn to construe their experience in two complementary modes: the dynamic mode of everyday commonsense grammar and the synoptic mode of the elaborated written grammar” (Halliday, 1994, p. 112). In other words, children develop their linguistic repertoires from home environment which provides more spoken grammar, then, as they grow, they develop their linguistic repertoires in a school environment which is more resourceful for written grammar. In short, Martin and his colleagues’ concept of genre maintains Halliday’s argument of the significance of writing pedagogy at schools as an institutionalized form of learning in response to the changing semiotic nature in society.

2.1. SFL/genre-based Pedagogy Teaching and Learning Cycle and Its Orientation to Critical Praxis

Martin’s genre pedagogy has been developed into what it is called “a teaching and learning cycle”. This teaching and learning cycle was first developed in the 1980s, and has gone through several versions including the version to respond to critiques which claim that Martin’s genre pedagogy is not critical as it is divorced from contexts and more behaviorist based. In this section, I describe the teaching
and learning cycle in its first appearance and the next appearance to respond to the critiques with more reflexive teaching and learning cycle.

The first teaching and learning cycle appeared in the work of Callaghan and Rothery in 1988 (Knapp & Watkins, 2005). This version (see figure 5) includes three stages: modeling, joint negotiation of text, and independent construction of text.

Figure 5: SFL/genre Teaching and learning Cycle: First Appearance (Knapp & Watkins, 2005, p. 78; Rose & Martin, 2012. P. 64)

The teaching and learning cycle is designed to apprentice learners to learn to construct a text through modeling and proceed with constructing a text with learners’ authority. The phase of modeling includes setting a genre in its cultural context and discussing its moves as well as language features. In the phase of joint negotiation, the activities include building up the field for a new text about different or related topic of the same genre. Independent construction stage is designed for
building up the same field or another field, having consultation with a teacher, editing, and publishing. Independent construction is the final step for a creative exploration of writing a genre of a text. Since its publication, the teaching and learning cycle had not led teachers to provide a dynamic process of text production but teachers had tended to replicate a set of institutionally mandated text types (Knapp & Watkins, 2005). The pedagogical practices based on this version invited critiques for being less reflective, but more reproductive, template oriented, and behaviorist based (e.g., Kress, 1993; Luke, 1996).

Another teaching and learning cycle based on the genre approach to pedagogy appeared in the work of Rothery and Stenglin in 1993 as cited in Martin (2000; 2009). As shown in the diagram (see Figure 6), this version has a center in the middle as a focus of the stages of working with texts. The center part suggests that students create a text with a control of genre and build critical awareness in constructing a text. In the diagram, setting a context and building a field are put as the center of each stage of the cycle. The center of the model shows a refinement of the previous cycle to include “a control of and critical orientation to genre and text” (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 59). The cycle also shows interconnected relations between meanings and genres in which genres comprise meanings and meanings construe genres.

More prominently, this version attempts to respond to the criticism which especially claims that the previous model of teaching and learning cycle is not critical but reproductive. In responding to such criticism, Martin and colleagues argue that this version has the potentials for the implementation of critical literacy
education and sociocultural practices in teaching and learning (e.g., Martin, 2009; Martin & Rose, 2008).

Figure 6: SFL/genre Teaching and learning Cycle for Secondary School: Next Appearance (Martin, 2000; 2006; 2009).

In making a connection with critical literacy practices, Martin (2009) attempts to show that genre based pedagogy is framed with the latest teaching and learning cycle, inclusive of an orientation to critical practices of literacy learning and teaching. Referring to Fairclough’s (1992) concern with the evolution of culture that affects language use in writing, Martin indicates that genre based pedagogy holds a commitment to a distribution of literacy resources and critical language awareness in which individual meaning potentials could contribute to specific ways of making meanings. Further, Martin makes a reference to Janks’ (2000) overview of critical language education to illustrate how the genre concept addresses the main constructs of critical literacy practices. Framed within the issues of access, dominance, diversity, and design, Martin relates the concept of genre to a way of
redistributing a control of genres to non-mainstream groups (access); managing the selection of genres, such as, in terms of “which genres are selected, how critically is their social function addressed?” (dominance); considering “a range of hybridity of subjectivities involved in institutional learning by valuing non-mainstream discourses at the same time offering access to mainstream ones” (diversity); and taking up the question of creativity and innovation such as “how do we provide opportunities for students to rework genres in line with their interests and goals?” (design) (Martin, 2000, p. 120). In this version of teaching and learning cycle, other proponents of the genre pedagogy (e.g., Feez, 1998; Macken-Horarik, 2002; Rothery, 1994) reserve an independent phase in the teaching and learning cycle for students to construct a text in less scaffolding and unexpected ways. In addition, the role of explicit instruction in the teaching and learning cycle is an attempt to raise students' awareness of language choices to achieve a certain social purpose which is a way toward critical practices of using language (Christie, 1999).

The commitment of the genre pedagogy to facilitate students to gain a control of genre is argued to be a pathway toward awareness of the distribution of power in societies. An extensive study conducted by Martin and Rothery involving a wide corpus of texts from elementary schools in the Sydney area informs that the generic structure and texture of the students' texts are dominantly related to narrative and recount forms while the curriculum requires the mastery of report, explanation, and expository genres (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). Martin and his colleagues believe that the genre concept could potentially provide students from lower economic and non-dominant groups with access to mainstream academic
discourses or genres of power by having students engage in literacy practices valued in the workplace and other economic enterprises (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Martin, 1989). Through an analysis of discourse from the genre perspective, learners participate in analyzing languages and creating a text commonly distributed in the workplace (e.g., & Chaulirarki, & Fairclough, 1999; New London Group, 2000). The analytical practices in the genre approach to pedagogy also guide learners to gain a better control of language. Such practices have been argued to be more significant for anticipating rapidly emerging and spreading patterns of communication in societies powered by multimedia dimensions such as gaming, Ipod, the Internet broadcasting streaming, which create wider gaps between home and school discourses (e.g., Gee, 2000; Herrington & Moran, 2006; Rampton, 2006). The genre pedagogy emphasizes an explicit pedagogy to build awareness of using language contextually for certain purposes such as language of schooling with specific disciplines and language of everyday life. From a broad perspective of genre theories including a rhetoric approach to genre pedagogy, explicit instruction and analysis of genres are significant for mediating the gap created by home discourses in any and new possible ways which are not in line with school discourses (Herrington & Moran, 2006).

Not only has SFL based genre pedagogy been conceptually attached to critical literacy practices as Martin and his colleagues argue, but also it has been historically documented that genre based pedagogy has been working on issues of power distribution in societies since its inception. It can be traced from how genre based pedagogy was developed in the 1960s and 1970s in Australia. At that time,
there were a growing number of marginalized groups, immigrants, and working
class children being socioeconomically neglected among the middle class
professional family. The situation became an impetus for creating a significant
pedagogical concept that could elevate their socioeconomic status (Christie, 1999;
Rose & Martin, 2012). In the 1980s, children of indigenous and migrant families in
Australia who were learning English as a second language outside their home were
the subjects of research studies to see the gap of genres that the children were
familiar with and the curriculum expected (Lock & Lockhart, 1998). Based on Martin
and Rothery's study, children showed unpreparedness for writing in the secondary
school education (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). The study became one of the reasons for
developing genre based pedagogy to support the teaching of writing in primary and
secondary schools in Australia (Lock & Lockhart, 1998). In the 1990s, genre based
pedagogy extended its application in secondary schools and workplaces featuring a
map out of schooling disciplines and selected workplaces as families of genres. As
societies change, the high demands for literacy skills in Australia have been
challenged by diverse needs of specific groups of students in schools where the
issues of multiculturalism and immigration are an integral part contributing to the
success of literacy for all policy (Hammond & Derewianka, 1999). More recently,
the application of genre based pedagogy has been triggered by the demands for
academic skills among the growing number of students of non-English speaking
backgrounds in Australia and similarly in other countries to support academic
English learning due to the impacts of growing economies on English literacy
education (Martin & Rose, 2007). Rose and Martin (2012) confirm that genre based
pedagogy responds to two fold issues: an issue of social justice related to how it
supports students for success in education and life beyond school, and critical
perspective on genre related to how students master genres to be critiqued and how
they have mastery of genres used to critique.

Integrated in the version of the teaching and learning cycle which is argued
to support critical literacy practices is an embedded concept of how the teaching
and learning cycle encourages a gradual shift of learning from teacher's
responsibility to learners’ authority in constructing a text as they gain a control of
genres (Derewianka, 2003). As the teaching and learning cycle shows, the process of
the genre approach to teaching literacy maintains a tight relation between genre
theory and constructivist learning through a concept of scaffolding. Martin (2000),
Rose and Martin (2012) argue that the concept of genre based pedagogy is inclusive
of the vital role of scaffolding from relying on the role of caregivers or teachers
towards an independent control. Derewinka (2003) also maintains that this
Australian genre theory is based on Vygotskian learning theory in which language is
learned through guidance and interaction in the context of shared experiences.
Teachers’ design of curriculum and pedagogy is instrumental to achieve shared
understandings for the scaffolding to establish an effective zone proximal
development. Hyland (2007) also argues that the teaching and learning cycle based
on the genre pedagogy reflects scaffolding practices to lead students to be creative
learners. The creative learning, as Hyland describes, is accomplished through an
attempt to “achieve a different purpose, and as a result, is associated with different
types of classroom activities and different teacher – learner roles ... helping learners
to engage, explore, explain, extend, and evaluate” (p. 159 - 160). The teaching and learning cycle based on the genre pedagogy has the potentials to “explore key lexical, grammatical, and rhetorical features and to use this knowledge to construct their own examples of the genre, it is designed to produce better writers rather than simply better texts” (Hyland, 2007, p. 160).

2.3. Critiques to SFL/genre-based Pedagogy and Its Implementation

Despite a growing interest in using genre based pedagogy, its implementation invites critiques. There are two main domains of critiques to date which point out the vulnerability of the genre approach to stay away from its sociocultural bases. First, systemic functional linguists (e.g, Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Hasan, 1996; Hyland, 2002; Kress, 1999) express their concern that genre based pedagogy practices could potentially deploy formalism and linear transmission of pedagogy through given generic and structured models of texts. The transmission and reproduction of ideology are mainly due to the way in which genre based pedagogy brings genre as the starting point of textual analysis before intertextual analysis. (e.g., Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010). Second, poststructuralists are concerned with how genre based pedagogy maintains a status quo through writing pedagogy. Luke (1996) and Luke (1997) criticize how genre based pedagogy includes explicit instruction within semiotic and linguistic codes and how it leads students to engage with canonical text forms as a means of access to institutional power and capitalist economies. Luke argues that literacy education should be critical in a way of “putting emphasis on the need for literates to take an interventionist approach to texts discourses of all media, and a commitment to the capacity to critique,
transform, reconstruct dominant modes of information” (1997, p. 150).

Additionally, Luke (1996) and Luke (1997) criticizes the genre concept for assuming that genre pedagogy can make visible the generic schemas of texts. According to Threadgold, generic schemas of texts are too complex to be visible because “different kinds of texts have always been associated with different kinds of language and with different kinds of people, and attributed with different values accordingly” (2005, p. 6). In Threadgold’s poststructuralist view, genre is sometimes almost visible, obvious, conflicting, and abstract. Threadgold suggests that making visible the genre features is reducing how texts operate in making meanings given that “sometimes the story is embedded within another genre, sometimes the story structure binds texts in different genres into a larger narrative” (p. 13).

The poststructuralist critiques seem to gain support from linguists such as Kress (1993) who expresses his concern that genre based pedagogy seems to reproduce a text type. A study conducted in the 1990s in the state of Queensland Australia provides evidence which supports the critiques toward the implementation of the genre approach as the study showed how genre based pedagogy tended to facilitate uncritical, formulaic, and rigid practices in producing a text (Lankshear & Knobel, 2000). Although genre based pedagogy includes both the accomplishment of dominant genres of power before engaging in critical and flexible text production as mapped out in its teaching and learning cycle (e.g., Christie, 1987; Derewianka, 1990; Knapp & Watkins, 2005), Lankshear and Knobel
found that in practice the teaching and learning cycle does not embrace critical engagement with texts.

Following up the critiques for lack of critical practices in using genre based pedagogy, Hasan (1996) and Luke (1996) suggest that explicit teaching on how to challenge normalized assumptions in mainstream genres and registers be imperative. Lankhear and Knobel (2000) and Kress (1999) suggest that the approach to critical literacy in genre based pedagogy should not focus more on language as a system but less on language as a creative tool. Additionally, focusing on how the concept of SFL is adopted by the genre approach to pedagogy, Hasan, Cloran, Williams, and Lukin (2007) warn that genre based pedagogy which orients to a product in actual implementations is not rooted in SFL because the status of meaning based on SFL is a process more than a product.

2.4. Critical Praxis Using SFL/Genre-based Pedagogy

In response to the critiques, Martin and his colleagues emphasize the significance of engaging with the dominant discourse to support students’ literacy development. For example, Christie and Unsworth (2006) argue that questioning the value of a status quo will be more sufficient if learners have already possessed skills of controls of academic text types. Christie (2007) points out that one of Halliday’s concerns in developing SFL which is distinctive from other linguists is finding the answers to the discrimination of certain groups of people due to different sociosemantic variations in discourses. Furthermore, according to Christie (1996), engaging with dominant genres is considered a successful way of writing more valuable genres while leaving the students finding their own way of writing is
often considered an unsuccessful attempt. In line with Christie, Hammond and Macken-Horarik (1999) believe that providing support for students with the most effective means of writing more valuable genres leads to both access and critiques to dominant cultural and linguistic resources. Adding to the arguments, Christie and Unsworth (2006) point out that the proper employment of genre based pedagogy is providing apprenticeship to critical studies with texts such as analysis and discussion of the stages in genres and their social purposes and appreciation of language choices of a text. In particularly responding to poststructuralists’ critiques for engaging with the dominant culture, Martin (2009) assures that interacting with one genre is almost never a constraint as far as language and social contexts are concerned.

Some studies into using SFL based genre pedagogy have attempted to include a critical construction of texts. For example, Hammond and Macken-Horarik (1999) provided an example of a case study into incorporating critical literacy practices in the genre approach. Hammond and Macken-Horarik report a case study conducted in the mid 1990s in Australian primary and secondary classrooms to provide an example of how a teacher is able to “successfully combine analysis of ways in which linguistic resources work to construct meanings with analysis of the ideological positioning of curriculum knowledge” (p. 531). In this case study, a teacher named Margaret, began teaching science to her fifth grade students with discussions of terminology and its application mediated by diagrams, flowcharts, and cloze comprehension exercises. From a sample of student text collected at the beginning of the lesson, students showed insufficient quality of writing an explanation genre.
For instance, a student of Vietnamese background showed a typical feature of other ESL students’ writing characterized as lack of effective features of explanation genre, problems in grammar, and technical terminology. The problems of the first student’s writing led Margaret to focus on teaching the genre of explanation “the genre that is important in the study of science” (p. 534) in her teaching and learning cycle. In learning the genre, the students discussed the features of other common genres in science such as explanation, reports, procedures, expositions, and discussions, then narrowly discussed a detailed comparison of an explanation and report genre. Following this, the students and teacher discussed rhetorical stages of the genre and some important language patterns. With scaffolding to guide the students to produce a text of explanation, the students developed a text by incorporating their knowledge of science with a good control of both scientific terminology and genre moves. A student with Vietnamese background, for example, developed her genre with good classification of “changes in material inheritance into natural causes and genetic engineering” (p. 534) as assigned by the teacher. She also showed a good control of grammar, spelling, punctuation, and developed “both specialized knowledge of science and control of mainstream literacy practices” (p. 534). During the lesson, Margaret incorporated more reflexive work on the issues related to science. For example, the students were facilitated to discuss “the cost of advances in genetic engineering, the dangers to future generations of errors in genetic experiments . . . and other assumptions made in the media and other texts about the progress in science” (p. 537). Further, at regular points in the science unit, the students were asked to write the answers to the questions related to “news
reports about advances in genetic technology” (p. 537). At the end of the lesson unit, the students showed their critical and analytical writings, such as, including critiques and evaluation of specific topics of science and building intertextual references with news and other readings. This study acknowledges that some students especially those from non-English students’ backgrounds showed embryonic critical practices in texts but indicated a good grasp of explanation genre, field knowledge, and well informed sentences. Based on this case study, Hammond and Macken-Horarik argue that “without a firm foundation in discipline-specific knowledge and its necessary epistemological and cultural resources, these students would not have been able to engage in any serious way with critical perspectives towards the complex moral and ethical issues” (p. 540).

In another context, Gebhard, Harman, and Seger (2007) provide an example of how to teach writing persuasion at the institutional level where the students practiced writing a persuasive essay to claim for a recess to the school principal. In their ethnographic study, conducted in an elementary school mostly populated by Puerto Rican and African American students, the teacher taught fifth grade students struggling to use English academically. The students needed support for meeting the state mandated assessment. In solving this problem, as the ethnographic case study described, the school collaborated with a university nearby in an attempt to support educators with linguistic knowledge to improve the struggling students’ academic literacy skills. In this partnership, the teacher followed genre based pedagogy approach in her language arts block to facilitate the students in unpacking academic language and making room for the students’ voice.
in response to a new policy at school which omitted the students’ recess in order to focus on preparing for the assessment. Directed with SFL approach to analyze and use academic language, the teacher and the students wrote letters to persuade the principal to regain the right to have a recess. The process of constructing a letter required a collaborative and staged activities from free writing to final letter showing a movement away “from a sophisticated cartoon like register to a more academic use of language” (p. 428). This case study indicates that genre based pedagogy enabled students, including academically struggling students, to practice negotiating with public views through a critical understanding of language choices to address the audience and to get prepared for civic participation in and out of school contexts. The students were able to play a critical way in making the choices of language to achieve the designated purpose. The success in making the choices of language to persuade the principal to grant recess is one way to recognize the power of language to be “wise in its ways” contextually (Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Oteiza, 2007, p. 10). In this case study, learning language is about learning the world, social relations, and a common pattern of language for persuasion.

In regard to the teaching and learning cycle based on genre based pedagogy, the sample studies above provide evidence that the genre approach has the potentials for employing topics of students’ interest, intertextual practices, and current issues in societies through different samples of academic text types. The literacy practices reflect how text and context dynamics work by corresponding the texts to social purposes and specific audiences. Certain genres which respond to the
currently distributing texts and the existing institutional policy like the studies above provide a tool to challenge social inequalities.

2.5. Research Studies into the Implementation of SFL/Genre-based Pedagogy in EFL Contexts

The implementation of genre based pedagogy in the EFL contexts provide evidence of how this pedagogical concept has been implemented in other contexts than those of English speaking countries. In exploring the implementation of genre based pedagogy in the EFL contexts, I rely on peer-reviewed journal articles generated by ERIC, JASTOR, and Education Complete. I conducted the search for relevant articles using the following phrases as descriptors: “literacy, SFL, genre, English education, English language teaching, learning academic, writing, EFL or ESL, ELL in Asia, South America, or Africa”. To generate more empirical research articles, I did not limit a year as a cutoff point. I used those descriptors interchangeably until I found relevant journal articles and kept interchanging the descriptors to find more articles. I also checked the articles appearing in the database’s automatic suggestions for related articles and from the bibliographies provided in each article for further search and additional sources. The search generates more than 40 peer reviewed articles. Having convincingly done enough search, I conducted a selection process to filter only the peer reviewed empirical research articles into using genre based pedagogy. In the selection process, for example, I excluded the articles which address SFL and genre pedagogy theory but focus on genre analysis from other perspectives. The selection process generates 13 peer reviewed empirical research journal articles.
The table below is a summary of the implementation of genre based pedagogy as shown in the peer reviewed journal articles to investigate how the review of these scholarships sheds light on perennial practices of using genre based pedagogy in elementary, secondary, and tertiary education in the EFL contexts (See Table 4).

**Table 4: Themes in the Implementation of SFL/genre Based Pedagogy in EFL Contexts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>issues of concern</th>
<th>contexts</th>
<th>curricular praxis</th>
<th>Domains of language</th>
<th>Overview of praxis</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Helping students integrate with the dominant discourse</td>
<td>Emphasizing generic structures of genres; not showing permeable curricular praxis</td>
<td>Low academic writing among students from lower rank school; of average competence; with lack of writing exposure; with difficulties in writing; with lack of linguistic resources. Evaluating effectiveness of genre based pedagogy for literacy learning and development.</td>
<td>College level of English and non English majors; Primary schools (year 5 and 6);</td>
<td>Product oriented approach; Interventional; Emphasis on developing control of academic genres;</td>
<td>Generic structure and genre moves</td>
<td>Cheng (2008); Eng Ho (2009); Chaisiri (2010); Ahn (2012); Lock &amp; Lockhart (1998);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasizing Generic Structures of Genres, Register Variables, and Critical Praxis; Showing permeable curricular praxis.</td>
<td></td>
<td>secondar y schools; College level;</td>
<td>Emphasis on genre and register studies;</td>
<td>Generic structure, genre moves, register.</td>
<td>Addressing intertextuality</td>
<td>Cullip (2009); Kongpetch (2006); Firkins, Forrey, &amp; Sengupta (2007); Tuan (2001);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing students' knowledge of</td>
<td>Low academic writing</td>
<td>College level</td>
<td>Mixed with a story grammar;</td>
<td>Generic structure and genre</td>
<td>Lack of register descriptions;</td>
<td>Chen &amp; Su (2012);</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
generic structures of texts by Hybridizing genre instruction with other approaches. among students from lower rank school; Novice foreign language writers; Mixed with a task based approach; Mixed with activity based approach moves; Strong emphasis on form; Yasuda (2011);

Developing writing for language of specifications (across curricular subjects) Developing students' skills in writing content knowledge; Secondar y schools Strong emphasis on register; Register ; Emphasis on lexical cohesion; Lack of scaffolding in developing a genre of texts; Absence of modeling; Strong emphasis on form; Yasuda (2011);

2.5.1. Helping Students Engage with the Dominant Discourse

2.5.1.1. Emphasizing Generic Structures of Genres

Genre based pedagogy in the EFL contexts is dominantly used to help students with lack of access to academic writings. In this context, the concept of genre pedagogy is taken up to help students engage with the dominant discourse which is characterized as an intervening teaching approach towards the existing process of teaching writing and helping the students to accelerate their ability toward an equal participation. In most of the studies, the students who participate in the studies are low in academic writings, from lower rank schools, lack of writing exposure, and with difficulties in writing due to lack of access to linguistic resources (e.g., Ahn, 2012; Chaisiri, 2010; Cheng, 2008; Eng-Ho, 2009; Lock & Lockhart, 1998; Tuan, 2001). These studies indicate the significance of explicit instruction at the level of genre and register to accelerate their academic literacy development. Additionally, most of the studies take place at the university level.
The findings of the studies in this category provide examples of how schematic structures of genres are of the emphasis of the instruction to meet the characteristics of a given model text (e.g., Ahn, 2012; Chaisiri, 2010; Cheng, 2008; Eng-Ho. 2009). The elaboration of register variables in these studies is not emphasized. Cheng, for example, took up genre based pedagogy as an alternative for a widely used process approach to teach academic writings to the freshmen in a composition course at a lower rank national university in Taiwan. The approach was taken due to a consideration that the students were assumed to have insufficient linguistic resources to express meanings effectively. Using an experimental research method involving pretest and posttest, the study investigated how 26 English freshmen in the composition course improved their narrative writing after they had received a semester treatment with the genre approach. For a pretest, the students were required to write a narrative paragraph of about 250 – 300 words. During the treatment, the students first were introduced to a narrative genre including the purpose of writing. The students, then, studied 3 texts of similar genre: a narrative, recount, and news report genre. Having studied the generic features of the similar texts, the students and teacher analyzed their grammatical features in terms of the field, tenor, and mode. To enrich their understanding of the grammatical features of the narrative genre, the students were assigned to find an example of a narrative genre and describe its grammatical features. By evaluating the content, organization, and language use of the students' narrative writing at the end of the semester, the study reports that there were improvements in the students' writing quality as their writings showed awareness of discourse and
language features. As illustrated in the study, the students’ writing content was full of “elaborations for each rhetorical moves, use of concrete and specific details to attract readers” (p. 177). The rhetorical moves as evidenced in their writing were explored in terms of orientation, complication action, and resolution which were valued in terms of organization. Those aspects were considered more to be the indicators of success than the improvements at the register level such as “a high range of action verbs” (p. 178) which made meanings to the genre moves.

Similar to Cheng’s study, the studies which put an emphasis on the knowledge of genre generates a product oriented learning of writing (e.g., Ahn, 2012; Eng-Ho, 2012; Lock & Lockhart, 1998; Tuan, 2011). Ahn’s study, for instance, provides an example of how SFL genre based pedagogy was able to develop the schematic features of a report genre among 12 students of year 6 in South Australia in a ten week term with two lessons per week. In the school which was populated by many international students from Asian countries, Ahn implemented the genre approach with a three-staged teaching and learning cycle: modeling, joint negotiation of text, and independent construction of text which is designed to raise the students’ awareness of different ways in organizing texts for different purposes. In the modeling phase, the teaching was focused on developing the students’ background knowledge of the report and explanation genres including the language features commonly used in the focus genres. In the joint negotiation phase, the students and teachers collaboratively constructed a report genre. In this phase, the students were given explicit instruction on register choices such as emotive language, modality, and nominalization; and explicit instruction on schematic
features of a report genre. The students were also apprenticed to search
information themselves to be reported. In independent construction phase, the
students were assigned to construct an instance of a report genre independently. To
describe the students’ progress in writing a report genre, Ahn conducted a
comparative study of the students’ first and final draft, which focused more on the
moves of a report genre. Based on the comparative study, Ahn found that the
students’ writings followed the schematic features of a model text, which began with
a major proposition, such as, “I believe smoking should be banned” (p. 7); then
followed it with several arguments which were elaborated with several supporting
points marked with sequencing signals (e.g., first, second, third). Focusing on
teaching the genre moves and grammatical features of a model text explicitly results
in good progress in writing reports which is “beyond the initial stage of writing
competence” (p. 8). However, Ahn warns that “the danger for students to over-
genrealize the complex and sophisticated rules of genre needs to be examined
before there is any attempt to implement the approach in teaching practice” (p. 8).
The warning indicates that there are possible limitations of the genre approach
despite its practicality as an instructional framework. The warning also highlights
the way in which the students’ progress in writing is shaped by the genre and
register features of a model text.

In another genre instruction, Tuan (2011) focuses on developing students’
knowledge of genre. In her study, Tuan used genre based pedagogy to teach a
bibliographical text in the extra-curricular writing activity outside the regular class
hours with 45 first year students from Ho Chi Minh City University of Finance –
Marketing. The study attempted to intervene in the existing process of learning to write by providing extra hours of learning with the genre approach. This study reports that there were improvements in the students' writings at the level of genre and register. At the level of genre, the study informs that “most student participants demonstrated all typical phases of a bibliographical recount essay, namely, an orientation, a sequence of events, and a resolution” (p. 1473). At the level of register, the study reports that “most student participants deployed proper linguistic resources of the biographical recount genre by focusing on one main participant, using a variety of process types” (p. 1473). However, the improvements at the register level result from an emphasis on teaching through modeling, which shows some similar ways in using register variables to the model text. As the study also shows, explicit instruction on genre and genre moves was presented more details than register variables. On the other hand, based on an interview with the students, modeling was well received by the students as a significant mediation to solve the difficulties in writing. Thus, Tuan confirms that focusing more on a genre than register variables does not mean that learning to write ends at this stage. Rather, it is a continuum which needs a long process of learning within the teaching and learning cycle. As Tuan realizes that she put more emphasis on writing based on a model text, she explicitly states that “exploration of contexts is necessary and useful for students in the later phases of learning writing” (p. 1474).

Based on this study, Tuan warns that the use of genre based pedagogy in the next learning cycle should focus on register variables and an intertextual construction of genre to support critical literacy practices. Similarly, Lock and
Lockhart (1998) argue that focusing on genre features of a text is a starting point toward teaching a sufficient academic writing. Lock and Lockhart stated such an argument based on a study with 27 students who were randomly selected from 54 Cantonese speaking students in a first year of academic writing course. The students were interviewed to gain an entry point of how they had been learning to write. Based on the interview, they had been socialized with product oriented writing practices since they were in secondary schools. Lock and Lockhart used the information as a basis to “extend students’ control over academic and professional practices” (p. 60) in the first year of their writing course at the college level using the genre approach to pedagogy. They believe that learning schematic features of a genre is significant to temporarily engage them with a dominant academic discourse. Additionally, Eng-Ho (2009) shows the significance of modeling to improve the students’ proper writing. In her 14 week study with students from science programs taking a required English course in a university in Brunei, Eng-Ho focused on few models of science articles to improve the students’ awareness of generic structure, clause structures, and thematic development specific to science discourses. Based on the students’ re-written version of the original science review writing, Eng-Ho indicates improvements in the students’ writing particularly with regard to the students’ awareness of the generic structure of a text. Additionally, the studies in this category which focuses on helping students engage with the dominant discourse is characterized as experimental methods attempting to probe the effectiveness of genre based pedagogy in developing students’ academic writings (Ahn, 2012; Chaisiri, 2010; Cheng, 2008; Eng-Ho, 2008). In these studies, it
is reported that the implementation of genre based pedagogy generates not only positive results in developing students’ academic writings but also positive comments from teachers and students. Ahn, for example, notes that the teachers’ active scaffolding at the early stage of the teaching and learning cycle facilitates the students to understand how texts are organized. Through personal conversations with teachers, Ahn has gained information that the students have made progress well beyond their approximate zone of writing competences. Chaisiri (2010) also underlines the teachers’ willingness of using genre based pedagogy for its orientation towards the combination of product and process approaches. In addition, Cheng (2008) shows that the students highly improve their awareness of discourse and language features of a narrative genre. In Eng-Ho’s (2008) study, teachers express their positive responses toward the implementation of the genre pedagogy as it provides them access “to assess specific areas of weaknesses in students’ writings and thus provide for effective on-going instruction” (p. 351). The temporary focus on generic structures of texts in the instruction based on the genre approach is also shaped by unexpected complex classroom contexts such as students with lack of access to academic linguistic and cultural resources, which require teachers to use a strategy to instantly enable students to participate equally in academic discourses.

2.5.1.2. Emphasizing Generic Structures of Genres, Register Variables, and Critical Praxis

Similar to the use of genre based pedagogy to help students engage with the dominant discourse, these studies show how the genre approach is taken up to help students with lack of linguistic exposure to English in their day-to-day lives and
those with low proficiency in learning (e.g., Cullip, 2005; Kongpetch, 2006; Firkins, Forrey, & Sengupta, 2007). What is more in this category of the studies into the application of the genre approach is emphasizing explicit instruction of both knowledge of genre and register variables to facilitate an independent construction of a genre. Cullip (2005), for example, conducted a study to investigate the effectiveness of the genre approach in an ESL writing class in a secondary school in Malaysia. Following Derewianka’s (1990) teaching and learning cycle, Cullip and an in-service teacher trainee included diagnostic writing tasks, vocabulary learning, modeling of an argument genre, and analysis of register variables in an argument genre. In teaching register variables explicitly, the in-service teacher trainee conducted an analysis of register choices (field, tenor, and mode) to investigate why certain language choices were made. This explicit instruction of register affects significantly the students’ writing quality. As the study reports, there was an increasing control over the appropriate “use of modals, use of wider varieties of themes, particularly abstract themes of the argument text” (p. 207). In another context of learning, Kongpetch (2006) used the genre approach to help the students with less exposure to English in their day-to-day lives in an essay writing course, a compulsory course for English major students at the department of foreign languages, Khon Kaen University, in the Northeast of Thailand. The explicit instruction in this study was focused on knowledge of genre and register variables, including the features and moves of expository genre and grammatical features of language in the genre such as the use of participants, processes, tenses, and conjunctions. The instruction combined the traditional and functional technical
terms of grammar to facilitate learning. For example, the terms of noun and verb were used to help the students gain the concept of participants and processes. The analysis of students’ final texts reveals that there were improvements in students’ expository text schematic features showing typical thesis statements and arguments, and appropriate use of tenses to present arguments. In the same way, Firkins, et. al, (2007) helped the students with low proficiency in English in a secondary college in Hong Kong through explicit instruction of generic structures and lexicogrammatical features of procedural texts. Through explicit instruction of genre and register, the students were able to write a procedural text with typical lexico-grammatical features of procedural texts.

In developing students’ writings at the level of genre and register, the studies of this category facilitate the students to have more authority in constructing a text (e.g., Cullip, 2005; Kongpetch, 2006). This independent construction of text is supported by a permeable teaching and learning praxis by making adjustment of topics for writings to the students’ interests and issues under discussions in their society. For instance, Cullip (2005) made an adjustment of a topic that the students should write for an argument genre in a joint construction stage of teaching and learning cycle from “should smoking be totally banned?” to “should alcohol be totally banned” considering that alcohol was a more relevant issue with the students’ life and their neighborhood. The adjustment process of the topic for writing provided a scaffold for the students to write independently a topic of their interests. In the same way, Kongpetch (2006) made an adjustment of a topic with the institutional setting where the genre approach was implemented. At the time of
applying the genre approach, the university had just announced a policy requiring its students to wear a uniform in the classroom. The issue was an immediate concern to the students to write an argument essay collaboratively with clear audiences, that is, the university managements. Kongpetch conducted a different strategy in facilitating the students to write independently from Cullip. While Cullip let the students choose the topic, Kongpetch picked up a topic for the students: “should rainforests be saved?” to relate to the prevalent issue in Thailand.

In some studies, the details of explicit register explanation are not reported, but it is mentioned in relation to modeling phase of the teaching and learning cycle (e.g., Firkins, Forrey, & Sengupta, 2007; Tuan, 2011). However, the results of the study reveal that students made progress in register choices. For example, Tuan (2011) reports that most students deployed proper linguistic resources of the biographical recount genre by focusing on “one main participant, using a variety of process types such as material processes, relational processes, mental processes across the schematic structures of their essay, using proper past tenses of verbs and circumstantial adverbs of time” (p. 1473). Similarly, Firkins, et. al, report about the students’ improved their skills in using the types of lexico-grammatical features commonly found in procedural texts. The elaboration of register in those studies supports the accomplishment of writing in terms of the schematic features of the intended genre in limited details. Despite insufficient details of how the instruction of register was conducted, the study argues that there were significant results of working with genre based pedagogy for developing students’ knowledge of register. Similar to the studies into the application of genre based pedagogy to improve the
students’ generic structures of texts, the studies into the improvement of students’
register choices in texts are characterized as experimental studies assessing the
effectiveness of genre based pedagogy (e.g., Cullip, 2005; Kongpetch, 2006).

In short, the studies into the application of genre based pedagogy in this
category are marked with an emphasis on explicit instruction of register. Such an
emphasis results in students’ accomplishment in writing in terms of sophisticated
choices of register in their level of education which supports the structuring of the
generic structures. In some studies, (e.g., Cullip, 2005; Kongpetch, 2006), students
were facilitated with the topics of writing of their interest and current issues in
societies which serve as a scaffold toward an independent construction of a genre
and register variables to accomplish real purposes and audiences.

2.5.2. Developing Students’ Generic Structures by Hybridizing Genre
Instruction

The research studies into the application of genre based pedagogy are often
coupling with other approaches such as a story grammar analysis, task based and
activity based learning (eg., Chen & Su, 2012; Yasuda, 2011). In this approach, genre
based pedagogy is used to support learners in writing in an appropriately
designated genre. For example, a story grammar was used to support writing of a
narrative essay (e.g., Chen & Su, 2012). In this study, Chen and Su were concerned
with the demand for writing a summary as a task to pass a large scale of
standardized test in Taiwan to graduate from colleges, to study abroad, and to avoid
plagiarism. The participants of the study, 41 EFL students majoring in English at a
university of technology in central Taiwan, followed the stages of learning to write a
summary. They began reading The Adventure of Tom Sawyer narrative story before
they summarized it with a maximum of 500 words. In what follows, they received explicit instruction on the structure of a narrative genre in which the genre moves followed 6 elements of a story grammar: setting, initiating event, internal response, attempt, consequence, and reaction. To understand how those elements could be spotted in a story, the students were presented film clips of *Harry Potter and the Sorcerer’s Stone* by J.K. Rowling. At the modeling stage, the students were guided to analyze introductory, body, and concluding paragraphs, from each of which they learned to see how the elements of story grammar were realized in those paragraphs. Chen and Su confirm that "for the introductory paragraph, we instructed our students to begin with ‘the hook’ followed by the background information and the thesis statement” (p. 4). The students reinforced their understanding of the summary models by analyzing the generic structures and grammatical features of “three winning summaries from a national context written for the *Oxford Bookworms series*” (p. 5). The instructional practices which followed the modeling stage were joint construction stage in which students wrote a summary of *Harry Potter and the Sorcerer’s Stone* and an independent construction stage in which the students wrote a summary of the *Adventure of Tom Sawyer* in two hours with a maximum of 500 words. This study indicates that the elements of the story grammar act as guided names of genre moves in summarizing a narrative text. The amount of time spent on teaching and learning the generic structures of texts with the story grammar elements resulted in the students’ improvement in content and organization, while the study reports that the students’ linguistic proficiency slightly improved.
Another study combined genre based pedagogy with task and activity based learning to improve the students’ awareness of genre structures in writing (Yasuda, 2011). Yasuda used the task and activity based learning to support email writing tasks among the students majoring in Biology related fields in an English writing course in a private scientific university in Japan. The purpose of the study was to have the students get familiar with non-academic and academic genres in a two semester sequence. Yasuda wove the genre concept with task and activity based learning by making the tasks as mediation to real life situation in which the role of genre approach was inherent in the tasks. For example, the tasks which were related to modeling served as rehearsing tasks for a real life situation and analyzing samples of texts was organized in task input activities. A genre analysis is also reflected in pedagogic tasks in which students elaborated their understanding of text samples to raise awareness of forms and functions of language. The task and activity based learning serves as a scaffold leading towards an understanding of forms and functions of language of a certain genre. Those tasks have encouraged the students to demonstrate their knowledge of texts through iterations of pedagogic tasks and reflections of the learning materials that they have learned previously. As the study indicates, through task and activity based learning, the students showed “an understanding of the proper form for using email or genre specific formulaic expressions to achieve a certain functional goal” (p, 121). In addition, the students’ writings showed improvements in terms of the features of genre and specific language choices to address audiences.
The studies provide examples of how the combination of the genre approach and other approaches generates impacts on students’ writing improvements in terms of generic structures and forms of texts. Both of the studies (Chen & Su, 2012; Yasuda, 2011) show the characteristics of pedagogical practices which may result in students’ improvements and vulnerability. First, the generic structure of a genre and genre moves are emphasized over explicit register description and analysis; therefore, students’ writings improved at the level of generic structures. Second, the task and activity learning represents repeated practices which may slip into behaviorist ways of learning if the tasks emphasize more formulaic language forms than contextual language use.

2.5.3. Developing Writings for Language across Curricular Subjects

Genre based pedagogy is used to develop writing skills across the curricular subjects in the EFL contexts (e.g., Whittaker, Llinares, McCabe, 2011; Whittaker, 2007). This approach is taken up due to awareness among educators of the significance of writing content knowledge at secondary levels as a preparation for college levels. Whittaker, et. al, argue that writing content area knowledge is significant at a secondary level of education given that students are often unprepared for writing academically in their discipline, while it is demanding at a college level. To support writing across the curricular subjects, Whittaker, et. al, and Whittaker provide examples of studies into the application of the genre approach in the EFL contexts. The studies show their attention to register variables to construct disciplinary meanings. In these studies, the instruction of writing content area knowledge is characterized as lack of emphasis on modeling and generic structures.
of texts, but more emphasis on register and lexical cohesion. For example, Whittaker
and McCabe (2011) attempted to develop the students’ writing in history by first
diagnosing what needed to be improved at the level of register. As a follow up, they
analyzed students’ writings from a number of tasks in history subject during the
four years of the obligatory secondary education (aged 12 – 13 to 15 – 16) in Madrid
Spain. Analyzing the students’ writing using a corpus analysis, Whittaker and
McCabe found that over the four years the students had shown a decreasing ability
in writing with nominal groups. Referring to the finding, Whittaker, et. al, provided
curricular activities based on genre based pedagogy to provide a theoretical
framework of participant concept in a text including people, object, and concepts.
Then, they designed an explicit instruction of signals of reference in writing history
and the modification of nominal groups. Despite a conceptual level before being
implemented into a classroom situation, the curricular plan reflects classroom
activities focusing on register and lexical cohesion.

In another curricular subject, Llinares and Whittaker (2007) implemented a
register approach to teaching first year secondary school students in learning
sciences in English in Madrid, Spain. Although there is unclear procedure of explicit
instruction of register in social sciences, the findings of the study reflect a high
emphasis on register. For example, the study shows that the students demonstrated
high proportion of material processes responding to the task given with dominant
use of circumstances of place. Lack of explicit instruction of genre is manifested in
one of the curricular activities. In this, students were asked to write on a natural
disaster with this prompt: “Choose one natural disaster that you have studied”(p.
The model text was not available in classroom instruction. Instead, classroom activities began with a discussion on natural disasters serving as an activity to build the students’ knowledge of the field. Thus, the activity was followed by an explanation of register before writing a text based on guided questions, which became an obligatory genre to write. The students collaboratively wrote a text by following this prompt: “describe the natural disaster, explain where it takes place and why, what are the consequences, and what can be done to minimize them, can you personally do anything to prevent or mitigate natural disasters” (p. 85).

The sample studies into the application of genre based pedagogy to teach the subjects across the curriculum indicate that writing at a secondary level of education is not a required skill to pass the school level. Instead, it is an effort to equip students with academic writing skills that will be useful at a college level. As some empirical studies suggest, writing instruction at a secondary school is voluntary. It is triggered more by educators’ awareness of the significance of preparing students with literacy skills for a college level than by the curriculum endorsement. On the other hand, academic writing at a college level seems to be an urgent need given that the college students in the EFL contexts are not prepared. Understandably, the empirical action research studies are mostly conducted at a college level.

The analysis of the empirical studies into the application of the genre approach serves as evidence of how the genre perspective and its controversies are reflected in the EFL contexts. Framed within SFL and Martin’s genre perspective, the
teaching and learning cycle, and issues of the implementation, I have analyzed the available research studies and found the emerging themes.

Based on the analysis of the empirical studies, the genre pedagogy praxis in the EFL contexts has maintained its practices to support students with lack of linguistic and socio-economic resources to have access to language of schooling. The application of the genre approach also brings its controversies in terms of maintaining a status quo or empowering individuals in writing. The studies show that there are two ways of apprenticing students to engage with the dominant discourse. First, the approach leads students to engage with the text structure of a well accepted text in the dominant culture. The students’ writings which follow the features of the dominant culture suggest that they attempt to avoid failure of writing in meeting the teacher’s expectation. As most of the studies indicate, their writings improve in terms of genre structures and register choices to address designated purposes and audiences despite no creativity in terms of genre structures. However, the studies which put an emphasis on apprenticing students to follow the dominant culture reflect vulnerability to a slip into behaviorist ways of learning especially if learning tasks facilitate more formulaic language forms than contextual language use. Second, the genre approach is marked with an emphasis on explicit register instruction. Such an emphasis facilitates the learning of lexicogrammatical features for the construction of a genre. Some studies address the topics of students’ interest and current issues in societies to reinforce the learning of register choices and promote a creative construction of a genre through a scaffold towards a critical move to achieve the purpose of communication. In this practice, the students’
writings may have patterned genre moves of a canonical model text, but they may deploy variations in response to the context of situation (Christie, 1999; Gebhard, Shin & Seger, 2011).

The genre based pedagogy praxis in the EFL contexts which apprentices students to engage with the mainstream discourse suggests that teachers are faced with unexpected diverse socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds of students, local contexts, and institutional demands. Such a complex and dynamic sociocultural context of classrooms and students influence the extent to which teachers and students address critical literacy practices. For example, Cheng (2008) and Eng Ho (2001) used genre based pedagogy because of their belief that the pedagogical concept could potentially facilitate learners to cope with unequal participations in the classroom due to their lack of exposure to academic discourse in their home environment. Those studies put more emphasis on guiding the students to participate in the language valued by the mainstream discourse. More prominent emphasis of leading the students to participate in the dominant discourse is relying on a modeling phase (e.g., Chaisiri, 2011; Tuan, 2010) and postponing an independent phase of the teaching and learning cycle which lets students construct a text independently.

The empirical studies into the implementation of genre based pedagogy provide a portrait of genres under concern. The studies inform that English literacy in the EFL contexts has the potentials to empower individuals in writing since students do not need to meet a high stake genre endorsed by the assessment policy. Context as one of Halliday's crucial components in meaning making process
Halliday (1993) can be potentially made more dynamically in working with a low
stake genre because, as Martin (1996) argues, high-stake texts expect a canonical
interpretation to conform to certain norms such as white male middle class cultural
values. Critical literacy may be more possible to realize since the students could
work with writing demanded in their societies instead of school assessments.

While it has been reported that the use of genre based pedagogy has shifted
to fluid approaches to understanding and production of texts in the pedagogy to
subject specific literacies (Love, 2008), the studies into the application of genre
based pedagogy to develop students’ specific literacies in the EFL contexts suggest
that the approach has not been optimally explored. In addition, the available
samples of studies in the EFL contexts show that classroom instruction does not
fully follow the teaching and learning cycle of the genre approach where explicit
genre instruction, which is an integral part of the genre approach, is not well
supported. As shown by the available studies, literacy education across the
curricular subjects does not fully help students and teachers understand “about how
language is structured to achieve different social purposes in various contexts and
modes” (Love, 2008, p. 174). In other contexts such as in the context of literacies
across the curricular subjects in the United States, there is a growing concern about
the application of genre based pedagogy to provide support for struggling students
in constructing disciplinary knowledge and learning to mean in a discipline. Fang
(2005), for example, argues that there is a need for greater attention to specialized
language of science in teaching and learning as science becomes alienating to
students due to being unfamiliar with the linguistic features of sciences. To support
science literacies, Fang and Schleppegrell (2008) suggest exploring meanings of texts by discussing metalanguage of texts as part of classroom activities. Fang and Schleppegrell write:

> We can analyze the process types, participants, and circumstances that an author has chosen. If we are interested in how text is organized, we can examine the theme/rheme structure and cohesion in the text, focusing in ways in which the author calibrates information flow and builds up an argument. If we are concerned with how the author interacts with the reader or the author’s perspective in the text, we can analyze the mood and modality systems of language as well as word choices. (p. 592)

Similarly, through an ethnographic case study of student teacher in advocating writing in mathematics with 25 students in a secondary school classroom in central New Jersey of the United States, Huang, Normandia, and Greer (2006) show that revealing the linguistic features that teachers and students use to communicate aspects of math topics help learners succeed in expressing a variety of knowledge structures associated with math content. Huang et. al, suggest that “instructional design in math education would be best served by systematically integrating math thinking and math talking at all levels of knowledge structures [... ]achieving an understanding of content means constructing different semantic relations(i.e., knowledge structures) associated with the content” (p. 48).

Additionally, the research studies into the application of the genre approach in the EFL contexts suggest that this approach is not a trending concept of teaching writing. As implied from the empirical research studies, genre based pedagogy is not commonly used because of two prominent reasons. First, writing is not a high priority skill in the secondary school curriculum. Some research studies provide writing instruction with the genre approach outside the regular classroom
curricular activities (e.g., Ahn, 2012; Cullip, 2009; Tuan, 2001). Second, teachers’ attachment to other concepts of language learning such as traditional grammar which informs the teaching of writing at a sentence level influences how meaning is conceived. For example, in a study, teachers define sentence as an utterance that starts with a capital letter and ends with a full stop (Eng-Ho, 2009). An interview with teachers also reveals that teachers conceive of good writings as comprising introduction, body, and conclusion regardless of a type of text (Chaisiri, 2010). Additionally, teachers suggest that teaching grammar should come before teaching writing instead of integrating grammar learning into writing concurrently (Chaisiri, 2010). An understanding of teachers’ knowledge of teaching writing may have influenced the studies into the application of genre-based pedagogy which often includes interviews with teachers and students and experimental methods to provide evidence of the teachers’ acceptance of the concept and the effectiveness of the concept for teaching writing (Ahn, 2012; Cheng, 2008; Chaisiri, 2010; Eng-Ho, 2009). The types of studies imply that genre-based pedagogy has just been intervening in a popular behaviorist approach to teaching writing in the EFL contexts.

As the empirical research studies indicate, genre-based pedagogy in the EFL contexts contributes to students’ academic improvements. The empirical studies above support Hyon’s (1996) argument about the application of genre pedagogy. Hyon argues that genre pedagogy helps non-native speakers of English to master the functions and linguistic features of texts in their disciplines and professions. However, the studies show that the application of the genre approach is prone to
critiques of critical literacy scholars and practitioners. The critiques are concerned with how the students are guided to produce a genre of the dominant discourse. Viewed from a critical perspective, such a practice is facilitating the maintenance of a status quo. On the other hand, students with lack of linguistic resources and access to participate equally with other social groups need to acquire knowledge of genre. In this case, the concept of the genre approach which supports critical literacy practices are challenged by unexpected complex individual socioeconomic backgrounds and institutional demands.

Another factor which shapes the implementation of genre based pedagogy, as reflected in the empirical studies above, is teachers’ conception of SFL and genre based pedagogy. Teachers have been developing their cognition and linguistic knowledge over time across multiple lived experiences (Borg, 2006, 2009). They could potentially have a complex concept of teaching or lack a conceptual understanding of the genre approach or have a strong commitment to an institutional demand. Those factors may influence how teachers take up the concept of genre based pedagogy. For example, an institutional context where teachers work may drive teachers to terminate their effort at the level of helping students to engage with the mainstream discourse and delay providing a room for empowering students to create texts for different audiences and purposes (see also Gebhard, et al, 2013).

While teachers are confronted with the issue of sociocultural and institutional contexts in applying genre based pedagogy, teachers’ knowledge of playing with text and context dynamics is very influential to the ideal
implementation of the genre approach. Applied to genre based pedagogy is a conception of grammar as a resource for teachers to teach how texts operate in making meanings (Gebhard & Martin, 2011). Therefore, understandably, grammar turns to be a central focus in teaching academic literacy. To support teachers, Aguirre-Munoz, Eun Park, Amabisca, and Boscardin (2008) suggest that training teachers in grammatical elements that constitute academic language be necessary. From this perspective, pedagogy and grammar cannot be separated for the purpose of developing academic literacy.

2.6. Summary

This literature review presents SFL/genre-based pedagogy to inform knowledge of grammar introduced in the teacher education program the current practices of using SFL/genre based pedagogy in Asian contexts. This chapter begins by providing a review of what SFL is and how Martin's genre is rooted in Halliday's SFL. To make SFL obviously distinct from other perspectives of language such as traditional or cognitive grammar, SFL is explained as a theory of language based on how people get things done with language and other semiotic systems within cultural contexts in which they interact and it focuses on how the use of language and other semiotic systems shape the development of cultural semiotic systems (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). From SFL perspective, language is also conceived of as being systematic for there is no binary theory of language which involves dichotomies such as Chomsky's competence and performance, or Saussure's langue and parole (Christie, 1990; Halliday, 1994; Bloor & Bloor, 1995 & Veel, 1997).
Halliday views the two acts of meaning as a unity of classes of phenomena which is further stated as a unite identity (parole) and meaning potentials (langue). This chapter also presents the meaning of discourse semantics which is further mentioned in the following chapters. From SFL perspective, the discourse semantics of spoken and written communication, which represents the functional purposes of using language is constructed by the strata of lexicogrammar and phonology. At the level of lexicogrammar, a configuration of meanings is realized by the choice of field, tenor, and mode (Halliday & Hasan, 1989).

The concept of genre rooted in SFL is the genre developed by Martin and his colleagues in the 1970s and 1980s. To distinguish this genre theory from other genres, this study has taken the term SFL/genre-based pedagogy. Martin illustrates how genre acts as a context to mobilize language use and as a context of culture which leads language choices at the level of register to achieve its social purposes. According to Martin (e.g., Martin, 1993; Martin, 2009), genre and register simultaneously construct the meaning making process instantiating and realizing the trinocular conception of language: ideational, interpersonal, and textual conception.

In teaching of writing, Martin’s concept of genre plays a crucial role as a tool for making linguistic resources visible by mobilizing stages of writing which necessitate certain structures of language (Knapp & Watkins, 2005). For making visible the concept of genre for pedagogical purposes, Martin’s genre pedagogy has been developed into what it is called “a teaching and learning cycle”. This teaching and learning cycle was first developed in the 1980s, and has gone through several
versions including the version to respond to critiques which claim that Martin’s
genre pedagogy is not critical as it is divorced from contexts and more behaviorist
based. The teaching and learning cycle is designed to apprentice learners to learn to
construct a text through modeling and proceed with constructing a text with
learners’ authority. The phase of modeling includes setting a genre in its cultural
context and discussing its moves as well as language features. In the phase of joint
negotiation, the activities include building up the field for a new text about different
or related topic of the same genre. Independent construction stage is designed for
building up the same field or another field, having consultation with a teacher,
editing, and publishing. Independent construction is the final step for a creative
exploration of writing a genre of a text.

In the last part of this chapter, a mini literature review is presented to
explore how SFL/genre based pedagogy and its teaching and learning cycles have
been implemented in Asian contexts. The research studies into the application of
the genre approach in the EFL contexts suggest that this approach is not a trending
concept of teaching writing. As implied from the empirical research studies, genre
based pedagogy is not commonly used because of two prominent reasons. First,
writing is not a high priority skill in the secondary school curriculum. Some research
studies provide writing instruction with the genre approach outside the regular
classroom curricular activities (e.g., Ahn, 2012; Cullip, 2009; Tuan, 2001). Second,
teachers’ attachment to other concepts of language learning such as traditional
grammar which informs the teaching of writing at a sentence level influences how
meaning is conceived. However, the applications of SFL/genre based pedagogy give
significant improvements in students’ literacy learning and development such as helping students with lack of access to semiotic and linguistic exposure to participate in more valuable language use, leading students to engage in more critical praxis of using language, and support the students in having access to discipline specific literacy practices.
CHAPTER 3

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK: SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY

3.1. Sociocultural Theory

A sociocultural theory is rooted in the Russian psychologist Vygotsky and his colleague’s writings around the issue of human mental functioning. The term sociocultural in this study is used to refer to the theory of human mental functioning rather than the general social and cultural circumstances. Vygotsky and his colleagues theorized human mental functioning to overcome what the so called “crisis in psychology” during which various perspectives and objects of study were categorized into the general rubric of psychology (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). In responding to the crisis in psychology, Vygostky developed an explanatory system which becomes the basis for general psychology. That is, he “contextualized development as the transformation of socially shared activities into internalized processes” in contrast to the predominantly dichotomous approaches which focused on either internal, that is, subjective experience or the external, that is, based on the Behaviorist approach (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996, p. 192). Vygotsky’s proposal for unifying psychology was that “while biological factors formed the basis of human thinking, in and of themselves, they were insufficient to account for our ability to voluntarily and intentionally regulate our mental activity” (Thorne & Lantolf, 2006, p. 202). Thus accordingly, a social activity is the process for the formation of human cognition instead of the giver of influences on the cognition. Vygotsky’s concept emphasizes the role of mediated activities or processes which cause mental development to take place. The construction of knowledge most
prominently rooted in Vygotskyan’s concept is the accumulative experiences as a process through the knowledge of the communities of practice within which individuals participate (Johnson, 2006; Lantolf & Johnson, 2007).

Vygotsky theorized human mental functioning based on the concept that human activities always take place within cultural contexts, and are mediated by language and other semiotic systems as well as human’s historical development (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996). The most quoted theory from Vygotsky is that human cognitive development and functioning are mediated by the social and cultural contexts of everyday activities (Vygotsky, 1978). In this sense, individuals and society are connected and the connection mediates learning, involving cognitive aspects of learning. This theory explains that the relationship between humans and the physical world is mediated by concrete materials tools. The mediation could be in the form of regulation which keeps shaping humans’ biological perception into cultural perception and concept or by symbolic artifacts that humans use as tools to mediate their psychological activities or through a second language by appropriating meanings and patterns of speech to mediate humans mental activity (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

Vygotskyan principle of learning informs that teacher learning is the one related to higher cognitive development enlightened with explanatory of a learning process. The Vygotskyan learning principle provides central constructs for teacher development such as “internalization and transformation, the zone proximal development (ZPD), and meditational means as fundamental elements that enable researchers to trace the internal cognitive processes of teacher learning” (Lantolf,
Drawing on Lantolf (2000), Johnson and Golombek point out that language is the prominent symbolic artifact mediating and constructing human mind. They posit a sociocultural perspective for teacher learning which informs that teachers’ consciousness develops on specific social activities, a constellation of activities in which they engage in such as being learners in classrooms and schools, at teacher education programs, and teachers in the institutions. Sociocultural perspectives also emphasize meanings constructed through historically and culturally social ways (Johnson & Golombek, 2003, p. 731). In this sense, cognitive development is controlled by individual learners through a process of progressive development of external and socially mediated activities by other people and cultural artifacts (Johnson & Golombek, 2003; Vygotsky, 1978). Teachers through different meditational means “come to know what they know, how different concepts in their thinking develop, and how this internal activity transforms their understanding of themselves as teachers, their teaching practices, and ultimately the kinds of opportunities they are able to create to support student learning” (Tasker, Johnson, & Davis, 2010, p. 139).

This dissertation takes the sociocultural theory to highlight teacher construction of pedagogical knowledge. The sociocultural theory serves as the conceptual framework that builds upon and extends a sociocultural conception of L2 teacher education and teacher knowledge development to understand how teachers develop their pedagogical knowledge (Johnson, 1996; 2006; Johnson & Lantolf, 2007; Johnson, 2006; Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Lortie, 2002; Reeves, 2009).
3.1.1. Sociocultural Theory of Teacher Knowledge Development

The sociocultural framework that informs this study is rooted in Vygotskyan theory of human mental functioning. Many scholars have extended the framework to highlight teacher learning and teacher knowledge development by considering teachers’ whole lived experiences including their lived experiences in learning, using, and teaching English to be inevitably significant interacting factors that shape teacher knowledge development (Johnson, 1996; 2006; Johnson & Lantolf, 2007; Johnson, 2006; Johnson & Golombek, 2011). More specifically, this study draws on a notion that teacher learning begins before teachers attend a teacher preparation program. Therefore, teachers’ knowledge does not solely depend on pre and in service teacher education (Johnson, 2006; Reeves, 2009), but on a prolonged and situational learning (e.g., Johnson, 2006; Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Lortie, 2002; Reeves, 2009).

Based on a sociocultural conception of L2 teacher education and teacher knowledge development, the framework takes into account situated and broader social and cultural contexts including all contexts where teachers live, learn, and work. Contexts become a ground for teachers to develop their conceptions of teaching and learning and create instructional histories from which they build their notions of how to teach (Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Lortie, 2002). Informed by the perspectives of teacher cognition, Johnson (2009b) indicates that teachers’ lived experiences are complex, involving the process of thinking about themselves, their students, and teaching learning activities. Such a perspective suggests that teacher learning is influenced by knowledge of teachers themselves, students, subject
matters, curricula, and settings. Teachers’ ways of acting and interacting represent assumptions drawn on the values embedded in the classrooms where teachers used to be students, teacher education program where they develop their professionalism, and schools where they do actual teaching. The discursive relation to complex social experiences confirms that teachers’ knowledge cannot be drawn symmetrically on teachers’ experiences as learners or as student teachers alone, but on the complex connections that teachers relate to in learning to teach. This assumption leads teachers to be users and creators of forms of knowledge. Johnson (2009b) maintains that “teachers make decisions about how best to teach L2 students within complex, socially, culturally, and historically situated contexts” (pp. 20 – 21). The complexity overly challenges teachers and the way teachers manage the complexity indicates endemic uncertainties of what and how to teach and of what pedagogical knowledge they gain from education and how they use it for actual teaching situations (Lortie, 2002). In other words, there are no direct relations between what teachers gain in a teacher education program and their actual teaching situations; rather, the relations are mediated by a complex relationship of influences. In this sense, multiple discourses situate teacher learning and teacher professional knowledge development which occur through the process of internalization and transmission of cultural tools as individuals participate in social practices (Galluci, Van Lare, Yoon, & Boatright, 2010; Johnson, 2006, 2009a; Reeves, 2009).

3 Despite grounding her notion of teacher learning on the context of the United States, Lortie (2002) frames his perspective from a social perspective which touches bases the universal issue of teacher learning and development. Therefore, the perspective applies to other contexts including the context of EFL teacher education.
Based on the sociocultural perspective, teacher learning is viewed through the principle of learning which refers to Vygotskian lens of sociocultural view of cognitive development. This view highlights that dialogic processes of externalization and reconceptualization, and towards a transformation lead to development and self-regulation of teaching practices (Johnson, 2009a; Tasker, Johnson, & Davis, 2010). Tasker, Johnson, and Davis articulate Vygotskian’s description of the concept of internalization and transformation as “individual based on participation in social activities, and gauged by how these social activities are manifest in thoughts and in activities” (pp. 130 – 131). It is believed that self-regulation results from practices operating within a zone proximal development which enables the processes of reconceptualizing and restructuring beliefs. The process is conceptualized as a progressive movement from external, socially mediated controls instead of merely straightforward appropriation of skills and knowledge (Johnson, 2006; Lantolf & Johnson, 2007). It is important to note in this principle that in understanding the interconnectedness of cognition and social activities, social activities are not claimed to influence cognition; rather, they serve as “the process through which human cognition is formed” (Johnson & Golombek, 2011, p. 1). In other words, cognition is not directly related to but mediated through social practices.

Further, Johnson and Golombek point out that teachers’ consciousness develops on specific social activities or a constellation of activities in which they engage in such as being learners in classrooms and schools, in teacher education programs, or being teachers in the institutions with language as the prominent
symbolic artifact mediating and constructing human mind. Such normative and lifelong experiences in social contexts with shifting positions as learners or teachers indicate that a sociocultural perspective emphasizes meanings constructed socially, historically, and culturally. In addition, the contribution of language to the construction of knowledge is not naïve of the complication with social class, race, sexuality, ethnicity, and linguistic identities (Lantolf & Johnson, 2007; Gebhard, 2002, 2004). All of the social factors come to a point of disjuncture in which knowledge construction finds its ways through a process of negotiation. Power and inequality are enacted in social and institutional relations with the ideological discourses strengthening them. Knowledge and knowing, therefore, depends on a point of view and a sort of social positioning, which are constituted in and emerging out of how an individual is constructed in different social and physical contexts (Johnson, 2006; Sesek, 2007). According to Johnson and Sesek, social positioning significantly contributes to teachers’ conceptions of grammar. In this sense, individuals co-construct meanings in texts and talk with their socio-cultural and historical experiences. The dialogic strategy to negotiate with readers is embedded in their patterns of language. Individuals, in any chance of producing meanings, have no option but a space of dialogue (Dimitriadis & Kamberalis, 2005). In the same way, Clark (2008) argues that a space for dialogs is an inevitable situation with which individuals have to confront in asserting their agency to search for their new social and linguistic resources that allow them to enact resistance or to explore a creative way of constructing identities. Dialogs are potentially enacted in any texts and talk to exert a stance or position. The artifacts such as classroom assignments
also reflect how texts work to construct their worlds, culture, and identities in powerful, often overtly ideological way, making classroom assignments a discursive relation with broader issues and contexts (Luke, 2000). In a schooling context, Christie (2002) argues that school texts construct knowledge arguments and they also shape the discourse of schooling. This positioning concept is maintained by a premise arguing that social positioning plays a crucial role in teacher learning (Johnson, 2006; Sesek, 2007).

The account for teachers’ sociocultural lives in constructing their development as teachers from a sociocultural perspective (see Freeman & Johnson, 2005) captures how teachers develop. Teachers tend to gain different concepts and consciousness about what is learned and their development of learning is not smooth and linear with a preset start and end (Golombek & Johnson, 2004). The dynamic of teachers’ learning in a teacher education program is, for instance, manifested in actual teaching. Dognancy-Aktuna (2005) found a variety of emphasis in the teaching of English as a foreign language. In south Africa, the teaching of English emphasizes mechanical aspects of language studies; in Indonesia, context communicative language teaching is celebrated to counter the traditional norms of school culture; in Japan teachers heavily used their mother tongue in their teaching; in Korea a discrete point grammar is more popular; and in Pakistan there is resistance to interactive classroom participation (Dognancay-Aktuna, 2005). As such teachers develop their knowledge with reference to situated nature of teaching and workplace. Teachers socioculturally make pedagogical decisions, build awareness of situated needs, and relativity in teaching. Another example is a Crozier
and Kreinsesser’s (2004) study which confirms that sociocultural perspectives are concerned with thoughts, beliefs, and actions which are constituted by and constituted of the context of institutions. In the study, the context is described as a condition of which students should be aware of standard attitudes, behavior of the country which includes food, clothing, national and local values, dialects, and language.

In researching teacher learning and teacher education, a sociocultural perspective offers opportunities to understand the nature of teacher and teacher education. Richards and Sign (2006) argue, “sociocultural perspectives, first, favor understanding of a teacher education as development than a training program, and teachers learning to teach is not only encapsulating methods and content knowledge, but also about “who one is a teacher” (p. 152). Third, changes in “who one is a teacher” are influenced by “powerful ideologies teachers-learners brought into the classroom teacher education, and the discourses and activities that shape the practices of teacher education” (p. 152).

3.1.2. Halliday’s SFL/Martin’s Genre Theory and Sociocultural Theory

As described in Chapter Two, Halliday’s SFL and Martin’s genre theory theorize language as a meaning making construed by language users’ sociocultural contexts. This part elaborates common philosophical bases for conceptualizing language and language learning between a sociocultural theory and SFL/Genre based pedagogy. SFL/genre and sociocultural theorists possess common philosophical bases for theorizing language and language learning. Sociocultural theorists believe that language learning is mediated by students’ sociocultural
practices. Learning takes place within “the social and cultural contexts of human activities” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 2). Extending to defining language, Gee (2004) theorizes that language and literacy learning are situated in social practices. In the same way SFL/genre based pedagogy theorizes that learning of language is shaped by students’ social and cultural contexts where they use language (e.g., Christie, 2002). Further, Halliday’s theory of SFL and Martin’s genre theory place a fundamental theory of language and culture in a way that language and culture are mutually constitutive as they both shape and are shaped by individuals, communities and other practices containing the dynamic and active aspects of language in use (Halliday, 2009; Clark, 2008). Emphasizing sociocultural contexts, the proponents of sociocultural perspectives should not be at odds with behaviorist and cognitivist perspective of language and language learning due to their focus on a mental processes, decontextualized and autonomous language learning. Similar to how Halliday conceptualized meaning making process, sociocultural theorists believe that individuals co-construct meanings in texts and talk with their sociocultural and historical experiences manifesting their dialogic strategy to negotiate with readers in their patterns of language (see, Dimiatriadis & Kamberalis, 2005).

The differences of the perspectives lie in the extent to which both perspectives theorize language. Some scholars (e.g., Byrnes, 2006; Wells, 2000) argue that sociocultural theory does not theorize language. On the other hand, some other scholars (e.g., Lantofl & Thorne, 2006) argue that sociocultural theory theorizes language as implicated in the emphasis on language learning. SFL genre pedagogy obviously theorizes language and language learning. For example, this
perspective encodes context of culture that is realized through genre and context of situation that is expressed through the choice of tenor, field, and mode. SFL genre pedagogy extends the notion of contexts down to the level of lexico-grammar.

3.2. Summary

This chapter explores a sociocultural theory that serves mainly as the conceptual framework to inform how the teacher in this study develops her pedagogical knowledge (Vygotsky, 1978; Johnson, 1996; 2006; Lantolf & Johnson, 2007; Johnson, 2006; Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Lortie, 2002; Reeves, 2009). The sociocultural framework that informs this study is rooted in Vygotskyan theory of human mental functioning (Vygotsky, 1978). The extension of Vygotsky's work taken in this study refers to the work of many scholars highlighting teacher learning and teacher knowledge development by considering teachers' whole lived experiences including their lived experiences in learning, using, and teaching English to be inevitably significant interacting factors that shape teacher knowledge development (Johnson, 1996; 2006; Johnson & Lantolf, 2007; Johnson, 2006; Johnson & Golombek, 2011). This framework takes into account situated and broader social and cultural contexts including all contexts where teachers live, learn, and work. Contexts become a ground for teachers to develop their conceptions of teaching and learning and create instructional histories from which they build their notions of how to teach (Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Lortie, 2002).

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CHAPTER 4

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

4.1. Context of Teacher Education

4.1.1. Context of Teacher Education Program

The international EFL teachers attended a teacher education program at a masters level in a University in North America. The university is home for around 27,000 undergraduate and graduate students (University Website, 2011), while the total population of the area is no more than 35,000. It is a small town and home for five colleges. A route connecting the five colleges is accessible by buses operated by the campus system, which gives a life of a small town. On the way from one college to another is a farm land and typical rural houses, barns, ranches along the main road. Such a scene leaves a trace for a history of the university, which used to be an agricultural college before it changed its name into a university. In 1907, the agricultural college organized a separate department for the preparation of teachers of agriculture. The department of agricultural education was changed to the Department of Education in 1932. In 1947, the Agricultural College changed its name to university and more specific attention to education was marked by the establishment of the School of Education to respond to an urgent need for teachers in the post-war era in 1956. With its long history in education, the school expanded to a fully fledged school of education. Since then, teacher preparation has been the main mission. This mission brings a consequential commitment to improving teacher education with some key issues such as equity, multiculturalism, and technology. For example, in 1988 the school emphasized issues of multiculturalism
and technology to recommend and implement policies nationwide related to educators’ preparation and program accreditation. According to Newsletter (2007), the School of Education has played a role as a center of national discussions about education. Since then, the School of Education has been committed to educating educators for excellence and equity. One of the commitments to this vision is manifested in the publication of journals organized by the School of Education: Equity and Excellence in Education. As stated in the university website, Equity & Excellence in Education publishes articles based on scholarly research utilizing qualitative or quantitative methods, as well as essays that describe and assess practical efforts to achieve educational equity and are contextualized within an appropriate literature review. The School of Education is also committed to:

Improving literacy, not only in language usage but also in mathematics and science, providing leadership in educational policies, practices, and assessment, creating effective and productive community partnerships, and exploring ways to optimize learning for all, including students with special needs and those from linguistically and culturally diverse populations. (School of Education Newsletter, 2007, p. 5)

As stated further in the School of Education website, the programs offered in the school including English as a Second Language are designed to prepare practitioners for leadership roles in the second language education and multicultural education with options for pursuing careers in education.

The mission of the program shapes a classroom context of the course in SFL at the graduate level, which is designed to support the School of Education in preparing the bilingual/English as a second language/multicultural practitioners for leadership roles in second language education and multicultural education, for participating in a meaningful curriculum project and learning environments in
formal and non-formal educational settings. As explicitly stated in the course
description, “this course focuses on grammar and how the grammatical choices we
make in our everyday lives and in our academic work reflect and create the nature
of the relationships with others (formal/informal)” (Course Description, 2009). The
course attempts to support teachers across disciplines to improve the students’
academic language development especially “English language learners (ELLs) and
speakers of non-dominant varieties of English” (Course Description, 2009). In
facilitating teachers to achieve the purpose of learning, the course provides
activities to apprentice teachers in developing students’ academic literacies for 14
weeks. The activities include reading chapters as assigned weekly, posting notes
from readings prior to each of the weekly meetings on online learning management,
discussing notes from readings, attending to the instructor’s lecture, watching a
video about teaching, discussing issues of language teaching coming from the
teachers’ experiences or their thoughts; analyzing texts using the concept of SFL,
which led to a mid semester paper and final semester paper to develop a curriculum
cycle in teaching English as a second and foreign language.

Classroom activities are marked by a significant focus on K-12 language
education in the United States. Classroom discussions addressed language use and
education in many contexts, but the majority of the US born teachers in the class
significantly shaped the topics of discussions. Most of the teachers often raised
issues related to the policy of education in the United States such as pressure on
teachers to teach the students to meet a high standard of writing and a challenge to
improve academic literacies of students from a variety of socio-economic and
linguistic backgrounds. To a certain degree, the focus on K-12 of the United States education context provided knowledge for the EFL teachers about K – 12 education in the United States although the international EFL teachers worked on a different set of educational policy and many of them focused on English education at a college level. For example, an international EFL teacher referenced to and drew on issues related to academic literacies in the context of K-12 education in the United States to set up a problem of how learning English in the EFL contexts was driven by the national policy in her mid – semester paper.

Other courses also reflect the mission of the graduate program in their course information. For example, the course in the Foundations of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education supports the mission of the graduate program in achieving equity in education. This course focuses on developing teachers’ knowledge about supporting students in gaining access to high quality education especially the students of the underserved communities. This course is aimed at equipping teachers with knowledge of classroom practices, policy statements and implementation with which teachers should be able to identify issues of inequity embedded in policies and practices at school. In the course in Managing Culturally Responsive Classrooms, the issue of diversity is made obvious in the title of the course. This course focuses on analyzing “different institutional, instructional, and assessment practices that also include community and parent partnerships to better understanding the way in which these practices and partnerships support or do not support the academic achievement of diverse learners (DL)” (EDUC 594 Syllabus). In practice, the instructors of the courses may or may not have reflected the
ideologies underlying the well-thought-of the graduate program missions. However, as the graduate program missions have been clearly stated to support equity in education, some other courses in the School of Education should reflect the mission of the graduate school.

The teachers participating in the teacher education program take coursework based on their interest in the field such as ESL, bilingualism, foreign language education, and education in general. The teachers usually choose the coursework based on what is offered in each of the semester over their length of time in completing their degree. Many of the teachers complete their program in two years during which their choices in developing their field of interest is constrained by the courses made available during the semester. Many of the teachers take coursework in other departments and study programs to support the expertise in their field, for example, English Department, Asian Studies Program, Communication Department, and Linguistics department. The teachers’ decision to take courses is usually consolidated with their assigned advising faculty.

4.1.2. Classroom Context of the Course in SFL and Genre-based Pedagogy

The course in SFL and genre pedagogy is one of the courses in the teacher education program that provides teachers with pedagogical knowledge based on SFL and a genre approach. This concept of pedagogy was developed in the 1980s in the University of Sydney Australia department of Linguistics to support students in meeting the demand for writing at schools (Christie, 1999, 2002; Martin, 2009; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rothery, 1994). Writing instruction based on the genre perspective consists of explicit instruction of knowledge of genre and register. Explicit
instruction at the level of genre is related to deconstructing a text to analyze genre moves and identify a particular social purpose which shapes a kind of text. At the level of register, writing instruction explicitly provides explanations of register variables from Halliday’s perspective including tenor to enact relationships, field to construct experiences, and mode to convey messages of a text. Genre realizing the context of culture and register variables realizing the context of situation play a crucial role in making a text what it is. In a more accessible way for teaching, genre is defined as “a staged, goal-oriented, social processes” (Martin & Rose, 2008, p. 6).

Genre based pedagogy has different conceptions of grammar from other language perspectives which inform pedagogical practices. Based on the genre perspective, the teaching of language is not training students to learn language by assembling language aspects like subject, verb, object to make sentences, but it begins from an understanding of a text and identifying the aspects of the text in term of genre and register variables. In this perspective, language works in the strata of discourse-semantics, lexico-grammar, phonology (or graphology) in realizing genre and register (Eggins, 2004). In contrast, the behaviorist linguistics which generates a traditional grammar as its conception of grammar informs that teaching language is “studying grammar rules, memorizing vocabulary or practicing pronunciation points, learning the parts of a language” (Larsen-Freeman, 2002, p. 7). Traditional grammar in pedagogic practices is manifested in learning part of speech, prescriptive rules, and correct usages based on the word categories and subject-verb agreements (Gebhard & Martin, 2011). Such an approach, for example,
results in conceptions of grammar based on a formulaic structure of prose (Nysrand, 2006).

Halliday's theory of linguistics and genre based pedagogy were given in this course with a focus on its application for teaching writing. The content of the course provided a tool of analysis in educational contexts for the purpose of informing teachers in developing students' academic literacy. In this course, the learning design “focuses on grammar and how the grammatical choices we make in our everyday lives and in our academic work reflect and create the nature of the relationships with others (formal/informal)” (Course Description, 2009). The course was also designed to support teachers across disciplines as a way to improve students’ academic literacy development especially “English language learners (ELLs) and speakers of non-dominant varieties of English” (Course Description, 2009). As a review of language studies from other perspectives, this course addressed the Behaviorist Perspective and the Cognitive Perspective of language studies. Focusing on using SFL based genre pedagogy, the course sought to support teachers’ understanding of how the aspects of language visibly work in producing a text. The teachers participating in the course were assigned to learn the conceptual terms of SFL taken from the following textbooks as resources: Derewianka's (1990) Exploring How Texts Work, Knapp and Watkins' (2005) Genre, Text, Grammar: Technologies for Teaching And Assessing Writing, Hyland's (2004) Genre And Second Language Writing. Thompson’s (2004) Introducing Functional Grammar and Schleppegrell's (2004) the Language of Schooling. Other chapters were also added to enrich the teachers’ understanding of how genre based pedagogy contributes to
students’ literacy development. In addition, the teachers learned how the pedagogical concept was applied from a video of a teacher teaching a narrative genre to ESL students of non dominant groups at an elementary school in the United States.

Over 14 weeks, the classroom practice consisted of some routine activities. The meetings began with sharing reading logs that pre-service teachers had uploaded onto the online learning management offered by the university. The log sharing activities lasted for 10-15 minutes. After log sharing sessions, the classroom activities proceeded with the instructor’s mini lecture on the key concepts of each of the meetings’ topics. The presentation took place for about 30-40 minutes. The presentation mostly used an in-focus to display Powerpoint presentation. During the presentation, the teachers were allowed to interrupt with questions for more explanations. The next classroom session was a text analysis workshop (using theories to analyze and construct a text). During the workshop, the instructor and her teaching assistants spread around the groups of teachers to participate in applying the conceptual frame of genre based approach for analyzing a text. The text analysis workshop had been set up in the following stages for 14 weeks: forming a group of a similar interest in a certain genre of texts such as narrative, expository, or argumentative genre; planning how to get a text from school; planning to observe a school on how the production of texts go through a process of scaffoldings; analyzing the chosen text; and developing a teaching and learning cycle (a strategy to improve students’ writing based on the analysis of needs through analyzing the selected text and classroom observation). Each workshop session was filled up with
different activities among the groups based on their progress although the expected stage for each session had been planned in the course agenda. Those stages were designed to scaffold the teachers toward the completion of their final paper, that is, a paper exploring how genre pedagogy was applied to help English language learners learn to write at schools. After a workshop session, a meeting was ended up with questions and answers as a review of the lesson of the week. This session was mostly used to wrap up a weekly meeting. Sometimes, some teachers stayed longer in the class to ask the instructor questions to have a good grasp of the concepts of the week. Some of them made an appointment with the instructor for an individual meeting or with the teaching assistants for a mentoring time.

Additionally, there was also a variety of topics brought into classroom discussions. Many of the topics were raised by some of the teachers relating to what was being discussed in the classroom. For example, a local teacher who used to work at a local coffee shop brought the issue of specific register varieties and choices (e.g., field: a coffee for a cup of coffee, tall, grande, venti for respectively small, medium, large). The issue of language use in a coffee shop led a class discussion to shape an understanding that language use is influenced by a community of discourse. Another teacher brought a story of being pulled over by the police, which led to a discussion of tenor: modality (e.g., good morning sir, can I ask you a question why I am pulled over?). This case led to a conceptual understanding of how speakers need to take a strategic position to achieve the purpose of communication such as showing the police officer that we are aware of the traffic rules by positioning to be in a lower status than the police officer.
4.2. Summary

This chapter provides a brief description of the context of the teacher education program in which the data collection was conducted. This study took place in the university in North America where the teacher as the subject of this case study participated in the teacher education program in part informed by SFL/genre-based pedagogy. The teacher education program has a long commitment to equity and excellence in education which should be manifested in the courses it offers and the course activities in which the teacher participated. The teachers participating in the teacher education program take coursework based on their interest in the field such as ESL, bilingualism, foreign language education, and education in general. The teachers usually choose the coursework based on what is offered in each of the semester over their length of time in completing their degree. The course in Halliday's SFL and Martin's genre theory is put on the spotlight in this study because the data collection was intensely conducted in this course where the teacher began conceptualizing a more functional perspective of grammar. One of the prominent characteristics of this course is a significant focus on K-12 language education in the United States which shaped the topics of discussion in the classroom. There were some efforts to address issues of English language education across contexts. However, the international EFL pre-service teachers were not dominating conversations in the class due to the outnumbered US based ESL pre-service teachers and their cultural tendency in a new educational setting. Most of the EFL pre-service teachers were in the first year of the graduate study.
CHAPTER 5
DEVELOPING CONCEPTIONS OF GRAMMAR

5.1. Shifting Conceptions of Grammar

The data show that Chenling developed a more functional conception of grammar featuring the interconnection of lexicogrammatical features and discourse of texts. However, over 14 weeks of participation in the course in SFL/genre-based pedagogy, Chenling went through some tipping points at which her schooling experiences, teaching experiences, and language learning policy of a future workplace shaped her whole conceptions of grammar. In more specific ways, Chenling’s conceptions of grammar have been developed from her understanding of language as formulaic expressions into a more functional conception of grammar featuring analytical conceptions of meaning making across lexical and grammatical aspects in a text. However, Chenling’s functional conception of grammar is still anchored to some extent in a very structural behavioral sense.

5.1.1. Behavioral Conception of Grammar as Sentence Level Structures and Rules

Grammar is the easiest way to teach English. From my point of view, grammar is a kind of tool to help the second language learners to learn language easily. During the year, I am not creative on my teaching only following what the textbook want me to teach that grammar is part of it. In the future, I am not sure I will approach teaching grammar or not that should depend on what I will have learned in the field of English teaching in next two years. From my experience, I think the grammar is a formula help me to teach easily. When I am thinking of grammar I will think about traditional way. (Chenling, Assignment, 10/17/09, p. 1)

As the quote indicates, Chenling began developing a conception of grammar informed by the traditional or behaviorist perspective. Her background knowledge of traditional grammar especially influenced the way in which she made sense of
technical terms in SFL. In this case, the traditional grammar helped her label the associated technical terms with those which she had been familiar with. Her background knowledge of the traditional grammar, then, influenced epistemologically her framework in understanding a text as evidenced in how she explained a discourse of a text more in a descriptive way and defined a text in a more structural and prescriptive way.

Initially Chenling showed her conception of grammar, which was heavily based on her learning and teaching experiences gained before she attended the course in SFL and genre based pedagogy. As recorded in a conversation with her, she once mentioned that “Grammar is the easiest way to teach English” (Field notes, 9/8/2009). She also wrote her view of grammar in an assignment as quoted above. Her conception of grammar in the first week of the course appeared more obviously that the traditional perspective of grammar shaped a conception of grammar. For example, in the first weekly meeting, which was attended by more than 18 teachers, and when all teachers were asked to share their existing understanding of grammar, Chenling was among of those who brought the traditional perspective of grammar into the course in SFL. All teachers responded to the following questions as can be read from a weekly agenda and from the prompt that the instructor put on the screen in the first week of the course.

What is grammar? How have you approached reading English grammar to your students or will you approach teaching grammar to your future students? How does grammar instruction support students’ academic language development? Or do you believe that grammar instruction is less important? Explain your responses with examples from your experiences as a teacher or a learner. Share experiences.

Chenling defined grammar in the following way:
Grammar as the easiest way to teach English language. When teaching, I usually follow a textbook. I teach English to second language learners, mostly teaching writing not speaking, the easiest way to teach English language. When teaching, I usually follow a textbook. I teach English to second language learners, mostly teaching writing not speaking. (Field notes, 09/08/2009)

Chenling did not explicitly state that grammar was related to certain constructs such as a rule, a form, meanings, or texts, but stated that she followed a textbook. Then she stated that grammar was the easiest way to teach. Her statements indicate that grammar is not integrated into meaningful texts in a variety of discourses, which may show more complexity. Chenling reinforced and was reinforced by other teachers participating in the course in conceptualizing grammar.

The international EFL teachers and the United States born teachers showed a shared understanding of grammar as a rule. For example, one international EFL teacher stated that “grammar as a rule about how to use for writing and speaking, grammar is acquired through experience from being a teacher, and grammar is boring but effective tool to learn language” (Field notes, 09/08/2009). In the same way, another international EFL teacher echoed the conception of grammar as a rule. She spoke to the class that “I taught grammar a lot, grammar is boring, there are many rules in learning grammar, however, grammar is helpful for speaking, writing and reading, we can analyze sentence order for understanding reading” (Field notes, 09/08/2009). Similarly, one of the United States born teacher stated that “Grammar is defined as rules governing to speak/write, parts of speech, something related to conjugation and invitation (Field notes, 09/08/2009). Another one also stated that “Grammar is a correct rule, students learn grammar to know vocabulary, pronunciation and achieve certain vocabulary level” (Field notes, 09/08/2009).
Both the United States born and international EFL teachers shared their understanding of grammar which was dominantly informed by the traditional or behaviorist perspective.

The international EFL and the United States born pre-service teachers had common conceptions of grammar although they drew their conceptions of grammar on their reflection of teaching in different cultural and geographical contexts. The teachers’ conceptions of grammar reflected a universal reaction to follow the behaviorist perspective. The most prominent common reflection emerging from the teachers’ conceptions was that grammar was crucial although it was boring knowledge to support a pedagogy of language learning and development. As captured from the teachers’ participation in defining grammar, there were some efforts to turn grammar learning into interesting classroom activities, which have become common in approaching language learning from the behaviorist perspective, for example, using language games. The common ways of approaching the behaviorist perspective of grammar among the teachers were teaching parts of speech, conjugation, sentence order, and rules.

In the sharing of the conceptions of grammar among the teachers in the classroom, the instructor of the course, Professor O’Connell, may have shaped the teachers’ conceptions of grammar to be shared in the classroom. Professor O’Connell in some occasions gave comments on the classroom discussions, which were mainly related to emphasizing the aspects of grammar that the teachers mentioned, for example, regarding the usefulness of grammar in addressing audiences and in achieving the purposes of communication. Professor O’Connell
especially made a connection of her responses to the conceptions with issues of class, identity, and social contexts to emphasize that grammar choice and language choice were determined by those factors. Her explanation further was connected to how different audiences and purposes shaped the use of grammar for effective communication. Her explanation was recast in Chenling’s next conception of grammar. In an online log, Chenling wrote, “Functional perspective of grammar is to help us understand what the bits and pieces are going. Through this perspective, we know the language is pliable and dynamically changeable by speakers and writers” (Log, 9/13/2009). Chenling began to construct a social conception of grammar in which grammar was no longer defined as a static and prescriptive rule, but was situated by the participants involved in the communication. Chenling’s conception of grammar is in line with the expected teaching and learning in the course of SFL and Martin’s genre based pedagogy.

As Chenling further participated in the course and reflected on her teaching experiences to conceptualize grammar, she arrived at another version of grammar conception which was influenced more by her teaching experiences than the course in SFL. She wrote,

From my point of view, grammar is a kind of tool to help the second language learners to learn language easily. I have taught English for one year before studying here. During the year, I am not creative on my teaching only following what the textbook want me to teach that grammar is part of it. In the future, I am not sure I will approach teaching grammar or not that should depend on what I will have learned in the field of English teaching in next two years. From my experience, I think the grammar is a formula help me to teach easily. It is easy help the students to have good performance on reading and writing rather than speaking and listening. (Assignment, 9/15/2009)
Such a conception of grammar showed no assurance of aligning with the course in SFL although she had previously received and acknowledged that grammar of language was determined by audiences and purposes of communication; therefore, it was a matter of a functional choice instead of a prescriptive rule. However, at this stage in conceptualizing grammar, she was influenced by her learning and teaching experiences which valued the behaviorist perspective of grammar. Grammar “as a formula to teach easily” was still perceived as a conception which gave her assurance of what to do with teaching language.

The point in the quote above which indicates that her teaching approach depended on what she would gain from the teacher education program indicates an open mind to accept any other knowledge of grammar which makes more sense for her future teaching. In what follows, in her conception of grammar, a textbook was again mentioned. This time, a textbook was mentioned to maintain that it served as a curriculum which should be followed and which she believed to be the tool to help students learn English. Therefore, probably this made her perceive of grammar as the key element of the book and content to teach students more than just a boring subject.

The repeated conception of grammar as a formula shows the significant influence of the behaviorist perspective on a conception of grammar. Like other teachers, Chenling came with a perspective which was in opposition to a sociocultural perspective of language, within which SFL and genre based pedagogy, that is, the content of the course is situated. For example, when Chenling participated in a small group discussion to share her readings on the assigned
Chenling showed a conflicting perspective with the readings. Chenling looked prepared with papers and notes, then she opened a conversation.

1) Chenling : About grammar, yes Schleppegrell or Knap and Watkins? so:::

2) Wawan : yes, so did you have a chance to read the book?

3) Chenling : ((Hesitating)) -----I just checked the book ((Hesitating)) ----- culture ((Hesitating)) ----- genre based

4) Wawan : that 's right they are in the book, yes I know the title is grammar.

5) Chenling : yeah, ((smile)) I just checked ((hesitating)) -----the book all the content is genre but the title is grammar.

6) Wawan : right/right/right

7) An ESL US born teacher (EUS) : mmhhh yes I am looking at it and I (inaudible) that the book is working language grammar from genre perspective (inaudible), So we learn the grammar of language and then we can apply it in ((hesitating)) ----- writing.

8) Chenling : ((hesitating)) ----- I see it is about writing, so what is it connected as genre as ((hesitating)) ----- I feel hard to connect ---- Writing and genre based -----

9) Wawan : right ----- that' ----- (inaudible)

10) EUS : yes, if you look at the ----- (inaudible)

11) Chenling : yeaaah ((excited)) That's right, it is hard to connect it, I always think that grammar is verb, noun -----
12) EUS : That's right/right/ and I think she's always thinking in ....
13) Chenling : right/right/right/ ((laugh)) ----- ((everyone laughed))
14) EUS : I think this is to support teacher and students literacy through the
   genre based -----
15) Chenling : yes/yes/ ((hesitating)) -----I just noticed about the name (referring
to genre)
16) Wawan : ok . So what is your understanding about grammar from the book?
17) Chenling : yeah I think it's very hard to think of genre as part of grammar -
18) EUS : It was .... (inaudible)

(Field notes, 9/29/09)

Chenling captured the key words from the book such as culture, contexts of
culture, genre, and grammar from the conceptions of grammar on Knapp and
Watkins' (2005):

In this book we are more concerned with a way of using grammar to describe
how particular texts are put together. In other words, as well as describing
what is going on within sentences, we are also concerned with how language
is used at the levels of text and genre. Grammar from this point of view is a
name for the resources available to users of a language system for producing
texts. A knowledge of grammar by a speaker or writer shifts language use
from the implicit and unconscious to a conscious manipulation of language
and choice of appropriate texts. Grammar then considers how all parts of the
text – such as sentences, tense, reference, cohesion and so on – are
structured, organized and coded, so as to make the text effective as written
communication and, in particular, how all the parts are used to serve the
purposes of the language users. (p. 32)

In addition, she also consulted Schleppegrell's (2004) Language of Schooling,
which addresses grammar as linguistic knowledge that helps students achieve their
capacities in using language to create kinds of texts for specialized knowledge at
school. In this conception, grammar is related to the concepts of lexical and
grammatical choices that simultaneously construe social relationships and experiences of the world, different kinds of meanings and social contexts, and texts of different types. However, Chenling held back her belief in SFL and read the book from a different perspective of understanding grammar. For example, she proposed a question of grammar in relation to the term “genre” as she believed that grammar was a separate entity from a text (a genre of texts). In the discussion, she did not see the connection of genre and grammar. She conceptualized grammar as a compilation of rules for constructing sentences and expressions without considering a type of text. The content of the readings, which informs grammar for writing, did not change her conception of grammar drawing on the behaviorist perspective. At the end of the small group discussion, after reflecting on the discussion of how grammar and genre are connected, Chenling admitted that “It is hard to move to functional perspective of grammar” (Chenling, Field notes, 9/29/2009). She also articulated her existing perspective of grammar in her assignment: “When I am thinking of grammar I will think about traditional way” (Chenling, Assignment, 10/17/2009, p. 1).

Chenling could not maintain a social perspective in understanding grammar. The way she developed a social conception of grammar seemed to be temporary until she shifted a conception of grammar into the behaviorist perspective, which was her existing knowledge of grammar before attending this course. This course in SFL in various degrees had influenced her views on language teaching and language use in societies. She acknowledged the social use of language, but at the same time her acknowledgement of language use from the social perspective was interrupted.
by especially her reflection on language learning practices in her country, which valued the behaviorist perspective. She wrote that “English is a language for people to use, but under the educational system in my country, English is used to teach by drill, and learn by memorizing and hard-studying” (Chenling, Mid-semester Assignment, 10/17/2009, p. 6). Further, she acted her resistance to SFL based conception of grammar in any discussion when referencing to language learning practices in her country over the 14 week course in SFL. Making references to language learning practices in her country was a challenge for her in developing a conception of grammar from the social perspective.

Learning SFL genre perspective in this course and her reflection on language learning practices in her country expanded discussions on writing instruction which was well supported by SFL and the genre approach to pedagogy, but was not a high priority in the language curriculum in her country. Chenling built an awareness of the significance of SFL based genre pedagogy for writing instruction but its significance thus far was glossed over English language teaching practices in her country. Writing skills which were not part of the school assessment system turned to significantly influence her conception of grammar. She argued, “spending time on development of writing is not an economic way to get good grade on that kind of test” (Chenling, Final Paper, 10/17/2009, p. 1). Language learning practices in Taiwan led Chenling to pose consistent arguments about the value of the behaviorist perspective throughout her assignments and papers. She remained to state that “grammar is related to correct answers, when I think of grammar, I will think about traditional way” (Chenling, Assignment, 10/17/2009, p. 2). Chenling developed
technical skills for deconstructing and reconstructing a text from a social perspective, but did not use the knowledge as a conceptual basis for practices.

5.1.2. SFL based Conception of Grammar at the Level of Meta-language: Re-inscribing it with Traditional rather than Functional Conception of Grammar.

Influenced by the behaviorist perspective, Chenling had formidable knowledge of aspects of sentences. At this stage she defined a clause as consisting of one thought and related technical terms from SFL perspective to her previous knowledge of language. In learning a conception of grammar from SFL genre perspective, she noticed verbs and named them according to the types of processes in SFL such as material, mental, and verbal processes; noticed adverbs and named them as circumstances; and noticed subjects and named them as participants (Field notes, 10/7/2009). In an informal conversation, we occurred to have a discussion on analyzing a text.

45) Chenling : ((she brought a text and pointed to it)) Wawan, I am wondering do you think polarity existed in this text?

46) Wawan : I think so.

47) Chenling : ((while pointing to the words “never” and “only”)) do they have additional meanings to polarity?

48) Wawan : Yes, ((hesitating)) ---- the meaning of the clause will no longer be positive although there is no explicit “not” in the clause. Can you feel the meaning?

49) Chenling : I see what you mean. ((while pointing to commanding clauses)) What about this? What about the tenses, I mean
((hesitating) ----- how can we analyze the tenses?

50) Wawan : ((while pointing at the clauses)) There is a finite in the clauses so it means we can identify the tenses.

51) Chenling : What about this? Did I label it correctly? ((While pointing to the clause which consists of this word group: “... Treated me like a child”)) It is adjunct, right?

Although she went through the analysis accordingly, she was still trying to convince the concept of polarity. In SFL genre perspective, polarity is a concept from which we could identify if the clauses have positive or negative meanings. She was also trying to relate the concept of finite to the notion of tenses and the concept of adjunct to her understanding of the degree of action as reflected from the choice of processes (verbs), the process of doing things, and the textual connections among clauses. At this level, she analyzed the text using interpersonal meanings of language, which represent the relation of the writers/speakers with readers/listeners through the choice of subject, finite, and adjunct.

The dialog above indicates that she explored her knowledge of the traditional perspective of grammar in analyzing a text. In the traditional perspective of grammar, the concepts of sentence elements such as tenses, transitive and intransitive verbs, regular and irregular verbs, adverbs (time, process, and place), and subject-verb agreement are learned to make a well structured sentence. Differently in SFL, the concept of language is situated by a particular genre, which means that it is learned from a whole text to some small elements of language that
construct the text. In effect, she followed the traditional perspective which is formula based in analyzing the text.

Additionally, the fact that both the United States born and international teachers were using a formulaic way in analyzing a text for this course urged the class to provide extra time for overviews of SFL technical terms. The overviews took place between October 9 and November 10 (Field notes, 10/9 & 11/10/2009), extending to the third month of the course sessions and putting aside other class agenda for focusing on the mastery of the technical terms. The extension of time for the mastery of technical terms in this course seemed to result from the nature of learning a new content of pedagogic knowledge and more significantly the graduate school students’ approach to learning. The nature of learning in the first year of graduate school influenced Chenling in learning SFL genre pedagogy which was marked by focusing on the right answers to using the technical terms, seeking for the instructor’s attention, and gaining good grades.

On November 10, the class activities continued focusing on a text analysis. All teachers worked on the field analysis to mainly identify the choice of participants in the text, and processes (verbs and words that modify actions). While most of the teachers were working in groups, Chenling was working alone identifying the feature a narrative genre. In her textual analysis, she identified participants and circumstances of a text (adverbs that modify the subject’s action). She pointed out that subject could function as actor, sayer, initiator and others relying on a process type (verb type) that comes after the subject. At this stage, she was trying to make sense of circumstances and clauses with prepositions. She pointed to a clause:
“Then, she spoke in a good manner.” She notified the word “in a good manner” as an adverb in traditional grammar and a circumstance in SFL (Field notes, 10/10/2009). Based on Chenling’s strategy in doing a text analysis, I captured the ways in which Chenling made a connection between traditional and functional perspective of grammar.

Circumstances ------------------------ adverbs that modify subject’s action

Subjects ------------------------------- actor, sayer, initiator or any relying on process types

Process types ------------------------------- comes after the subject

Circumstances ------------------ as adverbs

Clauses with prepositions ----------------- as in adverbs

The concept above suggests that she relabeled the technical terms from what she understood about the features of register at this stage in week 6. She translated the technical terms as they were. Since then, Chenling had analyzed a narrative text that she had developed for her final semester project. One phenomenon which distinguished Chenling from the domestic teachers is that she worked more frequently in solitude than collaboratively with her classmates, especially, in analyzing a text and writing recommendations for teaching a narrative genre, a text type of her choice. Chenling’s way of being in the course shows a typical international student in the first semester of learning with domestic students.

5.1.3. SFL/genre-based Conception at an Analytical Level of Texts

This stage of developing conceptions of grammar is marked by making connections between lexical and grammatical features and discourse semantics,
aspects of meaning making in text, yet anchored to some extent in a very structural behavioral sense. Chenling mentioned in an interview (30/11/2009) that “workshop (text analysis) is part of the classroom activities I like”. Her statement suggests that she found a text analysis session a significant learning stage. Through a textual analysis, Chenling’s conception of grammar shifted toward wrapping up the concept of grammar at the level of lexicogrammatical and discourse semantics. This movement began when Chenling chose to analyze a narrative In the Year of the Boar and Jackie Robinson by Bette Bao Lord. It is a well known text narrating a young girl who emigrated to San Fransisco from China in the 1950s. She was convinced that a narrative text was an important genre that students needed to learn even in the EFL contexts although it was not officially enforced in a middle school curriculum in Taiwan. Chenling said “a narrative text is common and the text that students should know” (Interview, 30/11/2009). In a written assignment, she wrote “Narrative is the most frequent used genre for students no matter the writing assignment in school like recount your experience, write a story which is full narrative including orientation, sequence of event, complication, evaluation and resolution, or write the composition to reflect the literature” (Midterm Paper, 10/17/2009, p. 8). She also recast the significance of the narrative genre with a set of plan to teach a narrative text in her country.

Through the analysis of the narrative text, Chenling noticed the genre moves and register choices typically found in narratives. At the genre level, Chenling noticed that a model of a narrative text had genre moves similar to other narratives and to what experts had identified. In this sense, a narrative consists of
“orientation, complication, evaluation, and resolution” (Midterm Paper, 10/17/2009, pp. 11 – 12). At the register level, Chenling also found how appraisal and modality were used to express varying degrees of attitude and emotion due to “the author’s personal experience being an immigrant in America” (Midterm Paper, 10/17/2009, p. 14), and how circumstances, pronouns, conjunction developed thematization of the text. For example, in noticing the use of circumstances, Chenling underlined the dominant use of “circumstances to connect the relative details into one clause that is the way to indicate writing skills and to create readers’ imagination” (p. 14) and the prominent use of details to support the theme of the story. She also reported that tracking participants would help trace the relations of other characters to the main character. This tracking activity involved lexical chaining from which she would teach pronoun referencing which could help students understand the trajectory of the main character. Reflecting on her analysis, Chenling was assured that noticing “the features of the narrative genre which teachers are familiar with will improve teaching in a more efficient way” (p. 22). Therefore, she argued that “using genre based pedagogy to teach writing may be more reasonable approach for students to realize how to write” (p. 22).

Having identified the genre and register features of an expert text, Chenling extended to an analysis of a student text for the purpose of providing feedback for the student’s writing improvement. In this activity, Chenling and her group members focused on an expository text written by a seventh grade student named “Adam”, an ESL student from Malaysia. For this course, Chenling and her group observed Adam in class, collected curricular materials and samples of his writing.
and interviewed him as well as his teacher. The analysis was focused on a unit of study that required Adam to read a novel: *A Step from Heaven* by An Na and to write a reflection on the experiences of immigrants in America as depicted in the novel. In the time of data collection, Adam who had been in the United States for five years was transitioned from an ESL pull out/bilingual program to the inclusion program with ELL support and the Special Ed for reading/writing. It was reported that Adam had a better command of English than Chinese. With a better English, Adam could help his parents with limited English to get things done with language.

In analyzing Adam’s text, Chenling conducted a genre analysis by comparing common moves in an expository genre and Adam’s expository genre moves. Her competent analysis is evidenced in showing the differences of genre moves in a table from which she could describe Adam’s expository text. Then she reported:

> His writing strategy is straight forward and prefers to report the fact to describe, who was involved and, what did they do, which is hard for readers to realize his position, not to mention the function of his essay, appealing to readers’ thought to further convince of his words. (Final Paper, 12/14/2009, p. 15)

> While explicating the use of modality in constructing an authoritative stance, Chenling related this point to the genre of Adam’s text. She convincingly described that Adam’s text:

> Used language as one way to only tell a summary of story, his example and his points, but he is not good at using modality to explain reasonable relations among these. When I read Adam’s text, it is better for me to regard it as a narrative essay and not an expository to embed his thinking to keep his position. (Final Paper, 12/14/2009, p. 16)
Chenling’s argument was coupled with her analysis in which she noticed that Adam followed the template for a “five paragraph essay” that the teacher showed the class to use.

At the level of register analysis, Chenling showed her knowledge of SFL concept of analyzing texts. For example, she could identify participant, process, and circumstance types and quantitatively displayed the distribution of the registers. She noted a clear thesis in Adam’s text, that is, *nothing is impossible, if you stick to it* and some quotes as stipulated by his teacher to support his claims as stated in the thesis statement. Drawing on a description of Adam’s text, Chenling analytically commented on Adam’s text. First, Adam used the quotes to “narrate facts objectively from the book” rather than taking “a position” and “showing his critical thinking.” Second, Adam dominantly used “concrete participants” (e.g., the mother, the father, the daughter, the book, I, An Na) rather than “abstract participants” to relate to the issues of immigrants. Third, she found that Adam’s text was not built on good theme/rheme patterns using nominalizations, echoing her previous finding that the text lacked abstract participants. Referencing to Schleppegrell (2004), she argued:

> Adam did not build his arguments from clause to clause, increasingly re-packaging and re-presenting information as nominalized participants in the ensuing clauses. Instead, he often remains focused on the same participant, especially concrete participants as theme, in a way that is more typical of narrative than expository writing. (Final Semester Paper, 12/14/2009, p. 20)

Based on her analytical findings in Adam’s text, Chenling proposed an action plan to develop literacy practices of students in secondary English classes. Chenling recommended comparing the model text to less successful texts in term of genre structures by identifying the differences between narrating a story and persuading
readers in writing; clarifying the function of each genre move in different model texts; and providing supports for students in noticing nouns/noun phrases and nominalization and in turning nouns into abstract participants or nominalization process. Chenling articulated:

Using model text is an opportunity for students to keep in mind what kind of language features a successful text included. In order to expand students’ work bank, I will lead them to highlight vocabulary to see how various kinds of processes can be used in an expository, and which words with modality and appraisal proving author’s position to persuade readers, as well, circle where noun phrases and nominalization to form abstract subjects. (Final Semester Paper, 12/14/2009, p. 23).

Table 5: The Use of SFL and Genre Based Approach to Design Literacy Instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Reading Material</th>
<th>Use of SFL/genre theory in designing reading instruction</th>
<th>Student writing sample</th>
<th>Use of SFL/genre theory in designing writing instruction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chenling</td>
<td>Narrative In the Year of the Boar and Jackie Robinson by Bette Bao Lord</td>
<td>• Analyze genre moves to support comprehension • Support students in tracking participants and creating lexical chains to assist students in following the pathway of the main character</td>
<td>Response to literature produced by 8th-grade ELL in mainstream English class</td>
<td>• Model/compare genre moves associated with narrating verses making an argument • Highlight the difference between using concrete participants in narrating a story versus abstract ones in making an argument • Teach nominalization as a way to support the building of an argument</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Gebhard, Graham, Chen, & Gunawan, 2013)

Chenling’s engagement in analyzing a text using of SFL/genre-based approach opens her broad perspective on learning. For example, drawing on Martin and Rose (2008) and Derewianka (1990), she framed that “learners’ process of learning language could not be independent from lived experiences, which turn to be the critical element when teachers plan students’ language development” (Final Semester Paper, 12/14/2009, p. 2). Drawing on her analytical conception of
grammar, she also framed that “instead of working on the structure of language, the genre-based pedagogy reminds us that the purpose of the writing should be included when students organize their grammar choice” (Final Semester Paper, 12/14/2009, p. 2).

In developing into conceptions of grammar by analyzing expert and student texts as evidenced in her midterm and final semester papers, Chenling showed her progress from explaining language at a descriptive level of sentence aspects to analytical conceptions at the level of discourse. Chenling played a role as a text analyst for the purpose of developing the student’s academic writing. In her journey toward becoming a text analyst, she did not skip exploring her conception of grammar at the descriptive level. For example, in mid October, in the process of developing ideas for writing a midterm paper, Chenling showed her analysis of a narrative text in her assignment:

In this text, almost all clauses are declarative statements and few are interrogative statements because the author tried to say things to the readers. Using lots of declarative clauses can achieve the function to give information to audience, who can picture the character with the different aspects through many declarative statements. Two interrogative clauses in this text are making an echo to previous description, which emphasizes on the thing that girl felt unfair. Few interrogative clauses appearing in the genre of narrative mainly developed by declarative clauses can provide another chance to persuade the readers to agree what the author said. Moreover, the readers would be bored if the story is all composed of declarative clauses, and add few interrogative clauses will show the space of interaction between readers and writers. The story is relative to the author’s personal experience, being an immigrant in America. So it is obvious to find in the text that the author used some appraisal and modality to express attitudes and emotion. Additionally, the story is constructed almost in past tense. (Assignment, November 17, 2009)

Chenling’s description of genre touched bases on the mood types, which are different from the way she analyzed a genre of Adam’s text in which she addressed
in more specific ways by sketching out how register simultaneously developed a genre of a narrative as described in the previous section. In this case, Chenling has developed a description of a genre from a general to a specific way involving genre – register connections. Chenling has also developed her description of a narrative genre by indicating the authors’ voices in the story. Analyzing a student text helped her sharpen the analysis of a narrative genre.

5.1.4. A Conception of Grammar Shaped by Her Biography as EFL Learner and Teacher.

At this stage, Chenling’s trajectory of conceptualizing grammar is shaped by her biography as an EFL learner and teacher within a particular sociocultural context. In an interview, Chenling stated:

That’s [traditional grammar] what I learned, so I also teach it in the same way to the students, to the kids—in Taiwan we always refer to entrance test. So students to enter high schools they can get good grades, the best grades for the school in Taiwan—so writing is not my focus in junior high. (Chenling, Interview, 11/30/2009)

The quote does not suggest that she would continue aligning with a social conception of grammar with her descriptive and analytical knowledge of texts. Instead, she would refer to her schooling experiences and the long tradition of teaching English in her country, informed by the traditional grammar perspective. While showing her analytical knowledge of grammar in her final semester paper, Chenling was drawn into a reflection on how she learned grammar and into an envision of how she would teach grammar in the same country where she gained learning experiences. As the quote from the interview shows, Chenling tended to equalize the value of experiences gained from her role as a student and her role as a teacher in conceptualizing grammar. The way she learned grammar was assumed to
work well for the way she would teach it. Her decision to teach grammar in the same way as she learned it is more influenced by the institutional context of teaching where such a practice has become a tradition, generated from one generation to another with reference to the institutional policy. One of the impacts of enforcing the behaviorist perspective in learning language is excluding writing practices or using writing practices as exercises for using aspects of grammar (e.g., Yasuda, 2011). The way the curriculum policy treats writing has shaped Chenling's conceptualization of grammar. More specifically influenced by her schooling experiences, Chenling referenced to the following concept of writing instruction:

The writing strategies I remember from that class is the basic requirement of writing, at least four paragraph inclusive of introduction, body and conclusion, details to support each paragraph, and conclusion to echo the previous introduction. These instructions seem very concrete for teachers, but still abstract for learners to construct a coherent and developed writing. (Assignment, 10/17/2009)

The assignment suggests that, first, her schooling experiences which shaped her teaching strategy at school before taking the course in SFL and the genre based pedagogy continued shaping her decision in teaching writing. Before she attended a masters program at this school, she used to teach writing in English informed by a general concept of writing regardless of a genre of the text, purposes, and audiences. Thus, she perceived of writing practice as an abstract concept for students. Chenling's knowledge of writing process is related to what Hillocks (2006) delineated regarding a history of research in writing. In Hillocks' overview of

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4 Hillocks' argument is based on the context of teaching grammar in the United States, which is obviously different from the context of EFL. However, Hillocks argues that writing has been widely treated in a superficial way. His argument may apply to other contexts than the United States since it is influenced by the concept of writing from the Behaviorist perspective which has been widely socialized.
research in writing, writing is said to gain popularity about a quarter of a century ago and “was widely treated in a superficial way - there was an assumption that a very general knowledge of writing would suffice for most purposes” (p. 59). Writing was not intended for communicating a specific purpose. With reference to Hillocks’ overview of general knowledge of writing, I notice that Chenling was influenced by a popular writing strategy which relies more on the complexity of forms and syntax than social meanings. Second, her conceptions of grammar were connected to a her future workplace. She appeared to envision a perspective of language teaching that would be accepted in her future career. Chenling argued, “for junior high school teachers or students, writing test is not included in official entrance test, so, generally speaking, spending time on development of writing is not an economic way to get good grade on that kind of test” (Assignment, 11/24/09). In addition, Chenling suggests that a general writing concept would suffice because it would not be part of the school assessments and it would only be an additional skill to the curriculum. Third, the envision to argue why teachers should be bothered with a complex writing strategy is also influenced by the curriculum praxis in her country in which writing is not enforced to all students but those with good access to socioeconomic resources in societies. Chenling explained that “In a big city in Taiwan such as Taipei, students learn not only to prepare for obtaining high scores for tests but also to write and speak English for business” (Interview, 11/30/2009). According to her, in most of the areas in Taiwan, however, it is not possible for students to practice writing such as writing a personal letter or a letter of request. Most of the English lessons are presented in a formulaic way such as learning the
main feature of present perfect tense, past tense, present continuous, and some collocation: both ... and ..., either ... or ..., neither ... nor ... Those structures are taught for the purpose of passing English grammatical tests which are mainly designed to improve two important skills: “speaking ability to show persons that we can use English and reading to improve vocabulary” (Interview, 11/30/2009).

Chenling further described:

Yeah it is about knowledge. ... you know when students cannot write well ... it is not because they don’t have academic performance ... no ... because you can help them to go beyond this ... Most of the teachers don’t have this sense. Writing is made possible only in big cities. (Interview, 11/30/09)

The context of education dominantly affected her to value more the behaviorist perspective in language teaching and learning.

Chenling remained to have a stronger commitment to teaching writing by following what was endorsed in the language curriculum in Taiwan than developing her pedagogical knowledge that she had gained from this course. For example, an interview excerpt below shows the reasons for her commitment in developing a conception of grammar.

17) Chenling : We don’t have any writing or composition course in high school, you know that?
18) Wawan : So how is the curriculum of language at high schools in Taiwan?
19) Chenling : I think ((firmly stating)) it depends on test. There is no making sentence test for students, maybe the test is a multiple choices, read articles and make sentences.
20) Wawan : What about TOEFL test?
21) Chenling: Some students took a TOEFL test but there is a specific TOEFL class preparation.

22) Wawan: So it is not included at school?

23) Chenling: No ((hesitation) -----it is not included at school curriculum.

24) Wawan: What about if ----- students want to learn to write a letter for a ---- -- job application?

25) Chenling: I only know high school students, so I think it is not possible for them.

26) Wawan: What about if students want to write well in email or write a letter of request and --------?

27) Chenling: I think it is not possible. English is only possible inside school, outside is impossible.

28) Wawan: So ((hesitating)) -----, is learning to teach writing based on SFL genre pedagogy still useful for your future teaching context?

29) Chenling: ((firmly stating) Not for this stage

30) Wawan: In what stage could this be useful?

31) Chenling: I think ------when the system of education has changed and writing becomes the focus for learning English.

32) Wawan: So ----- do ------ you think the system should be changed right away?

33) Chenling: ((hesitating)) ----- I think what they need now is reading for tests and speaking to show other people the ability to use English. So, I think it depends on other things.
Explicit from the conversation is the expectation from English learning in Taiwan that the needs for reading English texts and speaking are favored over writing.

5.2. Summary

The observation in the course in Halliday’s SFL and Martin’s genre theory generates findings which become the bases for describing more in depth portrait of the focal teacher in shifting her conceptions of grammar for designing and teaching academic literacy in an EFL classroom. The data show that Chenling, the focal teacher, developed a more functional conception of grammar featuring the interconnection of lexicogrammatical features and discourse of texts over the 14 weeks of participation in the course with some tipping points indicating the influences of her schooling experiences, teaching experiences, and language learning policy of a future workplace on her whole conceptions of grammar. For example, Chenling began developing a conception of grammar informed by the traditional or behaviorist perspective. She made sense of technical terms in SFL to help label the associated technical terms with those which she had been familiar with. Her background knowledge of the traditional grammar, then, influenced epistemologically her framework in understanding a text as evidenced in how she explained a discourse of a text more in a descriptive way and defined a text in a more structural and prescriptive way. In coming to grip with the concept of grammar at the level of lexicogrammatical and discourse semantics, Chenling provided an analytical observation of a narrative text by noticing the genre moves and register choices typically found in narratives. At the genre level, Chenling
noticed that a model of a narrative text had genre moves similar to other narratives and to what experts had identified. At the register level, Chenling found how appraisal and modality were used to express varying degrees of attitude and emotion. Further, in analyzing a student’s text, Chenling conducted a genre analysis by comparing common moves in an expository genre and Adam’s expository genre moves. At the level of register analysis, Chenling showed her knowledge of SFL concept of analyzing texts. For example, she could identify participant, process, and circumstance types and quantitatively displayed the distribution of the registers. However, Chenling tended to equalize the value of experiences gained from her role as a student and her role as a teacher in conceptualizing grammar. The way she learned grammar was assumed to work well for the way she would teach it. Her decision to teach grammar in the same way as she learned it is then influenced more by the institutional context of teaching which rewards more the conception of traditional grammar.
CHAPTER 6

USING SFL/GENRE-BASED CONCEPTION OF GRAMMAR
FOR CONCEPTUALIZING LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

6.1. Relating SFL/Genre-based Conception of Grammar to Other Concepts of
Teaching and Learning

The previous section explores how Chenling’s conceptions of grammar
changed over 14 weeks of participation in learning SFL and Martin’s genre pedagogy
to design academic literacy instruction in the EFL context in Taiwan. This part
explores how she maintained and shifted her functional conception of grammar in
the key courses required to take to graduate from the MATESOL program.

Over the courses, she designed an instruction plan showing that she
maintained her functional conception of grammar as meaning making at a discourse
level interconnecting lexico-grammatical features of a text. She indicated an effort to
analytically identify learning situations in which her conception of grammar could
be used to enhance learning. She also related her functional conception of grammar
with other pedagogical concepts of her concerns and designed an instruction by
exploring explicitly her meta-knowledge of SFL/genre-based pedagogy. However,
similar to her conception of grammar developed over 14 weeks of participation in
learning SFL and Martin’s genre pedagogy in the Fall 2009 as narrated in the
previous section, her trajectory as a teacher and learner of EFL in Taiwan shaped a
typical characterization of her conceptions of grammar which in part are framed
under the behaviorist perspective of language and language learning. Further, her
actual teaching in a middle school in Taiwan was shaped by the relationships of
collegial and institutional influences.
Chenling maintained a conception of grammar based on a more functional conception of language and language learning as shown over the final assignments of the courses in a transition to actual teaching (see Table 6).

**Table 6: Conception of Grammar and Instructional Design as Shown over the MATESOL Courses in a Transition to Actual teaching**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
<th>Analytical lens/Conceptions of Grammar to be explored</th>
<th>Implications for Designing academic instruction</th>
<th>Course</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Relating genre and register knowledge to other concepts of language learning | Traditional perspective of language learning | • Identify language learning as not learning to use language but to be successful test takers;  
• Focus on a narrative genre to improve the students literacy skills;  
• Notice the significance of teaching a narrative genre using SFL/genre pedagogy context to improve students’ academic literacy;  
• Notice the significance of social conceptions of grammar for academic language learning and development; | • Recommend teaching language at a discourse level featuring lexicogrammatical and textual connection;  
• Recommend teaching academic writing starting from a narrative genre;  
• Recommend teaching academic writing in EFL contexts using SFL/genre-based pedagogy; | 500L  
681 |
| Defining the concept of diversity | Notice how using SFL/genre pedagogy addresses individual differences in developing students’ academic language | | Recommend SFL/genre pedagogy to teach academic writing | 616  
677 |
| Scaffolding | Relate SFL/genre based teaching learning cycle with the concept of scaffolding;  
• Draw on the curriculum cycle to relate to scaffolding concept;  
• Challenging of scaffolding due to the number of students; | | • Recommend applying intense scaffolding in teaching academic writing;  
• Recommend modeling; | 616  
677  
611 |
| Developing an instructional design based on knowledge of Genre and register | Explore genre knowledge from SFL perspective;  
• Notice the Mood types which need to be improved;  
• Argue the significance of a functional conception of language learning in an EFL context; | | • Design instruction based on SFL/genre-based pedagogy;  
• Make explicit the genre moves in instruction ; | 681  
500L  
616  
677 |
• Argue how writing can support EFL learners literacy learning and development compared to the assessment-driven instruction framed within the traditional conception of language learning;

• Notice genre moves from a teaching practice; relate to meta-language of SFL/genre-based pedagogy;

• Develop a writing assessment based on SFL/genre pedagogy;

• Design a rubric to evaluate students’ narrative writing;

Register | Explore register knowledge from SFL/genre perspective; | Design instruction based on SFL/genre based conception of language learning | 611

Challenge in applying SFL/genre-based conception of grammar | Notice the challenges of language policy learning in applying SFL/genre-based instructional design; | Design an instruction which addresses grammar and vocabulary recognition to meet the requirement of tests and beyond it to be useful and functional language users; | 500L 681 616

| Reflect on her trajectory as language learner and teacher in developing an instructional design; | Design a rubric as feedback of students’ learning for motivating learning and for future learning improvements | 611

Consider students’ limited English proficiency to be a challenge;

Notice the challenge from the culture of learning which values result than process of learning

Notes:

500L : ESL Teaching Practicum
611 : Testing, assessment and evaluation in LLC
616 : Principles of First and Second Language Learning & Teaching
677 : Foundations of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education
681 : Teaching Reading & Writing at the Secondary Level/Curriculum Unit

In general, Chenling’s work over the courses in the MATESOL teacher education captured the way in which she encouraged a more functional conception of grammar. In indicating the significance of SFL/genre-based conception of grammar, similarly as shown at the beginning of her participation in learning SFL
and Martin’s genre theory, she related to a traditional conception of grammar for lack of its significance for teaching students about language use. In opposing to the traditional perspective of grammar, she focused on how teaching a narrative text from SFL/genre-based perspective could apprentice students to use language for life. For example, she argued that teaching and learning of a narrative text was aimed at using “rhetorical techniques to construct stories to inspire readers’ interest or reflect people’s experiences about their problems and how they deal with them” (Leadership Project, 2011, p. 5).

More specifically, Chenling focused on developing a more conception of grammar for teaching a narrative genre in the EFL context in Taiwan. She believed that teaching a narrative text could potentially help readers transfer stories and experiences from and into real life situations. Having students write a narrative text, according to Chenling, was evidence which showed a more real competence of using English than the ability to indicate “where adverbs should be placed in a clause” (Leadership Project, 2011, p. 25). Across the final assignments of the courses in the MATESOL program, she put a highlight into teaching a narrative genre. Focusing on teaching of a narrative genre, she made relations with other concepts which inform pedagogical practices. The degree to which she related a more functional perspective of grammar for teaching a narrative genre to other pedagogical concepts varied across the courses she attended. More prominently, she captured the connections around the areas and field that had become her concerns since she began participating in the course in SFL and genre theory. The following illustrates
what she highlighted, expanded, and challenged in an attempt to design instruction and more specifically academic literacy instruction in Taiwan.

Although the courses did not require her to address grammar in language learning, she wove her conception of grammar with the pedagogical knowledge offered in the courses. The 14 weeks of participation in learning SFL and Martin’s genre theory had equipped her with a set of tool directly to meet her need for having a strategy of teaching – more specifically learning and teaching cycle. In an interview, she said that the course in SFL and genre theory gave her applicable theory (Interview, 11/30/2009). In the following year, she realized that she had invested more time in learning SFL/genre-based pedagogy. Therefore, she had assurance that she was conceptually and theoretically better prepared for using this concept for EFL instruction.

50) Chenling : I think it is a practical choice because its [...] a [...] I know its theories are difficult but better than others.

51) Wawan : but you didn’t know before, correct?

52) Chenling : I didn’t know SFL before [...] but I think for masters degree we don’t have a chance to learn so many things, like I learn constructivism from other courses very little. But I learned SFL from two courses. So I think I have better knowledge about SFL than other knowledge. For masters degree we learned a lot of theories, so it’s a good chance.

53) Wawan : Do you feel confident with your knowledge about SFL theory?
Chenling: Let me think first [...] I think so. If teachers are teaching only based on a theory, I think it is not strong enough, like if I am teaching writing I spend my time on learning theories to be more competent, but I think there is a little trouble and I know if I really want to apply this theory and I want to apply this better, I know I have to spend many times on it.

(Interview, 1/24/2010)

Based on the interview, Chenling suggested that she intended to apply SFL/genre based pedagogical concept despite having theoretical complexity to learn. She was more confident in the mastery of SFL/genre based pedagogy because she had invested more time in learning the pedagogical concept. This information added to her previous statements ensuring that SFL/genre based pedagogy was more applicable to classroom practices. In a transition to applying this concept for actual teaching, she drew a connection with other pedagogical knowledge offered in other courses. The connection was characterized as a highlight that informed the pedagogical knowledge learned in the courses. More prominently, she drew her reflection on language learning practices in Taiwan informed by the traditional perspective of grammar. In some courses, she also revisited a case study conducted during her participation in learning SFL and genre theory in the Fall 2009, that is, the case of Adam, a thirteen-year-old boy, from Malaysia, who immigrated to the United States with his parents, when he was 8 years old. The reiteration of this case led to a connection of individual socio-cultural diversity with academic learning and development in the context of education in Taiwan. Then, she raised the concept of
scaffolding in relation to the teaching and learning cycle from the perspective of SFL/genre based pedagogy. The highlight into the concept of scaffolding captured the incorporation of SFL and genre meta-knowledge.

6.1.1. Reinstating Academic Writing vis-à-vis Traditional Perspective of Language and Language Learning in the Context of Education in Taiwan

Chenling identified that the context of English language education in Taiwan excluded academic writing courses and made the behaviorist perspective of language and language learning as the prevailing pedagogical approach. She commented that the pedagogical practices took place as such due to devoid of academic literacy learning and development (Interview, 5/9/2010). The pedagogical practices, then, predominantly attempted to train students with decontextualized use of language for the purpose of making them good test takers. She often addressed this issue as the rationale for designing instruction from a more functional perspective of language and language learning. Across the final assignments, she often showed awareness of the urgency for teaching academic literacy especially to support students in learning language which attends to contexts and meanings at a discourse level. However, her conception of academic writing was often shaped by the mainstream practice of teaching writing and the envisioned students’ common practice of learning to write.

Chenling showed her awareness of the urgency for academic literacy learning and development in Taiwan by proposing her arguments based on her analysis of the EFL curriculum which excluded academic writing course. For example, in a leadership project, she analyzed a students’ narrative writing as a diagnosis before implementing an instruction based on SFL/genre perspective. Based on the analysis,
she found that students’ writings generally showed “very limited sequences of events, no complication, and incoherent resolution in a narrative text . . . Some clauses are not able to express valid meanings since there is a lot of wrong English usage” (Leadership Project, 2011, p. 15). In addition, she found that students did not pay attention to potential readers who would read their writing. This case was evidenced in a way that students tended to use language for the sake of grammar correctness and vocabulary use (Leadership Project, 2011, p. 15; Presentation in the Annual Language Literacy Culture Presentation, April, 2011). Based on the analysis, she claimed that the failure to deliver more meaningful texts was due to the existing ways of learning which focused on discrete language knowledge training. She argued “discrete knowledge and skills do not mean that students will have the understanding to explain, to make interpretations, to empathize other opinions, and to be aware of their limited knowledge” (Leadership Project, 2011, p. 1). For her instructional design, she planned to design an instructional design to teach a narrative text in which the students engaged in “exploring the past experiences and further understand the relevance between their daily life and school context” (Curriculum Unit, 2010; Leadership Project, 2011, p. 1).

The leadership project shows an example of how Chenling maintained her more functional perspective of language and language learning by placing the behaviorist perspective in an insignificant role in learning to use language contextually. She argued that learning language which was decontextualized from a text would not guarantee that the students would have the knowledge of using language. In her opinion, “discrete knowledge and skills do not mean that the
students will have the understanding to explain, to make interpretations, to apply, to have critical eyes, to empathize other opinions” (Leadership Project, 2011, p. 33).

Teaching academic language, instead, as she argued, would attend to contexts, for instance, by conducting the following stages of instruction:

First, think about the goals of the curriculum, the objectives of the curriculum, why the students need to learn vocabulary, writing, or speaking.

Second, think about what kinds of assessment that can show what the students have learned.

Third, what kind of content/activities to arrange to achieve the goals or objectives of the curriculum. (LLC Annual Conference Presentation, 4/29/2011)

Chenling represented in part a teaching and learning cycle informed by SFL/genre-based pedagogy, for example, by including assessment which served to evaluate the extent to which students achieved progress in writing or language practices and the activities or treatment necessary for students to receive for making improvements.

In making claims about the insignificance of the behaviorist perspective, she wrote:

Equipped students with knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical rules cannot guarantee that they will understand how to write because writing needs contexts, which need to consider the audiences, purposes, and language features. Especially for EFL students, they often learn English under decontextualized instruction. They take for granted that learning English is relative with a lot of memorizing efforts and believe that their English knowledge will be accumulated and be competent by doing so. However, just like basketball players, who may know a lot of rules about playing basketball, but being well knowledgeable on these rules does not demonstrate that they are good players until people watch their performances on the court. (Leadership Project, 2011, pp 3 – 4)

She described that teaching EFL based on the traditional approach would train them in a decontextualized use of language because the approach provides learning of vocabulary and rules of using language at the level of memorizing and recognizing. She showed an agreement with the approach to teaching based on
SFL/genre based pedagogy by further associating the approach with a basketball sport to explain that learning would apprentice students to have knowledge of language and use it in real life situations. She drew on Derewianka’s (1990) concept of teaching academic literacy per types of texts, to formulate the purpose of learning language, that is, to enable students to share and enquire information, to express attitudes, to entertain, to argue, to get our needs met, to reflect, to construct ideas, and to order experiences.

However, the instruction in the internship project was influenced by her understanding of the context of students and common practice of teaching writing in Taiwan. Her instruction plan for teaching academic writing was mainly aimed at showing how skillful students would be in using language instead of how they achieve purposes of using language through writing. As shown in an interview below which was conducted after she had finished a teaching internship and writing a report of the teaching experience, she referred to common practice of writing learning and teaching in Taiwan.

3) Chenling : [Mmmm ...] writing I think I taught writing. I think writing is a [...] good practice for them to a [...] language and grammar and so [...] how can I apply the writing?

4) Wawan : So [...] did you have a general picture of how you taught writing?

5) Chenling : Sure [...] I applied the concept from Derewianka about the curriculum cycle [...] so that is a guide for me. I designed a writing course, I included some topics that were familiar with the students, I think in
Taiwan people speak Mandarin, teachers choose the topics, maybe sometimes they are not related with the contexts of the students.

6) Wawan : So did you find that the topics in the curriculum are not related to students' life?

7) Chenling : yeah [...] the topics like “cow” [...] I am wondering why the students should write about a cow.

8) Wawan : okay.

9) Chenling : maybe it's a kind of a metaphor. I think that the weird [...] weird [...] the weirdest topic I [...] that's not [...] Related.

10) Wawan : yah when you saw the topic in the textbook, how did or would you teach it to the students?

11) Chenling : I think [...] if the Taiwanese students learn how to write they are trying to show their language proficiency. It's not about like a [...] you write something because for some purposes like you want to [...] You want to write a letter, you want to make a request or something. I think this part is different. Some of the mmmh [...] writing lesson in Taiwan maybe just about how the students can [...] can use the language or skills, make a [...] (I don’t know) [...] use many offers. These kinds of things maybe, they didn’t talk about the purpose.

(Interview, 5/9/2011)

In providing a description of her teaching practice during her internship, she referred to a common practice of teaching writing in Taiwan to show how students improve some language may be vocabulary and grammar.
6.1.2. Maintaining SFL/genre-based Conception of Grammar to Develop Literacy Education and Conceptualize Diversity in Taiwan

In some courses, Chenling attempted to connect to and develop conceptions of diversity by having it highlighted with SFL/genre-based pedagogy. For example, she revisited a case study of Adam which had been a study to complete her final assignment of the course in SFL/genre-based pedagogy. The revisit of the case study was aimed at providing a sample of how individual differences mattered in providing instruction and how SFL/genre-based pedagogy attended to this concern. Through this overview, she established a connection of the context of students in Taiwan, her understanding of diversity, and academic literacy. Further, the discussion of diversity and academic literacy learning based on SFL/genre-based pedagogy formed her conceptualization of diversity in Taiwan, which, at times influenced a formulation of her instructional plan for actual teaching.

Chenling defined the concept of diversity for the context of students in Taiwan more toward individual sociocultural differences by drawing on literatures which inform diversity especially in the context of education in the United States. She argued that “the schools in Taiwan are not racially diverse, but students still come to school with cultural differences” (Final assignment of Foundations of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education, 2010, p.14). Her conception of grammar turned to highlight into her definition of diversity which was raised in understanding students in the course of Foundations of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education. In the final assignment of this course, she argued that the students should be treated individually in developing their academic literacy by addressing their cultural and linguistic differences instead of training them to
“become a typical product of the standard educational system” (p. 14). Drawing on such an understanding, she planned to teach students by taking into account “students’ cultural identities as an element to develop my curriculum” (p. 15).

Further, she deployed an SFL/genre-based pedagogy teaching and learning cycle to design a teaching learning strategy which addresses students’ linguistic and socio-cultural differences. She argued that the teaching and learning cycle based on SFL/genre pedagogy enabled a context exploration through which it would help build “prior knowledge of students, inclusive of the context of situation and cultural identity” (Final assignment of Foundation of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education, 2010, p. 16). She drew on Cowhey’s argument about the importance of writing practices to relate to real life in an effort to ensure that SFL/genre-based pedagogy attends to writing for purposes served as a functional tool to help writers relate the topics to their real life situations.

As an example of analyzing students individually, Chenling used a case study of Adam to highlight the connection between individual sociocultural backgrounds and their product of writing. She described:

When I read Adam’s writing, I found that his writing structure is completely following Mr. Smith’ steps (the teacher in the class she observed). However, why his writing still exhibits many problems, I felt that he did not realize the purpose of his writing. . . . The function of Adam’s expository should persuade readers to agree with his opinion, “nothing is impossible, if you stick to it.”, but in general, his expository just like narrative did not have the proper grammatical choice to construct an argument. (Final assignment of Foundation of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education, 2010, p. 15)
She included the information to indicate that the choice of genre in narrating a story was influenced by student’s social background which may not have provided him access to the expected genre.

Her concern with the impacts of individuals’ sociocultural backgrounds on writings was expressed when she worked on the analysis of a kindergarten classroom to show how SFL/genre based pedagogy worked for culturally diverse class. She noted,

The class I focused on is at Kindergarten level with some ESL students, where there are only three white students out of fifteen, it is a culturally diverse class, and the teacher is a white female. The lesson I observed is the class learning reading and writing of a narrative story. Through reading the narrative story, the students built up their prior knowledge from the story and exploring the genre moves of the narrative story. Afterwards, the teacher used genre-based pedagogy in terms of orientation, complication, and resolution to guide the whole class to create their own narrative story. As well, the teachers used a lot of teaching strategies such posing questions, repetition, speaking dramatically with intonation, slow pacing, using verbal cues... to scaffold the students’ writing abilities. (Final assignment of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education, 2010, p. 2)

She focused on how each student built knowledge of related topics before being introduced into a narrative writing. The quote preceded her argument about how SFL/genre-based pedagogy attended to individual existing knowledge to put into writings. Differences in individual prior knowledge, as she argued, enabled teachers to decide the actions to scaffold students to create a narrative text. She also appreciated the teacher’s strategy in using a variety of techniques to elicit the students’ existing knowledge as part of the learning and teaching cycle based on SFL/genre pedagogy.

The overview of the teacher being observed was taken into her consideration to understand students individually. She conceptualized diversity by using the case
study of Adam as an individual learner who showed some characteristics as his identify; therefore, his learning could be easily supported. In exploring the case of Adam, she pointed out that a comprehensive description of a child and a text analysis based on SFL/genre based conception of grammar could generate more effective literacy instructional design. At this level of an instructional planning, she attempted to study how Adam, as an inexperienced learner writer, who needed support for academic literacy learning and development should appropriately be apprenticed in his literacy development with regard to his individual description. Different from the focus of the study when she described Adam’s writing over her participation in learning SFL and Martin’s genre in the Fall 2009, in this study she focused on Adam to recognize the embedded features which were different from other students. She covered the following aspects as shown in the table below.

Table 7: Individual Description to Understand Diversity in Support for Academic Literacy Instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus participant</th>
<th>Aspects to describe</th>
<th>Implications for designing English language instruction in Taiwan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adam, a Malaysian immigrant</td>
<td>Physical presence and gestures: e.g., Glasses on his face always slid into the nose. The length of his hair was longer than his ear and eyebrow.</td>
<td>- Consider aspects of learning that gain students’ interests to be considered in a curriculum design;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disposition and temperament: e.g., more excited than usual to read Shakespeare aloud in the class; dramatic body language, facial expression, and voice to show his emotion, especially when he was angry or excited.</td>
<td>- Consider that there is always diversity in a considerably racial homogeneous society like Taiwan in developing a curriculum design;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social relations: e.g., good listener and active learner;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language use: e.g., his first language is Chinese, his parents expect him to speak English more at home</td>
<td>- Reconsider changing a curriculum design due to too much emphasis on students’ academic achievement and little emphasis on the abilities to read and write;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Focus on developing writing instruction which makes the purpose explicit;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chenling provided an example of identifying and recognizing students’ context of culture which would shape how they would write academically. She was convinced that an individual description needed to be recognized as “a guide when I teach writing” (Final assignment of Foundations of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education, 2010, p. p. 16). She included Adam’s physical description in terms of how much gestures she used when communicating and the function of glasses for reading. His act of being in the classroom also gained her attention in describing individuals. In this case, she focused on Adam as an individual who often showed emotion such as when he was excited or sad, and who had interest in literary work. More prominently, she described Adam as an individual who was fluent in his first language and expected by his parents to use English more frequently. From this description, she recognized Adam as having a will to learn academic English which may be influenced by his first language and spoken mode of communication.

Chenling assured that that recognizing all students and their environment helped her choose writing topics relative to their life. She projected the idea to relate to how genre pedagogy followers attempted to deploy a critical approach to using genre based pedagogy (e.g., Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Schleppegrell & O’Halloran, 2011). One of the characteristics of using the genre approach critically is to relate writings with the issues relevant with their life (permeable curriculum). Chenling argued that the quality of writing would improve when the topics were limited to students’ real life. With regard to the functional conception of grammar, she added that “teaching writing should teach students language as a functional tool to further assist them to achieve their living purposes” (p. 16). She drew an
implication which suggested that functional conception of language and language learning be used.

Considering students’ sociocultural backgrounds for designing language instruction was echoed in her analysis of the topic of writing commonly given to middle school students in Taiwan. Her analysis of why the textbook offered the topic of “cow” for writing indicates how she was aware of students’ sociocultural backgrounds which could be made relevant with the topics of writing in the middle school textbook (Interview, 5/9/2011). She thought that the inclusion of “cow” as a topic for writing might or might not be relevant with students’ life. She suggested that if the textbook recommended a topic like “cow”, teachers should think about how it would relate to students’ life. She explained, “the point is why we need to write an essay about a cow ... It may sound like asking for exploration, but we can use some activities for them to understand why they choose. Why these issues are related to the content?” (Interview, 5/9/2011). In this case, she chose to act carefully in deciding whether to include or exclude the topic from the textbook. At this envision stage of planning an instruction, she considered her future potential students in Taiwan in making a decision as to whether to teach or leave it although she mentioned that it was a weird topic. This careful consideration in evaluating the topic may result from her understanding about learning, students’ diverse backgrounds, and content of reading and writing which should be related to their life to bolster their learning and development. In addition, she had developed an understanding of the concept of diversity in a classroom. Diversity was conceptualized as individual sociocultural and historical backgrounds including
races, instead of defining diversity based on races alone, as once previously stated (Interview, 11/30/2009).

6.1.3. Relating the Concept of Scaffolding to the Conception of Learning and Teaching-based on SFL/Genre Pedagogy

This theme is characterized as a tendency to contesting the concept of scaffolding with regard to learning expectation in the context of education in Taiwan and valuing the concept of scaffolding as embedded in an SFL/genre-based pedagogy teaching and learning cycle as a significant approach to enhance success in learning. Since she developed a conception of grammar over her participation in learning SFL/genre-based pedagogy in the Fall 2009, she had been concerned with the concept of scaffolding. In the following years, she made a connection with the concept of scaffolding with a similar concern. The connection was made by raising it as a good value for learning and downgrading its values as an approach to teaching students in the education context in Taiwan.

6.1.3.1. Valuing the Concept of Scaffolding as Embedded in SFL/Genre-based Teaching and Learning Cycle

Chenling valued the concept of scaffolding and its significance for learning by referring to an SFL/genre-based pedagogy teaching and learning cycle. She captured the benefits of scaffolding processes especially as reflected in teacher’s classroom talk in teaching a narrative text. However, the way she proposed the benefits of scaffolding often made her positioning toward the process of scaffolding float between opposing to and agreeing with the scaffolding processes embedded in the stages of SFL/genre-based teaching and learning due to her envisioned local context of classroom. For example, in the final assignment of the Principle of First and
Second Language Learning (2010), she drew on Derewianka’s curriculum cycle about the approach to teaching and learning in four stages: preparation, modeling, joint construction, and independent construction to relate to scaffolding processes. In her conception, the four stages of teaching and learning cycle depicted an apprenticeship toward an authoritative way of creating a text, and served as “a systematic guidance and support until learners are able to carry out the writing task themselves” (p. 3). Additionally, she argued that focusing on such stages of learning is a better alternative approach than pursuing to make the students successful test takers, which was “a form of pressure for most of the teachers” (p. 14). Therefore, scaffolding processes inherent in SFL/genre-based pedagogy which she considered time consuming in learning to read and write was then considered a good way as it might lead teachers to less stressful teaching. She emphasized that “scaffolding is a worthy-recommended teaching strategy ... it is also a valuable opportunity for me to see how the students learned with their different responses and reactions” (Final assignment of the Principle of First and Second Language Learning, 2010, p. 10).

Chenling’s argument for valuing scaffolding was shaped by her analysis of classroom practices. Drawing on a video entitled “The Rumble and a Grumble”, she captured how a teacher applied scaffolding strategies. She underlined the following relational points to her meta-knowledge of SFL/Genre based pedagogy signifying scaffolding strategies. First, based on a transcript analysis, she noticed that scaffolding strategies were related to building knowledge of the field or “building the background knowledge” (Final assignment of the Principle of First and Second Language Learning, 2010, p. 6). In this, “the teacher spoke of an example of the
noisemaker, giving the students ideas to think about how they can use the noisemaker as a solution when the students create their own story”. Part of the teacher’s talk in the classroom which served to build the background knowledge, as quoted by Chenling, was the following:

Transcript #8:

8. Teacher: So she was a little bit nervous about him bringing that into the school (Ian sits down as teacher reaches for the letter and starts to show the class the letter Ian’s mother wrote) and I wanted to call her today, she wrote a big letter and she put her phone number down and I’m going to call her and see if maybe Ian’s sister, older sister, could bring it in, it’s still in the package but we could see what it looks like, ok. She said that it was really just, that noisemakers was really just for adults, not for children. So that’s a noisemaker. (Teacher points to a drawing on the paperboard and explains to the class what may be added to the pictures) There you might like to add characters to your picture, and you might show them using the noisemaker to wake up Annie, ok, you decide, when you do your picture, what you want to add. (Teacher starts to draw on the paperboard), ok, so, what happen after they used the noisemaker?

(Final assignment of the Principle of First and Second Language Learning, 2010, p. 6)

This caption was an example of teacher talk to elicit student knowledge of the field in writing a story. The teacher selected few words to be written on the board and asked the students to decide what to add to the story background. The teacher, as Chenling described, was captured as providing a path for students to get familiar with a narrative text and building background knowledge of the theme of the narrative before modeling students with a chosen narrative text. Another interaction which was considered building background knowledge in the teacher’s classroom talk was related to the use of verbal cues. In teaching a narrative genre, according to Chenling, “the teacher used few sentences to construct a picture which was comprehensible inputs for students to remind the term --- Orientation” (p. 7).
She related to the teacher’s classroom talk as a sample of how orientation in writing a narrative story was built. In her analysis, she put an example of an orientation developed in teacher’s classroom talk:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transcript # 52-56</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>52. Teacher: In the bedroom, ok, it was night time, and remembered all those things were called what? (Points to the word “Orientation” on the paperboard)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53. Student: Orientation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54. Teacher: And then, there was a. inco-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55. Student: Complication. (A student yells out)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56. Teacher: There was a complication, Annie started to snored.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Final assignment of the Principle of First and Second Language Learning, 2010, p. 7).

In this caption, some meta-knowledge of narrative texts appeared in the conversation between the teacher and students, for example, orientation and complication. The teacher proposed a question to collaborate with students in building knowledge of the field.

Second, Chenling reiterated the case of Adam to indicate that scaffolding attended to individual sociocultural diversity which should be taken into consideration in academic literacy learning and development. At this point, she focused on understanding individual diversity by taking Adam’s case as an example.

She recast the following information:

Adam, a thirteen-year-old boy, from Malaysia, immigrated to US with his parents, when he was 8 years old. This year he has been transitioned from an ESL pull out/bilingual program to the inclusion/mainstream program with ELL support, and being followed by the Special Ed department for reading/writing. Now his English is much better than his Chinese. Due to his parent’s low understanding of the English language, he has to translate for them when they go to the doctor, examine the insurance documents and others. Even though he is just a boy. Sometimes, he feels the pressure of dealing with these chores, and feels disappointed when he cannot translate English properly for their parents. He seriously takes this as his
By including the information of Adam, she attempted to show that learners needed to be understood individually to help scaffolding strategies. She attempted to propose the scaffolding strategy for Adam in teaching a narrative genre. She proposed that Adam should be given a good model of a narrative text as he attended to detail and perfection as well as an apprenticeship to recognize the differences between spoken and written language as his English was much better than his Chinese. The information of the individual sociocultural background helped to plan how much instruction should be given in each stage of guiding students to be successful academic literacy learners. She included the sample analysis of individual learner to convince that scaffolding brought positive impacts on student learning. She especially valued the concept of scaffolding inherent in the teaching and learning cycle based on SFL/genre pedagogy which she categorized it into four steps inclusive of exploring the context; modeling the genre knowledge with experts’ writings and reading materials; enhancing the genre knowledge with the teacher’s and peers’ feedback; and finally, working on writing tasks independently (Curriculum Unit, 2010; Leadership Project, 2011).

6.1.3.2. Challenging the Concept of Scaffolding as Embedded in SFL/Genre-based Teaching and Learning Cycle.

Chenling, on the one hand, often doubted about the compatibility of SFL/genre-based pedagogy in a classroom in Taiwan as well as the inherent scaffolding strategies in the teaching and learning cycle. This position was strengthened by the reflections on her trajectory as a language learner and teacher.
in the area. Both future local context and past experiences had socialized her into a
traditional conception of language and language learning, which was applied
without intense scaffolding. For example, in the final project paper for *the Principle
of Second Language Learning and Testing, Assessment, Evaluation* she was
problematizing SFL/genre-based pedagogy which maintained the process of intense
scaffolding to apprentice students in learning to write because she mainly
envisioned a large number of students in classrooms. This reflection on her teaching
and learning experiences and her envisioned future context affected how she set up
a plan for instruction in this transition to actual teaching. One of the reflective
thoughts that shaped her route in developing the concept of learning language is the
belief that “that it seems not possible to teach language by syntax only without
cultural content” (Final Assignment of *the Principle of First and Second Language

Her reflections implies that she realized the insignificance of a syntax-based
learning approach due to lack of cultural content. That is, the approach did not teach
how to use language in contexts. In this sense, she developed a cultural perspective
that highlights policy, and cultural and historical contexts. On the other hand, she
seemed to give up her awareness of including learning of culture to the demands of
the local context for making students good test takers. She realized that her
conception of grammar informed by SFL/genre pedagogy had the potentials to teach
students language use. However, the education system which emphasized discrete
language points influenced parents to pressure teachers to achieve such
incomprehensive goals of language learning. The process which consumed much
time was considered impractical. Thus, she turned to argue that scaffolding was not appropriate with regard to the teaching context in her country. The influence of the envisioned local context of classroom further shaped her instructional plan which was not including scaffolding strategies to improve learning.

More specifically she refers to three reasons for excluding scaffolding strategies as embedded in an SFL/genre-based pedagogy teaching and learning cycle. First, the demand of the local context of classroom for a tight completion of lessons and for a pursuit of the knowledge included in the assessment driven curriculum shaped her positioning toward scaffolding. She described:

For middle schools in Taiwan, for example, each course contains the same teaching schedule and learning goals, so it is common to see teachers prefer monologic teaching in order to catch up with the schedule, if there is not enough time or the schedule is behind, they would want their students to ask them questions after the class so as not to interrupt with their teaching. Scaffolding is good, but how to carry it out in my teaching context (EFL) will still need to be considered cautiously. (Final Assignment of the Principle of First and Second Language Learning, 2010, pp. 14 – 15)

Her belief in scaffolding implies that her SFL informed conception of grammar would not work in her workplace in Taiwan. According to her, the activities like collaboration, joint construction, and peer readings which were adopted from SFL genre pedagogy were indicative of its demand for scaffolding processes. Therefore, avoiding scaffolding could also mean underestimating a more functional perspective of language and language learning. As a result of following the local assessment driven policy and practices, she took a position which tended to be the practitioner of the enforced policy. She elaborated the reasons in the following way:
Students study hard in English in order to get higher grades on their exams, so it makes sense that teachers teach English as a subject mainly and not for the sake of language use for helping students to get better performances on their exams which should be the first priority. In general, from parents' point of views, they will not agree that the teacher is good at English teaching, if he or she cannot lead his or her students to succeed in their exams, which also is a form of pressure for most of the teachers. Scaffolding is a good way to develop students' language proficiency, but it is also time- and energy-consuming which is not a practical and an efficient way to train students to be a good skill tester? or somehow even is a barrier". (Final Assignment of the Principle of First and Second Language Learning, 2010, p. 14)

She reflected her thought of insignificant scaffolding on language teaching practices which focused on language use in good syntactical structures to achieve high grades in the exam. Based on this case, scaffolding toward the use of language in real life was considered an inefficient teaching strategy to train students to be good test takers (Final assignment of the Foundations of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education, 2010; Final Assignment of the Principle of First and Second Language Learning, 2010; Final Assignment of Test, Assessment, and Evaluation, 2010).

Second, as a result of having conflicts about the significance of scaffolding based on SFL/genre based pedagogy and the demands of the local context of classroom, she seemed to seek for other strategies of scaffolding. For example, in her project, entitled “the transcript analysis – scaffolding teaching strategy in the kindergarten context”, she looked into a Springfield public school magnet program. She observed a context of classroom in which students were grouped by ages: 3 – 6 years old, 6 – 9 years old, 9 – 12 years old, and 12 – 14 years old. She looked into the population of the school in which the majority of white teachers served diverse groups of students. Hispanic group was the majority of classroom population. In her
study, she focused on an ESL kindergarten group learning a narrative text. She observed a focus teacher scaffolding a kindergarten group in learning to read and write. In discussing a scaffolding process of the classroom she had observed, she explained how the focus teacher conducted a scaffolding such as “the teacher explored students’ knowledge on ‘noisemaker’” (Final Assignment of the Principle of First and Second Language Learning, 2010, p. 9) and the focus teacher motivated the students by saying “I know you’ll do a better picture” (p. 7). Some other examples of the teacher’s scaffolding related to the way in which the focus teacher helped build students’ narrative text which was not supported by a genre approach. For example, the focus teacher used a question strategy to build a narrative text instead of following an SFL/based genre teaching and learning cycle.

The teacher used hierarchical questions to construct students’ answers, and all the questions are simplified so that the students can find out the answers easily. Based on the question the students just answered, they can grow their current knowledge to step out to the next question (Final Assignment of the Principle of First and Second Language Learning, 2010, p. 9).

In her evaluation, such a strategy was considered more efficient than SFL/genre-teaching and learning curriculum cycle. In this sense, she did not point out the significance of an expert text as a model and an analysis of the text as a basis for developing an effective text. Her conception of grammar which could potentially support her proposed genre strategy were not explicitly stated. However, while appreciating the focus teacher’s scaffolding strategy, she confirmed that “such a scaffolding strategy clarified my understanding of each scaffolding instruction, guiding me to apply these strategies on my future teaching appropriately” (p. 11). In this case, instead of relating to SFL/based-genre perspective in scaffolding the
students, she focused on how the questions were made by the teacher in guiding the students. She hinted that she would scaffold students with similar questions without relating to SFL/genre-based teaching and learning cycle in which questions could be used to build students’ knowledge of the field, to have students answer guiding questions about an expert text, and to evaluate students’ understanding of how to build a text stage by stage. Her impression about how the teacher delivered the questions is stated below:

I was impressed that the teacher used different types of questions to lead the whole class into a discussion which makes me realize how questions can build up students’ knowledge in hierarchical levels, such as using guiding questions to explore or create students’ prior knowledge, posing questions to examine students’ comprehension or draw their attention back to the class, and asking questions to inspire students’ learning motivation. (Final assignment of *the Principle of First and Second Language Learning*, 2010, p. 12)

Third, Chenling reflected on a more specific observation of the local context of students to identify the urgent need of instruction for students, which may avoid the concept of modeling from SFL/genre based pedagogy. As found out later in an interview (10//2011), the urgent need of the instruction in Taiwan classroom was to motivate students in learning English as well as to bolster their skills in reading and listening. As described in the quote above, Chenling captured the connection of scaffolding and SFL/genre-based pedagogy in defining the concept of modeling. However, although she appreciated the idea of scaffolding as embedded in SFL/genre-based conception of language learning, she envisioned the infeasibility to conduct such scaffolding in her future workplace. In an interview, she described,

21) Wawan: Do you mean a modeling is one way to help students with low capacity in writing?
22) Chenling: yaaaaah [...] it’s a kind of scaffolding. Scaffolding can be like one by one interaction but I think in the kind of classroom it is impossible, for modeling that you can like [...] perform modeling in front of the whole class. So maybe most of the students will understand for the first time and you can do the second time of modeling for the other students who still have problems [...] so modeling and the [...] I think providing rubrics is really good because rubrics show different gaps, so students will know where they are. I think in Taiwan it is not popular to provide the rubrics, the students, I don’t know why [...] 

23) Wawan: is that because the assessment is usually given in the form of multiple choice, completion?

24) Chenling: yeah something like that [...] the other thing is that even they need to do the project or a test I think teachers will not provide the rubrics. I know [...] They just kind are not used to doing that. I think providing rubrics is just kind of clear for students to know teachers’ expectations. If they want to get A, they know what kinds of things to achieve. After that teachers will give them the grades. So they know where they are. So this kinds of rubrics provide them. (Interview, 5/9/2011)

The interview shows that Chenling conceptualized modeling with reference to rubrics to understand the extent to which students have achieved learning and will have to be followed up by other interventions (Interview; 5/9/2011; Final
assignment of Test, Assessment, & Evaluation, 2010). However, she envisioned that she will not afford to apply learning activities through intense scaffolding due to the prevailing teaching and learning practices which focused on developing reading and listening skills through the teaching of some aspects of grammar and vocabulary (Final assignment of the Foundations of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education, 2010; Final Assignment of the Principle of First and Second Language Learning, 2010; Final Assignment of Test, Assessment, and Evaluation, 2011).

In short, she had come to grip with an amount of understanding of the concept of scaffolding, and the value of scaffolding inherent in SFL/genre-based conception of language learning. However, the demands of the local and institutional context of English education constrained her from applying intense scaffolding especially as embedded in the SFL/genre-based teaching and learning cycle because writing, as she realized, was not included in the core English language curriculum. For example, she was able to observe that teachers often misconceptualized scaffolding strategy and their teaching strategy often ended up rescuing (Final assignment of Test, Assessment, & Evaluation, 2011). Chenling explained:

Scaffolding is based on students, but rescue is trying to like correct the student knowledge. When you are trying to explore the student knowledge, so what you are trying to do is a scaffolding. But if you find that the students don’t do actively to respond to your questions, so maybe you just talk and teach them about a lesson. It’s not a kind of scaffolding. That could be a rescue. Even you at the beginning are trying to do the scaffolding but you do a rescue without realizing it. So scaffolding is very hard to apply (Interview, 5/9/2011)

Her explanation shows that she was able to relate the concept of scaffolding, SFL/genre-based curriculum cycle, and the concept of rescue to extend her conception of scaffolding. She explained that rescue is a concept to provide students
correct answers, guidance to learn lessons as instructed, and directions for classroom activities. In making a contrast to the concept of scaffolding, she explained that scaffolding is not merely giving instruction but also paying attention to the students’ individual knowledge to develop further. Although she realized the significance of scaffolding and less significance of rescue strategy in teaching, she remained pessimistic of the application of the scaffolding concept in her local context of classroom.

6.1.4. Using SFL/genre Knowledge as a Tool of Analysis to Evaluate Students’ Writings

In addition to relating SFL/genre based conception of language learning to other pedagogical concepts such as scaffolding and equity in education, Chenling used the social conception of language learning as a solution to students’ problems in learning language academically by making use of the conception as a tool of a critical analysis of texts and contexts from which she drew an implication for future instructional practices.

The course in *Foundation of Bilingual ESL Multilingual Education* is a setting in which she worked on a project to instantiate how a more functional conception of grammar was used as a tool of analysis. She put the word “critical” as the title of the paper project to indicate that SFL/genre-based pedagogy could potentially be used as a critical lens. She took a case study in a suburban regional middle school in New England, a school near the university where she was participating in the MATESOL program. She focused on 8th grade students learning English language arts. She reused the data for the completion of her final assignment in the course in Halliday’s SFL and Martin’s genre theory in the Fall 2009, that is, about an ELL Malaysian who
immigrated to the United States in a transition from an ESL pull-out/bilingual program to the inclusion/mainstream program to show how the conception of grammar was used as a tool of analysis (see Table 8).

Table 8: Using SFL/Genre - based Conception of Language and Language Learning as a Tool of Analysis to Support Implications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Purpose of Analysis</th>
<th>Implications</th>
<th>Courses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Purposes in writing         | • Knowledge of genre: identify ineffective schematic structure of text to achieve the purpose of writing –  
   • The focus students lack conventional ways of writing a narrative genre  
   • Knowledge of register: lack of common registers to construct an expository essay | • Refer to Derewianka’s “Curriculum Cycle (Derewianka, 1990, p.6-p.9)” including four stages (preparation, modeling, joint construction, and independent construction of the text) will be regard as a guide when I teach writing (pp. 15 – 16)  
   - Set up a modeling as a crucial phase in learning to write a text;  
   - Plan to follow up the teaching of genre moves with common linguistic features of a text;  
   - linking words, verbs, descriptive words, dialogs, and time tense | Foundation of Bilingual ESL Multilingual Education, 2010 Teaching of Reading and Writing for Content and Language |
| Context exploration        | Developing knowledge of the field: student, teacher, school including “context of situation and cultural identity” (p. 15) | Teaching writing should teach students to regard language as a functional tool to further assist them to achieve their living purposes.                                                                                                   |                                                                        |

The table above indicates that she used SFL/genre based concept of grammar to analyze the student’s main problem in writing and to set up an instructional plan based on the identified problems. She found two main problems. First, the student’s writing did not achieve the purpose of writing as assigned because it did not show the conventional patterns to achieve the purpose. Second, the student showed
limited vocabulary which was assumed as lack of knowledge of the field. Based on these findings, she set up an instructional plan which focused on developing the most urgent register variables as the analysis revealed, that is, developing the field. The analysis shows that she made sense of her knowledge of grammar and academic literacy learning and development. In her description, she wrote some descriptive examples which could have been bases for formulating what conceptions of grammar afforded to improve language learning and development. In her evaluative description of a focus student text, she could have stretched to further explanation of the significance of other register variable analysis which could simultaneously improve his academic writing.

The use of her functional conception of grammar as a tool of analysis was more dominantly found in the final project of the course in *Teaching of Reading and Writing for Content and Language* in the Fall 2010. Chenling focused on a narrative in the 9th grade EFL students in Taiwan. Based on her reflection on the use of a more behaviorist conception of grammar and student’s text generated by the instruction, she argued that students needed to address purposes of writing under the framework of genre because “genre -based writing can be culturally responsive pedagogy and further improve the EFL writing context in Taiwan” (*Teaching of Reading and Writing for Content and Language*, 2010, p. 2). Based on the result of diagnostic analysis of the 9th grader’s narrative writing, she described a plan of teaching a narrative text by deploying SFL/genre pedagogy to improve students’ narrative texts. She included purposes, audiences, and structures of a text as the first consideration in improving the students’ texts.
In addition, she used her functional conception of language and language learning to underline the contexts in which the student needed to build awareness of using language. She focused on building awareness of spoken and written language as described in her finding below.

Chinese unlike his second language, English, can not only be used for spoken language, but also can be used for academic environments. To some extent, English is a tool to develop his literacy. On the one hand, with no difference, he can speak English as fluent as the other native students. However, the language feature of academic writing he organized is similar with his spoken language which is necessary for further improvement. (the Foundation of Bilingual ESL Multilingual Education, 2010, p. 6)

She indicated that although the focal student was both competent in the first spoken and written language, the student needed improvement in English especially in terms of appropriately using it in spoken versus written contexts. In this case, she addressed the role of SFL/genre based conception as the knowledge of language that facilitates the building of awareness of language differences in various contexts including the language of schooling versus the language outside of schools, spoken versus written language. She elaborated that the school could be a cultural site in which students were pulled in to achieve linguistic levels which should show more academic features, more markedly formal register and more control of genre. In an expansive way, she drew on Dyson’s (1993) argument about writing as a social practice for achieving different functional purposes and define the purposes as genres.

Based on the analysis of the narrative texts as illustrated in two paper projects, Chenling proposed several implications for future teaching. First, she referenced Derewianka’s (1990) curriculum cycle to suggest the instructional
process of writing. She articulated the stages into “preparation, modeling, joint construction, and independent construction of the text” (Final assignment of the Foundation of Bilingual ESL Multilingual Education, 2010, p. 16). The meaning of “critical” was not specifically defined in this study. However, the use of genre and register analysis in this course seemed to indicate that it was critically urgent to support the student writing improvement as she recommended. Second, drawing on this perspective, she more specifically referred to modeling as a crucial phase in learning to write a text as it would help students understand a genre move of a narrative writing. Modeling was also highly recommended in following up the result of student writing evaluation using the rubric informed by genre and register concept (Final assignment of Test, Assessment, & Evaluation, 2011). In her further suggestion for implications, she emphasized that the analysis of genre move should be proceeded by highlighting linguistic features of the text model which included “linking words, verbs, descriptive words, dialogs, and time tense” (Final assignment of the Foundation of Bilingual ESL Multilingual Education, 2010, p. 12). In elaborating some implications, she often hybridized meta-language from functional perspective with some of the meta-language from the traditional perspective of language. For example, she included an emphasis on tenses and mentioned process types to refer to verbs and circumstances to adverbs. In another example of analysis, Chenling used the meta-language such as “past tense” to mark a student’s sentence: “I learn some read English skills”, plural to mark “some English school”, and “modifier” to mark “I very worry about English this class” (Leadership Project, 2011, p. 16). Despite mixed metalanguage in conceptualizing academic literacy instruction,
she made an effort in incorporating stages of teaching and learning cycle from SFL/genre-based pedagogy perspective.

6.2. Summary

This chapter explores Chenling’s conception of grammar in a transition to actual teaching and in one year of teaching experience. Over the courses she participated in the teacher education program, she made connections of the pedagogical concepts in the courses with SFL/genre based conception of grammar. In making connections, she extends the concept of teaching and learning to significant issues in education such as multicultural education, diversity in classroom, and scaffolding. Focusing on the teaching of a narrative genre, Chenling revisited a case study for the course in Halliday’s SFL and Martin’s genre theory and made connections of the results of analysis with the issues and topics of the courses she attended.

More specifically, over the courses in the teacher education program, she highlighted the connections with SFL/genre based conception of grammar. First, she described the student's narrative writing as lack of sequences of events, complications, complication, meaningful clauses to the fact that students have been trained by the Behaviorist perspective of language and language learning, which puts writing practice out of the learning objectives. Second, she attempted to connect to and develop conceptions of diversity by having it highlighted with SFL/genre-based pedagogy. The revisit of the case study was aimed at providing a sample of how individual differences mattered in providing instruction and how SFL/genre-based pedagogy could accommodate individual diversity in a classroom.
Through this overview, she established a connection of the context of students in Taiwan and defined diversity more about sociocultural than racial differences. Third, she described the concept of scaffolding from SFL/genre based perspective as the main principle in second language learning. Evaluating the concept of scaffolding as embedded in SFL/genre based teaching and learning cycles results in both promising and discouraging description of the application of this pedagogical concept in her future classroom. It is promising as SFL/genre based perspective does not underestimate details of phases in apprenticing students to write academically. It is discouraging because of the large number of students in a classroom that may require individual scaffolding and because the assessment policy requires students to have knowledge of language forms at a sentence level rather than meanings at a discourse level. Fourth, she used SFL/genre based conception of language learning as a solution to students’ problems in learning language academically by making use of the conception as a tool of a critical analysis of texts and contexts from which she drew an implication for future instructional practices.
CHAPTER 7

CONCEPTIONS OF GRAMMAR IN INSTRUCTIONAL PLANS AND PRACTICES

7.1. Designing an Instructional Plan based on Genre and Register Conceptions

More prominent inclusion of SFL/genre based pedagogy into an instructional design appeared in the design of a curriculum unit (Final Assignment of Practicum, 2010) to be applied in a summer internship. As a follow-up of the application of the curriculum unit, the use of SFL/genre based conception of grammar was reapplied in a leadership project (Final Assignment of Leadership Project, 2011), as a final requirement for completing a master’s degree in ESL/Bilingual education. The leadership project consisted of an analysis of the teaching practice as well as curricular unit. In the projects she used a genre analytical strategy to evaluate the students' improvement in writing and the process of teaching using SFL/Genre-based pedagogy.

In the two final assignments, Chenling maintained the statement of the problem in learning language in Taiwan and showed the long existing traditional perspective of grammar which had been a prevailing approach to EFL learning in Taiwan. Taking up SFL/genre-based pedagogy was motivated by a will of change from language learning practices by “drilling the use of certain patterns of language, memorizing of vocabulary, and sentence structure” (Final assignment of Leadership Project, 2010, p. 1). The teaching of academic literacy in the context of Taiwan using SFL/genre-based pedagogy was believed to yield some advantages for students. First, Chenling identified that the exclusion of writing academically in secondary levels of education had blocked the opportunity for students to experience formal
practices in using language. Realizing this, she chose the teaching of a narrative
genre “to open their writing experiences” (Final assignment of Curriculum Unit,
2010, p. 4). Second, by including academic literacy teaching, Chenling aimed at
developing awareness among students of the differences between meaning makings
in academic language in schools and everyday language. She believed that teaching a
narrative genre would help students “to explore their past experiences and further
understand the relevance between daily life and school context” (Final Assignment
of Leadership Project, 2010, p.1). The teaching of a narrative genre was also
believed to “enable the students to learn other high stake genres in a more relevant
way” (Final assignment of Leadership Project, 2010, p. 2). Chenling drew on Knapp
and Watkins’ (2005) concepts of learning and teaching to write to reveal the
significance of writing instruction for EFL students, that is, more specifically “to
write in a language other than their first language (L1)” (p. 2), which had been
challenging for EFL learners.

More specifically, each of the course assignment which was focused on
developing a functional conception of grammar and its instructional design shows
two kinds of knowledge development: First, genre and register knowledge, and
second, rubrics developed by genre and register knowledge.

7.1.1. Developing Knowledge-based Instructional Design: Capturing Genre
and Register Knowledge Relation in an Instructional Design

This part provides a portrait of Chenling’s application of the genre and
register knowledge to design instruction and apply in for a summer internship
project in Taiwan in 2010. In this case, Chenling developed an instructional design
to teach a narrative text. She designed pre-writing activities to capture students’
existing knowledge of genre in writing by following a modeling strategy based on
SFL/genre-based pedagogy. For example, she planned to hold discussions in the
class with guiding questions. She more specifically focused on connecting words
commonly used in a narrative genre to help students organize their writing. To
improve the students’ knowledge of genre, she focused on modeling in which
students should learn from an expert text regarding common genre moves in a
narrative text such as getting students familiar with language in elaborating an
orientation, sequencing events, and writing a resolution. She focused on providing a
sample of how an orientation in a narrative text differed from writing comments
which appeared in most of students’ writings. In this modeling phase, she conducted
pre-writing activities, discussed the common moves of the expert narrative text,
organized peer editing activities (see Table 9).

Table 9: Chenling’s Conception of Grammar and Design of Instruction:
Curriculum Design Course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Application/inclusion/use of Conception/knowledge of Grammar</th>
<th>Instructional Design</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Genre</td>
<td>Focus on basic elements of fiction (characters, dialog, setting, plot with a clear resolution) (p. 4). Drawing on goals of writing established in Massachusetts English language Arts curriculum.</td>
<td>Design a curriculum focusing on clear focus of writing, coherent organization, and sufficient detail (p. 4); Prepare the published text: “I hate English” to teach writing; Design modelling: identify common genre knowledge of a narrative text from the published text: “I hate English”;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and learning cycle</td>
<td>Include teaching and learning cycle based on SFL/genre-based pedagogy;</td>
<td>Design a phase of joint construction in teaching to develop an understanding of writing a narrative genre among the students “working with peers and class discussions, so each of them is able to develop their own writing as the final result (p. 2);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authentic language practice</td>
<td>Focus on genre moves to help the students write a text by exploring their personal experiences;</td>
<td>Design instruction to help students write a narrative about their English learning experiences by focusing on genre moves (orientation, sequences of events, complication, and resolution); readers; either first person or third person; appropriate words to appeal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language at a discourse level</td>
<td>Include knowledge of language at a discourse level and as patterns of meanings</td>
<td>Design instruction which helps the students to compare a narrative structure between the students and experts’ writings; to focus on purposes, audiences, and structure (p. 10); to work with students’ writings in several drafts (p. 12); to work on their third draft based on teacher’s feedback on the checklist (p. 14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on reading</td>
<td>Focus on genre moves of a narrative text;</td>
<td>Design instruction to help the students complete the reading questions sheets to enhance an understanding of genre moves in a narrative text; edit their writing through peer works based on the rubrics; revise their writing based on teacher and peer’s feedback.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose and stages of writing</td>
<td>Focus on writing a text as having social purposes achieved through stages.</td>
<td>Design instruction which explores the features of a narrative genre focusing on purposes, genre moves, coherent organization, sufficient detail;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Register</td>
<td>Focus on the common features of register variables in writing a narrative text</td>
<td>Design instruction to help the students understand: 1st person and 3rd person voice; the past tense of the verbs, whether regular or irregular, among the required 2000-word bank; conjunctions, adverbs, and phrases to connect the sentences; verbs or adjectives to activate their characters’ English learning experiences; coherent details in the writings (theme/rheme); expressions to describe the events, the shift of their feeling about English learning, and the influence of English learning experiences (p. 9).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Register</td>
<td>Focus on the need for improving register choices based on pre-writing samples</td>
<td>Design instruction focusing on developing students in using linking words, which make the story fluent; verbs, which can specifically present how the characters acted, felt, and thought; descriptive words, which can create the image of readers’ mind; dialogues, which will focus on the format and the time tense; and time tense and explain the reason why in some situation the time tense will change to other than past tense; linking words (p. 11);</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table shows, Chenling included her knowledge of functional conception of grammar in terms of genre and register into a curriculum design. She focused on some aspects related to her understanding of genre and register. Her instructional design shows an attempt to facilitate students with knowledge of lexico-grammatical meanings in a narrative text framed in terms of genre and register. In addition to incorporating the main concepts: genre and register from SFL/genre perspective, she alluded to some aspects which were embedded in the application of the pedagogical concept.
Mainly she focused on developing the students' knowledge of genre comprising common genre moves in a narrative text. The instructional design was developed from an understanding of language as a source for making meanings when activated in a text. Then, Chenling stretched her understanding of language into the conception which explains that a meaningful text should consist of common elements where people usually do to achieve the purpose of writing. She argued that a narrative genre should “include basic elements of fiction (characters, dialog, setting, plot with a clear resolution)” (Final assignment of *Curriculum Unit*, 2010, p. 4). In this planning, she made essential the purpose of writing; genre moves consisting of orientation, sequences of events, complication and resolution; the 1st and 3rd person involved; and words to attract readers' attention.

Due to lack of reference for teaching a narrative genre in EFL contexts, Chenling drew the features of text that students should know on the Massachusetts English Language Arts curriculum framework considered as “The big idea of the writing unit” (Final assignment of *Curriculum Unit*, 2010, p. 3). Drawing on the goals of writing established in the Massachusetts English language Arts curriculum was influenced by the difficulty in finding “a reference of the common goals of writing in Taiwan” (Interview, 11/30/2009). It could have also been influenced by a heavy emphasis on K-12 education when she participated in learning SFL/genre-based pedagogy over 14 weeks in the Fall 2009. Despite no reference in Taiwan for teaching a narrative genre, she ensured the significance of learning a narrative text for being a high stake genre in all levels of education and contexts of education. Drawing on the English Language Development (ELD) standards in the California
Department of Education, she claimed that a narrative genre “should be developed in each grade no matter if it’s K1, where students have yet to reach the level of understanding of writing, or K12, where they should have already grasped the idea of narrative genre, the importance of narrative genre is evident (Final assignment of Curriculum Unit, 2010, pp. 3-4). More specifically for the purpose of developing a curriculum unit in Taiwan, she quoted the standard English conventions for students’ writing, revising, and editing for grades 7 – 8 by referring to the Massachusetts curriculum standard in the following way:

--- Grades 7-8: Use knowledge of types of sentences (simple, compound, complex), correct mechanics (comma after introductory structures), correct usage (pronoun reference), sentence structure (complete sentences, properly placed modifiers), and standard English spelling when writing and editing.
--- Grades 7-8: Organize information into a coherent essay or report with a thesis statement in the introduction, transition sentences to link paragraphs, and a conclusion. (Curriculum Unit, 2010, p. 3)

Her description was an adaptation of the Massachusetts curriculum standard into the context of literacy education in Taiwan. The standard was chosen and framed under the SFL/genre-pedagogical conceptions in terms of the teaching of genre and register.

In applying knowledge of register, she incorporated her conception of language learning which indicated that the instruction of register revolved around what was needed in time of learning a narrative genre while trying to incorporate some aspects as demanded in the national curriculum. For example, on the one hand, she designed instruction which was aimed at helping students employ “time tense reasonably in the writings; verbs in past tense correctly; 1st or 3rd person voice in their writings; coherent details in the writings (theme/rheme); expressions
to describe the events, the shift of their feeling about English learning, and the influence of English learning experiences (p. 9); on the other hand, she included “regular or irregular verbs among the required 2000-word bank” (p. 9) as enforced by the policy of Ministry of Education in Taiwan which required “students graduated from elementary school to have memorized 1000 words and 2000 words by the time they graduated from middle school (Final assignment of Curriculum Unit, 2010, p. 3). However, the focus on developing register based on students’ pre-writing is more prominent such as the emphasis on “conjunctions, adverbs, and phrases to connect the sentences; sentence structures; verbs or adjectives to activate their characters’ English learning experiences” (p. 9).

Chenling’s knowledge of genre and register shaped an instructional design for the EFL context in Taiwan which supported students in learning academic English. The reasons for employing SFL/Genre-based pedagogy was related to her understanding of language learning which she had been developing since she participated in learning SFL and Martin’s genre theory in the Fall 2009. At this time, she recast how she shifted her understanding from the traditional perspective of grammar into a more functional perspective of language learning. In her reiteration, she wrote:

I attempt to take a different perspective to develop an English writing unit to support ninth grade EFL (English as Foreign Language) Taiwanese students who have little learning experiences of writing an English text before. By the end of the unit, students will complete their own narrative of writing their English language experiences with their interests and experiences. (Final assignment of Curriculum Unit, 2010, p. 1)

In addition to including genre and register concepts into her instructional plan, she addressed two prominent concepts embedded in SFL/genre-based
pedagogy. First, she related SFL/genre-based pedagogy to authentic language practice. In this instructional plan, she focused on developing students’ writing in genre moves of a narrative text in terms of orientation, sequences of events, complication, and resolution (Final assignment of *Curriculum Unit*, p. 8). The instructional design which focused on developing a narrative text was believed to bring personal experiences into writing. She emphasized the purpose of writing by focusing on whom students would write the narrative to and the choice of participants in developing characters in terms of “first person or third person” (p 8) to be coherently included in writing. Second, she created a rubric to evaluate students’ writing which was developed from classroom activities. The rubric evaluated the extent to which students develop “orientation, sequences of events, complication, and resolution from *I Hate English* as part of reading comprehension activities. *I Hate English* is a book narrating a story about an immigrant child from Hong Kong in New York City’s China town where she felt comfortable because people spoke Chinese. However, she found that in her school people spoke English. Fearing that she would lose her Chinese language and identity, she did not want to learn English despite her good capability in learning English until her teacher could convinced her that she could be bilingual. In addition, based on the book, the rubric evaluated students’ development by asking them to complete a sheet of questions related to “orientation, sequences or events, complication, and resolution” (*Curriculum Unit*, 2010, p. 7). Students would share the rubric to gain feedback from their peers and teacher.
Overall, Chenling attempted to use her functional conception of language learning to develop students in making meanings across discourse features. As she wrote in her curriculum unit. “I found that teaching and learning English as a foreign language always seems like a series of drill practices, which emphasizes on a lot of repetition in order to help students to memorize vocabularies, usage, and grammar” (Final assignment of Curriculum Unit, 2010, p. 1). She also argued that teaching a discrete knowledge of grammar was considered no longer efficient to support students’ language learning and development because, as she claimed, “language learning is a cultural phenomenon, which cannot be developed through teaching discrete knowledge alone” (Final assignment of Curriculum Unit, 2010, p. 1). Thus this curriculum unit reflected her understanding of language as a cultural phenomenon by focusing on teaching a narrative genre. She claimed that the cultural practices were reflected in a narrative writing which explored “students’ language experiences and interests” (Final assignment of Curriculum Unit, 2010, p. 1).

Chenling showed how her conception of grammar informed by SFL and genre theory were put into an instructional design. The table below summarizes the conception that she had developed and the instructional design drawn from the developed conception of grammar.

Table 10: An Instructional Plan Based on Knowledge of Genre and Register – A Leadership Project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conceptions of Grammar</th>
<th>Instructional Design</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of genre: Elaborate the purpose of including the narrative genre for the purpose of teaching and learning as to &quot;use rhetorical techniques to construct stories&quot;</td>
<td>Teach the students based on what they need to improve in their academic writing; Clarify to the students their learning outcomes; Show the evidence of their weakness in academic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This leadership project reported a teaching internship in Taiwan. This internship experience provides a picture of how she was able to manage SFL/genre-based conception of grammar to teach writing and how she drew a reflection on her study which may change her conceptions of grammar in the future. The inclusion of knowledge of more functional perspective of language and language learning in the leadership project was more related to what was applied in practice as planned in the curriculum unit in the previous table.

As shown in the table, Chenling reported what she applied in the summer internship. She approached the teaching strategy of improving students’ academic writing by focusing on the genre of narrative text as planned in the curriculum unit. She focused on facilitating students in understanding the purpose of writing a narrative, that is, to inspire readers through real life experiences. This focus had
been motivated by the fact that students always missed an explicit purpose of using language (see Final assignment of Curriculum unit, 2010; Final assignment of The Principle of First and Second Language Learning, 2010; Teaching of Reading and Writing for Content and Language, 2010; the Foundation of Bilingual ESL Multilingual Education, 2010). By relating to life experiences in writing a narrative text, she assumed that students would gain understanding of how writing becomes purposeful. She focused on two key concepts in SFL/genre-based pedagogy: genre and register. She explored many classroom activities such as listening to the audio tape, reading, learning from an expert text, and collaborating to create a text. Then, she developed students’ register knowledge based on what students urgently needed to improve. The choice of the register variables in the instruction was informed by her evaluation on students’ pre-writings.

Chenling focused on three main activities to support her teaching internship practice which focused on developing students’ knowledge of genre and register for writing a narrative text. First, she attempted to revisit an English curriculum design and use SFL/genre pedagogy to support writing instruction in the middle school. The revisit of the writing curriculum was conducted by collecting students’ writings as samples for a diagnostic analysis. Second, she analyzed students’ writings using the conception of SFL/genre-based knowledge as a tool of analysis to find out some aspects in the writings which needed improvement. Third, adapting from Hyland’s (2004) features of academic writing, she set up a focus of instruction on developing “content, composing processes, textual forms, language patterns to accomplish coherent and purposeful writings” (Internship Project Report, 2011, p. 3). She also
addressed the concept of scaffolding, which she discussed in *the Principle of Second Language Learning* as her instruction strategies. She related the concept of scaffolding to Derewianka’s (1990) *curriculum cycle*: building knowledge of the field, over instruction, joint construction, and independent construction of a text. The teaching of writing was intended to develop students’ coherent, well organized, clear writings.

Further, Chenling showed how her analytical functional perspective of language learning was applied to evaluate students’ writings as part of the implementation of the curriculum unit into the actual teaching in her internship.

### 7.1.2. Using SFL/Genre based-Conception of Grammar as Rubrics to Evaluate Students’ Writings

In the leadership project report, Chenling included a plan for conducting an instructional practice and an approach to evaluating students’ improvement in writing. The table below shows the analytical lens that she used to evaluate students’ writing improvement based on SFL and genre concept.

**Table 11: Evaluation of Student’s Writings and Further Recommendation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is evaluated</th>
<th>Result of Analysis</th>
<th>Recommendation for future use of Genre pedagogy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improvements</td>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>SFL/Genre-based Pedagogy teaching and learning cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre:</td>
<td>Improvement in the students’ writing structure; “most of the students have clear and properly developed genre moves in their narratives. Orientation is the most capable move for students, where they are able to add major or minor characters and events cohesively” (p. 29);</td>
<td>Limitations: Notice very limited sequences of events, no complication, and incoherent resolution. Some clauses are not able to express valid meanings (p. 14); No clear genre moves (p. 16); poor organization of a narrative text (p. 16); limited complication (p. 19); Lack of connections between genre moves (p. 19); lack of coherence in developing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Register:</td>
<td>The students used variety of moods in constructing meanings. For example, Chenling noticed that &quot;the student used interrogative clause (Don’t you surprised?) to give readers a second to pause a while for thinking instead of keeping reading, and she also used imperative clause (... and don’t forget learning English is a long way) to advise readers&quot; (p. 32). Limitation: &quot;the students are not good at choosing a verbal process to precisely describe how people say such as, nag, warn, argue, ... even though they have learned these words already&quot; (p. 33). Students master vocabulary beyond recognition</td>
<td>Limitations: Dominant first person narrator (p. 14); Uncommon negative polarity in making meaning (p. 14; 20); uncommon use of modifier (p. 16); uncommon places of register in making meanings, e.g., teacher was good me thod come teach, after wards teacher slowly teach me, lot me take I can’t English learned society, even can’t in that way pain, English also ration past good a lot of&quot; (p. 20; 22) linking/connecting words are not used in many writings (p. 34)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, the leadership project appeared to recast and reemphasize her position with regard to the pertaining practice of language learning in Taiwan and the promises that SFL/genre-based pedagogy can offer. She put forward the arguments based on the analysis of students' writings and the consideration of the students - 6 year participation in learning some aspects of sentences in school such as subject – verb agreement, past tense, plurality, and determiner (Final assignment of Leadership Project, 2011, p. 30). She revealed some findings based on the analysis using the concept of genre and register to evaluate students' writings.

The first finding revealed some limitations and improvements framed within the concept of genre, on which suggested future teaching was drawn. She noticed that some of the students of grade 7 in Taiwan where she conducted an internship
teaching were still incapable of writing a proper narrative genre. She found that the students had very limited understanding of how to construct meaningful clauses that affected how meaning of the whole text was made. The meaning of the whole text, as Chenling argued, was affected by unclear genre moves due to lack of connecting words, limited elaboration of the aspects of a narrative genre more specifically in narrating complications. Therefore, the meanings of the event looked vague. These limitations overtopped students’ improvements in writings which mostly showed clear meanings in writing orientations. Chenling made sense of lack of students’ improvements in writings by arguing that students had been influenced by the assessment driven curriculum. The implementation of the curriculum excluded writing courses and emphasized meaning makings at a sentence level. She described, “these students more or less know the concept of writing a correct sentence in English, but they do not practice a lot, since they don’t have a formal English writing program and multiple choice is the only type of assessments to measure progress” (p. 31). She added that students’ limitations in writings were affected by learning practices through sentence translations as “the most common practice for them, and they are assumed to be able to translate the separate, isolated sentence without giving the context” (p. 31). She argued that students would become confused and perhaps floundering in writing because they could not transform well their discrete knowledge on each sentence into an authentic writing context (Final assignment of Leadership Project, 2011, p. 31; Final assignment of Test, Assessment & Evaluation, 2011).
The second finding revealed some limitations and improvements framed within the concept of register. The limitations of students’ writings related to how register choices made meanings, including the use of negative polarity, modifier, and participants in the narrative writing. Even though students had learned English for years, they had problems in choosing verbal processes to describe how and what participants in the story say, act, or argue. Despite such limitations, Chenling found some improvements in students’ writings, for example, the inclusion of a variety of moods. Students were able to use interrogative moods to initiate conversations and imperative moods to create dynamic conversations. Chenling suggested that lack of making sense in using the choices of register variables was due to lack of instruction which focused on modeling including how text was constructed. She emphasized, “students know the words but they do not understand how to use them” (Final assignment of Leadership Project, 2011, p. 30; Final assignment of Test, Assessment & Evaluation, 2011). She recast the problems when evaluating students’ writings in 2011 as students’ limited English proficiency due to the existing culture of learning in Taiwan which valued result more than process of learning. Understanding that learning vocabulary was one of the key aspects to learning language, she summarized this problem as students’ incapability to construct meanings at a discourse level. Further, she reflected students’ limitations in using register variables on their learning culture which was focused on learning the meanings of words at the level of recognition through translating from the first language.
To highlight the result of the evaluation of students’ writings, Chenling drew on Brook and Brook (1993) regarding how traditional learning usually unfolded. She highlighted that learning language from the traditional perspective of language and learning tended to break a whole into parts and then focused separately on each part. Such a practice, as she argued, led students to fail to build concepts and skills from part to whole. The argument was supported by the fact that her students knew verbs to express verbal processes despite repeating the same words such as “say, talk, tell, and ask”, but they were unable to describe what and how people usually express ideas in writing (p. 33). Based on such an analysis, she focused on identifying register commonly used in a narrative genre in a modeling phase. She combined the learning of genre and register which appeared to focus more on learning the schematic structure of a narrative text.

In addition, the evaluation on students’ writings was informed by her analysis of the existing curriculum. She argued that the national curriculum contributed to a translation technique of learning English in which “translation sentences in either English or Mandarin is the most common practice for them, and they are assumed to be able to translate the separate, isolated sentence without giving the context” (p. 31). She further related her argument to learning practices which stayed away from making meanings at a discourse level, but emphasized recognition of words through translation practices. She made a connection with the existing learning practices in Taiwan by stretching her argument to the Behaviorist concept of writing which potentially created problems in making meanings. She provided an illustration of learning practices in which there was “too much
emphasis on drill-practices instructions to train students to be good test takers. As such, as she argued, had misled students to limited learning of “individual words, sentence isolation, and empty conventions” (Leadership Project, 2011, p. 35).

Reflecting on the problems of student’ writings, Chenling proposed SFL/genre-based pedagogy for future approach to instruction in the context of language education and assessment system in Taiwan. She argued that this pedagogical concept “provides an opportunity in the EFL context in Taiwan to look at “how language enables us to do things – to share information, to enquire, to express attitudes, to entertain, to argue, to get out needs met, to reflect, to construct ideas, to order our experience and make sense of the world” (Final assignment of Leadership Project, 2010, pp. 35). To achieve such an ideal learning, she proposed more emphasis on making rubric as one of the learning cultures to measure the extent to which students have learned and to what extent students could achieve more improvements (Final assignment of Test, Assessment & Evaluation, 2011). She recommended, “assessment should focus more on how to improve students’ learning further, such as providing appropriate challenge to motivate students’ learning, or finding the gap between students’ cognition and curriculum so as to provide teachers with the right direction to scaffold students’ learning” (Final assignment of Test, Assessment & Evaluation, 2011, p. 6). Such a recommendation highlights her rebuttal statements against the national requirement for passing the levels of education which contributed to students’ poor writing skills. She explained that language learning in Taiwan had always referenced vocabulary and grammar learning enforced by two assessment systems: the Basic Competence Test (BCT) and
General English Proficiency Test (GEPT), the terms adopted in the English curriculum in Taiwan, which focused on developing students’ ability in recognizing numbers of vocabulary. Those two tests served as the main gates for students to have access to a good high school level by passing them and to employment as many agencies often relied on the test to measure individual general English proficiency. Middle school students should pass the GEPT to officially show their English proficiency although the tests require a number of words out of the contexts of use at a discourse level. She noticed that “there are 1000 required words for the elementary level, 2000 for the middle school, and 4000 for high school. For top high school students, they should be equipped with 7000 words” (Leadership Project, 2011, p. 10). Those two tests played a crucial role in determining students’ success in English language learning and in general education, but as she argued, limited “the ability to function effectively in the target language is in real-life contexts (p. 10). In addition, the assessments were arguably in contrast with the essence of language learning as stated below:

English courses will equip students with basic English communication abilities in authentic contexts, cultivate students’ interests and personalized experiences in English learning in order to improve their English learning in an efficient way, and increase students’ awareness of the differences between their own culture and foreign cultures that will enable them to respect and accept the cultural diversity (Leadership Project, 2011, p. 8).

The statements reflect her ideal conception of language learning in Taiwan, which drew connection between the concept of SFL/genre-based language learning, the conception of diversity in the context of Taiwan, and learning authenticity as she put in the final assignment of some MATESOL courses (e.g., Testing, assessment and
evaluation in LLC, 2011; Foundations of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education, 2010; Teaching Reading & Writing at the Secondary Level/Curriculum Unit, 2010).

In this leadership project, Chenling reported her own teaching practice using SFL/genre based pedagogy to support the learning of language in considerably real life contexts (see Table 12).

Table 12: Summary of English Teaching in the Internship Project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>What happened in the class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>June 7th</td>
<td>1. Introduction of the unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:30 - 16:00</td>
<td>2. Prewriting --- English learning experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Discussing about the common moves of a narrative text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Reading the book, I hate English,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 10th</td>
<td>1. Completing the reading guiding questions sheet (see Appendix D).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:30 - 16:00</td>
<td>2. Confirming the answers of reading guiding questions sheet with the whole class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Reading the expert writing (see Appendix F).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Discussing reading comprehension in a small group in terms of orientation,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sequences of events, complication, and resolution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Presenting discussing answers on the blackboard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 11th</td>
<td>1. Reviewing the genre moves of a narrative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:30 - 16:00</td>
<td>2. Independent work: complete genre move development sheet (see Appendix E).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Peering editing: provide some feedback and questionings on peer’s genre move development sheet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Highlighting the word choices (conjunction, verb) of the model text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Reviewing the linking words the students have learned and may use in the following writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 14th</td>
<td>1. Completing the narrative of writing about their English learning experiences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:30 - 15:00</td>
<td>2. Typing their writing and attaching it via email to the teacher.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Final assignment of Leadership Project, 2010, pp. 10 – 11)

The table above indicates that Chenling’s instruction addressed some main stages with regard to SFL/genre-based pedagogy. She made use of the available audio media to elicit students’ knowledge of narrative writing and to explore to extent to which students had been familiar with a narrative genre. The stages of the instruction represented the teaching and learning cycle based on SFL/genre-based pedagogy. In some places, she focused on the urgent need for developing register
variables such as conjunction or verb. In some other places she focused on developing students’ understanding of genre moves through the guided reading and discussion.

Despite no enforcement to apply an analytical conception of grammar in some courses above, she initiated to incorporate it into some courses to highlight the conceptualization of individually diverse sociocultural background (e.g., Foundations of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education courses, 2010; Principles of First and Second Language Learning & Teaching, 2010), to address the issue of scaffolding (Foundations of Bilingual, ESL, and Multicultural Education, 2010; Principles of First and Second Language Learning & Teaching, 2010; Leadership Project, 2011), to plan an instruction and apply it in a teaching practicum (Curriculum Unit, 2010; Leadership Project, 2011). The reasons for visiting, revisiting, loading and reloading her functional conception of grammar were mainly motivated by the following reasons. First, she learned SFL/genre-based pedagogy in a larger amount of knowledge than other pedagogical knowledge from other courses. In an interview (1/24/2010), she explained, “I think for masters degree we don’t have a chance to learn so many things, like I learn constructivism from other courses very little, but I learned SFL from two courses, so I think I have better knowledge about SFL than other knowledge”. Second, she was convinced about the practicality of SFL/genre-based conception of language and language learning for EFL learning and teaching. In an interview (1/24/2010 & 5/16/2010), she said, “But I think the theory is really practical, yes ... yes, I think I spent a lot of time on readings so I have more sense of all these, so I think this is the only thing that I can
do to teach writing parts”. Third, in responding to the context of EFL instruction in Taiwan, she brought up a more functional perspective of language and language learning to teach writing because she believed that academic writing instruction would bring positive impacts on students’ language learning and development. In responding to the prevailing language instruction, she explained, “the first one I don’t know we need to like, can I just teach the students to have a four paragraph essay because if you do that just because of the traditional way, they cannot like [. .] their writing may not work on cohesion and they can’t never think of their audience. [. .] I think key word is a strategy (Interview, 5/16/2010). Additionally, the concept of writing instruction from SFL/genre-based pedagogy perspective had gained her interest in building ideas for writing and had made her turn to be motivated to write. She described:

When I was a student I don’t like to do the writings because every time when I saw the topic I have no idea mhhh but after I studied the SFL, I thought it was related to the culture. Do you know what I mean? Culture is not part of ehhh American culture or British culture, it means if a teacher gives us a topic they don’t tell me to explore the knowledge, or I don’t know how to explore the knowledge but you can tell me how to create it. I think it’s very important for the teaching ... for me to think that if the students cannot have any idea to write, how can I help them? It’s nothing to do with English capability, but to have this knowledge. (Interview, 5/16/2010)

However, as she often reflected on her language learning in the past and envisioned the future context of classroom, she used this reflection and envision to weigh the feasibility of applying a more functional perspective of language and language learning. She noticed the challenges of including academic writing instruction in her future classroom. The challenges often overweigh the feasibility of using her developed functional conception of language and language learning. In an
interview in the aftermath of her teaching practicum, she tended to hybridize traditional and functional conceptions of language and language learning.

37) Wawan: well any perspective of grammar? Do you need traditional grammar or functional grammar for Taiwan context of English language education?

38) Chenling: I think both. The traditional grammar has functions. That will be great if the students have some basic knowledge of traditional grammar, then they start to learn how to write in English, and then they start writing, if they stumble in problems, you can use the problems to scaffold them, the knowledge on this part.

(Interview, 5/9/2011).

She appeared to put values on the behaviorist perspective as the basic grammar knowledge to start to learn to write. In the following section, Chenling elaborated more challenges which would drive her to decide either a more functional or traditional perspective of language and language learning.

7.2. Challenges in Applying SFL/Genre-based Conception of Language Learning

Although Chenling designed an instruction based on SFL/genre-based pedagogy and applied it in the teaching practicum, the challenges of applying it in her future actual teaching became a point at which she shifted her conception of grammar into a more behaviorist perspective. The envisioned challenges in applying SFL/genre-based conception of grammar also resulted from her reflection on her life trajectory as an English teacher and learner. The challenges of using SFL/genre-
based pedagogy were manifested in her discussion about using it over the final assignment of the courses and in conversations.

7.2.1. The Challenges of the Envisioned Context of Classrooms

Chenling found two main challenges in applying a more functional conception of language and language learning in her future context of teaching in Taiwan. As indicated in a dialog below, the two main challenges refers to the assessment system which rewards knowledge of discrete language aspects and the exclusion of writing practices in schools.

59) Wawan : So what is the appropriate conception of grammar for Taiwanese students?

60) Chenling : Of course, traditional grammar because you see the high stake assessment only has multiple choice form. And the other thing I am thinking about is that writing, when the students do the writing, they are very careful about the correctness of the vocabulary and grammar usage, so but when I [...] I think when I read the students' articles, I would think about or confused about what the meanings they are trying to say. I sometimes ignore the vocabulary choice and grammar in the first place when reading them. They too much focus on correctness and forget how to express the meanings. So when I do the analysis on their writing, I would focus on the meaning.

61) Wawan : Will you find a space where you can apply SFL in Taiwanese middle school?
Chenling: Of course, if we have a writing course I would integrate SFL [...] At least, before I learn SFL I didn’t know how to teach writing, I would teach the students very strict English structures, I think in Taiwan we have one kind of genre, I think it is not common in America. I don’t know how to say this. Like in English a high stake genre is like a narrative, so it has a very clear purpose. But the other one kind of genre that Taiwanese students need to learn is like a poem but it is not poem. We are trying to write things to show our language skills, to make the language beautiful.

(Interview, 5/9/2011)

The two main reasons for shifting her conceptions of grammar into a more traditional perspective one are that the assessment system in the context of education in Taiwan requires students’ mastery of discrete language items and that writing is not included in the English language curriculum. There was writing practice which focused on forms of language instead of meanings. Chenling called it “English like a poem” (Interview, 5/9/2011). The students practiced writing to show that their English was well sounded such as by having some rhyming sounds. Their writing was only a vehicle to use vocabulary for non-purposeful activities. Then Chenling convinced that she would design an instruction based on the functional perspective of language and language learning if writing were a required skill.

The envisioned future local context shaped how she developed an instructional design. For example, she chose to apply SFL/genre-based pedagogy to
provide support for students in learning English in Taiwan for her internship teaching over the summer 2010. In the classroom, as stated in her paper, she observed that the students had been accustomed to a series of drilling practices and vocabulary memorizing. Such a condition had motivated her to use a different approach to language learning which facilitated students in making meanings at a discourse level. Therefore, she applied this approach in the summer internship project. She used the book *I Hate English* as a resource for teaching to write a narrative genre to Junior High School students (Grades 7 – 9) in Matsu Taiwan. On the one hand, she succeeded in diagnosing students’ writing problems and recommended a future teaching approach to bolster students’ academic literacy learning and development. On the other hand, she found that applying the functional conception of grammar had turned out to be challenging especially with regard to the institutional demands.

Some challenges had been identified even before she conducted the teaching practicum. For example, in planning to conduct an internship, she expressed a dilemma:

> We don’t have any writing or composition course in high school, you know that. I think it depends on test. There is no making sentence test for students, maybe the test is a multiple choices, read articles and make sentences (Interview, 4/20/2010).

One of the most challenging situation about applying SFL/genre-based pedagogy was with regard to the school practices which did not support writing courses as manifested in the conversation below:

23) Wawan : what about if students want to write an email well or write a letter of request and […]?
24) Chenling: I think it is not possible. English is only possible inside school, outside is impossible.

25) Wawan: So how do you plan to teach English later when you go back to your country?

26) Chenling: (in a prompt response) Give students some knowledge and train the students to do good at test. That is the most important thing. The highest score the students get. We always base on the test. If they have good grades they can get into good school. I will focus on teaching reading.

27) Wawan: (in an enthusiastic way) So what are the students' activities?

28) Chenling: (in a prompt response) According to the reading test, there is a present perfect, and we teach present perfect, and some collocation such as both [...] and [...], either [...] or [...] I need to improve speaking ability because it is important for doing business. Speaking ability is coming out to show the person can use English.

29) Wawan: What is the most important skill to improve in language learning?

30) Chenling: Reading. How to read you must know vocabulary. Even though I know how to write in a TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) class, we can write in a simple paragraph, the introduction, body, and conclusion to echo your thesis statement.

31) Wawan: So knowing there is not enough room to teach writing, do you still want to teach writing in your internship project?
32) Chenling: Emmm I am not sure, the first one, I am not sure if it is okay, but in the class (course in SFL) I saw the student use the book to teach writing, to do the writing first before I teach everything. So I wanna see their writings and emmm and then I start to teach, I will use the SFL, but I still have a problem for this. I learned a lot of theories but I don’t know how to, you know [...] but I think this is very useful. But I think the theory is really practical. Yah yah I think I spent a lot of time to the readings so I have more sense of all these. So I think this is the only thing that I can do to teach writing parts.

(Interview, 4/20/2010)

From the conversation, she was faced with a prominent dilemma situation, that is, she believed that teaching writing with SFL was going to challenge the mainstream of language teaching which had been committed to training students to succeed in discrete grammar oriented tests. However, she acknowledged that SFL conception of grammar had been the only tangibly applicable pedagogical knowledge of teaching writing that she had gained and been prepared for teaching EFL. SFL/genre-based pedagogy was considered practical but impossible to apply in the context of education. This situation had been reiterated in her internship paper framed in the assumption about teaching in the context of education in Taiwan. She observed,

It is common to observe teaching and learning English as a foreign language (EFL) in terms of series of drill practices, which emphasizes on a lot of repetition and knowledge transmission in order to enhance students’ memory of vocabularies and grammar usage. (Internship Project Report, 2011, p. 1)
Chenling believed that there were corollaries of the enforced English language education policy. If the policy suggested that recognition of vocabulary and grammar points to complete sentences were to be evaluated, the instruction would need to be based on the traditional perspective of language and language learning. She asserted that language learning informed by the functional perspective of grammar had no place in her future classroom because “English is only possible inside school, writing outside the classroom is impossible (Interview, 4/15/2010). Following such an understanding of English language practices and policy, she proposed that she would design instruction which was focused on language learning to train students to be successful test takers. The tests, as Chenling described, were evaluating students’ English grammar at a sentence level, which was often given in multiple choice forms. Chenling recommended that English instruction should:

Give students some knowledge and train the students to do good in tests. That is the most important thing. The highest score the students get. We always base on the test. If they have good grades they can get into good school. I will focus on teaching reading. (Interview, 4/15/2010)

The challenge unfolded due to a conflict of intending to apply the functional perspective of language in an unexpected socio-political context as projected by the educational and language policy. As a way of negotiating with the enforced policy, she paved a way of using SFL/genre-based conception of language learning by focusing on the teaching of reading. In this case, she could have deployed her analytical conception of grammar for teaching reading. Instead, she proposed classroom activities in actual teaching situations in the following way:

According to the reading test, there is a present perfect, and we teach present perfect, and some collocation such as both [...] and [...] either ... or ... I need to improve speaking ability because it is important for doing business.
Speaking ability is coming out to show the person can use English. Maybe [hesitating] the first one is bringing the book that helps, and the second one I found for the other reading is you can use a five minute movie, that relates to their life, after they watch the movie they can construct their knowledge. And you can also use a conversation. The conversation will help you to have these ideas or this knowledge [ ... ] I just wanted to improve myself in all aspects. (Interview, 4/15/2010)

In the interview, she tended to make herself a teacher with multi-perspectives from which she could make choices of the perspectives to apply with regard to the imposed assessment system in the local context. For example, the interview reveals how she attempted to manage herself enable to teach English from the traditional grammar perspective in which the teaching of parts of sentences decontextualized from a text is dominant such as the teaching of tenses, conjugations, and word collocation. The tendency to apply a conception of grammar from the traditional perspective of language learning was also motivated by the demands of the local context for English speaking ability. In this case, academic writing was detached from the core content of the curriculum. Therefore, applying the functional perspective of language learning to support academic literacy instruction was not calling her attention because writing which was tightly related to the functional conception of grammar was not needed and, thus, speaking skill was thought to require another approach to learning it.

7.3. A Conception of Grammar in an Actual Teaching Situation: Dominant Roles of a Textbook.

Upon completing her MATESOL, Chenling returned to Taiwan. In September 2011, she began teaching in the same middle school in Matsu Taiwan as she taught before she was admitted in the MATESOL program in the United States. She had been familiar with the institution and the teachers working in the school. After a
month of teaching, she confirmed that she did not teach academic writing (Email exchanges, 10/12/2011). Such a decision gave me a pre-given assumption that she did not and would not use SFL/genre-based pedagogy although there were some possibilities to deploy her functional conception of grammar or genre knowledge in carrying out instruction to improve reading skills or spoken English. She said “of course, but not much” to describe that she approached her instruction with her functional perspective of language and language learning (Email exchange, 3/10/2012) when I required an explicit answer if she still was attached to the knowledge developed over her participation in MATESOL program. However, the following information gave me more assurance about how she conducted an EFL instruction in Taiwan:

I follow the textbook in terms of warm-up, vocabulary, dialogue, focus sentence pattern (oral practice), reading, listening exercise. I will prepare assessments in terms of vocabulary, recite the dialogue and reading, and one general examination of the whole unit. I have to finish the textbook at the end of the semester. For each semester, we will have three term examinations of each subject. They are kinds of major assessments in our school which are similar to other schools in Taiwan. (Email exchange, 10/12/2011)

The choice of a textbook drove her to reemploy her behaviorist conception of language and language learning. There are two main crucial ensuing instructional practices in her one year teaching experience as a result of taking up a collegially agreed textbook. First, the textbook guided her to make a decision about what and how to teach. As she reported, the selected textbook became the main curriculum that informed the chapter-based lessons she had to cover in 21 weeks including textbook-based content assessments. Second, in addition to a whole instruction in one year of her actual teaching, the selected textbook shaped how she positioned
herself with regard to her MATESOL-based pedagogical knowledge in part informed by a more functional perspective of grammar to support academic literacy learning and development.

7.3.1. Teaching Practice by Following an Institutionally and Collegially Suggested Textbook

Chenling chose the book for grade 7 based on her colleagues’ decision about which textbook was considered the best to use. She informed that the textbook will not be changed unless there is a big argument among the teachers in the school (Email exchange, 3/10/2010). For grade 7, the teachers chose “iEnglish for 7th grade”. She informed that “at the end of each semester, my colleagues and I will have a meeting to decide which version of textbooks to use in the following semester ... we would share our experiences on different textbooks, and do the best choice for incoming students” (Email exchange, 8/2012). As she began teaching in 2011 upon completion of her masters degree in the United States, she relied the decision to choose a textbook on her colleagues. The textbook mainly shaped her instructional practices which further drew her into EFL classroom practices heavily informed by the behaviorist perspective of language and language learning. Although the school gave teachers flexibility on the approach to instructional practices (Email exchange, 8/2012), the textbook, which was selected on the basis of a consensus among the teachers in the school brought significant impacts on how Chenling prepared and implemented EFL instruction.

The chosen textbook consists of topics indicating an emphasis upon spoken language and meaning makings at a sentence level. For example, the title for each chapter of the book seems to be picked up from a catchy expression in a chapter:
“what’s the date today?”, “How much sugar do you need?”, “My cat can catch a ball”, “what’s the weather like today?”, “don’t touch the picture”, “What day is it?” Each of the chapters has subheadings indicating an emphasis on patterned expressions at a sentence level. The subheadings are arranged in the same patterns across the book consisting of sentence pattern, grammar point, function, fun with English, and comics. The titles of the topics represent the focus of the classroom activities which mainly emphasize vocabulary learning and translation into Mandarin, spoken communication in dialogs, and grammar exercises (See Figure 7).

Figure 7: Topics in ESL Instruction

As seen from the page, the activities in the book are designed to support students’ mastery in expressing language in correct grammatical patterns and orders. Some patterns of grammar that are put in an example of expressions are reinforced in fill-in the blank exercises. The students are expected to fill in the
blanks with the focus of grammar of the chapter, such as, using “to be” auxiliary to express questions or provide answers to the questions.

Each chapter is supplemented with pictures which are designed to support students to express some spoken language. At this level, students are expected to speak one sentence, for example, “she is my cousin”, “he is my father”. The exercises that support the language focus is to enable students to speak a grammatically correct sentence. Language use in this particular case of the chapter is limited to understanding and recognizing vocabulary around classrooms, family, or food. The chapter with a picture below shows an example of learning vocabulary about people around us/family.

Figure 8: Vocabulary Learning
Each chapter also consists of samples of dialogs to enforce students to learn vocabulary and sentence patterns. The words in the bold provide students with examples of how to use them in an expression in a dialog. In preparing and implementing instruction, as Chenling reported, she focused on teaching how to use the targeted vocabulary, common expressions, and grammar aspects in the sentence. She taught the meanings of vocabulary, the rules of expressing the vocabulary with the focus grammar of the chapter, and some structured expressions to support the main emphasis of EFL, namely, reading, speaking, and listening (Email exchange, December 2011). One of the pages of the book (see Figure 9) is an example of how it shaped Chenling’s design of her instruction.

Figure 9: A Focus of Instructional Designs
Chenling realized that following a textbook affected how she attempted to achieve goals in teaching because the chosen textbook served as a lesson plan, a syllabus, and an assessment guide. She attempted to have conformity about what to teach students with other teachers who had been teaching in the school for years (Email exchange, 2012). Otherwise, she would be considered staying away from the institutional goal. She also tended to be in solidarity with the mainstream teachers and prevailing instructional practices in the school. For example, when she was invited to make a presentation in front of her colleagues in an honor of her comeback from the United States, she was picky in deciding a topic for her presentation (Email exchange, 4/27/2012). Instead of presenting what she had learned from the MATESOL program which was in part informed by SFL/genre-based pedagogy as I suggested in conversations through emails, she preferred presenting about random topics with respect for her colleagues’ expectations. She said that her presentation was “a kind of picky” (Email exchange, 4/27/2012). With no further description of the meaning of “picky” for her presentation, it is suggested that her institutional demands and collegial expectation of the presentation was not about teaching academic literacy or SFL. She tended to avoid providing an explanation of the picky choice. From this, she appeared not to afford to be at odds with the perspective of her colleagues and the middle school institution in Taiwan, including what and how to teach.

In addition, each chapter of the textbook provides Mandarin translation for some of the language points. The inclusion of Mandarin shaped how Chenling provided instruction. The Mandarin translation is used for the title of the grammar
points and some of the directions to do exercises in each chapter of the book. Using this selected textbook, she focused on teaching grammar instead of the language use itself. As the textbook modeled lesson delivery, she did not attempt to introduce students with meta-language as the names for the technical terms in grammar are given in Mandarin such as for verbs, nouns, and pronouns. Some directions for doing the tasks in the textbook are also translated into Mandarin with or without the English words for them. In effect, she used 90% Mandarin and 10% English in her EFL instruction (Email exchange, 4/27/2012). She admitted that she explained the rules of sentence construction such as the use of “to be” auxiliary verb, “adjectives” and “Verb” in Mandarin which cannot avoid translation process from English to Mandarin for the meaning of the targeted vocabulary. The 10% English instruction was allotted for mostly providing examples, reading, and acting out communicative rehearsals to possible real life situations in spoken English. The reasons for using more Mandarin than English, according to Chenling, was to avoid misunderstanding among the students in grade 7 and 8 due to lack of English knowledge. To avoid misunderstanding of the instruction regarding the rules of language use and the common patterns of language in sentences, she used Mandarin (Email exchange. 8/15/2012). More specifically, she explained:

I had tried to use English at the beginning of the semester and my students seemed always like confused. Some of them lost their patience when they kept showing their face “I don’t get it”, which also made me need to repeat more often ... and I also delayed my tight schedule. The gap between each student’s English proficiency is large. So I would say speaking whole English teaching is not recommended because of the limited time and students’ ability differences. (Email exchange, 8/15/2012)
In this case, Chenling used Mandarin to provide students with more clarity of the meaning of English words and rules of language use. It's due to her understanding of the students' minimum English knowledge for comprehending spoken English that made her give up using English as a language of instruction. Like her colleagues, Chenling believed that most of the students of grade 7 and 8 were not ready to receive instruction in English. She confirmed, “There is a lot of confusion among students” (Email exchange, 8/15/2012).

Although Chenling did not explicitly describe how communication took place in classrooms either for formal or informal classroom settings, students and she talked in Mandarin. This practice affected the whole learning process which focused mainly on reading, listening, and speaking. She described, “as for speaking which will be focusing on pronunciation of vocabulary, and reading aloud texts in textbooks ... writing is about writing a sentence of translation in both English-Chinese or Chinese-English” (Email exchange, 8/15/2012) to portray what she routinely facilitated her students. The teaching of speaking was focused on improving her students’ pronunciation to avoid miscommunication (Email exchange, 8/15/2012). Pronunciation practice also took place in reading aloud. At this grade, she taught her students to increase their knowledge of vocabulary for which the meanings were presented in their local language. Mandarin also played a role in sentence by sentence translation which was aimed at supporting the students' reading skills in terms of vocabulary learning and development.
The page provides an example of language learning practices which support translation method. There are some parts of the chapter which use Mandarin translation. The meta-language to describe the function of language such as verb, adjectives, or adverbs is translated into Mandarin. The Mandarin translation also applies to all directions for students to work on exercises. The availability of translation suggests that the book facilitated students to avoid from any possible confusion among them about what to do with some activities in the book. The approach of the book affected how Chenling provided instruction which showed only 10% of English use in the classroom.
7.3.2. **Excluding Academic Writing Course in the Curriculum**

Chenling took a positioning with regard to EFL teaching practices based on what her colleagues and institutions needed to improve students’ English. The message from the institution and colleagues was manifested in the choice of the textbook as a consensus determined before the semester began. The decision mainly shaped her classroom practices which addressed a tiny little writing instruction at a sentence level. This practice has set aside her functional perspective of language and language learning, which focuses on writing at a discourse level.

In an interview through email exchanges, Chenling explained her teaching practice briefly by responding to each of my proposed questions. She provided the answers below my questions in replying to my email.

5) Wawan : Do your students use English for academic writing? If yes, can you give examples of what they learn? Do they learn to write a story, for a text, or for a particular subject matter (e.g., writing for science)?

6) Chenling : Sorry for the part. The answer is no.

7) Wawan : If your students don't use English for writing, what are they learning English for?

8) Chenling : pass exams and involve them in the culture of English such as English songs, reading a comic book, short stories to introduce cultural differences, watching and listening videos and audios for listening and also introducing some signs which I took from Toronto such as "yard sale", "50% off", "Mother sale"..... to help them have more understanding and knowledge of "English speaking" culture, and I
will want them to have a role play in English at the end of the semester. Reading is a big part in my lesson plan. I don’t want them to learn English in a small piece, like word by word or sentence by sentence, but I prefer to teach them to have an understanding of contexts. (Email exchange, 3/10/2012)

Academic literacy learning such as reading and writing across the curricular subjects is not included in her instructional design and practices. Despite her enthusiasm to teach reading by including contexts which may include contexts at a textual level, she had no intention to teach writing. The main objectives of her teaching are related to an effort to have students pass exams and improve their speaking skills by recognizing how people in English speaking countries manage their spoken communications.

Further, she explained that she taught her class based on the standard of curriculum in Taiwan and based on what she mentioned as “my knowledge of English teaching” (Email exchange, 3/10/2012). She tended to provide the answer to the question as to what informed her the way she taught in a general sense such as “knowledge of English teaching”, indicating that she may be aligned with SFL/genre pedagogical knowledge or other pedagogical knowledge from other perspectives such as the behaviorist perspective. With regard to pedagogical knowledge for teaching academic writing, she took the positioning toward academic writing differently from the time when she participated in the MATESOL program. In her actual teaching, she was informed by her understanding of the students of grade 7 and 8 in Taiwan.
For English program, I expect that every student can learn no matter what level of English proficiency they have. In middle school, it is important to inspire student’s learning motivation. Teaching English should not be as a subject. Helping students to understand learning English is helpful and fun. Especially not to hold many strict examinations to decrease their learning interests. In Taiwan, students need to learn English from k1 to K12 even to university. Many students choose to give up learning English which is the worst part for me (Email exchange, 10/12/2011).

Chenling shared the above information which indicates that motivating students to learn English is the top priority. She manifested her observation of students in Taiwan in approaching her students in grade 7. In her teaching, she tried to create fun learning classroom environments and minimize pressuring learning activities for her students. The textbook suggests having fun in learning through spoken language. Across the chapters of the book, the idea of fun learning rested in pronunciation practices and spoken communication exercises, for example, through tongue twister drills and learning to communicate through pictorial comics. The focus of this book corresponded with the result of her observation of the students’ need. In her observation, “the most difficult part for them is speaking, it is common that students know the spelling of words, but can’t have right pronunciation, they are not willing to say English. No confidence is also the reason I believed (Email exchange, 3/10/2012). Her instruction was determined by two factors: the need for improving the students’ speaking skills and the need for having interesting classroom activities. Her instruction, as a result, focused on spelling, pronunciation drills and games, and samples of considerably interesting dialogs in pictorial comics.

Learning with fun (see figure 11) is an effort to increase students’ interest in English. Chenling had identified the need for increasing students’ motivation in learning English since she conducted a teaching practicum in 2010 through a
teaching internship as part of the MATESOL program. She echoed this case in an interview reflecting what she did and will do in actual teaching.

68) Wawan: So what is the purpose of learning English?

69) Chenling: I think the purpose of the learning in a middle school is to increase the student learning motivation to upgrade their interest in English and help them to respect different cultures help them have global perspective. So the assessment in this case help them. Do you know why? Because the assessment in the school level is not hard compared to the other subjects. Many students could have gained higher scores in English. I think many teachers and students realize this part in learning English, so in the class we usually do a lot of things to the curriculum because it is too easy especially for students with high English proficiency. So I don’t think the students receive much pressure in English test. Why their English is not good? I think it is because they don’t have interest. So they have a lower score and their score worse and worse. That’s my observation (Interview, 5/9/2011).

Chenling put forward the information with regard to the need for improving students’ motivation in learning English before she graduated from the MATESOL program. She identified that the students’ achievements based on the results of assessments were not satisfactory even though the tests were considered very easy. The students with good proficiency in English could have better scores. As there was no pressure on the assessments, she identified that lack of motivation was the main
reason for showing unsatisfactory test results. Therefore, she supported the lessons in a textbook which was designed to motivate students in learning English (see Figure 11).

Figure 11: Fun English Learning in the Textbook

To keep the students highly motivated in learning English, Chenling described a model of assessments in her classroom in the following way:

My assessment is based on two parts. One is how positive my students are as learners, such paying attention to the class, being more active learning in the class, and studying hard for their assignments and handing them on time. For this part, it is more teacher-centered assessment. The other is based on their grades of paper-n-pen assessments. The proportion of the second part is higher about 60% of their academic performance in the whole semester. (Email exchange, 12/8/2012)

As indicated in her description, she conducted assessments of students’ class participation by including evaluations of students’ appraisals toward learning of English. This kind of assessment is to evaluate learning processes which may or may
not project to success in learning. As also confirmed in the previous email exchange (5/9/2011), the second kind of assessment is related to the lessons as arranged and selected in the chosen textbook. This is to measure students’ understanding of the lessons as presented in the textbook through completion, sentence writing, and answering questions. Students presented their work on paper as evidence for their ability in listening, reading, and speaking. Therefore, speaking was not considered the primary focus of her instruction because there was no assessment to measure students’ fluency in speaking. As she described further, “speaking will be focused on pronunciation of vocabulary, and reading aloud texts in the textbook” (Email exchange, 12/8/2012). The evaluation of the speaking skills was often included in the first type of assessment.

Chenling tended to arrange and implement instruction informed by the Behaviorist perspective of language and language learning, and putting aside the focus on academic learning and development. She had sensed this approach to teaching EFL in Taiwan when she envisioned possible teaching approach during her participation in the MATESOL program. She explained that she followed the stages of teaching as they were in the textbook (Email exchange, 10/5/2011). The possible teaching practices to reflect the textbook may relate to drilling exercises for pronunciation, pronunciation modeling through reading aloud, role playing of dialogs, and grammar exercises in the form of completion. She admitted that the most pressuring work is to show parents their children’s great achievement at grammar tests (Interview, 1/24/2010). To conform with the assessment, some possible activities in the classroom may relate to grammar exercises and practices
using a focus grammar such as preposition, verb changes, and adverbs in sentences.

As reflected in the textbook, the students were introduced with some spoken expressions to stay in a good fit for certain dialogs such as “nice to meet you too”, “how are you doing?”, “you are welcome” and other various expressions as displayed on some pages in the textbook. The cultures of saying those expressions and other common phrases such as “yard sale” (Email exchange, 12/8/2012) in an English speaking countries were given in an attempt to integrate the teaching of speaking and culture.

Figure 12: Reading and Writing Instruction

Giving a top priority to motivating students to learn English made learning to write academically limited to a sentence level with a translation from either English to Mandarin or vice versa (Email exchange, 8/15/2012). Reading and writing practices were used as a vehicle to practice constructing a sentence more
grammatically and use vocabulary accordingly to make meanings at a sentence level. Figure 12 shows an example of how the textbook focused on learning to write.

Figure 12 describes that learning to write is related to disconnected stretches of words. The students are expected to respond to questions with phrases and complete sentences. Such a teaching approach is in harmony with the institutional consensus which agrees not to teach writing in grades 7 and 8. She reported, “we regard academic writing as an advanced English ability which will be taught to higher graders such as grade 9 or grade 10 and above (I taught grade 7 and 8)” (Email exchange, 8/15/2012). Therefore, in her teaching, writing instruction was not included at all, if not writing at a sentence level, because the focus of instruction was mainly to motivate students by providing fun English learning and to provide sufficient knowledge for advanced English learning on the basis of part to whole language learning approach. Based on this language learning approach, writing at a discourse level should be given when students have sufficient knowledge of combining words into clauses, clauses into sentences, sentences into paragraphs, and paragraphs into an essay or text. As Chenling taught grades 7 and 8, academic writing was not the main focus of her instruction. There was no otherwise intentional instruction to write at a discourse level, for example, writing a simple text through a guided set of questions in describing about a self.

Chenling shifted her more conception of language and language learning toward more a traditional view of language and language learning. When Chenling participated in the MATESOL program, she was oscillating between using or leaving a scaffolding strategy through a set of guided questions to construct a simple text.
Once she explained that teaching writing should be given in all levels of education “even in the elementary school we can do that, maybe at the beginning the students cannot write a sentence, but that’s still writing or they can turn writing with joy, that is writing, like showing pictures to have them come out with some words” (Interview, 5/9/2011). She used to oppose the teaching practice which focuses on vocabulary recognition. However, her conception shifted into a sentence based writing instruction in her actual teaching practice. She tended to avoid an intense strategy of scaffolding for the sake of keeping students highly motivated in learning English and believing that it was not about time to teach writing at a discourse level in grades 7 and 8.

The influence of the textbook appeared to have changed her developed functional conception of language and language learning. The choice of the textbook represented the content of EFL teaching and learning which was considered urgent for students in the school. The most urgent needs for the students in grades 7 and 8, as Chenling described, were for reading and listening. From my perspective and observation with regard to the way in which she developed a more functional perspective of language and language learning, she could have used SFL/genre based pedagogy for analyzing a reading text and teaching reading comprehension because she had experience in analyzing a text over the courses in the MATESOL program. However, as the textbook was framed in the format of learning of word and grammar part at the level of recognition, she followed phases of learning based on the textbook. For example, as guided by the textbook, she taught reading sentence by sentence and facilitated the students with repetitive reading aloud.
practices to enhance the students’ reading and listening skills (Email exchange, 8/15/2012). With regard to teaching of speaking, she could also have explored the conception of genre and language from a functional perspective because what she had developed was useful to analyze a spoken communication in a particular context. For example, in an interview below, Chenling argued that a more functional perspective was useful in your daily use of language. Her opinion was based on her experience in doing things with language and watching people doing things with language.

113) Wawan : Do you feel that SFL is useful for language in your everyday life?

114) Chenling : yeah, like when I worked in the dining commons. We had a very long line. We had Japanese food, our chef was too slow, we had a long line. When we served the students we said “can I help you?” It's very polite you know. I saw someone speaking differently. For her, she's a kind of rush like “next” but sometimes when we served the students, they were still talking, but the word “next” for the long line is better. It's very very fast. So I was [...] I learned about the word use. The word “next” is authority. She didn’t mention “please”, then “what do you want”, “chicken and rice” “ okay” “next” [...] It’s a kind of interesting, it’s a word choice. She was trying to keep people moving fast.

115) Wawan : absolutely, word choice is powerful, right? Yeah [...] that is a good example.
Chenling: So I was thinking about that with SFL. One time I went to Walmart with my friend, I was also thinking about word choice. So it is different from the word I found in Walmart.

Wawan: good analysis.

(Interview, 1/24/2010)

In this case, Chenling gained an understanding of how language is used in workplaces: dining common and Walmart store retailer. She also more specifically identified the context of situation that led to a register choice between using “please” which is more polite, and “next” which is more authoritative. She observed the situation and analyzed it from the perspective of a more functional language and language learning by stating that the meanings were determined by the context instead of grammar rules. However, her analysis was not followed up in her actual teaching situation. Instead, influenced by the textbook, she foregrounded discrete grammar rules and vocabulary as arranged in the textbook, had students understand them, then had them apply the grammar rules in sentences. She usually included reading aloud exercises for pronunciation and translation of new vocabulary into Mandarin for her students. The instruction was limited to preparing the students with vocabulary and rules of grammar more than English conversations. She supported such a practice because, as she observed, “the students don’t use English in the school, and I guess very few or zero students speak English with their parents, except if their parents have proficiency in English, that is possible” (Email exchange, 8/15/2012). As she was drawn into an understanding of a tight relation between SFL/genre based pedagogy and writing, this conception
was overlooked as there was no writing course. If there were writing courses, there would be SFL/genre based pedagogy approach. Over one year of teaching, there was only one writing assignment on “what do I do after school” (Email exchange, 3/10/2012).

7.4. Summary

More prominent inclusion of SFL/genre based pedagogy into an instructional design appeared in the design of a curriculum unit to be applied in a summer internship. She was focused on developing SFL/genre based conception of grammar and its instructional design specific to two kinds of knowledge development: First, genre and register knowledge, and second, rubrics developed by genre and register knowledge. She focused on some aspects related to her understanding of genre and register. Her instructional design shows an attempt to facilitate students with knowledge of lexico-grammatical meanings in a narrative text framed in terms of genre and register. In applying knowledge of register, she incorporated her conception of language learning which indicated that the instruction of register revolved around what was needed in time of learning a narrative genre while trying to incorporate some aspects as demanded in the national curriculum. The internship experience shared a picture of how she was able to manage SFL/genre-based conception of grammar to teach writing.

Despite no enforcement to apply an analytical conception of grammar in some courses above, she initiated to incorporate it into some courses to highlight the conceptualization of individually diverse sociocultural background, to address the issue of scaffolding, to plan an instruction and apply it in a teaching practicum.
There are three main reasons for visiting, revisiting, loading and reloading SFL/genre based conception of grammar. First, she learned SFL/genre-based pedagogy in a larger amount of knowledge than other pedagogical knowledge from other courses. Second, she was convinced about the practicality of SFL/genre-based conception of language and language learning for EFL learning and teaching. Third, in responding to the context of EFL instruction in Taiwan, she brought up a more functional perspective of language and language learning to teach writing because she believed that academic writing instruction would bring positive impacts on students' language learning and development.

However, similar to her conception of grammar developed over 14 weeks of participation in learning SFL and Martin's genre pedagogy in the Fall 2009, her trajectory as a teacher and learner of EFL in Taiwan shaped a typical characterization of her conceptions of grammar which in part are framed under the behaviorist perspective of language and language learning. The local institution where she works and her colleagues in the institution give impacts on her shift toward more Behaviorist perspective of language and language learning in her one year of teaching experience.

In one year of teaching experience, Chenling did not use SFL/genre based conception of grammar in her teaching. One of the main reasons for not affording to use her sophisticated functional conception of grammar is that she did not teach academic writing. The most significant decision that leads her not to apply SFL/genre based conception of grammar is following a textbook selected by her colleagues representing the institution. The selected textbook became the main
curriculum that informed the chapter-based lessons she had to cover in 21 weeks including textbook-based content assessments. The textbook mainly shaped her instructional practices which further drew her into EFL classroom practices heavily informed by the behaviorist perspective of language and language learning. For example, she taught each to help students express some spoken language with correct forms at a sentence level such as to be able to “she is my cousin”, “he is my father”. She taught the meanings of vocabulary, the rules of expressing the vocabulary with the focus grammar of the chapter, and some structured expressions. She also attempted to provide less challenging lesson to students in the hope that students kept being highly motivated. Giving a top priority to motivating students to learn English made learning to write academically limited to a sentence level with a translation from either English to Mandarin or vice versa. Reading and writing practices were used as a vehicle to practice constructing a sentence more grammatically and use vocabulary accordingly to make meanings at a sentence level.
8.1. Summary of the Findings

The portrait of Chenling in making sense of and implementing a more functional conception of grammar over her participation in the MATESOL program which is in part informed by SFL/genre-based pedagogy and in actual teaching shows dependency on her previous learning and teaching experience as well as the envisioned socio-cultural context of classrooms. As the findings of the study reveal, the teacher shows a shifting conception of grammar from the behaviorist to a more functional perspective of language and language learning in the teacher education program. The process of shifting into a more functional perspective of grammar was affected by the behaviorist framework of language and language learning. Her conception of a text as genre, for example, often refers to a static template consisting of less open and dynamic insertions of how meanings are made. Further, the shifting conception of grammar into the behaviorist framework of language and language learning was not considered problematic especially when she shifted her conception of grammar from the functional into the behaviorist perspective in her actual teaching. She expressed no concern about and reflection on the ideological impacts of the behaviorist perspective of learning on students’ future learning such as the impacts of drillings and translation on learners’ future cognitive development especially in how language will be conceived. The blissful shift from the functional perspective of grammar to the traditional perspective one is caused by the excitement to be able to respond to the institutional and local demands of language.
learning, that is, for the sake of discrete grammar assessment. The shift is not due to
her disability to understand SFL/genre based pedagogy as a language teaching
approach which attends to text and context dynamics or lack of her ability to design
a more contextual and functional curriculum design but it is due more to the
influences of assessment driven curriculum (as stated in Gebhard, et. al, 2013).
Knowledge about the expectations of local students and parents, teaching and
learning experiences, local curriculum or policy are all significant aspects that shape
her in designing academic literacy instruction including shifting knowledge over her
participation in MATESOL informed by SFL/genre-based pedagogy and in her actual
teaching experience.

The portrait of Chenling in making sense of and implementing a more
functional perspective of grammar, in responding to the challenges of the
implementation in the local context of teaching, and in positioning herself with
regard to L2 writing in EFL contexts supports a theorization which explains that
teacher learning is personal, prolonged, and situated by a sociocultural context.
More specifically, the portrait of Chenling will be further highlighted by a
sociocultural perspective of L2 knowledge development which extends to
discussions of teacher learning and positioning.

8.1.1. Discussion

8.1.1.1. Chenling’s Conceptions of Grammar: A Sociocultural Perspective

From a sociocultural perspective of teacher learning, Chenling instantiates
how teachers develop their pedagogical knowledge, shaped by a complex dynamic
interaction of influences (e.g., Andrew, 2007; Borg, 2006; Phipps & Borg, 2009;
The relationship of influences (Johnson, 2006) that shapes teacher learning is related to a theorization which explains that teacher knowledge development is complicated, prolonged, situated, and personal (Andrew, 2006; Borg, 2003; Johnson & Golombek, 2011). The teacher portrayed in this study reflects her prolonged learning of language in a way that her shifting conceptions of grammar leave the traces of her previous knowledge of grammar and teaching experience as well as a personal alignment with the community of the local sociocultural context of school. Further, the shifting conceptions of grammar over her participation in the MATESOL program and teaching experience are conceived as her positioning in the process of identity construction.

More prominent instance of a prolonged, situated, and complicated process in developing conceptions of grammar for EFL learning unfolded in a way that Chenling persistently shifted her conceptions of grammar due to her envisioned assessment driven curriculum and instruction in her future context of classroom. Chenling's actual teaching practice seemed to prove that the assessment driven curriculum design was expected in the local context of classroom. The continuous shifting conceptions of grammar indicate that conceptualizing of grammar is not devoid of complex influences. For example, the envisioned local context of teaching always informed and further framed the process of conceptualizing a more behaviorist conception of grammar. Although she developed a functional conception of grammar featuring the interconnection of lexico-grammatical features and discourse of texts, she often had the behaviorist framework embedded in her functional conception of grammar based on SFL/genre pedagogy, such as, in
describing a text as a template rather than a dynamic social process and in constraining aspects of writing into introduction – body - conclusion. She could have developed a more functional, social, and context-based conception of grammar as evidenced in how she managed to include the key framework and theoretical terms into a curriculum design if her conception had not been influenced by the assessment driven curriculum and instruction.

Her commitment to the pedagogical knowledge enforced by the policy of the local context brings impacts on her conceptions of ideal language learning practices. In shifting her conception of grammar to lean more to the behaviorist perspective of language and language learning, she enacted a positioning to take up a role as a spearhead of the local assessment policy, students’ parent support, and mainstream knowledge maintainer more than a change maker. For example, despite being aware of the potentials of SFL/genre based pedagogy to develop students’ literacy learning and development, she doubted its usefulness for teaching students. As a result of taking a stance to align with the assessment policy, writing practices were no longer considered necessary in EFL contexts. Instead, writing was considered an exclusive language practice. The assessment driven curriculum and instruction has put aside the role of writing as “not something that should now become an exclusive preoccupation displacing or replacing long-standing and valid interests and practices” (Byrnes, Maxim, & Noris, 2009, p. 11). She believed that writing should include “at least four paragraph inclusive of introduction, body and conclusion, details to support each paragraph, and conclusion to echo the previous introduction”(Final assignment of Language and Language Learning, 10/17/2009).
Chenling’s conception of writing provides an example of how her approach to teaching writing stays away from functional literacy practices due to its status which is out of the prime attention of the curriculum and assessment policy.

This study case instantiates how teachers manage interacting factors such as the contexts after, before, and during teaching, which affect their pedagogical knowledge development. Chenling had to deal with the conflict of incorporating her thoughts, beliefs, and knowledge into the teaching and learning design. The impact of the conflict was manifested in how she showed vacillation at some points. For example, she oscillated between a more functional approach to academic literacy learning and development and a more structural perspective of teaching; a robust scaffolding and a rush to train learners to be good test takers; including the teaching of writing as a meaning making and making it as only a vehicle to understand aspects of grammar.

From a sociocultural perspective, the case of Chenling confirms how teachers make a decision (e.g., Borg, 2003; 2009b; Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Johnson, 2006). Borg (2003; 2009), for example, argues that teacher decision making as manifested in the forms of lesson planning and implementation results from teacher cognition, which is mediated by their prolonged personal and professional experience. Borg explains that teacher cognition shapes teachers’ understanding of what and how they feel right to do in classroom situations. It is related to the understanding of what teachers think, know, and believe. This cognition is constructed through a complex cognitive process in which teachers deal with interacting factors before, during, and after teaching (Golombek, 2009; Graves,
2009). In Chenling’s case, what she knows, believes, and thinks is reflected in how she develops a more functional conception of grammar while she keeps envisioning the future context of teaching and her previous learning and teaching experience. As a result, her functional conception of grammar is influenced by the framework of the Behaviorist perspective of language and language learning.

Influenced by the Behaviorist perspective of language learning especially in searching for the right forms of language use, Chenling framed her understanding of SFL/genre based pedagogy from an inherently formulaic orientation of this approach. For example, she conceptualized genre pedagogy as an authoritative way of instruction how to write as implicated in modeling stage of SFL/genre based instruction (Final assignment of Leadership Project, 2011). While Chenling’s conception of SFL/genre based pedagogy is like other critiques (e.g., Lankshear & Knobel, 2000; Threadgold, 2005) claiming an inherent behaviorist values in this approach, other conceptions of SFL/genre based pedagogy foreground text and context dynamics. For example, Coffin (2001) argues that the approach to literacy education is designed to embrace culture, society, and language use by enhancing the relationships of form, function, and context. Coffin agrees with Partridge in defining genres as associated with prototypes which “have a common core at the center and fade off at the edges” (Partridge, 1995, p. 30). Coffin confirms, “genres can vary from one culture to another, that the way they are structured may depend on the cultural context in which they operate and that they will often evolve over time, as the original purpose they were established to achieve develops and changes within a culture” (p. 111). In addition, although she developed more sophisticated
conception of grammar, which is discourse oriented instead of sentence oriented, she holds a belief that the approach to teaching using the traditional grammar will do no harm on students' learning development. Borg (2009) explicitly states that one of the key themes in understanding teacher cognition is “the impact that prior language learning experience has on pre-service teachers (p. 164). Teacher cognition theory highlights Lortie’s (1975) “apprenticeship of observation” (Borg, 2009, p. 164), in a way that teacher’s prior experiences shape their belief about teaching before participating in a teacher professional development and in actual teaching situations. A sociocultural lens on the case of Chenling highlights that teacher and teaching cannot be sufficiently understood if we don’t understand teachers’ thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs that influence teachers’ decision for their classroom practices.

Focusing on how Chenling positions herself among her senior colleagues in the school in Taiwan and in response to the institutional policy of EFL teaching, I extend the explanation from a teacher cognition perspective rooted in Vygotskyan sociocultural theory to a critical lens to explore power and identity which contribute to Chenling’s shift in her conceptions of grammar, especially in an actual teaching situation. Although Brian V. Street mentions that using a sociocultural lens to explore power and identity is unique (Lewis, Enciso, & Moje, 2007), Chenling’s case in shifting and enacting a conception of grammar calls an explanation from the concept of identity and power relation. The concept of identity makes sense in a way that teachers always enact their positioning in perceiving, envisioning, and developing pedagogical knowledge. In the case of Chenling, her positioning over her
participation in the MATESOL program which is in part informed by Halliday’s SFL and Martin’s genre theory and in her teaching practice contributes to her shifting conceptions of grammar. For example, being an international student in the first semester shaped how much she had learned from the course and how she interacted with the content of the course and her classmates. Her positioning among other adults shaped how she worked on the content of the course. Over 14 weeks of class participation, she did not work with domestic teachers due to being mainstreamed in the classroom especially in larger group discussions. Also being the first year in the graduate program in the United States, she tended to try to provide correct answers in analyzing texts, which led learning in a more prescriptive way. Teachers’ social positioning with others and expectation with other adults influences teacher learning (Johnson, 2006; Sesek, 2007; Lortie, 2002).

Chenling’s positioning to align with the behaviorist perspective of grammar consequently undermines the contributions of academic literacy practices in EFL contexts. For example, her alignment with the assessment driven curriculum and instruction results in a conception of writing as an inclusive practice of language learning. This view is obviously contradictory with her social conception of grammar. She took a stance to rely on the behaviorist perspective instead of, for instance, hybridizing both of the conflicting perspectives to cater to students’ needs. This case shows the complexity of teachers’ knowledge development involving identity, cognition, sociopolitical, and local contexts (Johnson, 2006; Reeves, 2009). Her positioning to the conflicting perspectives appeared in a way that she sought to
secure her role as part of the community of practices of the institution and as a
teacher in Taiwan.

The concept of identity which implies positioning supports the way in which
teacher learning is conceived as “as socially negotiated and contingent on
knowledge of self, students, subject matter, curricula, and setting” (Johnson, 2006, p.
20; Lortie, 2002). Teachers legitimately use and create forms of knowledge that
leads to their decision about how to teach their L2 students. The culturally, socially,
and historically complex dynamic and situated classroom contexts influence their
decision. For example, Chenling could have referenced to SFL/genre-based
approach to help students gain access in societies. However, influenced by the
assessment policy which rewards the behaviorist perspective of language learning
in Taiwan, she did not insist on applying her acquired technical skills and
understanding of SFL/genre-based pedagogy into teaching practices. Rather, the
conflict between the demands of the curriculum policy and the main orientation of
genre based pedagogy led her to an understanding that the conflict was not
negotiable.

Some scholars from critical perspective address teacher knowledge shifting
from the lens of identity to oppose to the way it is viewed from teacher cognition
(e.g., Miller, 2009; Pennycook, 2004). Miller (2009) sees teacher knowledge changes
as a result of identity alignment rather than cognition. Miller argues that teacher
knowledge development cannot be seen from the lens of cognition, but more from
the process of how cognition is formed. In this sense, contexts and identity play a
crucial mediating role in all classroom interactions and teacher work including
knowledge of school, envisioned classroom space, the resources, the neighborhoods, the curriculum and policy, and the supervising teacher (Miller, 2009; Morgan, 2004). Similarly, Pennycook (2004) views the case of teacher knowledge shifting as a process of identity construction involving (re)conceptualization of otherness in a complex sociopolitical and cultural spectrum. Based on these perspectives, teachers are faced with the mainstream discourse of workplace, languages, colleagues, teaching, all of which manifest power relations. The identity being constructed in response to the dominant discourse in an institution shapes teachers’ pedagogical knowledge. Miller (2009) and Pennycook (2004) seem to claim that thinking, knowing, believing, and doing cannot be separated from the process of identity construction.

Based on the conception of identity, Miller (2009) mentions some key words which relate to the issues of identity: relational, negotiated, constructed, enacted, transforming, and transitional” (p. 174). The conception of identity in teacher education helps explain how teachers develop their professionalism or professional identity. In its development, teachers’ identity is continuously co-constructed by involving many available resources such as personal biography, interactional skills, knowledge, attitudes, and other social capitals through the process of negotiation with social and institutional contexts (Miller, 2009). As such, identity construction depicts a resource in process. Miller (2009) mentions some possible resources which potentially influence the construction of teacher identity including workplace conditions, curriculum policy, bilingual language policy, cultural differences, racism, social demographics of schools and students, institutional practices, curriculum,
teaching resources, and access to professional development. Negotiating with those interacting factors result in certain professionalism. Teacher identity reflects on how they enact or give up transformative pedagogical practices. Identity is connected to the issues of power and discourse which may be manifested in teacher positioning toward classroom practices, academic language teaching, and conceptions of grammar.

8.1.1.2. Grammar and Academic Literacy Learning and Development in EFL contexts

The assessment driven curriculum design has locked Chenling from exploring her developed functional conception of grammar and her understanding of language and language learning in more dynamic nuanced practices. As a result, academic writing is still out of attempt to develop learners’ language learning because the assessment puts no demands on writing academically. Chenling has enacted her identity to align with the dominant ways of instruction in school; therefore, there is no effort to teach academic writing informed by SFL/genre-based pedagogy.

The picture of the schooling practice which does not support academic literacy practices raises a question as to why academic writing has not gained sufficient attention in EFL education while reforms in educational policy to support students in having access to discipline specific meaning makings has been initiated in some countries. The policy reforms in some countries have also recognized the crucial role of English education to keep up with the spread of information and the demand for sharing of knowledge which is proliferated in the revolution of
information technology. Instead, most of the reforms in EFL contexts focus on communicative language teaching which emphasizes learning of everyday meaning makings (Kramsch, 2006; Swaffar, 2006; Gebhard, et. al, In Press). This orientation may not be significant especially in achieving authentic learning and meeting the demand of specific discipline meaning makings, and in making use of the potentials of academic writing for accelerating language acquisition and reasoning. Lack of support from the CLT approach to meaning making practices is mainly due to lack of attention to local cultural contexts because the approach to learning a target language is oriented to a normative and generalized context where power relations among speakers and their responsibilities in communication exchanges are not taken into consideration (Kramsch, 2006). Swaffer (2006) identifies that students recalling of information in CLT is more dominant than learning to analyze information, creating a touristic oriented learning. Additionally, normative learning of communication pushes learners to learn inappropriate ways of communication which may not be relevant with students’ ages, making adolescents and adult learners demotivated in learning language (Butler, 2004). The prevailing CLT as an approach to language learning in EFL contexts has been reported to constrain teachers from providing effective language instruction especially in response to the increasing role of English as a means of communicating specific disciplines (Nunan, 2003). Nunan argues that “in specific disciplines, English appears to be the universal language of communication” (p. 590). Additionally, advocating CLT to learning English in EFL contexts could not help learners prepare for learning English to make
meanings across purposes and a variety of contexts (Byrnes, 2009; Kramsch, 2006; Schulze, 2006; Swaffar, 2006).

From the perspective of functional conception of grammar, academic writings yield significant values on literacy learning and development including learning to use language communicatively. Academic writings, more specifically, support authentic language practices in having access to content knowledge across the curricular subjects. The authenticity is implicated in how academic writings support education in general across subject matters and as a result support a broad institutional goal (Kramsch, 2006; Schulze, 2006). The authenticity is more explicitly achieved through students and teachers’ talk about meta-knowledge in learning a particular content area by which students build awareness of using language contextually in the content area and in everyday meaning makings (Schleppegrell & O’Halloran, 2011). Such conversations are potentially much more powerful than teaching that simply aims to transmit abstracted knowledge about grammar and other aspects of language (p. 32). It may be more significant to improve their language use by navigating much less predictable exchanges in which the interlocutors use a variety of different languages and dialects for various identification purposes, and exercise symbolic power in various ways to get heard and responded (Rampton, 2006).

Furthermore, teaching and learning of academic writing could potentially indispose the positive effects of writing practices such as on language acquisition and reasoning development. Some scholars argue that one of the positive effects of writing practices is to accelerate language acquisition through mediating a transfer
of L1 writing abilities which consist of a well developed and prestigious language to a second language speaker (Byrnes, et. al, 2009; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). Hyland (2007) also argues that supporting writing practices serves as a resource to gain access in societies, in which “students understand and challenge valued discourses. . . and access to the patterns and possibilities of variation in valued texts” (pp. 149 - 150). In this sense, writing facilitates students in the acquisition of literacy skills valued in more socio-economically resourceful societies. In a broader perspective, developing writing in EFL contexts helps non-native speakers of English to master the functions and linguistic features of texts in their disciplines and professions (Hyon, 1996). In line with Hyon, Herrington and Moran (2006) argue that writing also serves as an exploratory thinking and reasoning in academic contexts in terms of “writing to learn and writing in the disciplines” (p. 7).

8.2. Summary of the Study

As already elaborated in the previous chapters, this study attempts to provide an in depth portrait of a teacher’s shift in conceptualizing grammar in the teacher education informed by SFL/genre based pedagogy and in one year of teaching experience. The purpose of this study is to respond to the intensifying demand for academic literacy instruction in international contexts by providing an in depth portrait of a teacher in making sense of and implementing SFL/genre based conception of grammar in support for academic literacy learning and development. The study probes two main questions: 1) How does Chenling’s conception of grammar change, if at all, over her participation in MATESOL program informed in part by SFL/Genre-based pedagogy? And 2) How does Chenling’s teaching
classroom practice during her first year in her career reflect, if at all, the perspective of language learning informed by SFL/genre-based pedagogy?

In answering the questions, this study uses an ethnographic approach of data collection and analysis. To inform the findings using the ethnographic approach, the study explores a literature review on SFL/Genre based pedagogy especially to highlight some key concepts of grammar that the teacher highlights and practices that the teacher adheres to in her actual teaching (e.g., Christie, 1990, 1999; Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Halliday, 1993; Halliday, 1994; Halliday, 2009; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin 1997, 2009, 2000; Martin & Rose, 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012). Therefore, the literature review includes key concepts to understanding SFL and Martin’s genre theory, issues around its implementation in actual teaching, and a portrait of its implementation drawn from study reports in EFL contexts. The literature review and the findings of the case study are closely related. For example, As study reports on the application of SFL/genre based pedagogy in EFL contexts are not many, in this study, Chenling instantiates other teachers who prefer to use the prevailing traditional grammar due to the institutional and collegial influences. In the case of Chenling, the sentence form driven assessment in the curriculum forced her to teach English based on Traditional grammar. Her decision to be loyal to her knowledge of traditional grammar that she gained before she participated in the teacher education program was fully supported by her colleagues and the institution where she worked.

The findings are also informed by a sociocultural theory of teacher knowledge development (e.g., Johnson, 1996; 2006; Lantolf & Johnson, 2007;
Johnson, 2006; Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Lortie, 2002; Reeves, 2009). This framework is to highlight the way in which Chenling shifted her conception of grammar and enacted her conception of grammar in one year of her teaching experience. Informed by this conceptual framework, Chenling’s journey in shifting her conceptions of grammar could be summarized in the following way. She began conceptualizing a more functional conception of grammar featuring the interconnection of lexicogrammatical features and discourse of texts over 14 weeks of participation in the course in SFL and Genre pedagogy. She included analytical and descriptive explanation of a text in terms of genre and register. Over her participation in the teacher education program, she maintained her functional conception of grammar as meaning making at a discourse level interconnecting lexico-grammatical features of a text. Although her conception of grammar was influenced by her framework of understanding language and language learning from traditional grammar such as in reducing the meaning of “finite” into “tenses” and defining text as a template, she indicated an effort to analytically identify learning situations in which her conception of grammar could be used to enhance learning. She also related her functional conception of grammar with other pedagogical concepts of her concerns and designed an instruction by exploring explicitly her meta-knowledge of SFL/genre-based pedagogy. However, over one year of teaching experience, her conception of grammar shifted to more traditional grammar shaped more by collegial and institutional influences.

The findings (see table 13) point to the crucial role of improving EFL learning and development by incorporating academic language teaching to support learning
and policy reforms, informing teacher education programs in providing resources of knowledge of grammar, and recommending future research directions.

Table 13: Summary of the Study and Implications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Findings</th>
<th>Implications</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Literature review:</strong></td>
<td>Academic Literacy Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>- There is a growing interest across the globe in using SFL/genre based pedagogy for language learning.</td>
<td>- Because using SFL/genre based pedagogy to improve academic literacy learning and development has gained significance, teachers could have been made accessible to more functional conception of grammar to help learners use language across contexts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- In Asia, SFL/genre based pedagogy is complementary to teaching sentence forms and structures to meet the policy enforcement</td>
<td>- SFL/genre approach should be introduced to teach academic literacy learning and development.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Teaching text structure more strongly than register to help students with lack of recognition to academic genre;</td>
<td>- Academic literacy teaching and learning should be included in EFL curriculum because it supports language development at a discourse level including the building of awareness in using language across contexts</td>
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<td>- Teaching registers from a sample of texts</td>
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<td><strong>Findings of this case study:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>- It is indicative of</td>
<td>- The reforms in</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Developed more functional conception of grammar as meaning making at a discourse level interconnecting lexico-grammatical features of a text;</td>
<td>the need for policy reforms or for supporting policy reforms which facilitate students to meet the demand for using language in the classroom, the future contexts of schooling, and broadly social contexts which tend to be more multilingual and multicultural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Maintained the functional conception and used it as a main pedagogical knowledge to connect to other pedagogical concepts;</td>
<td>- SFL/based conception of grammar consist of metalanguage that teachers can understand and use in the classroom. The complex knowledge embedded in this language and pedagogical concept requires sustained learning and training to use it for designing curriculum and instruction.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Used the meta-knowledge of SFL/genre based conception of grammar to design instruction and assessment in practicum;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Shifted her conception of grammar into more traditional one due to enforcement of assessment driven curriculum in Chenling’s EFL context, and collegial, and institutional influences</td>
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</table>

8.2.1. Implications

8.2.1.1. Implication for Academic Literacy Education and Policy Reforms in EFL Contexts.

This implication is mainly drawn on the findings which indicate that there is a growing interest in putting more emphasis on literacy education to support
students in participating in language use as an international lingua franca especially as a means for access to content knowledge and publications, but the local policy contexts maintain the focus on rewarding students’ skills at the level of word recognition, word forms, and sentence structures. As indicated in the case of Chenling, the learning policy in her workplace maintains sentence form assessments, which make teachers use the traditional conception of grammar to meet the demand of the policy. Chenling’s demands of classroom practices became the obstacle for applying a more conception of grammar which she believes could apprentice students in making meaning at a textual level.

Chenling’s shifting conception of grammar toward a more behaviorist perspective in an actual classroom may not result from “reality shock” (Veenman, 1984, p. 143). Veenman refers to the term “reality shock” to illustrate how teachers unbelievably find that theories gained from teacher professional development is not compatible for the actual context of teaching. In the case of Chenling, she had realized at the beginning of her participation in the MATESOL program that she would encounter challenges in applying SFL/genre based conception of grammar because she had noticed that teachers rewarded more the traditional grammar perspective. However, she was not determined that she would apply a more functional conception of grammar. Rather, she oscillated between a more functional perspective of language learning and her future workplace’s preference for a more behaviorist perspective of language learning. The most interfering factor that influenced her conceptions of grammar is the assessment driven policy in her working place which does not measure students’ academic writing and other
meaning making practices at a discourse or textual level. Considering how she developed a more functional grammar in the teacher education program, Chenling's shift to a more behaviorist perspective was due neither to her incapability to come to grip with SFL/genre conception of grammar over her participation in the MATESOL program nor to the incompatibility of this conception of grammar as a praxis in actual classrooms but it is due to the institutional and local language learning policy which rewards sentence form language practices and discrete language item oriented assessment. Chenling’s identity as a junior teacher among many senior colleagues who culturally relies on senior teachers such as in choosing a textbook for the school shaped how she turned to a more behaviorist perspective of language learning.

Chenling’s use of the behaviorist conception of language learning in her actual teaching practices is indicative of the need for informing teachers about the significant impacts of learning academic literacy and about linguistic knowledge that supports instructional practices. Although general contexts of EFL education have indicated towards policy reforms to engage students in making meanings across curricular subjects and building awareness of using language across contexts (e.g., Baker, 2009; Snow, Kamhi-Stain & Brinton, 2006; Matsuda, 2003; Nunan, 2003), policy practices in schools reward a conception of grammar which does not support academic literacy practices. Teachers have been reportedly using communicative language teaching (CLT) and traditional grammar which both focus on language forms instead of meanings as expected in the policy reforms. Even in Australia, despite being the place for the primary genesis of SFL/genre based pedagogy,
communicative language teaching approaches are more widely known (Hyon, 1996; Burns & Knox, 2005). In this approach, the traditional conception of grammar has been a prevailing conception of grammar, making communicative competence reduced to its spoken modality away from making meanings (Kramsch, 2006) and broadly supportive of decontextualized strategy of language learning (Harper & Renie, 2008). Such language learning practices are not sufficient to enable communicative meaning makings and an understanding of meaning making itself (Kramsch, 2006; Schulze, 2006). In effects, the reforms in policy that attempt to lead students to keep up with the spread of information and to participate in sharing knowledge across the globe are not sufficiently facilitated.

Considering the significance of academic literacy instruction in EFL contexts and SFL/genre based conception of grammar in support for the reforms in English education, this study suggests that academic literacy teaching and learning should be included in EFL curriculum and a more functional conception of grammar should inform the teaching of academic literacy because it supports language development at a discourse level including the building of awareness in using language. Written language including academic writing is generally examined in terms of stretches of language referring to text or discourse rather than just language at a sentence level (Coffin, 2001). Learning to participate in academic literacy practices, students become part of disciplinary communities by awareness of the conventions in school and understanding a stretch of discourses in many forms of text types or genres. From SFL and genre perspective, academic language practices provide students with semiotic systems of choices which bundle together into a generic task, making students aware of how to form the backbone of a text (see Martin, 2009).
To support academic literacy learning and development, some scholars claim for less significant roles of the traditional perspective. For example, Nysrand (2006) argues that learning independent parts of sentences such as parts of speech and prescriptive rules in making sentences could result in acquiring language skills in formulaic structures of prose. Gebhard and Martin (2011) extend that learning and teaching language in a prescriptive way could result in negative images of using grammar because prescribing language often neglects respect for social or regional dialects. Overviewing the traditional perspective of grammar for communicative language learning, Yasuda (2011) argues that teaching based on the traditional perspective of grammar can prevent students from developing the ability to construct meanings in the target language for authentic purposes and audiences because it treats writing practices as a medium for exercises to master grammar in decontextualized ways. Similarly, Myiskow and Gordon (2012) view the less significant role of the traditional perspective of grammar in supporting academic literacy learning and development in the sense that it could potentially delay scaffoldings toward writing practices in secondary school levels, which results in unpreparedness among EFL learners for advancing literacy practices and succeeding in a high stake test, such as, writing for a university entrance exam.

8.2.1.2. Implications for Teacher Education

In apprenticing students to the level of knowledge of language as a resource for meaning makings, teachers play a crucial role in designing careful planning across a unit of instruction, which supports students regardless of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, varying levels of proficiency and school subjects
in the simultaneous learning of language and content (Schleppegrell & O’Halloran, 2011). The urgency of teacher education program to support reforms in ELT has been the main part of the international development of education. For example, UNESCO (2005) reported,

In this global context the classroom pedagogy used by teachers is consistently seen as ‘the crucial variable for improving learning outcomes’ and is critical in any reform to improve quality. (p.152)

Teaching becomes the crucial part in making the reforms successful. However, what kind of knowledge offered in a teacher education program brings a crucial impact on teachers’ classroom practices; and therefore the learning outcomes. As this study explores the significance of SFL/genre based pedagogy for the contemporary demand of using English in a variety of contexts and teachers’ feasibility in learning this pedagogical concept, there is no doubt about its possible incorporation into a teacher education program to prepare well conceptually and theoretically informed teachers. The case of Chenling provides an example of how a teacher could develop SFL/genre-based conception of grammar for teaching academic literacy. The way in which Chenling encapsulates dense theoretical work of Halliday’s SFL and Martin’s genre indicates the feasibility of the approach learned in a teacher education program. SFL/genre-based conception of grammar consists of meta-language that teachers can understand and use in a classroom (Gebhard, et. al, 2013). However, the complex knowledge embedded in this language and pedagogical concept requires sustained learning and training to use it for designing curriculum and instruction. In effects, SFL/genre-based pedagogy lays demands on teachers and teacher educators.
To enable the meaning making oriented teaching and learning, teachers are required to have theoretical bases of functional conception of grammar. Sustained learning and training at the level of teacher education could prepare teachers with conceptions of language and language learning to support students in building their capacity in using language across contexts, and to support teachers in having conversations about how meanings are constructed by particular grammar and word choices, in particular contexts and for particular audiences (Harper & Renie, 2008; Macken & Horarik, 2011). Such conversations are potentially much more powerful than teaching that simply aims to transmit abstracted knowledge about grammar and other aspects of language (p. 32). It may be more significant to improve their language use by navigating much less predictable exchanges in which the interlocutors use a variety of different languages and dialects for various identification purposes, and exercise symbolic power in various ways to get heard and responded (Pennycook, 2007a; 2007b; Rampton, 2006). Therefore, teacher preparedness with meta-knowledge could anticipate the unpredictable communication exchanges by apprenticing students to “mediate complex encounters among interlocutors with different language capacities and cultural imaginations, who have different social and political memories, and who don’t necessarily share a common understanding of the social reality they are living in” (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2008, p. 646). In such environments, communicative competence is redefined as the ability to use linguistic and semiotic resources to choose aspects of language for whom it is used, for what, and for what effect it is designated (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2008).
8.2.1.3. Implications for Future Research Directions

The implications relate to a current trend in a teacher education program, research into SFL/genre-based conception of grammar in EFL contexts, and necessary attention to students’ need for academic literacy practices.

In regard to the trend in a teacher education program, the implication is concerned with areas of knowledge commonly developed in teacher education programs. The teacher education usually develops knowledge about language teaching which consists of two components: language and teaching. The two components include aspects which relate to content/pedagogy, theory/practice, and knowledge/skills. Graves (2009) notes that generally until the 1970s, knowledge about language which includes proficiency in the target language, knowledge about its structure, phonology, and others had been considered sufficient as knowledge of teaching while knowledge about teaching had been gained through the study of language teaching methods and/or training in discrete teaching skills. As such there is a little attention paid to the contexts in which teachers and students would experience teaching and learning. In other words, there is little concern for understanding the teacher – student or how teachers learn to teach in actual situations (Graves, 2009). Graves also notes that the 1980s saw a shift toward research on teacher cognition and its effect on teachers’ understanding of teaching. This shift on research includes ways in which “teachers should know who they are, what they already know, and what they actually do when they teach” (p. 117). In a related way, Lortie (1975), for example, focuses on years of teachers’ participation as learners in classrooms which influence teachers’ conceptions of teaching. Those
aspects became a touchstone for teacher educators. The focus on teachers’ previous knowledge and conceptions implies that teacher educators do not simply pour pre-service teachers with knowledge of content and pedagogy, but should consider teachers’ existing knowledge. Therefore, further research on teacher knowledge development which integrates knowledge of content and method of teaching should be explored more.

In a more specific connection to this case study is the way teachers develop their SFL/based conception of grammar. This field could be explored more to contribute to the body of the research in EFL contexts which are currently limited. As sociocultural changes in a local context continuously unfold, research on teachers’ education and learning in a longitudinal way to provide an in depth portrait of how teachers develop SFL/genre-based conception of grammar and actualize it in teaching situations could be explored to have more descriptions of teacher knowledge development across contexts. More specifically the reasons for applying or not applying a more functional conception of grammar could be more tangible for the local policy reforms and for gaining more understanding about teachers, such as, teacher cognition and identity.

As elaborated in the literature review, the available studies on SFL/genre based pedagogy have addressed significant areas around helping students to participate in more valuable language forms and meanings. The use of more permeable curriculum and instruction indicates that there are specific texts that students urgently need to make and construct meanings. These findings have some implications for future research directions. First, research on teacher learning to
deconstruct texts for EFL contexts could be explored more to help teacher educators prepare significant knowledge for teachers at the level of teacher education programs. Second, as the communicative approach to language learning and teaching is prevailing in EFL contexts, redefining the meanings of communicative capacity which students currently need to possess could be explored more. Third, longitudinal studies on EFL learners in making meanings around content area knowledge could be explored to inform teachers how students from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds make meanings.

8.3. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter discusses the findings as portrayed in the way in which Chenling makes sense of and implementing SFL/genre based conception of grammar for literacy learning and development in Taiwan. The portrait of Chenling over her participation in the teacher education program and in one year of teaching experience indicates shifts in conceptualizing grammar in her attempts to respond to the challenges of the implementation in the local context of teaching, and to her positioning with regard to L2 writing in EFL contexts. More specifically, the portrait of Chenling is further highlighted by a sociocultural perspective of L2 knowledge development which extends to discussions of teacher learning and positioning.

From a sociocultural perspective of teacher learning, Chenling’s shifts in conceptualizing grammar reflects her prolonged learning of language in a way that her shifting conceptions of grammar leave traces of her previous knowledge of grammar and teaching experience as well as a personal alignment with the community of the local sociocultural context of school. The continuous shifting
conceptions of grammar indicate that conceptualizing of grammar is not devoid of complex influences. For example, the envisioned local context of teaching always informed and further framed the process of conceptualizing into more behaviorist conception of grammar. In shifting her conception of grammar to lean more to the behaviorist perspective of language and language learning, she enacted a positioning to take up a role as a spearhead of the local assessment policy, students’ parent support, and mainstream knowledge maintainer more than a change maker. For example, despite being aware of the potentials of SFL/genre based pedagogy to develop students’ literacy learning and development, she doubted its usefulness for teaching students.

From the perspective of functional conception of grammar, academic writings yield significant values on literacy learning and development including learning to use language communicatively. Some scholars argue that one of the positive effects of writing practices is to accelerate language acquisition through mediating a transfer of L1 writing abilities which consist of a well developed and prestigious language to a second language speaker (Byrnes, et. al, 2009; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). Hyland (2007) also argues that supporting writing practices serves as a resource to gain access in societies, in which “students understand and challenge valued discourses . . . and access to the patterns and possibilities of variation in valued texts” (pp. 149 - 150). Referring to the definition of authentic and communicative language practices as the capacity to use language purposefully, academic writings support authentic language practices in having access to content knowledge across the curricular subjects because having resources to access to
content knowledge supports general education, that is, the capacity students need to communicate in spoken and written forms. Authenticity is also reflected in students and teachers’ talk about meta-knowledge in learning a particular content area by which students build awareness of using language contextually in the content area and in everyday meaning makings (Schleppegrell & O’Halloran, 2011). The picture of the schooling practice which does not support academic literacy practices raises a question as to why academic writing has not gained sufficient attention in EFL education while reforms in educational policy to support students in having access to discipline specific meaning makings has been initiated in some countries.
APPENDIX A

TRANSCRIPT CONVENTIONS

= latching (utterance quickly following the previous one)

•Yes underlined

[.] short pause

[...] medium pause

[.....] long pause

[laugh] description of phenomenon

[silence] description of phenomenon
APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Interview (11/30/2009)

1) Would you tell me your educational background and how you finally make you come to the School of Education and want to be a teacher of English as a foreign language?
2) What is your common college class in your home country? Does it encourage you to be verbally active in the class?
3) What is the objective of attending US university more specifically UMass?
4) When did you realize that you studied English grammar at your schools? What did you study? How did you study it?
5) What courses are you taking this semester? What is your main consideration in choosing the courses?
6) What areas are you interested to develop in this master program?
7) How do you feel about the class activities when you were attending SFL class, EDUC670? Does it make sense for the context of your home country?
8) How did you learn SFL?
9) Which parts of SFL if you still remember that make sense to you?
10) When did you start making sense of SFL? Do you remember?
11) What do you like or don’t like from the class activities?
12) Did you find class challenging, boring, interesting, or pressuring?
13) Do you have any plan what to write for your leadership project?

Interview (01/24/2010)

1) Did you ever think of becoming a teacher when you were a child?
2) What do you think the purpose of teaching grammar should be at schools in your country?
3) By attending 670 course, how has your understanding of grammar changed?
4) What aspects of learning/grammar knowledge do you attribute the changes to? Context/language work/register/learning experience/text analysis/the nature of language/the way of learning of language/genre/
5) What about classroom experience, does it help you understand grammar, understand language, and more specifically understand how to read and write? Is it worthy?
6) How would you like to apply SFL into the teaching of writing? Is it possible?
7) What makes you feel skeptical? Or What makes you feel sure about the subject implication for your future teaching?
8) If not, when did you feel that you understood the subject? And What (mediations) helps you understand the subject?
9) How many hours a week on average did you spend on learning this subject?
10) How do you understand SFL now?
11) What is the most impressive activity in the class?

Interview (04/15/2010)

1) What about this semester, how many courses are you taking?
2) What are the courses?
3) Do you like the courses?
4) What have you learned from the courses?
5) Are you trying to connect the topics for your class assignments with the knowledge you have learned before such as SFL and genre pedagogy?
6) Is your language learning experience influence the way you learn SFL and the knowledge from other courses?
7) Do you find learning of SFL easy at the beginning and difficult at the end or the other way around (difficult at the beginning and easy at the end of the year)?
8) What do you think of social interactions during the 14 week meetings when you were learning SFL and genre theory? And how are the interactions of the students in the other courses?
9) Did you ever meet with other international participants?
10) What is your areas of interest you would like to develop in the other courses
11) I want you to tell me about the project you have planned for the summer internship
12) What is your plan in teaching academic literacy in schools?
13) Or what is the focus of your instruction?
14) Or how would you like to use SFL and genre theory?
15) What genre are you going to teach to the students?
16) Is your final project in the course in SFL helpful in giving the idea of how to teach in Taiwan?
17) Which part of SFL contributes more to your understanding of how to teach?
18) In what ways does SFL help the process of making students know how to write?
19) Do you have any idea what kinds of activities that work in Taiwan context for students to be able to write?

Interview (01/24/2011):

1) How do you understand SFL/genre now?
2) What parts of the classroom activities help you understand the concept of SFL genre based pedagogy and other concepts of teaching?
3) Do you see something technical of learning SFL/something functional?
4) After taking 670 course and doing a practicum, how is your understanding of grammar and genre?
5) Do you think genre knowledge is essential to teach writing or is it deliberating the process of writing?
6) Is there any contribution of grammar to the teaching of writing? If yes, in what ways?
7) Do you apply SFL theory in your life such in writing a personal letter, in other language practices?
8) Will you use a textbook when you are teaching English in Taiwan?
9) What do you understand about traditional grammar now?
10) What should school improve its curriculum to provide a space for teaching writing, if you think that the teaching of writing is important in your context?
11) Do you think the teachers’ knowledge of grammar contributes to teaching writing?
12) Do you think writing an important skill to teach in Taiwan?
13) Do you have to go back to Taiwan upon completion of your study?
14) Does your experience in learning math and computer science influence the way you learn language and more the way you teach English? If yes, can you give me examples.
15) And what is your main reason for wanting to be an English teacher? Is there any influence from your family? What do your family want you to do? To be teacher or any other professions?
Interview (05/09/2011)

1. How did you feel when you were applying SFL in your internship?
2. Why did you do an internship project with SFL genre pedagogy?
3. Do you find yourself well prepared for teaching after completing your teacher education at a masters level?
4. How did you find SFL conceptions of grammar after you did an internship and you presented it in an LLC conference?
5. What is your opinion of grammar in general now?
6. How would you integrate grammar into your teaching?
7. Is grammar a crucial part of knowledge that teacher should have?
8. What do you think the most important aspects to consider when developing conceptions of grammar? Assessment of English language education or curriculum at schools? Your self, that is, your idealism of pedagogical concepts regardless of curriculum/your students’ expectations/any knowledge you get from teacher education program?
9. What do you think the ideal conceptions of grammar for teaching English in Taiwan context?
10. Based on your experience in going through a two year teacher education program, do you have any suggestions on what teacher education should offer to prepare student teachers?
11. What do you think of linguistic knowledge? Do you think it should be included in a teacher education program?
12. What do you think of the concepts of SFL? Do you think it responds to the current demands for communication across cultures?
13. What is other grammar knowledge you have in mind that is appropriate for the current demands for communication across cultures?
14. What is the current sociocultural changes in Taiwan which calls English language teachers to take actions?
15. Do you have any suggestions about what teacher education of language education in Taiwan should provide?
APPENDIX C

SELECTED INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTS

Interview 11/30/2009

82) WAWAN So speaking is the most important ability in Taiwan?
83) CHENLING No, it's the last.
84) WAWAN The last? What is the most? Reading?
85) CHENLING Yea, to read and you must know vocabulary. Yeah,
86) WAWAN [ .. ] and writing is not the most significant skill, is it?
87) CHENLING No, what I say, even though we know how to write in the class [she indicates 670 class], the teacher will teach introduction, body, and conclusion to echo the thesis statement.
88) WAWAN So, you don’t need to know that it is description, narrative, persuasion in teaching writing.
89) CHENLING You can do that but it is still very hard. I know it is reminding but it is hard to apply, still hard to practice.
90) WAWAN So --- how did you learn to write?
91) CHENLING We compare our writing which one is good, and we also have sentence bank --- [hesitating] the general guide for writing, do you know that?
92) WAWAN I am not sure I know. Is it compilations of sentences?
93) CHENLING It’s for GRE test.
94) WAWAN Do you have any concept yourself of teaching English for Taiwan context?
95) CHENLING [hesitating] I don’t know because writing is not my focus in junior high, I try to be myself to be a good model in making patterns when I am teaching vocabulary, so I think I need to prepare more. We need to show our English ability is good enough and [not clear].
96) WAWAN So your focus will be teaching speaking with good pronunciation?
97) CHENLING Yah, that’s the first one that I need to, knowledge about English culture so I can make sure. When I am teaching reading I can combine with teaching culture. It is very important because the English lesson in junior high is not difficult, but in senior high it is very difficult [not clear]
98) WAWAN Okay is the test in junior high school English like tenses, [hesitating]
99) CHENLING And the present perfect, it is the main.
100) WAWAN So how do you prepare to teach pronunciation?
101) CHENLING Even though I am here, I spend more time on reading, no speaking. Especially in my personality, I am no so talkative. I think its all culture because If I want to say something I am afraid my mind is not correct, so I don’t want to share.
102) WAWAN So if your are teaching in Taiwan, do you want your students to speak like American people?
103) CHENLING = No no no that is not my idea because pronunciation is important even in Taiwan, so the most important thing is how to communicate. If you can speak your idea correctly, that’s okay. As long as somebody can understand, it's okay.
Interview 1/24/2010

10) CHENLING : in the middle school, so but maybe they have some motivation to take writing course outside the school.

11) WAWAN : right [...] 

12) CHENLING : so they may [...] well [...] pay more attention to it

13) WAWAN : So why do they take a writing course outside the school?

14) CHENLING : I think just want to improve their English ability

15) WAWAN : = yah ...

16) CHENLING : you know like in the ... the school I think we cannot tell English teachers, they don’t have the ability to teach the English speaking ability, so I think students even not ... they don’t think English is important, so they have different master ability in English, so they also spend some money outside the school to learn English speaking or hire a tutor. Then they have a dialog in English

17) WAWAN : I see, I remember that you told me that English in Taiwan is mostly used for a ... working in business offices ....

18) CHENLING : = yah

19) WAWAN : so speaking is much more important than writing, so that's why writing is not really taken care in schools. But when you [...] when you learn SFL, did you realize that it is for teaching writing?

20) CHENLING : [hesitating] yes of course.

Interview 1/24/2011

43) WAWAN : Do you think you can combine between your knowledge of the constructivists and SFL?

44) CHENLING : I think [...] for me [...] I think something helpful is that I know that [...] so [...] I can maybe have a different attitude when I teach this lesson. Maybe I can. But you know the teachers don’t know this.

45) WAWAN : I see

46) CHENLING : = For the very concrete things, I am no saying I am better than any other teachers.

47) WAWAN : Okay. I am also wondering why you wanted to apply SFL in your practicum?

48) CHENLING : In my practicum?

49) WAWAN : yeah [...] in your practicum? Why are you interested in designing SFL based curriculum?

50) CHENLING : I think it is a practical choice because its [...] a [...] I know its theories are difficult but better than others.

51) WAWAN : but you didn’t know before, correct?

52) CHENLING : I didn’t know SFL before. But [...] but I think for masters degree we don’t have a chance to learn so many things, like I learn constructivism from other courses very little. But I learned SFL from two courses. So I think I have better knowledge about SFL than other knowledge, so to apply it in a practicum is very interesting because we can deepen our knowledge
and apply the theory in teaching. For masters degree we learned a lot of theories, so it’s a good chance.

53) WAWAN : Do you feel confident with your knowledge about SFL theory?
54) CHENLING : Let me think first. I think so. If teachers are teaching only based on a theory, I think it is not strong enough, like if I am teaching writing I spend sometime on learning theories to be more competent, but I think it’s a little trouble. I know if I really wanna apply this theory and I wanna apply this better, I know I have to spend many times on it.

55) WAWAN : right
56) CHENLING : you know what I mean.
57) WAWAN : yah.
58) CHENLING : I know the theory so I can create the activities to match the theories. You need to prepare, think about the students, you have to think what will happen in the classroom, you have to adapt, you have to change. I think this part we need to work on it. Not just theory is enough. Even I have knowledge of theory of my curriculum but I don’t think I am an expert of how to teach.

59) WAWAN : right. You said that when you designed a curriculum, your learning experience is inserted not only the theory you learned from your masters program but also your learning experiences influence the way you teach. In other words, the way you designed a curriculum is influenced by your learning experience, did you say that?
60) CHENLING : no not really. But I used a backward design.
61) WAWAN : can you tell me about the backward design?
62) CHENLING : it is a [...] backward design of curriculum [...] I think for most of the teachers, they way they teach is related to what they are thinking about, like how can I bring the students ... How can I teach them? What kinds of activities are good for them? Based on this theory, you need to think about the outcomes. After you teach, what kinds of things the students can learn. Think about your agenda. And think about the assessment.

63) WAWAN : I see.
64) CHENLING : So what kinds of evidence that shows that the students really learn. So lastly, set the activities. It should be different for different students.
65) WAWAN : I see
66) CHENLING : so like in the ... in the ... I think for most teachers, they think about activities first, sometimes the activities are just for fun, or just to make the classrooms nice and the students engaged, but what is the purpose behind this one. It’s useless. So that is the concept behind backward design.

67) WAWAN : Okay.
68) CHENLING : So I used this design to design curriculum with SFL.
69) WAWAN : How do you learn this design?
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