



Teacher cognition of experienced Taiwanese university teachers of English

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Supervisor

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Certificate of Authorship

I certify that this thesis has not previously been submitted for a degree nor is it being submitted as part of a candidature for any other degree. I also certify that this thesis has been written by me and that any help received in preparing this work, and all sources used, have been acknowledged in the thesis.

Signature of Candidate

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Abbreviations

1. ACTA: The Australian Council of TESOL Associations Inc
2. ET: expert teacher
3. EIL: English as international language
4. ELT: English language teaching
5. FLT: foreign language teaching
6. ESL: English as a second language
7. EFL: English as a foreign language
8. EU: European Union
9. FL: foreign language
10. ESL: English as a second language
11. ESP: English for specific purpose
12. EFL: English as a foreign language
13. GEPT: general English proficiency test
14. MOE: Ministry of Education
15. NESTs: native English speaker teachers
16. NNESTs: non-native English speaker teachers
17. NES: native English speaker
18. NNES: non-native English speaker
19. PK: pedagogical knowledge
20. SLTE: second language teacher education
21. SMK: subject matter knowledge
22. SOL: Speakers of other language
23. TOEIC: Test of English for International Communication
24. TESOL: Teaching of English to speakers of other languages

25. TE: teaching English

Abstract

English has become a lingua franca and English Language Teaching (ELT) is now a flourishing business worldwide. Within ELT, teachers whose first language is not English, constitute a rapidly increasing majority. However, their voices are seldom heard within mainstream global ELT culture. Hence, this research is a study of the professional practice of six experienced Taiwanese teachers of English engaged in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at university level in Taiwan. The study explores how teachers learn to teach from their years of teaching experience. It operates within an interpretivist paradigm and employs qualitative methods of lesson observation and teacher/student interviews.

It investigates how/what teachers do in the classroom, what teachers know, why teachers teach the ways they do, the sources of teachers' knowledge and beliefs and the relationship among their practices and their knowledge and/or beliefs. The data reveals a gap between teachers' beliefs and their practice. The findings show that teachers' understanding of (1) received knowledge (2) grounded beliefs (3) and contextual factors influence their practices. These components are all interwoven and interconnected. This study therefore discusses the complexity of these three major interlocking components from the findings of the thesis.

Teachers' cognitions influence what teachers do and the interaction between them and their students, and form their individual teaching practices. Each teacher's grounded beliefs have a greater impact on their practice than their received knowledge. Received

knowledge is mostly derived from overseas and is acquired by each teacher from SLTE programs. Received knowledge often contradicts but does not necessarily conflict with grounded beliefs which are the teacher's own, long-standing language learning/teaching beliefs that are situated where they work.

Contextual factors play a significant role in intervening between the received knowledge or received beliefs and practices. Contextual factors are perceived differently by each individual teacher; some teachers believe a grammar translation approach is the only effective approach in a large class; others amend CLT method to fit large class numbers and a teacher-centered local context. The results are relevant for teacher preparation, teacher development, language teacher educators, educational practitioners, scholars, TESOL organizations, policymakers and future research.

Chapter 1

Introduction

This chapter first addresses the phenomenon of English as a world language. It is followed by a brief statement of the problem and theoretical framework used. A summary of the research methodology, research questions and the potential significance of the research to ELT teaching in general, and teacher education in particular are then presented. The chapter closes with a number of definitions of the terminology that relates to the present study, to clarify the reading.

Overview: English as global English

The twenty-first century is regarded as the century of knowledge. Due to the spread of the Internet and globalization, coupled with its colonial history and economic imperialism (Pennycook, 1994, 1998; Phillipson, 1992), English has become a world language (discussed further in the following chapter). According to McArthur (2002) English is now spoken in every continent by over a billion people across the world, with about a quarter of them being native speakers. English is used in arenas such as airports, newspapers and periodicals, broadcast media, computer use, email and the Internet, international communications, international trade, academia and banking. A wide range of learners worldwide of all races and ages are studying English in order to communicate internationally.

The number of English users is rising; some parents in non-English speaking countries

are eager to seek better English courses for their children. The increasing popularity of learning English has affected the reform of English language education in many countries. These countries have been spending large amounts of money on English education in order to enhance the competitiveness of their citizens. This is evident in the lowering of the English learning age from high school to primary school in most of the Asian countries (Honna & Takeshita, 2005; Wu, 2001).

While the Taiwanese Government devotes billions of dollars each year to promoting English language teaching to support Taiwanese citizen's competitive capacity, some scholars have pointed out that this promotion of English language teaching has resulted in those who do not speak English being considered uncivilized and inferior; it has also led to the formation of social classes and contributed to inequality (Pennycook, 1994). Although the promoting of English by the Taiwanese Government may create problems, the public response to the government's promotion of English learning has nonetheless been generally positive. Further discussion of this area is covered in the next chapter.

Statement of the problem and the purpose of the study

The change in the English learning age from high school to primary school and the increase in EFL courses in the universities has led to a shortage of teachers in East Asia (Wu, 2001). Therefore, many East Asian countries have a policy of recruiting NESTs (native English speaking teachers), for instance, in Japan, Korea, Hong Kong, Taiwan (Taipei Times, 2003), Brunei, and some prosperous parts of China such as Beijing, Shanghai, Guangdong. Native English Teacher (NET) schemes are becoming increasingly popular (Luk & Lin, 2007). However, scholars in the field have implied

that although Asian countries spend large amounts of money on recruiting NESTs, constructing local teacher education programs may be more effective in the long run (Kirkpatrick, 2007; Nunan, 2003). In order to establish better teacher education for the local teachers, the knowledge base of local experienced teachers who have learned how to teach in their work place needs to be documented.

In addition, some NNESTs who went to English speaking countries for teacher training were concerned that the theories or teaching methodologies that they received in Britain, Australia and North America (BANA) are impractical in their original home countries (Liu, 1999). Many research studies have found that what teachers had learnt from teacher education programs was often not being implemented in their teaching practices. For instance, Bartels (2005) argued that although many teacher-learners graduated from Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) programs knowing CLT basic teaching skills they ended up teaching grammar. Consequently, it was generally agreed that the core of the knowledge base of education for language teachers must be reconceptualized (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a; Richards, 2008). At the present time, it has been suggested that SLTE programs shift from a focus on the notion of ‘methods’ to teachers themselves in order to understand and improve English language teaching (Wright, 2010).

Although many scholars have criticized the knowledge base of the SLTE programs being centered on the notion of ‘methods’, in many situations this remains its focus (Richards, 2008). This is problematic given that traditional SLTE programs assumed that prescribed teacher-learners with effective teaching behavior would provide successful learning outcomes. This kind of assumption which is derived from general

education defines teaching as a set of prescribed behaviors, routines practiced by expert teachers, known as the process-product paradigm (Johnson, 1999).

In other words, this paradigm sought a link between effective teaching behaviour and successful learning outcomes. Based on the results of process-product research, the teacher education program provided teacher-learners with a general theory and teaching methodology that was employed by effective teachers who believed these theories and teaching methodologies were applicable in any context of English language teaching (Holliday, 1994). However, effective teaching ought to be context specific due to the fact that effective practice in Taiwan may not be effective in Australia and vice versa. In the 1970s general teacher education was criticized owing to the process-product paradigm and a broad new research direction explored teachers' professional knowledge base was proposed (Shulman, 1987). The present study attempts to examine teachers' professional knowledge base, now known as *teacher cognition* to contribute to teacher preparation and teacher development.

Theoretical framework

Knowing what to do in any classroom depends on a wide range of considerations, and the ways teachers think about these considerations, and these should form the knowledge base (Johnson, 1999). The knowledge base thus ought to consist of forms of knowledge that document how teachers learn to teach within their social, cultural and institutional contexts (McKay, 1992). How teachers learn to teach can only be understood through teachers' verbal expressions and their classroom behaviour which

indicates their knowledge base, now known as *teacher cognition* in the language teaching field.

The examination of teachers' cognition was a new research direction following on from the product-process scrutinizes teachers' decision making and thoughts as cognitive development that directs and has a powerful impact on teachers' classroom behaviours. This line of research aimed to attain an improved understanding of what aspects of teacher thinking ought to be taken into consideration when establishing teacher education programs that aimed to make teachers more effective in the classroom (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Shulman, 1987). In each teaching experience, teachers act on their thinking, as well as plan and reflect on previous practices in order to know what to do in the classroom. These decisions are based on many sources such as contextual factors and the knowledge and beliefs that teachers have exhibited. Teachers' interpretations of their teaching, what they know and believe have become significant for educational reform (Shulman, 1987).

In the following decade, the field of language teaching was influenced by general education and embarked on an investigation of what teachers' know and believe in order to contribute to teacher preparation and teacher development (Freeman, 1991; Freeman, 2002; Richards & Nunan, 1990). For example, Freeman and Johnson (1998a) argued that reconceptualizing the knowledge base is more important than methods or materials and research can be carried out through investigation of teachers' actual classroom practices and teachers' reasoning as to why they teach as they do.

In addition Richards (2008) argues that teachers learning how to teach takes place within the context where teachers work and evolves through the interaction of the participants in that context. Teacher-learning how to teach is no longer perceived as it was traditionally as a task of applying theory to practice (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). It is viewed as building new knowledge and theory by partaking in specific social contexts and connecting in particular types of activities and processes. In other words, traditionally, learning to teach was viewed as learning general theories and methodologies from a teacher education program, observing teaching in practicum within that teacher education and then developing effective teaching in the first few years within a teaching career of teacher-learners (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a; Richards, 2008). In this sense, as Freeman and Johnson (1998a) argued the real learning of how to teach must have derived from the context where the teacher taught within the first few years. That is to say, the knowledge base of teaching would have been derived from implicit knowledge (also known as: practice, know how, procedure knowledge, practical knowledge, experiential knowledge, personal practical knowledge) which teachers learn from their years of teaching, their students and the context rather than explicit knowledge (also known as: theory, know about, content, knowing what, theoretical knowledge, propositional knowledge).

Implicit knowledge has often been contrasted with explicit knowledge which is more significant in affecting teachers' practices, the latter being mostly learnt from teacher education (Richards, 2008). Explicit knowledge is what teachers receive from SLTE

programs in which teachers have little direct experience of teaching (Burns, 2010; Burns & Richards, 2009). Implicit knowledge includes the beliefs that inform teachers' decision-making and problem-solving. They guide teachers in their management of different levels among students or unmotivated students in the classroom. Teachers may or may not be capable of portraying their implicit knowledge explicitly (Burns & Richards, 2009). Ultimately, a teacher's behaviour is guided by a combination of personal experiences, beliefs, values, biases and even prejudices (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Fang, 1996).

Implicit knowledge refers to a wide range of terms in the literature; these are, beliefs, and knowledge that underpins teachers' practical actions (Richards, 1996; Tsang, 2004). This knowledge is often constructed from their prior experience as an English learner, from day-to-day working in classrooms and learning how to teach from the students in a social context as well as other personal experiences. It is also grounded in a deep understanding of the subject matter interwoven with contextual factors acquired while teachers are learning how to teach. How teachers' *knowledge* and *beliefs* are conceived, all of these areas of studies are now known as *teacher cognition*. It is the *source* of teachers' practices and it is vital to elucidate the nature of teachers' cognition in which knowledge and beliefs can be elaborated, understood and reviewed (Richards, 2008).

The concept of teacher's cognition includes "what teachers think, know and believe and the relationship of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the language classroom" (Borg, 2003a, p. 81). Therefore, teacher belief is a component of teacher's

cognition. Teacher belief involves teachers developing problem-solving skills based on their personal understanding of the context; and grounded in their belief system (Smylie, 1994). Research studies have indicated that the beliefs that teachers possess significantly influence teachers' practice more than the relationship between explicit knowledge and teachers' teaching practice (Wright, 2010). Hence, teachers' beliefs as part of teachers' cognition, what is commonly referred to in the literature as implicit knowledge has a significant impact on one's teaching practice (Bartels, 2005).

Drawing on general education, teacher educators from within the field of language-teaching have come to recognize that teacher-learners bring their prior learning/teaching experiences, personal values and beliefs to SLTE programs (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a). Furthermore their prior learning experiences play a significant role in influencing their decision-making in the classroom thereby shaping their beliefs about teaching. As noted earlier, the importance of teacher cognition has long been recognized, and it is commonly accepted that there is a strong connection between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices. Freeman and Johnson (2005) point out that teachers' beliefs about teaching may be based on their knowledge as a student, their training as a teacher-learner and their experience from teaching. Research studies are also in agreement that the prior knowledge of teachers and the context such as their school and schooling are powerful factors that have a great impact on teachers' practices. Attention in the SLTE programs therefore needs to be focused on what teachers know and believe which is often derived from teachers' prior learning experiences.

Contextual factors must also be understood if the programs are to be strengthened and improved rather than simply replicate effective teaching behaviours (Freeman & Johnson, 1998b). Hence, the present study attempts to explore teachers' cognition to contribute to teacher preparation and teacher development, as noted. The theoretical framework underpinning the thesis is an examination of the cognition and practices of teachers.

Studies of teacher cognition draw attention to the stories of teachers' daily lives. These narratives represent teachers' knowledge, beliefs and their teaching; for example, the studies of Connelly and Clandinin (1984) and McDonald (1992). Hence, the primary guiding framework of the thesis is adapted from the knowledge base of language teachers as introduced by Freeman and Johnson (1998a); the three components: *the teacher- learner*, *the pedagogical process* and *the social context* are explored in order to understand how teachers learn to teach.

Explicit knowledge is generally transmitted to teacher-learners at SLTE programs. Freeman and Johnson (1998a) categorized explicit knowledge as part of *the teacher- learner* component in their framework. Under the teacher- learner framework, both beliefs fall into the same category, that is, the teaching beliefs from language educator of SLTE programs (i.e. explicit knowledge) and teacher-learners own teaching/learning beliefs (i.e. implicit knowledge) from their prior learning experience as an English learner are understood within the teacher-learner terminology. In other words, explicit and implicit knowledge are inseparable in their framework. However, in this thesis

explicit and implicit knowledge are treated as separate and understood as knowledge from SLTE program and beliefs of teachers respectively.

It is necessary to separate explicit and implicit knowledge in order to better understand EFL teachers' cognitions. The present study certainly does not wish to generalize the two different kinds of beliefs; however, the data from the participating teachers suggests that methods and theories that are not implemented into the classroom are those of explicit knowledge and those activities that are employed are developed from their implicit knowledge.

In order to distinguish *knowledge* and *beliefs*, this thesis categorizes explicit knowledge, received from teacher education, as received knowledge (RK) and implicit knowledge as grounded beliefs. Other research studies support the view that explicit knowledge relates to theory and methods (Aydin, Demirdogen, Akin, & Uzuntiryaki-Kondakci, 2015). Hence, received knowledge in the present study is defined as the understanding of the principle or theory or technical aspects of language teaching which is mostly *received* from teacher education and teachers often exploit this to articulate their teaching. It includes knowledge about subject matter, knowledge of pedagogical techniques and formal curricular knowledge (Shulman, 1986a).

Although the present thesis is adapted from Freeman and Johnson's (1998a) study, it differs with regard to the source of data collection and ways that the data is categorized.

The semi-structured interview questions of this thesis that assist in examining teachers' cognitions are created by Freeman and Johnson's tripartite elements. However, after data analysis, the thesis reorganized and renamed three components which conceptualize EFL teachers' cognitions. A further difference is that language learners and language learning are included in the present thesis yet were not included in the original framework. However, they indicated that "language learners and language learning/acquisition seem to be noticeably absent from our exposition of the knowledge-base (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a, p. 411)". It is argued in this thesis that the inclusion of student interview data is important and can be exploited as a source for confirmation of data analysis from both interviews with teachers and classrooms observations. In addition, teachers' views of both their students and language learning were important sources that determined the activities, teaching strategies and the content of the lessons.

The three reorganized and renamed components of EFL teachers' cognitions are necessary. In the EFL context, classroom conditions are frequently different than ESL classrooms. Nishino's (2008) study indicates that the EFL context like in Japan commonly includes "large classes, a traditional of nonnative teacher-centred lessons, limited communicative needs among students, and minimal foreign language input outside the classroom" (p.29). She further noted that under such conditions, methods like CLT become less effective as it is implemented in ESL context. Hence, the contextual factors intervene with teachers' cognitions. Received Knowledge (i.e. explicit knowledge) that non-native teachers *received* from SLTE programs may not work meaning that non-native teachers rely on their Grounded Beliefs (i.e. implicit

knowledge).

In other words, received knowledge (the theories, methodology and teaching strategies of teaching) that the non-native teacher-learners are exposed to differs according to the perceived needs of the specific SLTE program as assessed by the individual training providers, and the accessibility of expertise of each provider (Wright, 2010).

Specifically, beliefs that a non-native teacher-learner may encounter from ESL educators in SLTE programs in English speaking countries commonly differ from the beliefs that non-native teacher-learners experienced in their home country. Furthermore, the teaching methods are often perceived to be more suitable for ESL contexts rather than EFL contexts (Liu, 1999; Nishino, 2008). Hence, this thesis categorizes the beliefs that teacher-learners *received* from English speaking countries (ie. explicit knowledge) as Received Knowledge.

Explicit knowledge or Received Knowledge in the present thesis refers to the explicit knowledge *received* from English speaking countries and is quite different from teachers' own learning/teaching experiences and learning/teaching techniques (Burns, 2010; Richards, 2008). On the other hand, implicit knowledge or Grounded Beliefs are shaped by teachers' previous learning experience as an English learner, teacher's personal practical knowledge and values and beliefs (Baker, 2014; Connelly & Clandinin, 1988). The present thesis reorganized and renamed three elements in order to make the framework more feasible and suitable for research that focuses on the EFL context.

The first component in their framework is *the teacher-learner*. In their argument, the SLTE program is mainly concerned with seeing teachers as learners of language teaching rather than learners of the English language. However, teacher-learners are often treated as empty vessels to be filled with the general theory of teaching and methodology of teaching skills rather than as individuals who think and learn in their own way. Hence, they have proposed that the need to understand the source of teachers learning is important in order to teach. These sources can be organized into four areas; they are (1) the role of prior knowledge and beliefs in learning to teach (2) teaching knowledge developing over time (3) the role of context in teacher learning (4) the role of teacher education in changing teachers' beliefs about content and learners.

As noted, the present study categorizes these areas differently in order to distinguish teachers' *grounded beliefs* from the beliefs teachers *receive* from teacher education. As mentioned, existing research maintains that teachers' beliefs have a greater influence on teachers' practices than the knowledge which they received during their teacher education and thus it seems reasonable to distinguish these different kinds of beliefs. One is the beliefs acquired throughout teachers' years of learning and teaching experiences and the other is the beliefs retained from SLTE teacher education. It thus becomes clear that to understand how teachers learn to teach, the beliefs and knowledge they conceptualized from their memories of episodes in their school and schooling ought to be documented. As mentioned above, *the role of context in teacher learning* has been reorganized in the present thesis into the category of the contextual factors, which enables a more realistic discussion of these factors. This is a key difference

between their framework and the present thesis.

The second component from their framework is *the pedagogical process*, namely the activity of teaching. It is similar to *teachers' practice* in the present study. However, this component does not appear to be the source of teacher's learning. Rather it is the teaching practice which reflect teacher's mental constructs, knowledge and beliefs. Hence, in the present thesis, RK, GBs and CFs are the three components of the source of teacher's learning to teach and their relationship with their teaching practice shaping EFL teacher cognition. This is further difference of this thesis in comparison to Freeman and Johnson's (1998a) framework.

Due to the complexity of the classroom teaching, they suggested *the pedagogical process* be categorized under 'content' (that is the perceptions of what has been taught in the lessons by both teachers and the students) and 'subject matter' (that is professional or disciplinary perception) (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a, p. 410). In other words, the criterion for categorizing *teachers' pedagogical process* is to explore what teachers do in terms of their teaching strategies, approaches and methods.

The final component of their framework is *the social context*. From their perspective schools and schooling provide the framework of value and interpretation in which teachers must learn to work effectively within their specific work context. In brief, the school is the focus of the 'physical and sociocultural settings' where teachers work, for

instance, the classroom functions which affect what teachers can do or cannot do in the classroom (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a, p. 408). Schooling is where teachers obtain value and meaning to participate over time in the specific sociocultural context and this experience provides many constructs. The thesis considers the using of *contextual factors* more appropriate. The contextual factors emerging from the present data are those aspects that teachers have no power over; such as large classroom size. By renaming *the social context* from the framework of Freeman and Johnson to *contextual factors*, it emphasizes factors that teachers have no control over (Burns, 2010). For instance, Underwood (2012) states that “Factors such as difficult classroom conditions, the absence of training, an unsupportive school environment, insufficient resources, and mismatched, high-stakes assessment have all been reported to inhibit curricular reform at the classroom level” (p.911).

Hence, the relationship between RK, GB and CF is such that the contextual factors, for instance large class size, mean that teaching methods derived from SLTE programs (including CLT) are loosely implemented in classrooms. Therefore, teacher’s grounded beliefs have more influence in the classroom than received knowledge. As stated, part of teacher learning is derived from the context, and hence, the contextual factors influence what teachers believe and determine whether received knowledge from teacher education can be applied in their teaching practice. The teaching practice that a teacher implements in the classroom is either influenced by the *contextual factors* that the teacher perceives or is the result of negotiation between a teacher’s *received knowledge* and their *grounded beliefs*. Hence, these three components construct the sources of teacher learning. RK, GBs and CFs that teachers have in relation to their actual teaching

practice referred to as EFL teacher cognition in order to distinguish it from teacher cognition of ESL teacher.

Research methodology

The present study commenced with observing the lessons of six experienced Taiwanese teachers of English in a university and what they did in the classroom. Then, the teachers were interviewed in relation to why they taught in the ways they did and the contextual factors that encouraged or hindered the translation of their cognition into practice. Teachers' teaching experience, their knowledge of their subject matter, their beliefs or attitudes about instructional practice and their relationship with the students were all explored.

As noted earlier, teachers' cognitions can be found from scrutiny of teachers' actual classroom practices and teachers' knowledge base is embedded in their practices. In order to understand what teachers do in the classroom and why they behave as they do Munby (1982, 1984) argues that the traditional inventories which present a list of items to teachers may or may not be applicable to their unique professional reality since learning to teach is context-specific. Hence, the present study is a qualitative study which investigates teachers' cognitions through open-ended interviews and observations of the lessons. Observations and interviews must be included if inferences are to be drawn fruitfully and precisely according to the research studies related to teacher cognition.

This study explores what teachers know and what they do and why they do particular things in their actual classroom in order to understand teachers' cognitions. It seeks to describe EFL teachers' articulation of why they teach as they do in order to develop a better understanding of how teachers' teaching is influenced by their knowledge, beliefs and contextual factors. It aims to understand how knowledge and beliefs in language teaching/learning have developed over time and have subsequently informed their practice and constitute their cognitions. Research studies of experienced teachers in general education are concerned with effective teaching/learning. For instance, "what experts or experienced teachers say or do is now considered important for building a science of teaching" (Ornstein, 1995, p. 77). Consequently, the importance of exploring experienced teachers' cognitions and understanding how their classroom practices are affected by their knowledge and beliefs are significant, and thus the subjects for this study are experienced teachers. It is hoped that through exploring experienced teachers' understanding of knowledge, beliefs and contextual factors, the study can come to a better understanding of the relationships between these components and their classroom practice.

The experienced teachers in this study are those English teachers who have taught English in a university context for more than seven years. Some research studies in general education refer to an experienced teacher as one who has worked more than five years; owing to the complexity of language teaching, this study considers a greater number of teaching years are required before a language teacher can be considered as experienced. Hence, the experienced teachers in this present study had more than seven

years teaching experience. In this study, most of the six experienced teachers had undertaken their undergraduate study in Taiwan and five of them had been educated in BANA for their Master's degree. These teachers had experience with different sets of knowledge and beliefs about English learning and teaching that presumably had a strong influence on the formation of their practice. In other words, the present study investigates experienced teachers' classroom practice to search for teachers' cognitions to highlight the complex bodies of knowledge, beliefs, and contextual factors teachers possess. To increase insights into these experienced teachers in regard to their English teaching/learning experiences in their work place, we need to understand different ways of teaching and learning. These different ways of learning and teaching in turn contribute to language teachers' preparation and teacher development to reconceptualize the knowledge base of language teaching (Richards, 2008).

The summary of the chapters

The overview of this study is presented in the present chapter. The background to ELT teaching, reform of English education and English teaching practice in Taiwan are presented in **Chapter 2**. The literature review in **Chapter 3** illuminates the theoretical background to this research along with aspects in respect to teaching effectiveness, teacher cognition, received knowledge, grounded beliefs and contextual factors. The relationship among knowledge, beliefs and teachers' teaching practice, and the significance of the study are all discussed within this chapter.

Chapter 4 describes the site of the research and methodological framework. This study

was conducted in a tertiary institution in Taipei, Taiwan. The participants are a group of six experienced Taiwanese English teachers. The participating classes are comprised of three reading and three speaking/listening classes. The students were from non-English major backgrounds. This study is situated within an interpretivist paradigm and the primary approaches to data collection are those that draw on qualitative data. The different sets of data are correlated to triangulate and to complement each other. Three sources of data were collected, through classroom observations and a series of semi-structured interviews with both teachers and focus group students, all of which were audio-recorded. The first data source was a total of 24 sessions of teachers' classroom observation. The second data source was collected during the follow-up interviews with individual teachers from teachers' classroom observations. The final set of data relate to interviews with six focus groups of non-English major students. However, the data of the students was used to confirm what the observer saw in the lessons and to verify teachers' interpretations of their pedagogical teaching process. Hence, the data of the students features less in the result chapters to avoid confusing and blurring the focus of the investigation on EFL teachers' knowledge base.

Chapter 5 illustrates teachers' practice in order to understand teachers' cognitions. It is not only a description of what teachers' do in the classroom but also a brief discussion of teachers' reasoning of their teaching behaviours. There are three main teaching practices that emerged from the present study: the presentation of strategies, the presentation of content and the presentation of subject matter. The presentation of strategies revealed from the present data is whether a teacher behaved in an authoritarian or friendly classroom demeanor. The presentation of content revealed from

the data was whether the content focused on inspiring the students and providing additional knowledge other than the English language. The presentation of subject matter was GTM and an adapted version of CLT in a teacher-centered teaching.

Chapter 6 discusses the sources of teachers' cognitions. The received knowledge which emerged from the data is the understanding of the principle and teaching skills based on theoretical models that teachers had learned in the formal teacher education. Teachers often have very little direct experience of these models. However they use received knowledge as a shared professional discourse to articulate their teaching. Knowledge from traditional SLTE programs often rejects the old teaching approaches and embraces new ones; for instance, most of the programs support CLT replacing grammar teaching.

Grounded beliefs refer to teachers' beliefs that are derived from years and years of teaching and learning experiences within a specific context. These influence teachers' practices more than the knowledge they received from the SLTE programs. They inform teachers' decision-making and problem-solving. They guide teachers in their management of different levels among students or unmotivated students in the classroom. They are beliefs that teachers may or may not be capable of portraying explicitly. This chapter indicates that grounded beliefs appear to have a greater influence than received knowledge on teaching - a result which is consistent with the preceding research studies that showed teachers' beliefs play a more influential role than knowledge received from traditional SLTE programs.

Teachers' received knowledge was attained from SLTE programs and their grounded beliefs were accumulated from their apprenticeship of observation, their personal teaching/learning experience and the students they faced at various times. The relationship among teachers' knowledge, beliefs and their teaching was that their teaching mostly reflected their grounded beliefs. Some teachers embraced RK and rejected GBs while others negotiated between RK and GBs. These findings support the contention that the relationship between teacher's beliefs and classroom teaching is an uneasy one. This chapter therefore demonstrates the complexity of the relationship among RK, GBs and classroom teaching. In particular, the grounded beliefs of the teachers that emerged from the data yielded valuable insights into how beliefs about teaching influence teachers' practices. This chapter also investigates the contextual factors (CFs) that influence teachers' practice. In one sense, this chapter reveals Taiwanese university teachers' understanding of CFs. There are five main CFs that emerged in relation to the teachers. They are (1) standardized textbook and prescribed curriculum (2) large class size (3) segregated skills teaching (4) examinations (5) teacher development.

Chapter 7 explores the congruence or lack of congruence between teacher cognition and classroom practice. Finally, this thesis concludes with **Chapter 8** with the findings and explicitly addresses the research questions. The practical implications relating to the investigation of teachers' teaching are provided. The theoretical suggestions support the theoretical research gap - how teachers learn to teach, is discussed.

Research questions

The research questions for this study were:

1. What do experienced teachers do in the classroom and what are the teachers' cognitions behind their classroom behaviour?
2. What are the sources of teachers' cognitions?
3. What is the congruence or lack of congruence between teacher cognition and classroom practice? And why?

The significance of this study lies in its aim to observe what teachers do in the classrooms and employs teacher cognition to investigate why certain classroom activities were used in preference to others. It is hoped the findings will be valuable for understanding teachers' teaching in EFL contexts.

In this study, there were a total of six teacher participants, five of whom received a Masters in education or literature studies from an English speaking country and one who has never left Taiwan. Although this research is of particular significance for the Taiwanese context, it has broader significance outside Taiwan in contexts that have similar educational background or culture. Its findings are also significant to SLTE programs in English speaking countries, more specifically results are relevant to language teacher educators, educational practitioners, scholars, TESOL organizations, policymakers, and for future research.

Definitions of the terminology

The following definitions are provided in order to enhance understanding of the literature review and to clarify their relevance to the study.

Subject matter knowledge

This is the knowledge of the key facts and major theories in a subject region and how the subject area is systematized (Shulman, 1986b).

General pedagogical knowledge

This is knowledge about teaching which includes beliefs, teaching skills in relation to general principles of teaching, how students learn, how a classroom should be managed that covers most subject areas (Shulman, 1986b).

Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK)

This is a form of practical knowledge that is used by teachers to direct their classroom behaviour in extremely contextualized classroom settings. It combines subject matter knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge to make material comprehensible for students (Shulman, 1987).

Procedural knowledge

This is knowledge of the day-to-day operations of managing a language classroom, in

other words, the knowledge of how things work within a specific context (Johnson, 1999).

Teacher cognition

Teacher cognition according to Borg (2003a) is “what teachers think, know and believe and the relationship of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the language classroom” (p.81).

Teacher beliefs

A teacher’s beliefs are the teacher’s mental constructs that can be influenced by institutional and classroom realities. They constitute an intuitive screen that a teacher holds which acts as a filter, through which evaluations can be made to make sense of teaching methods, interpret teaching situations, and articulate her/his reasons for making individual instructional judgments and decisions (Goodman, 1988; Johnson, 1995; Woods, 1996).

Grounded beliefs (GBs)

The thesis uses grounded beliefs to distinguish them from received knowledge which a teacher receives from SLTE programs and of which they have no or less direct experience. The thesis defines grounded beliefs as beliefs that are derived from years and years of teaching and learning experiences within a specific context which inform

teachers' decision-making and problem-solving, and guide teachers in managing different levels of attainment among students or unmotivated students in the classroom. They are beliefs that teachers may or may not be capable of portraying explicitly. They are a combination of personal experiences, beliefs, values, biases and even prejudices that guide teacher's behaviour (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Fang, 1996).

Received knowledge (RK)

This is the explicit knowledge which teachers acquire from SLTE programs of which they have little direct experience. It includes an understanding of the principles or theory or technical aspects of language teaching which are mostly derived from teacher education and teachers often exploit these to articulate their teaching. They include knowledge about subject matter, knowledge of pedagogical techniques and formal curricular knowledge (Shulman, 1986a).

Teacher's teaching/ practices

A teacher's practice is his/her displayed observable behaviour in the classroom. A teacher's teaching practice is generally based on some sort of beliefs or knowledge. It is influenced by a wide range of factors, such as a teacher's educational background, the school, the teacher's knowledge and beliefs about teaching and learning, and their relationship with their students (Hsu, 2006).

Contextual factors (CFs)

The thesis defines contextual factors as social, physical, institutional, instructional settings which shape teachers' learning and further influence teachers' cognitions and their practices (Freeman, 2002). It includes not only the physical setting of the classroom or the structure of the university but the resources available in the community and the social context such as political atmosphere which teachers often have no control over. Hence, the importance of contextual factors stretches beyond the physical setting of the classroom and the institutional setting that affects the teacher.

Grammar Translation Method (GTM)

This was the main language teaching method for EFL teaching in the nineteenth century. Each grammar point was listed in the textbook and the teacher explained the rules of its use, and the grammar point was understood through analysis of sample sentences. The target language was classified into syntactical rules such as tenses, phrases, clauses, and sentence patterns to be explained and memorized. Oral speech was rarely used and the purpose of language learning was to apply the given rules through appropriate exercises. The only instruction form was mechanical translation (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The approach of CLT is to propose ways for learners to use a second language to communicate in a classroom context. Hence, the teacher ought to create activities to enable students to accomplish the goal of communication in group or pair work by using the target language. The role of the teacher has become one of facilitator and

monitor rather than being a model for correct speech and writing (Richards, 2006).

Teaching approach

According to Anthony (1963) an approach refers to a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. It describes the nature of the subject matter, which is the content to be taught and the order in which the content should be carried out. Richards and Rodgers (2001) adapted Anthony's study and defined an approach as a set of beliefs and principles that can be used as the foundation of practices in language teaching. Examples of approaches are communicative language teaching and content-based instruction (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Teaching Method

A method is governed by reliance on a design, for instance, types of learning and teaching activities, roles of teachers, learners and materials, and is realized in teaching procedure and technique. It is theoretically associated to an approach (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Examples of methods are the grammar-translation method and total physical response (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Before the 1990s, it was assumed that each development in the teaching practices that underpinned each method would be more effective and provide a theoretically sound basis than what had gone before. The quality of language teaching would be improved when teachers employed the most up-to-date methods. By the 1990s, many applied linguistics and language teachers moved away from this belief that newer methods were the solution to problems in

language teaching. Alternative ways of understanding the nature of language teaching have emerged in what Kumaravadivelu (1994) refers to as the “post-methods era”.

Teaching strategy

Teaching strategy is a plan or a program that is extensively used in the classroom to ensure that a certain message or lesson is passed from the teacher to the student (Anthony, 1963).

Teaching technique

This refers to things you do which might improve teaching and the teaching skills you work on.

Chapter 2

The context: English and Taiwan

Introduction

This chapter discusses how English is promoted in Taiwan, particularly to raise Taiwan's profile in terms of globalization and to increase the country's entrepreneurial opportunities. The chapter also discusses how the government implements English through social, educational and employment channels to enhance citizens' English competence. Last, the chapter presents a brief description of the MOE's (Minister of Education) educational reform of English education and the teaching practice of English in Taiwan.

The impact of globalization and English as a lingua franca

Teaching English is a flourishing business worldwide. Presently English is a lingua franca, with many countries using it for political, economic, social, cultural, trade and academic purposes. English also serves as a marker of individual identity. English as a lingua franca refers to English as an additionally acquired language that is used as a contact language between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common culture (Firth, 1996). English as a lingua franca within intercultural interactions is not determined by adherence to native-speaker norms but the result of negotiations of meaning for business, political, academic and travel purposes between the wider NNE (non-native English) speakers (Hülmbauer, Böhringer, & Seidlhofer, 2008).

Many countries may view globalization, the interconnectedness of the world in a single global market, which develops politics, and international connections, as an essentially liberating phenomenon that supports the democratization of societies and individuals, and thus English has become an access tool (Mermann-Jozwiak & Sullivan, 2005; Tsui & Tollefson, 2007). Given the effects of globalization, many Asian countries believed there was a need to teach English as part of a national strategy aimed at engaging with an increasingly globalized economy (Tsui & Tollefson, 2007). The impact of globalization and English as a lingua franca may be a motivation for the increase of English language teaching and thus English language teachers are inevitably in demand (Richards, 2008, p. 158).

The influence of globalization and English as a lingua franca has had an impact on the role of English in Taiwan. As the Taiwanese Government promotes English and English education; the demand for English teachers has dramatically increased. Tertiary institutions offer an array of English classes, and English teaching jobs abound. To meet the demands of a growing number of English classes, teachers with any majors such as, agriculture, engineering, accounting, are teaching English in universities. English for some people is merely a compulsory subject at school while for others it may play an important role in their lives. Therefore, it is difficult to define English in Taiwan as it can be regarded as either a foreign or second language. Older generations and a large proportion of the population experience English as a foreign language. For the younger generation and some professionals, English has gradually become a second language to

them for the purpose of international business, technology, tourism, law, medicine and academia (Seilhamer, 2012; Tiangco, 2005).

Although English is not used to communicate socially, Taiwanese society has placed itself under duress to learn English (Tiangco, 2005). For instance, the public servants and government scientific research specialists experience increasing pressure to improve their English proficiency. Evidence of implementation of English by the government includes: English websites on government home pages, English resources for rural schools, providing scholarships for foreign students and encouraging university lecturers to conduct courses in English (Lin, 2003; Ministry of Education Taiwan, 2006c).

Moreover, in order to improve public servants' English competency, the government has provided English lessons at lunchtime or after office hours. An English proficiency test was promoted to service industries, for instance, restaurant owners and taxi drivers. Taxi drivers are encouraged to take an English test and once the taxi driver passes the English test, a bilingual sign is awarded and placed on top of the taxi. In a media context, local TV news, newspapers and magazines in English have been widely introduced, especially by the private sectors.

It will take a long time for Taiwan's desire to achieve a status quo in which English is the second official language (Yang, 2002). Nevertheless, the Taiwanese Government has gradually taken steps towards the goal of English as a second language. At present, most

government workers have to sit an English proficiency test. English learning in Taiwan has become a 全民運動 (literally meaning whole-citizens-sport, this refers to a national campaign or country-wide movement) (Syu, 2005). The following section presents how this ‘national campaign’ is promoted in Taiwan through the government’s national plans. For example, *Challenging 2008: National Development Key Plans (2007)* declared:

English is the main communication vehicle for our country to connect [with] the world; to expedite Taiwan’s connection with the international community.

Moreover, in 2009 the project titled “Upgrading Citizens’ English Proficiency” was established in cooperation with the Executive Government’s plans to create an international living environment which was to be administered by Central Ministries and Local Governments. The term was from 2010 to 2012 and the budget was NT\$600 million. The concept:

Implement English signage systems to create a more internationalized living environment, install English-language learning sites ... (Ministry of Education Taiwan, 2008b)

Reasons which led to the promotion of English teaching in Taiwan

There are several reasons for the promotion of English teaching in Taiwan. They are: globalization, assisting the improvement of poor economic situations, public response being positive to the government’s promotion of English, and entrepreneurial heavyweights’ endorsement of English learning. With its entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2002, Taiwan entered a new era by becoming a member of the global market. As a result, the Taiwanese Government has extensively promoted English

learning at various levels in eight-year development projects in order to make Taiwan more competitive in the international market (Chen, 2005). English was promoted in order to prepare Taiwan's citizens for a globalizing economy and enable them to seek job opportunities overseas and in foreign companies within Taiwan. In addition, the economic imperative has been a major impetus in the Taiwan Government's attempt to improve English teaching and learning at all educational levels and among the general public (Nunan, 2003).

Taiwan's public response to English promotion has been positive. It is not only the motivations illustrated above that indicate reasonable arguments for the government to promote English learning. Taiwanese individuals are also intent on learning English to improve their employment opportunities (Tiangco, 2005) especially as entrepreneurial heavyweights consistently announce their need for employees who are competent in English. For instance, Morris Chang, Chairman of the world's largest semiconductor foundry, the Taiwan Semiconductor Manufacturing Co (TSMC), has spoken to the public about the need to develop English education. He has frequently commented on TV news and in newspaper or magazine interviews that Taiwanese university students do not have adequate English language skills, which he believes is a weakness for employment (Siu, 2006).

The reason for entrepreneurs to promote English is that 90% of the world's notebook computers, motherboards and cable modems are manufactured at Taiwan's Hsinchu Science and Industrial Park (Gumbel, 2009). These entrepreneurs state that they require

university graduates with adequate English to be able to communicate with their overseas clients. Universities are encouraged to provide a variety of English courses to meet the demands of industry; for example, business English and presentation English courses. Consequently, English is considered desirable for employees in Taiwanese society at the present time (Apple Daily, 2008).

Another reason is that holding an English proficiency certificate is necessary for better employment. Since 90% of high school graduates are able to enroll in a university and graduate with a degree (Now News, 2011), holding an undergraduate degree is essential for employment; however it does not provide an extra edge for employment. As a result, Taiwanese students nowadays are persuaded to take further graduate degrees. In Taiwan, a bachelor degree has come to be regarded as the new high school degree, a Master degree has become the new bachelor degree (Huang, 2004).

Under these circumstances having a good command of English has become increasingly important, especially as most graduates possess equivalent qualifications. This is the reason why companies in Taiwan have utilized TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) and GEPT (General English Proficiency Test) as a gatekeeper (Seilhamer, 2012). Therefore, university students' motivation to learn English has become rather high. A researcher found that Taiwanese students learn English for practical reasons such as finding decent employment in the future or understanding their specialist subjects (Lai, 2008).

So far, the thesis has demonstrated the reasons that English teaching is promoted in Taiwan. It has also explained how the Taiwanese Government planned to raise the English competency of its citizens in order to access and to be part of a global economy. Thus, the universities need to enhance students' English proficiency in order to fulfill the government's scheme. Therefore, the reformation of English education is inevitable and this is introduced in the next section.

Reform of English education

In order to enhance effective teaching and learning in English programs, some universities changed their textbooks from those selected by teachers to the uniform texts of Language Centers or Foreign Language Departments. The modification of English education can also be seen in the change at some universities from traditional classes where English-major students had the majority of their subjects together regardless of their level to mixed-streaming where students are grouped according to their English level for English class. Some classes have limited the numbers of students in the English class to 35, while others remain between 40 to 100 students. English language is the instructional language in eight universities, while others continue to use Mandarin (Ministry of Education Taiwan, 2006b). Some universities may have up to 50 native English speaking teachers, while others remain with only one or two.

In addition, the English learning age has been gradually reshaped by the Taiwanese Government. For example, in 1994 it was announced that the English curriculum would be introduced at year seven. Then in 1998, English was introduced in the public primary

schools of three Taiwanese cities; in 2001 this reform was modified to lower the age at which children begin learning English to year five nationwide. In 2002, another adjustment was made and the age was lowered again to year three (Lin, 2003). In order to cope with teacher shortages from lowering the learning age to year three, a native speaker teacher recruitment policy was initiated. One of the reasons for lowering the age of English learning was to enhance the English proficiency of university students and staff. According to the Ministry of Education, students and teachers lack competency in English in higher education. This is revealed in the following statement (2004):

Our students have difficulty reading foreign texts in the original, and they [are] unable to converse in foreign tongues, let alone write papers in foreign languages. Many who teach in our universities holding local doctorates dread the idea of going abroad for further studies, of participating in international symposia or presenting conference papers. Our university curricula can hardly attract foreign students. Of course, to attract foreign students it is not enough to change our curricula and merely use English as the language of tuition. The most important consideration is whether or not we have sufficient academic standards to make the degrees we proffer competitive on an international level, and enough to attract foreign students. (Ministry of Education: Taiwan, 2004)

From this statement it is evident that lowering the English learning age and recruitment of expatriate teachers was designed to enhance the English capability of university students and staff.

Moreover, in 2004 the government implemented a policy in which all university graduates are required to pass the GEPT to be awarded a degree. Before this policy was executed some universities took the initiative three or four years earlier. The Taiwanese

Government also provides a large amount of financial support to universities for research purposes and English related projects. For instance, in 2002, the “program to raise the international competitiveness of Taiwan’s universities” was initiated. The main objectives of this program were:

- (1) to organize international academic activities
- (2) encourage universities to participate in international assessment programs
- (3) actively raise students’ foreign language skills
- (4) enhance the study environment for international students
- (5) encourage universities to recruit international students
- (6) encourage universities to organize WTO-related courses or programs with the aim of assisting universities to enhance their international competitiveness and broaden their international horizons (Ministry of Education Taiwan,

2006a, p. 8)

The Taiwanese Government provides subsidies to attract foreign students to local universities to support their scholarship programs (Ministry of Education Taiwan, 2008a). In a sense, this can be seen as compelling academics and staff in higher education to conduct and enforce their English skills even when only one foreign student was enrolled. As this foreign student stated “... Even though I had studied Chinese for a year, the professors still taught in English for my benefit” (Ministry of Education Taiwan, 2008a, p. 35).

This phenomenon could possibly also be due to globalization and the aim of many countries to internationalize higher education so as to attract students. Hence, it was

necessary for the university courses to be conducted in the lingua franca of English, to serve foreign students who came from diverse language backgrounds. In the following section, I discuss the English teaching practice of teachers in this context that has made it difficult to meet the expectations of the MOE in Taiwan.

The teaching practice of English in Taiwan

English language teaching has been experiencing significant changes in the last few years in Taiwan. As mentioned earlier, recently the learning of English was lowered from year seven to year three. Moreover, the goal of English learning in primary school is to develop pupils' competence in communicating and for this reason CLT was introduced. In 2012, four primary schools in New Taipei were selected for an experiment in English-only tuition for all subjects or certain subjects; each individual school is different (He & Guo, 2012).

Traditionally, English practice consisted of grammar translation from MOE, and locally this resulted in a teach-to-test practice from teachers (Su, 2000). At present, the government promotes CLT but locally the practices remain traditional (Daly, 2009). Despite the government's update of its language reform in respect to classroom practice, teachers seem reluctant to change (Daly, 2009). For example, Shih (1998) stated that the standard curriculum in respect to ELT mandated prior to 1968 followed grammar-translation teaching; the one mandated in 1971 focused on reading and writing with little emphasis on listening and speaking (Shih 1998 as cited in Chern, 2002).

The instructional focus in schools did not usually follow the curriculum guidelines stipulated by the government which has often been taught with a focus on language forms since this was specified in school curricula (Chern, 2002). Given that most of the aims of English practice were to help students pass the entrance examinations to prestigious high schools and universities, this was the reason the so-called 'teach-to-test' practice was applied (Su, 2000).

The illustration above indicates the resistance of teachers to the government's language reform. Although this happened four decades ago it still occurs today; the government promotes CLT rhetoric but locally practices remain traditional, as noted earlier (Daly, 2009). Daly (2009) maintained that the complex factors inhibiting the implementation of CLT in Taiwan are:

Political and educational democratization and decentralization in Taiwan in the 1990s further made the implementation of national teaching guidelines, like the CLT-based ones mentioned above, almost impossible. School autonomy in choosing texts and shaping curriculum, and principals elected by teachers resulted in tremendous power allocated to teachers - who, as a collective, will naturally resist change especially considering that their primary obligation to students, parents and school is to prepare their students to perform well on all-or-nothing exams at the high school and college entrance levels. (p.10)

Clearly, the Taiwanese Government supports English education reform away from the practice of teacher-centered towards learner-centered teaching and developing students' communication skills. This change inevitably involves teachers in a new role and work in the classroom. Furthermore the new teacher preparation program unavoidably

requires an adjustment in teachers' beliefs (Eisenhart, Shrum, Harding, & Cuthbert, 1988). However, without the understanding of teachers' classroom teaching and beliefs, education reform can be difficult, according to Shulman (1987).

Conclusion

The chapter has demonstrated the reasons for the Taiwanese Government's promotion of English learning/teaching. However, the success of English education involves several participants including curriculum planners, textbook writers, teacher educators and teachers. Each constitutes an important connection in the learning/teaching of English. Among them the most important participant is the teacher who has a direct bearing on determining and influencing the desired learning outcome. Although it is true that a number of individuals may work hard to support making learning English possible, the teaching and beliefs of teachers have a direct influence on the students. Therefore, it is important to understand teacher's classroom teaching and their thoughts on what is successful in the context of where their work takes place. Although many research studies have been conducted on teacher's thoughts and classroom practice in primary and secondary teachers, very little research has focused on in-service university teachers' practices and cognition in Taiwan. This study attempts to address this gap.

Chapter 3

Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of the study is an attempt to understand how teachers learn to teach; it thus explores what teachers know, believe and what they do and why they do particular things in their teaching in order to understand EFL teaching and teachers' cognitions. The present study centered on an investigation of teachers' cognition which examines components that are believed to have contributed to effective teaching or to make class work successful. Therefore, the reviews of the related areas in the literature such as effective teaching, teacher cognition, received knowledge, grounded beliefs, contextual factors and the relationship among teachers' beliefs, knowledge and contextual factors that may influence teaching are included.

Effective teaching

The literature on effective teaching in earlier studies investigated teachers' personality, teaching behaviour, teaching skills, teaching styles, a teacher-proof curriculum and time allocations (Good, 1996; Harris, 1998). In particular, there was ample research on observable 'teacher behaviour' that was conducted within the psychological research tradition which assumes that complex forms of situation-specific human performance can be understood by teaching behaviour (Brophy & Good, 1986). These kinds of research studies are called 'process-product' research. They provided a teacher with a set of discrete behaviors, routines, or documented what was effective or what an expert

did in practice was generated within the process-product paradigm. It therefore provided a link between the behaviour of teachers (process criteria) and student performance (product criteria), and those behaviors that connected positively with students' performance on standardized examinations were extracted as being effective teaching and advocated in teacher education (Gage, 1963, 1978; Shulman, 1992).

Overall, there were both positive and negative reviews on the studies of the process-product paradigm. For example, according to Medley (1982) the findings from process-product studies were valuable as providing research in teacher effectiveness for the first time in 80 years. Nevertheless, process-product studies have been criticized by researchers as having methodological and conceptual problems. For instance, Shulman (1986a) cautioned against the indiscriminate use of these findings as critical features which are regarded as being significant in teaching seemed to be ignored in the quest for general principles of effective teaching.

In other words, the process-product paradigm is solely interested in the way a teacher behaved and missed out the chief elements of teaching which are the teacher's thoughts, the subject matter being taught, the classroom context, the physical and psychological characteristics of the students and the accomplishment of purposes not readily assessed by standardized means. It was also criticized because the activity of teaching was not viewed as a cognitive activity to be studied or researched further and it therefore denied the complexities of interaction between student and teacher, and ignored and undervalued the personal experience of teachers (Nunan, 1992; Smyth, 1987). Hence,

Shulman (1986b) proposed that in order to understand a teacher's understanding of effective teaching, the teacher's knowledge about decision-making in the class ought to be understood. He therefore developed a pioneer study which investigated teachers' knowledge of pedagogical content to understand teaching.

The above is concerned with teaching effectiveness associated with general education. There is closely related to the more recent language teaching studies that have sought to identify teaching effectiveness. These are an indication of the massive amounts of work focusing on the Native English Speaker (NES) and Non-Native English Speaker (NNES) teacher's effectiveness. Despite the fact that there is a dilemma evident in the use of these terms, research studies in respect to NES and NNES remains of increasing interest (Faez, 2011). The problem concerning the definitions is that these terms are solely concerned with race (i.e. skin color) or those born with genetic information of the target language. As Pennycook states:

The idea of native and non-native speakers really does not do any useful work in thinking about real language use, and does a great deal of harm as a categorization that cannot escape its roots in nationalism, racism and colonialism. (Pennycook, 2012, p. 99)

Although the terms NESTs and NNESTs remain controversial, this is an issue beyond the remit of this thesis. The research studies related to NESTs and NNESTs include teachers' self-perceptions, collaboration between NEST/NNEST groups, and the perceptions of students in these groups with respect to teachers' practice and

effectiveness in class (Braine, 2010), for example the studies of Medgyes (1992; 1994), Kamhi-Stein (2009), Llurda (2005) and Carless and Walker (2006). In general, these studies generally demonstrate that both groups of teachers are effective on their own terms (Medgyes, 1994).

Some studies have proposed a shift from a comparative perspective of both teacher groups to examining a single group (Braine, 2010; Llurda, 2005). The thesis echoes this view and suggests it may be beneficial to focus on the practice of NNESTs in an EFL context. To investigate NNESTs' views of effective teaching is to examine teachers' knowledge, beliefs and practice, and to probe into what factors influence the reflection of their knowledge or beliefs into the practices. There are three major reasons for doing so. Firstly, 80% of English speakers in the world are non-native (Braine, 2010; Canagarajah, 1999a) and most of the English language teaching (ELT) is in the hands of these local English teachers.

Secondly, many NNESTs with training experience at Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) programs in BANA often perceive a gap between the theoretical TESOL coursework and the actual classroom teaching in their home countries (Bartels, 2005; Liu, 1999). For example, Liu (1999) reports that NNESTs perceived their teacher training courses in BANA were not effective when applied in their original countries, especially in the case of acquisition theories and teaching methodologies. Thirdly, Freeman and Johnson (1998a) believe that what in-service teachers know, and how they know and conceptualize should be assessed in order to inform SLTE programs. This is

especially relevant in the TESOL field since its subject matter is English language; language educators need to understand what English language teachers need to know beyond the subject matter itself to move away from the current situation in which any NEST can teach English (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a). Similar to general education, however, there has been a decade of delays in second/foreign language teaching since researchers proposed *teacher thought* ought to be documented in order to understand teacher's knowledge of teaching to contribute to teacher preparation and teacher development.

Teacher cognition

Research in teacher cognition began in the 1970s. It came about mainly as a recognition of the shortcomings of process-product research as previously mentioned (Shulman, 1987, 1992). Prior to Shulman's (1987) pioneering work there was a lack of focus in the investigation of in-service teachers' knowledge base; now known as teacher cognition. He points out that teaching reform ought to focus on understanding teachers' reasoning, transformation and reflection and this is a missing paradigm in the research. In his studies, there are seven areas in teachers' professional knowledge. They are:

- (1) content knowledge;
- (2) general pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter;
- (3) curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as "tools of the trade" for teachers;

- (4) pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding;
- (5) knowledge of learners and their characteristics;
- (6) knowledge of educational contexts; ranging from the working of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures; and
- (7) knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds. (Shulman, 1987, p. 8)

Shulman (1987) concluded that these areas of professional knowledge have a great influence on how teachers deliver their subject matter content. However, he also cautioned that the knowledge he proposed are not stable and needed more adjustment and fine-tuning by additional research studies. He believed knowledge of pedagogical content (PCK) is the most critical one. Pedagogical content knowledge includes subject knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge. It goes beyond textbook knowledge; it is a synthesis and represents in a most teachable way; in other words, it is a teacher's unique knowledge (Aydin, et al., 2015). Its features not only reveal a teacher's full grasp of the subject matter, but also a student's learning characteristics. Then, teachers present their knowledge of the subject matter in a way the students can understand and construct knowledge. In other words, pedagogical content knowledge is comprised of a combination of experiential and professional knowledge that forms teachers' reasoning and is tacitly grounded in teachers' teaching practice.

After Shulman (1986b) called for an investigation of teachers' knowledge base, many research studies scrutinized effective teaching as located in teacher decision-making and looked into the teacher's knowledge of their subject matter during practical teaching. To understand teachers' practices, studies have argued that teaching cannot be treated as behavior separate from the reasoning on which it is based; in other words, teachers are not technicians merely skilled in performing functions according to prescriptions from teacher education (Clark & Peterson, 1986). Rather, "To understand teaching, we must look at how it is conceived, at the thinking on which it is based" (Freeman & Richards, 1993, p. 209). Teachers' pedagogical views, perceptions, and cognitions often direct pedagogical judgments and classroom actions.

In the language teaching field, since the 1990s the need to listen to teachers' voices to understand classroom practice has been emphasized (Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Bailey, 2001). For example, a priority research agenda raised by the TESOL organization as follows indicates the importance of uncovering teachers' knowledge, beliefs and practices (TESOL research agenda, 2000).

What knowledge, skills, and attitudes should an effective TESOL teacher have, and how are such attributes obtained? How can practicing teachers maintain their enthusiasm and professional commitment? How do language teachers continue to upgrade their skills and knowledge throughout their professional lifespans? (p.15)

Following Shulman's (1987) work, there have been a growing number of studies related to in-service teachers' knowledge in diverse disciplines such as English literature,

mathematics, history, biology and social science. A number of studies have compared the knowledge of expert and novice teachers among diverse disciplines (Tsui, 2003). In the language teaching field, for example, Watzke (2007) studied nine foreign language (FL) teachers of French, German, and Spanish for two years employing a grounded theory approach. He identified four categories representing change in the content of novice FL teachers' pedagogical knowledge. They are:

- (1) prior knowledge that frames instructional decisions
- (2) attitudes towards teacher control in the classroom
- (3) instructional goals for daily lessons
- (4) considerations for responding to student affect (p. 69)

In addition, the review study of PCK by Hong Kong scholars Zhou and Huo (2012) concluded that teachers should be aware of their own strengths and limitations and they need to have relevant teaching content and teaching knowledge, practical knowledge, and even psychology and the sociology of knowledge, to apply to the actual teaching situation.

A further strategy for investigating teacher's pedagogical content knowledge is through examining what constitutes a good language teacher. The research studies in respect to this area explore the characteristics of a good language teacher as an essential prerequisite for the development of expertise. Brown (2001) adapted Pennington's (1990) study to propose eight major professional goals as an example of a list of the attributes of a good language teacher. They are:

- a knowledge of the theoretical foundations of language learning and language teaching
- the analytical skills necessary for assessing different teaching contexts and classroom conditions
- an awareness of alternative teaching techniques and the ability to put these into practice
- the confidence and skill to alter your teaching techniques as needed
- practical experience with different teaching techniques
- informed knowledge of yourself and your students
- interpersonal communication skills
- attitudes of flexibility and openness to change (p. 426)

Although few research studies investigate teachers' knowledge through exploration of teachers' perceptions in regard to a good teacher, Mullock (2003) criticized Brown's study (2001) that speculated on good teacher characteristics as being weak for it only covered professional perspectives which were not data-based. Another flaw within the research studies associated with teachers' knowledge in regard to being effective in the classroom is that PCK seems unsuitable to apply in research associated with language practices. As noted, owing to Shulman's (1987) work, the period of 1980 to 1990, marked a turning point of change and reconceptualization into how research should investigate teaching in order to contribute to teacher education. The focus shifted from a process-product paradigm to teachers' PCK. However, according to Freeman (2002), PCK becomes a messy and impracticable concept when it is applied to language teaching research, as it sets up possible conflicts such as the teacher's linguistic knowledge, the students' first language background and the language interactions in the classroom. He argued throughout the two decades that "while PCK had helped to refocus both research and teacher education on the kinds of knowledge and know-how that teachers actually use in their classroom practices, as an epistemological concept it

was seriously flawed” (Freeman, 2002, p. 6). Nonetheless, progress had been made in the studies of teachers’ mental lives from PCK which are presently listed under the terminology of teacher cognition. This progress was achieved thanks to Shulman’s contribution in chairing a colloquium at the 1992 American Educational Research Association in which he discussed the implications and flawed nature of PCK (Freeman, 2002).

Tremendous progress has now been made from PCK to language research studies under the terminology of teacher cognition. According to the literature, the bulk of research on language teacher cognition which was interpreted through investigations of teacher’s thinking started to appear in the mid-1990s. Language teacher cognition is a difficult concept to define. There is evidence to suggest that different terminologies have been used to describe similar concepts (see Borg, 2003a for a comprehensive overview of the studies in this area). The terms that have been used in research on L2 ‘teacher cognition’ including pedagogical principles (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001), personal practical knowledge (Golombek, 1998), practical knowledge (Meijer, Verloop, & Beijaard, 1999), theories of practice (Burns, 1996), conceptions of practice (Freeman, 1993), just to name a few.

Some examples of definitions are, for instance: Richards, Tung and Ng (1992) define the term *culture of teaching* as “the nature of teachers’ knowledge and belief systems, their views as to what constitutes good teaching, and their views of the systems in which they work and their role within it” (p. 81). Richards (1996) also used the

terminology *Maxims* as “personal working principles which reflect teachers’ individual philosophies of teaching” (p. 293). Borg (1998) uses the terminology *personal pedagogical systems* to describe “stores of beliefs, knowledge, theories, assumptions and attitudes which play a significant role in shaping teachers’ instructional decisions” (p. 9). Gatbonton (1999) defined *pedagogical knowledge* as “the teacher’s accumulated knowledge about the teaching act (i.e. its goals, procedures, strategies) that serves as the basis for his or her classroom behaviour and activities” (p. 35). Later Borg (2003a) uses the terminology *teacher cognition* to describe “what teachers think, know, and believe and the relationships of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the language teaching classroom” (p. 81), and the thesis is following this definition. Borg (2006b) further defines teacher cognition as “the complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thought and beliefs that language teachers draw on in their work” (p. 272).

In brief, teacher cognition includes decision-making, teacher’s beliefs about teaching, knowledge and presentation of subject matter, problem-solving and the improvisational skills utilized by teachers with different levels of teaching experience during teaching (Borg, 2006b; Richards, 2008). Teacher cognition consists of teachers’ knowledge and beliefs that are to be found in teachers’ practices (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988). Johnson (2006) sees teacher cognition as providing some of the most significant research in the contemporary TESOL field:

Although the overall mission of second language (L2) teacher education has remained relatively constant, that is, to prepare L2 teachers to do the work of this profession, the field’s understanding of that work ... Many factors have

advanced the field's understanding of L2 teachers' work, but none is more significant than the emergence of a substantial body of research now referred to as *teacher cognition* ... (p. 235 and 236)

Teacher cognition has focused research studies on what teachers actually know, how they use that knowledge and what impact their decisions have on their practices.

Through teacher cognition, teachers are able to set up teaching/learning goals, classroom procedures and teaching strategies to constitute the act of teaching, which serves as the basic source for teacher's teaching practices. Johnson (2006) argues that the findings of teacher cognition have important implications if language teacher education to be improved. She states:

L2 teacher learning as normative and lifelong, as emerging out of and through experiences in social contexts: as learners in classrooms and schools, as participants in professional teacher education programs, and later as teachers in settings where they work. It described L2 teacher learning as socially negotiated and contingent on knowledge of self, subject matter, curricula, and setting. It shows L2 teachers as users and creators of legitimate forms of knowledge who make decisions about how best to teach their L2 students within complex socially, culturally, and historically situated contexts. (Johnson, 2006, p. 239)

Documenting teacher cognition in order to understand how teachers learn to teach and using those findings to train teacher-learners has become pivotal for SLTE programs (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a; Freeman & Johnson, 2005; Richards, 1998; Tarone & Allwright, 2005) and yet it is missing from SLTE programs (Richards, 2008). Owing to language teaching in the 1990s, researchers have problematized the relationship between practical teaching skills (i.e. practice) and academic knowledge (i.e. theory)

and their representation in SLTE programs. Hence, teacher cognition research has increased as the result of issues with the ways SLTE represent their courses. One way to clarify the issue of theory and practice was to regard each as a different kind of knowledge. Clarification of the knowledge base of SLTE is to understand it as explicit and implicit knowledge (Richards, 2008), as noted in Chapter 1.

Explicit knowledge constituting the basis of *knowledge about* is often established as a core subject of the SLTE program in MA coursework on topics such as language analysis, discourse analysis, phonology, curriculum development and methodology. There is an unquestioned assumption that such knowledge informs effective teaching in teachers' practice once they have graduated from the course (Johnson, 1999). Recent research indicates that teachers in fact fail to implement such knowledge in their practice, for instance, teachers understand the principles of CLT teaching; however, their practices often revealed grammar teaching (Bartels, 2005). This is due to the fact that the knowledge base within the SLTE program was originally drawn from other disciplines, not language teaching itself and thus it became problematic since language teaching ought to take account of socially and culturally appropriate issues which differed from other disciplines (Freeman, 2002).

Implicit knowledge is about *knowledge how* and is often missing from the SLTE programs (Richards, 1996; Tsang, 2004). The core of implicit knowledge covers a range of teachers' beliefs, theories, and knowledge that underlie teachers' practical actions. Implicit knowledge provides teacher-learners with a focus on 'practice'. For instance,

an SLTE program which involved teacher-learners gaining teaching skills via attending experienced teachers and practice-teaching in a controlled setting. Good teaching was valued as mastery of a set of skills or competencies, for example, the Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) offered by British Council (Richards, 2008).

Both explicit and implicit knowledge were acquired from a single context-SLTE program and ignored contextual factors relating to the context where the teacher worked. What teachers do in class is often influenced by the classroom setting or administration and so forth. Hence, teachers learning how to teach should draw on the teaching and learning experiences that they attain after the SLTE programs. Thus, Johnson (1999) argues that to understand how a teacher learns to teach it is essential to document teacher cognition in the context where their actual teaching takes place.

Given that teachers' cognition is grounded in teachers' knowledge and beliefs, that is teachers' interpretations about teaching, this interprets teaching as an accumulation of what teachers know and their beliefs about teaching, about the students and about the learning and about where teachers' knowledge and beliefs come from. By understanding teaching through teacher cognition the SLTE is able to recognize the ways teachers learn to teach and accumulate knowledge and beliefs which make sense of themselves as teachers. Hence, supported by the works of Grossman (1990) and Shulman (1987), Freeman and Johnson (1998a) have proposed a framework that is built on three basic aspects of teacher knowledge, they are: the teacher-learner, the pedagogical process and

the social context. This thesis explores teachers' knowledge based on this framework.

Among the three components as noted in Chapter 1, they describe the first component in their framework as the part of learning to teach which teacher-learners learned from language teacher education (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a). The program often sees teachers as learners of language teaching rather than learners of English language. However, teacher-learners are often treated as empty vessels to be filled with general theory of teaching and methodology teaching skills rather than as individuals who think and learn in their own way. Hence, the research ought to explore the teacher as a learner to examine how in-service teachers reconceptualize their knowledge base. The second component of their framework is the pedagogical process, or examining what teachers' do within the complexity of classroom teaching. They suggested classroom activity should be categorized under 'content' and 'subject matter' (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a, p. 410). In other words, the criterion for categorizing teachers' pedagogical process is to explore what teachers' do in terms of teachers' teaching strategies, approaches and methods.

The final component of the framework is the social context. From their perspective, schools and schooling are a framework of value and interpretation in which teachers must learn to work effectively within the specific context of their work place. The schools are the physical and sociocultural settings and the schooling is where teachers acquire value and meaning for participating over time in the specific sociocultural context. By the mid-1980s, an emergent view of teaching had begun with teachers' past

learning experiences seen as having great influence on teachers' teaching practice (Bailey et al., 1996; Lortie, 1975). There was general agreement among research studies that teachers' prior learning experience should be valued as a pivotal source which plays a significant role in teachers' practices.

The three components from Freeman and Johnson's (1998a) framework are interconnected and interdependent. This thesis adapts their rationale which illustrates the forms of knowledge that articulate teacher learning to teach within specific social, cultural, and institutional contexts. However, the thesis works on three reorganized and renamed components in teachers' cognitive systems. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the reorganized and renamed components are singled out for the sake of distinguishing between beliefs from SLTE programs and a teacher's own beliefs. An additional reason is that the thesis perceived teachers' views of both their students and language learning to be important sources that determined the activities, teaching strategies and content of lessons. In addition, the data of student-learners is an additional resource used to confirm the other data sources; specifically teachers' interpretations of their teaching practice and the researcher's classroom observations. However, the language learners and language learning were not included in their framework. In addition as Borg (2006b) argues, given that the study of teacher cognition is highly context-sensitive, research studies are expected to understand the different elements in teachers' cognitive systems. Hence, the three reorganized and renamed components are necessary and useful. The renamed components are: received knowledge, grounded beliefs and contextual factors. The research studies related to the three components are discussed as follows.

Received knowledge

As noted in Chapter 1, received knowledge (RK) is explicit knowledge mostly received from teacher education when teachers have little direct experience as a language learner. It includes the understanding of the principle or theory or technical aspects about language teaching which are mostly received from teacher education and teachers often exploit these to articulate their teaching. They include knowledge about subject matter, knowledge of pedagogical techniques and formal curricular knowledge (Shulman, 1986a). This knowledge provides a clear rationale to teacher-learners and is inclined to make teacher-learners accept and use such knowledge as a behaviour guideline (Bartels, 2005). Many traditional SLTE programs often impose the ideas of contemporary methods over traditional ones on teacher-learners; for instance, they advocate CLT over grammar teaching. Since the knowledge is received from SLTE programs and teachers have little direct experience, the thesis categorizes this as received knowledge.

Making teachers more effective in their teaching practice is the ultimate goal of teacher education (Harris, 1998). However, some research studies in the language teaching field have found that the knowledge that is received from most SLTE programs poorly accommodates the expectations of the teacher-learners. As noted earlier, it is often assumed in SLTE programs that the general theories and methods provided are applicable in any teaching situation or context (Freeman, 2002; Holliday, 1994; Richards, 2008). The problem lies in the fact that most SLTE programs were provided to assist teacher-learners to learn prescribed behaviors or actions that would lead to student learning. Learning to teach became learning from a single specific context, that

is learning from an SLTE program, such as participating in observation in a practicum and hoping that effective teaching would eventually develop in the first few years of a teacher's teaching (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a). Nevertheless, such assumptions ignore those pivotal factors that play significant roles during learning to teach, such as who the teachers or students are, and the features of each social, cultural and political situation. Hence, it is arguable the important aspect of learning to teach lies in the context where a teacher works.

The problem outlined above is partly due to the fact that the field of TESOL started in 1960 and its teacher education programs and the training courses are still in the developmental stage and commonly prescribed by applied linguistic or SLA specialists (Richards, 2008). In other words, received knowledge was presumed to be a body of empirically derived theories and facts constructed from research in regard to how students learn and what effective teachers do, and mostly from general education, as noted. Received knowledge in this sense was something that was almost external to the teacher (Johnson, 1999), especially to EFL teachers. This kind of assumption ignores the issue that much of what teachers know about teaching comes from their actual classroom experiences inside and outside the classroom (Berliner, 1986). As Johnson (1999) argues, what works with a group of students may not work with another; hence, the notion of teaching means working out what to do with a particular, topic, the students, and the time and place. However, most SLTE programs still provide teacher-learners with:

Most programs present teachers with a quantifiable amount knowledge, usually in the form of general theories and methods that are characterized as being

applicable to any language learning or teaching context. In addition, this knowledge tends to be oversimplified, decontextualized, compartmentalized into separate course offerings, and transmitted through passive instructional strategies such as course reading, lectures, exams and term papers. (Johnson, 1999, p. 8)

In the 1990s this resulted in the difficulty that many SLTE programs were based on a theory that was then developed into practice despite the fact that teacher-learners often found the theory hard to apply in their teaching practicum. Hence, different ideas of what should be the knowledge base of the SLTE program were raised among teacher educators. For instance, Tarone and Allwright (2005) believed that the knowledge base of the SLTE programs should center on providing teacher-learners with explicit and implicit knowledge, and hence teacher-learners should learn about language analysis and phonology or how to use language to enhance teacher-learners' language competence during the training. This kind of program still remains popular in most SLTE programs. In contrast, Freeman and Johnson (1998a) argued that the knowledge base in SLTE programs must be replaced by reconceptualizing the nature of teacher learning, that is, to investigate teachers' professional lives and to understand teachers' beliefs through what teachers articulate about their practices or examine teacher-learners prior learning experiences within SLTE programs, and change teachers' beliefs if necessary.

Given that most SLTE programs offer methodologies or general theories of teaching, teacher-learners have found that they were not useful in their original countries as previously mentioned (Liu, 1999). The inadequacies of this kind of knowledge base

from most traditional SLTE programs are apparent (Johnson, 1999). Consequently, there is a need for new ways of delivering a knowledge base and reconceptualizing a new knowledge base from SLTE programs; one-size cannot fit all (Holliday, 1994). At the present time, it is important for research studies to focus on the sociocultural perspective of teacher learning and it has been recognized that an emphasis on teachers' cognitions as the background to teaching practice is the most important research area (Holliday, 1994; Richards, 2008). There is ample research investigating the language of teaching itself and focusing on examining teachers' thoughts in order to reconceptualize the knowledge base (Richards, 2008).

The thesis is positioned within the argument of Freeman and Johnson (1998a) that part of teacher learning occurs within its social context. In other words, there are a great number of factors that could possibly influence teachers' practices such as their power of observation during their apprenticeship, contextual factors, teachers' knowledge, beliefs and all facets of classroom life. If we agree the knowledge base of teacher education is to concentrate on raising teachers' language ability then it implies NESTs are better teachers than NNESTs since the main strength of NESTs is having higher language proficiency (Medgyes, 1992). However, many research studies have argued that the language competence of NNESTs should not be a handicap in teaching practice (Braine, 1999; Kamhi-Stein, 2004; Llurda, 2005).

Even a teacher with mastery over a wide range of skills learnt from explicit and implicit knowledge may still fail to implement both forms of knowledge in their classroom

practices. For instance, in Johnson's study (1999) a teacher had excellent grades in all her MA course work with both implicit and explicit knowledge and was considered one of the best graduates. However, she had failed to manage the day-to-day operations of teaching a second language and she had inadequate knowledge of second language students to manage the reality of a classroom.

Arguably, part of *teacher learning* is situated in the teaching context itself. Johnson (1999) argues that learning to teach is a long-standing, complex, socially constructed, continuing development which is obtained by participating in the social practices associated with teaching and learning. It is affected by the accumulation of our experiences, which some teachers exhibit earlier in their career than others (Gebhard, 2006). Learning to teach "requires the acquisition and interaction of knowledge and beliefs about oneself as teacher, of the content to be taught, of one's student, and classroom life. It is the combination of such experiences, knowledge and beliefs, when situated in the context of real classrooms, that forms the foundation for teachers' reasoning and the justifications for their classroom practices" (Johnson, 1999, p. 54).

In addition Richards (2008) suggested reconsidering the theory of practice, that is to theorize from the nature of teaching itself. He states that:

Central to *knowledge how* are concepts such as pedagogical content knowledge (the capacity to transform content into accessible and learnable forms) and practical knowledge, all of which refer to the knowledge and thinking that teachers make use of in facilitating learning in their classrooms and which belong

to a third strand that has often been missing from formulations of the core content of SLTE [second language teacher education] — namely the nature of teaching itself. (p. 163)

From this perspective, part of teacher learning occurs from the nature of teaching itself, which is, learning how to teach from teaching. In other words, teaching is not, as previously theorized, simply the exercise of skills or implementation of *methods* in a classroom. Research studies at present generally agree that a review of the two paradigms (i.e. theory/practice or explicit/implicit knowledge) is problematic as noted, and therefore third paradigm has been proposed - that knowledge ought to derive from where a teacher works in different social contexts (Bartels, 2005; Freeman, 2009; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Richards, 2008).

Moreover, Borg in an interview indicates that due to the fact that teachers possess their own ideas, individual ways of doing things and personal preferences, the idea of training teachers according to what expert teachers do in the classroom began to be questioned during the 1970s (Birello, 2012). As a result, educational researchers became more aware of the fact that developments in cognitive psychology highlighted complex relationships between what people do and what they know and believe, and the mental lives of teachers should play a significant role in their instructional choices. Soon after, many research studies indicated that teachers' thinking and beliefs play an active role in their classroom practices (Please see Borg's studies for more detail 2006b, 2009). Teacher's grounded beliefs are therefore discussed as follows.

Grounded beliefs

Teaching combines decision-making in association with praise and discipline, content pedagogy, the students/teacher relationship, materials used for instruction, and communication among teachers (Griffin, 1999). Existing work indicates that teachers establish their own problem-solving skills based on their personal understanding of the context; and this, personal understanding, is grounded in their belief system (Smylie, 1994). The thesis uses grounded beliefs as distinct from received knowledge which is the beliefs teachers received from SLTE programs of which they have little direct experience. Grounded beliefs are here defined as the beliefs that inform teachers' decision-making, problem-solving and that guide teachers to manage different levels of or unmotivated students in the classroom. They are beliefs that teachers may or may not be capable of portraying explicitly. It is the combination of personal experiences, beliefs, values, biases and even prejudices that guide a teacher's behaviour (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Fang, 1996).

The existing literature had also generally agreed that teachers' grounded beliefs drive their classroom actions. Johnson (1999) described grounded beliefs as having an affective and a behavioral element that influences what people know, feel, and behave. A teacher's beliefs are a teacher's mental constructs that can be influenced by institutional and classroom realities. It is an intuitive screen that teacher hold which acts as a filter; through the filter teachers are able to form an evaluation and instructional judgment and make decisions that direct their behaviour to work toward their objectives or goals (Goodman, 1988; Johnson, 1995; Shavelson, 1983; Woods, 1996).

Research studies have found that different teaching beliefs are shaped by a teacher's disposition; educational background, the school, the schoolings, what kind of students they taught, their teaching environment and professional competence (Hsu, 2006; Johnson, 1999). Different teachers' grounded beliefs lead to different kinds of teaching behaviour while decision-making and thinking further influence teacher effectiveness in the classroom. Perceptibly, "when specific beliefs are careful operationalized, appropriate methodology chosen, and design thoughtfully constructed, their study becomes viable and rewarding" (Pajares, 1992, p. 308). Woods (1996) also rightly argued that "teachers 'interpret' a teaching situation in the light of their beliefs about the learning and teaching of what they consider a second language to consist of; the result of this interpretation is what the teacher plans for and attempts to create in the classroom" (p.69).

Research studies in relation to teacher beliefs have elicited valuable insights into how those beliefs about teaching influence teachers' choice of approach and the activities they use in class (Borg, 1999; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). According to Pajares (1992) "when clusters of beliefs are organized around an object or situation and predisposed to action, this holistic organization becomes an attitude. Beliefs may also become values, which house the evaluative, comparative, and judgmental functions of beliefs and replace predisposition with an imperative to action" (p. 314). Hence, Clandinin and Connelly (1988) argued that beliefs are also in the same category as attitudes, values, judgments, and perceptions but with different terminologies and other researchers

generally agreed that beliefs, attitudes, and values are derived from one's belief system.

Porter and Freeman (1986) described teachers' grounded beliefs concerning students and the learning process, the role of schools in society, the role of the teachers and the goals of the curriculum and pedagogy as the orientations to teaching. These grounded beliefs underlie questions about the aims of schooling, about teacher responsibility for completing the goals perceived by teachers themselves and about beliefs that students are able or unable to achieve these goals. They shape the kind of attitudes about schooling, about teaching, about learning, and about students and these are associated with teachers' beliefs that are grounded, or based around the teachers' settings and operation. Most importantly, Rokeach (1968) argued that to understand beliefs it is essential that inferences about one's underlying states are taken into account as individuals are commonly incapable or unwilling, for many reasons, to clearly make manifest their beliefs. Hence, beliefs cannot be directly observed or measured; to understand beliefs it is necessary to analyze what people say, intend, and do.

Teachers' grounded beliefs may often be traced back to their experience of being taught as a student. Such personal experience "provides teachers with an image of what teaching is and should be like" (Tsui, 2007, p. 1054). Lortie (1975) refers to this as the *apprenticeship of observation*. This kind of grounded belief is largely internalized by teachers from their student life and it is difficult to alter, hence newly acquired beliefs from teacher education programs are most vulnerable to change (Clark, 1988; Lewis, 1990). According to Richardson (1996) teachers' grounded beliefs are shaped by their

experience prior to their teacher training as an apprenticeship of observation. It is hard to change teacher's beliefs which are often established throughout an extended period of time. In other words, teacher's grounded beliefs are derived from their personal observations of how their teachers taught them when they were young. Research studies have found that there was a tendency for individuals to be inclined to hold onto grounded beliefs that were built on incomplete knowledge even after logically correct justifications were delivered to them (Nespor, 1987; Posner, Strike, Hewson, & Gertzog, 1982). It is therefore apparent that the apprenticeship of observation has a great influence on teachers learning to teach. However, many scholars believe teachers' grounded beliefs can be changed through curriculum design (Brousseau & Freeman, 1988; Johnson, 1999).

The apprenticeship of observation has a particularly strong influence on teachers who join the profession without professional training (Tsui, 2007). As English students they may have been influenced by their teacher's conceptions of how language should be learnt and taught (Freeman & Johnson, 1998b). Beliefs derived from their former teachers influence their perception and judgment and construction of their beliefs therefore influence teachers' classroom behaviour and decision-making (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Weinstein, 1989). Hence, understanding the grounded belief structure of teachers is significant for improving teacher preparation and teacher development (Freeman, 2009; Johnson, 2009; Shulman, 1987).

Understanding teachers' grounded beliefs is pivotal to understanding teaching due to the fact that teachers' grounded beliefs of what to do in their classroom depends on what the teachers' beliefs of: what students need to know, how motivate their students are and the

level of students' English proficiency (Johnson, 1999).

Knowledge, beliefs and relationship with teachers' practices

Teachers' beliefs are often related to the kind and level of knowledge they possess.

There has been general agreement that differentiating knowledge from beliefs is a somewhat formidable concept and research studies have avoided identifying such a concept. This is due to the difficulty of identifying where beliefs end and knowledge starts, especially as the two systems have many points in common (Abelson, 1979; Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Pajares, 1992). For instance, according to Abelson (1979) consensuality is not an apparent characteristic of belief systems hence "there are cases where it is not clear whether something is a belief system or knowledge system" (p. 357). He provides an illustration in which every normal member of a particular culture accepts the existence of witches as true. They do not regard this as a belief but a knowledge system, "they *know* about witches" (p.357). However, he explains this through the eyes of an anthropologist who has studied many cultures that are aware that witches do not exist, and thus he employs the label of a belief system to explicate a belief in the phenomenon of witches. For this reason, there is a degree of messiness in studies of belief and knowledge (Pajares, 1992). It has become accepted that beliefs and knowledge are related to one another and beliefs system are sufficiently distinct to be distinguished from knowledge (Abelson, 1979).

Despite the difficulty in the distinction between beliefs and knowledge some researchers have devoted great efforts to distinguishing between the two; they are Abelson (1979),

Nespor (1987), Connelly and Clandinin (1988) and Pajares (1992). Nespor (1987) identified four features characteristic of beliefs that were adapted from Abelson's (1979) seven features of belief systems in artificial intelligence systems. They are (1) existential presumption, (2) alternativity, (3) affective and evaluative loading, and (4) episodic structure. According to Nespor (1987) the existential presumptions are disputes about truths that an individual holds; for instance, a belief in God. In his study, a mathematics teacher believed learning mathematics was mainly a function of practice and drilling, students who perform poorly in the subject were simply lazy and did not practice their exercise work. Existential presumptions thus are perceived as fixed entities that exist beyond one's control or knowledge.

Second, an example of alternativity in Nespor's (1987) study is provided by Ms. Skylark who, due to unpleasant learning experiences as a student, attempted to set up the ideal classroom practice that she had fantasized about when she was a child. Due to this belief, her practices commonly ended up with unfinished lessons. However, Nespor (1987) claims teachers who possess this belief often do not have a great deal of experience and when establishing a classroom do not base teaching on the models teacher-learners had learned in their formal training.

According to Abelson (1979) people who exhibit this belief are often unsatisfied with reality as it is and reality must be changed in order to achieve their new goal - often an idealized goal. He explains this as a kind of problem-solving, although on the more abstract level found in studies on problem-solving tasks in cognitive science.

Individuals who possess this kind of belief do not establish a sequence of rules to implement a starting state in order to complete a goal but reject the old rules and find new ones to achieve the goal state. In this sense, teacher-learners who perceived unpleasant experiences may be more accepting of the new methodologies provided by the SLTE program and reject old rules such as grammar teaching.

Third, it is a characteristic of this belief that it relies on a great many affective and evaluative aspects. These feelings, moods, and subjective evaluations are formed through personal preferences and are likely to operate independently, and therefore, it is agreed that beliefs systems rely much more heavily on affective and evaluative factors than on knowledge systems (Nespor, 1987). For instance, Nespor (1987) posted an example that one's knowledge about chess can be conceptually distinguished from one's feelings about chess. An individual's knowledge about the rules and various lines of chess play are not shaped by whether s/he likes chess, although attitudes and beliefs would be important influences on how an individual acquired knowledge of chess in the beginning, and how s/he might be inclined to employ this knowledge.

In addition, a belief system relies on affective and evaluative aspects to define whether something is good or bad; for instance, each teacher perceived certain activities in the class, CLT or grammar teaching, differently and their evaluation of good or bad was mostly due to a variety of personal experiences. Therefore, beliefs cannot be understood or analyzed by rational systems such as a knowledge system. Hence, knowledge and belief can be distinguished in that beliefs involve affective factors and knowledge can

be understood by rational analysis. Moreover, unlike knowledge systems, a general or group consensus regarding the validity and appropriateness of a belief system and its internal consistency is unnecessary (Nespor, 1987). Generally speaking, knowledge systems are open to evaluation or deliberate scrutiny while beliefs are not (Pajares, 1992).

Fourth, referring to episodic storage, Nespor (1987) commented that “information in knowledge system is stored primarily in semantic networks, while belief systems are composed mainly of ‘episodically’-stored material derived from personal experience or from cultural or institutional sources of knowledge transmission” (p. 320). In other words, knowledge is separated into logical components such as principles, propositional structures and then organized systematically based on semantic lists; this differs from belief systems which depend on episodic memory and are organized in the light of personal experiences, episodes or events. These decisive episodes are then maintained to frame the understanding of events later in time. Nespor (1987) suggested that such critical episodes are perhaps due to the fact that teachers obtain a lot about teaching via their experiences as students.

The affective aspect is shaped by episodes that a teacher experienced and these episodic experiences had a great impact on the teacher’s belief system. Many knowledge systems are based exclusively on general facts and principles and possess no apparent need for such episodes. All these reasons make beliefs more influential than knowledge in determining how individuals organize, implement and describe tasks and problems, and

therefore, are stronger indicators of behaviour (Nespor, 1987).

There were many studies investigating the relationship between teacher's beliefs, knowledge and teaching practice. A teacher's practice is his/her displayed observable behaviour in the classroom and it generally based on some sort of beliefs or knowledge. As noted earlier, part of teacher's beliefs may often be traced back to their experience of being taught as an English learner prior to teacher training. Later, during professional training in ESL contexts at undergraduate or graduate level, teachers are exposed to another set of beliefs in terms of teaching theories, methodologies, and approaches to learning/teaching English which are different from how they learnt as an English learner. However, received knowledge often reflects loosely on teachers' teaching practice (Bartels, 2005).

Nevertheless, there was general agreement that there was a close relationship between teacher's grounded beliefs and classroom practice. For instance, Johnson's (1992) study in 30 NNESTs in a TESOL program found that 60% of the teacher-learners had clear theoretical beliefs. The findings indicated there were three main approaches to their teaching. First, the skills-based approach where the teachers who believed the emphasis should be on improving students' micro-skills, that is "the major emphasis is devoted to oral or written repetition, drill, or memorization of native language words, phrases, or sentences." (Johnson, 1992, p. 96). Second, the rules-based approach where language is perceived as being a process of rule-governed creativity and teachers who supported this approach tended to constantly bring in grammar teaching. Last, the function-based

approach where the focus was placed on the appropriate use of language in context and teachers who advocated this method tended to focus on activities that helped students to communicate thoughts, feelings and needs.

In addition, Richards and Lockhart (1994) discovered that two teachers conducted their practices rather differently due to the fact that both of them held very different beliefs about teaching; however, they both believed their teaching was normal and effective.

This study reported that both of their practices reflect their beliefs about teaching.

Although research studies have shown teachers' beliefs play a significant role in teacher's behaviours in their practices, there are some other studies that point to the contrary. For instance, research studies in Taiwan found that what teachers said they believe was not supported by what they did in the classroom. The study by Hsu (2006) reported that two Taiwanese teachers were interviewed about their teaching practice.

There was an extremely strong sense of divergence between the teachers' beliefs and their teaching practice. One teacher in this study stated that her belief was that errors should be avoided and error feedback should be given once there was any erroneous utterance from students. In her actual teaching, she never quoted wrong usages to convey her beliefs. Another teacher advocated both inductive teaching and deductive teaching. However, throughout the entire observation, her practice revealed she adopted only inductive teaching. Regardless of contradictory findings, research in teacher beliefs and other aspects of teacher cognition is useful in that it provides insight into the complexity of teaching.

Moreover, the teacher is a learner learning how to teach as well as being influenced by their personal background, experiences and the context in which they work. Freeman and Johnson's (1998a) rationale and many research studies indicate that *the social context* where a teacher works is one of the critical components which impinges on teacher's decision-making. For instance, research studies have shown there is a mismatch between practice and beliefs because of contextual factors, such as a large class size (Borg, 2009). Other factors may also play an important role in affecting teacher's cognition and further influence teacher's classroom teaching.

Contextual factors

Part of teachers learning how to teach involves teaching practice that uncovers the nature of teachers' knowledge and provides the means by which this knowledge can be elaborated and understood, as noted earlier. Hence, teachers learning how to teach should take place in a context that involves interaction and participation of all parties in context (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Richards, 2008; Wang & Cheng, 2009). Teaching behaviours are the result of teacher thinking which is influenced by contextual factors and SLTE programs often did not take them into account. Consequently received knowledge often failed to be reflected in teachers' practices. An effective SLTE program ought to account for the social and cultural context of schools and schooling within which teacher-learning and teaching occur as an important aspect which impinges on teachers' teaching practices (Johnson, 1999). Similarly, Pennycook (1989) and Canagarajah (1999a) also argue that the ELT pedagogy should be context-specific. As Pennycook (1994, p. 159) points out:

The dominance of the Western academy in defining concepts and practices of language teaching is leading to the ever greater incursion of such views into language teaching theory and practice around the world. The export of applied linguistic theory and of Western-trained language teachers constantly promotes inappropriate teaching approaches to diverse settings.

In other words, many research studies overlook teaching as a human activity in which the social, historical, and political context requires teachers to construct their practice in the light of such realities (Pennycook, 1989). In the same way, Tedick and Walker (1995) criticize the overemphasis on *teaching methodology* in the field, regardless of the diverse contexts. Contextual factors such as social cultural norms, schools, schooling, the role of the teacher in the context where they work, who the students are, who the teacher is and what the content is, affect teacher's classroom decision-making (Prabhu, 1990).

There are many reasons why contextual factors affect the practice of teaching; for instance, large class numbers could affect teaching practice (Gorsuch, 2000; Liu, 1999; Underwood, 2012). The thesis refers to contextual factors as social, physical, institutional, instructional settings which shape teachers' learning and further influence teachers' cognitions and their practices (Freeman, 2002). It includes not only the physical settings of the classroom or the structure of the university but the resources available in the community and the social context such as political atmosphere, which teachers often have no control over. Hence, the importance of the contextual factors stretches beyond the physical setting of the classroom and institutional setting that affect

the teacher.

For instance, while Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been proven to be an effective approach in an ESL context, there were many studies that reported that contextual factors play an important role that compromises the application of CLT in teaching. Kuo's (1995) study in Taiwan found that it was inappropriate and ineffective to implement CLT at a junior high school. The study observed three English classes 14 times, interviewed 12 English teachers, 21 students, the principal of the school, the dean of Division of Academic Studies and informal talks with students' parents. The results have shown that English was still taught in the traditional Grammar Translation Method (GTM) although the new curriculum by the Taiwanese Government promoted communicative language teaching.

In this study, five Contextual Factors (CFs) have been found, they are (1) teachers' limited linguistic and sociolinguistic competence (2) students do not have survival needs to communicate in English (3) impact of grammar-based examinations (4) large class size and (5) prescribed curriculum. This study also argued that the chief motive which made GTM remain popular was the cultural context which continued to encourage notions of learning as memorization, the teachers' role as a knowledge transmitter, and the students' role as a knowledge receiver. All of the above contradict the theory of CLT. Other CFs reported by research studies were educational policies, examination, school authority, student characteristics, teachers' background and training, class size, new English curriculum, parents' and students' demands, teaching area,

textbooks, time constraints and lack of teaching experiences (Hsu, 2006; Lee, 2004). In a similar vein, many CFs mentioned above have become un-optimal in CLT as reported by Daly and Liu (2009; 1998).

Moreover, in Quyang's (2000) study in China, the teacher-learners who taught CLT in their performance teaching for a job interview were not hired and CLT has been criticized for wasting time in comparison to traditional methods. In addition the study revealed that the status of teachers who teach CLT in practice was lower than teachers who taught using a grammar translation method. Choi's (2000) study in English teachers' beliefs in middle school in Korea indicated that teachers were more familiar with grammar teaching and have difficulty applying the CLT method. The study in Hong Kong by Urmston and Pennington (2008) states that novice teachers had difficulty carrying out practices promoted in SLTE programs due to local conditions, in particular unmotivated learners, examinations, large class size and numerous responsibilities. It is therefore important to reconceptualize the knowledge base of SLTE as context-oriented and to understand the role of the teacher in diverse contexts (Freeman, 1991, 2009; Johnson, 2009).

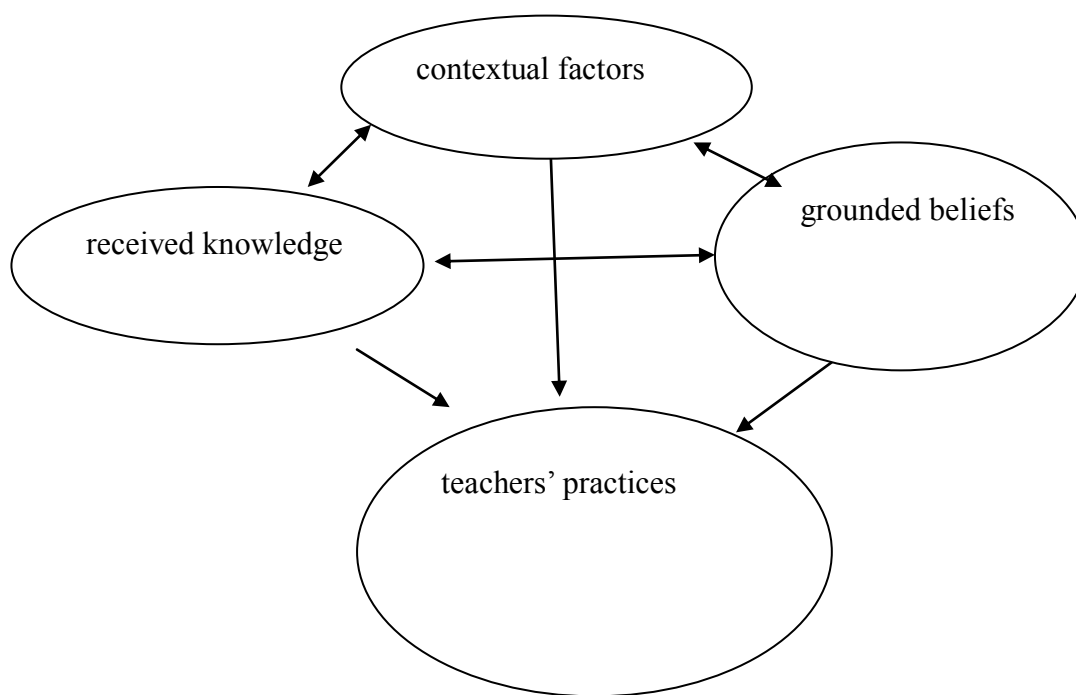
Significance of the study

The spread of English worldwide has resulted in great demand for English teachers within non-English speaking countries. English teachers play an important role as they are responsible for English learning/teaching in the classroom. They are therefore concerned that their actions are effective in the classroom to fulfill the English learning

expectations of both educational institutions and students. Teacher education programs are identified as the main site for providing relevant professional training for teacher-learners. However, as noted, the research has shown that received knowledge from traditional SLTE programs is often not reflected in teachers' practice. Hence, this study is significant in examining teachers' cognitions and teaching practices to gain understanding of how teachers learn to teach from in-service experienced teachers.

Although there is a wealth of research studies in general education on experienced teachers spanning the last three decades, few studies have explored the experiences of in-service experienced EFL teachers at university level. This study is therefore significant for the field of language teaching. Nowadays, due to globalization, there are a number of universities from BANA exporting their language educators to non-English-speaking-countries to train local language professionals. For instance, some Australian educators are involved in language education in China and there are British educators in Taiwan. Hence, the thesis investigates whether EFL teachers' cognitions would be valuable for language teacher educators, teacher preparation, teacher development, educational practitioners, scholars, TESOL organizations, policymakers and future research. The theoretical framework of this thesis is established as follows.

The framework of EFL teacher cognition



The framework of teacher cognition is presented and discussed in Chapter 5, 6 and 7. Chapter 5 presents teacher cognition which is embedded in teachers' practices; that is teachers' classroom pedagogical process. A description of what teachers do in the classroom and a brief summary of why teachers behave the way they do. In Chapter 6, received knowledge, grounded beliefs and contextual factors are examined. Chapter 7 discusses the congruence or lack of congruence between teachers' cognitions and their classroom practices.

Chapter 4

Research Methodology

Overview

Many NNESTs have found their overseas training is not useful in their original countries (Liu, 1999) and understanding the classroom practices of NNESTs provides a salient contribution to teacher preparation and teacher development. The TESOL profession in recent years has been urged by researchers to reconceptualize the knowledge base of teaching, to capture the complex construct of what teachers know, believe and do. In addition, although context-specific studies have received attention over the past decades, the focus of the research studies remains on ESL contexts; as Richards (1997) rightly points out “how the teacher believes, thinks, acts and reacts is central to educational endeavour, but about the EFL language teacher we know almost nothing” (p. 243). While studies of teachers’ knowledge base have increased, the knowledge base of in-service experienced NNES teachers who teach at university level in an EFL setting are scarce. The thesis adapts the framework of the language of teacher’s knowledge base proposed by Freeman and Johnson (1998a) and attempts, based on this framework, to collect and examine EFL teachers’ actions and reflections on teaching for the purpose of reconceptualizing and revising the framework specifically for EFL.

Freeman and Johnson (1998a) argue that in order to understand teachers' cognitions, it is important to explore language teachers' pedagogical decision-making, beliefs and intentions. This research attempts to understand experienced teachers' cognitions and its relationship to their actual practices. It explores and demonstrates the reasoning that hinders the transfer of their beliefs into practice. This chapter outlines the qualitative research, which was designed in order to discover the main components of teachers' cognitive systems and to document how teachers learn to teach from the context in which their teaching take place.

This study examines teachers' actual classroom practices using a group of six experienced teachers of English who teach English as a foreign language (EFL) at a university in Taipei, Taiwan. The primary aims of the research are to study the practices of these teachers and identify what is happening in the language classroom and to study how phenomena are 'constructed' in people's everyday activities (Silverman, 2011). Hence, this study aims to understand teaching without any change in the normal routine of the classes. 'Naturalistic inquiry' was employed in which fieldwork usually takes place in a natural setting and embraces an inductive style of reasoning. This interpretivist paradigm privileges the participants' own views on the situation, and therefore allows the researcher access to the participants' background and experiences that they themselves deem relevant and meaningful (Cohen & Manion, 1994, p. 36). The research questions in this study are clustered as follows.

1. What do experienced teachers do in the classroom and what are the teachers' cognitions behind their classroom behaviour?
2. What are the sources of teachers' cognitions?
3. What is the congruence or lack of congruence between teacher cognition and classroom practice? And why?

Theoretical framework and Research design

In research on foreign and second language learning/teaching, quantitative and qualitative research paradigms both have their advocates. Some scholars have devoted themselves entirely to qualitative research (Holliday, 2002; Richards, 2003) while others are content to employ both quantitative and qualitative methods (Dörnyei, 2007; McKay, 2006). Qualitative research methods suit the nature of this research study. As Chapter 1 and 3 noted, the theoretical framework for the present study involves examining teacher cognition and observing classroom practices to understand why teachers teach in the ways they do. Hence, the data has been collected through classroom observations and interviews to gain an interpretivist view of teaching and learning from teachers and students. It is a qualitative study and employed an interpretivist paradigm for the following reasons.

Firstly, the research questions seek to understand why teachers teach the way they do, and the interpretivist paradigm argues that teachers interpret their environment and themselves in ways that are shaped by the particular cultures in which they live (Creswell, 2003). In addition, Freeman (1996) argued teaching is a highly interpretive

activity that teachers are:

constantly involved in interpreting their worlds: they interpret their subject matter, their classroom context, and the people in it. These interpretations are central to their thinking and their actions. Classrooms and students are not just settings for implementing ideas; they are the frameworks of interpretation that teachers use for knowing: knowing when and how to act and react, what information to present or explain and how, when to respond or correct individual students, how to assess and reformulate what they have just taught and so on. (p.98)

Thus it is relevant to use an interpretivist paradigm. Secondly, people make sense of their world on an individual basis, that is, they personally construct their reality. The interpretivist paradigm moves beyond the study of observable behaviour to try to understand individuals from their own point of view. Thirdly, when research using an interpretivist paradigm few decisions regarding the research questions or data are made before entering the site (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). It was my intention to explore some concepts, for instance, teachers' views on effective learning/teaching, but also to attempt to focus on those which may be revealed by the data (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Therefore, semi-structured questions (Please see Appendix 3 and 6) were prepared to assist teachers to discuss issues related to the present study. Questions were also created during the observations in an attempt to seek a response in the follow-up interviews. Hence, the interview topics shifted freely according to what I observed in each individual teacher's practices.

Fourthly, in qualitative research a researcher has little or no control over events. There

was no control over the teaching practices designed for the present research, as it was my intention to minimize disruption to classes in order to obtain data that was explanatory in nature. Therefore, non-participant observation was the method adopted in the data design. Lastly, the research places an emphasis on contemporary phenomena in a real life context and this position distinguishes qualitative research from other types of research.

Moreover, to understand what happens in classrooms in the first instance involves understanding what teachers bring with them to the classroom, and how this influences what they do within it. As noted, this study not only seeks to identify forms of teaching behaviour that are brought about by teachers but to also look beyond observable behaviours and identify the factors that hinder the transfer of their beliefs into practice. This, in turn, involves exploring participants' experiences and beliefs as well as listening to the articulations of their students and the context. Hence, the present research attempts to interpret behaviour from the perspective of each individual teacher's different understanding rather than from the observer's supposedly objective analysis (Chaudron, 1988). In other words, teachers' cognitions are grounded in the descriptions of the work of teaching, which is an attempt to uncover why teachers' teach in the ways they do. This almost strict qualitative tradition has gained wide acceptance in language classroom research over 20 years.

The teacher interviews for the present study focus on three issues in order to understand their practices:

- What happens in the lessons?
- What are the teachers' knowledge and beliefs?
- What are the factors which affect teachers' practices?

Moreover, it was intended that the varied modes of data collection would make it possible to authenticate the data more effectively through triangulation. For instance, the teachers' data in the light of their beliefs on language learning/teaching was triangulated with what I saw in the lesson observations.

Freeman and Jonson's (1998a) rationale was chosen and adapted as there was a gap in the knowledge of how teachers learned to teach from where they work which needed to be documented. Their framework includes teachers' prior learning experience, teachers' pedagogical process, and the context as relevant for understanding how teachers learn to teach. These aspects were all critical components that were guided by existing research studies in the literature to examine teacher knowledge by researchers in general education such as Shulman (1987) and Grossman (1990). Freeman and Johnson's (1998a) framework emphasis on *the social context* is an important aspect of examining EFL teachers' cognitions. The findings of this thesis will increase the present understanding of teachers' cognitions.

Data collecting procedures

Classroom observation

A growing body of research has explored instructional practices in the classroom context. It explores whether what occurs in language classrooms is able to contribute to our knowledge of language learning and use (Nunan, 1992). As noted earlier, classroom-centered research is the basic element for research into the practices of language teachers (Allwright, 1988). Therefore, classroom observation is an important component in the present research. For this reason the present thesis is designed to use classroom observation. Although researchers in the field have been interested in classroom observation from the mid-1970s, there has been relatively little attention paid to classroom observation of the teaching of university teachers in Taiwan. Day (1990, p. 43) described the goals for classroom observation, as long ago as 1990 as:

- developing a terminology for understanding and discussing the teaching process
- developing an awareness of the principles and decision making that underlie effective teaching
- distinguishing between effective and ineffective classroom practices
- identifying techniques and practices that student teachers can apply to their own teaching

Although the ‘concept of effective practice’ appears initially appealing, inasmuch as its reporting offers some voice to the participants in the actual situation, it is in fact a difficult concept. This is due to the fact that effective practice is difficult to define and judge. It is possible that a teacher’s effectiveness in Australia may not be seen to be effective in Taiwan, and vice versa. Hence, the best that this study can achieve is to provide a space for teachers to voice their perspectives on effective practice that is

context-specific.

It was not my intent to enter the classroom to observe with a checklist of items. Rather, I went there with an open mind to see what was happening in the class. During the observing process, field notes, two audio recorders and research journal were supplemented in the classroom. Two recorders were employed to record what was occurring in the class. One recorder was in the front, the other was left at the back to provide a backup for any inefficiency that might occur with the recorder in the front during the lessons. The lessons which I observed were the lessons taught by the experienced teachers who teach a non-English major.

The experience level of the teachers was the main determinant of the lessons I chose to observe. The teachers experience level is an important factor because the longer period of time spent with a wider variety of students enables these teachers to understand how and what works best in achieving learning outcomes compared to less experienced teachers (Ornstein, 1995). This view is shared by many research studies which working on general education. Examining the practice of experienced teachers was thus necessary. In addition, most of the learners who were learning English were non-English majors thus the classes of non-English majors were observed.

Although two weeks observing the practices of each individual teacher seem to be a short period of time to ascertain what I needed to see, the student interviews were able

to verify the practices being observed. The students were interviewed about whether there was any difference in the teaching within the two weeks in comparison to the one or two years period of time when they were taught by these experienced teachers. The student data have confirmed that the two weeks of practice of each individual teacher, that is, a total of 24 sessions of practices was enough to see what was necessary. The students verified that there was no difference in the two weeks; their teachers taught in the same way within one or two years period of time when they were taught by these experienced teachers.

Interview

Besides classroom observation, the individual teachers and the student focus groups were interviewed. As McKay (2009) points out, the interview is significant for gathering evidence to answer questions that concern teachers. Interviewing teachers provides them with an opportunity to justify or explain their practice in order to provide a rich descriptive and interpretive picture of the complexities of EFL teaching in universities in Taiwan. Hence, the method of interview employed in the present study is appropriate.

The purpose of the interviews with teachers was to allow for discussion and analysis of classroom practices and to understand their experiences, attitudes and beliefs towards these practices. The interviews with teachers were designed to discuss the teachers' understanding of their teaching. The interviews of teachers centered on the teachers' interpretations of their teaching practices. Although the semi-structured questions were

developed in relation to the teachers' beliefs about teaching and the institution in which they worked, the teachers discussed much about their students and the behaviour of the students. The student interviews focused on what teachers commonly do in the classroom. As noted earlier, the student data acted as a confirmation of their teachers' classroom behaviour during the period of one or two years, and also to verify what I had observed within the two weeks of classroom observations.

The interviews were conducted face-to-face and were conducted in Mandarin so that teachers and students could express themselves freely. Additional data was used to verify or as a supplement to the study, including informal conversations at the Deans' and other teachers' offices, and conversations with teacher participants while accompanying them to their classes and back to the office.

Participants

Student participants

The selection of the group of student participants was efficient since university students are not bound by an entrance examination so there was less constraint. The student participants in the present study included approximately:

- 360 students in six English learning classes from different disciplines
- 24 student interviewees

The gender ratio of the 24 student interviewees was deliberately kept balanced; however, there was one class that had only male students. Some of the student interviewees were randomly approached by myself after the second week of the classroom observation, two groups of student participants were selected by their own English teachers, Emma and David. The students who were selected by Emma and David were grade-average students as Emma and David believed the perspectives of the grade-average students would be more reasonable than students who either liked or disliked the English class. A small number of the students volunteered after their teacher explained the research at the end of the second week of the classroom observation. There were no forced participants; the students were more willing to be involved in the research than the experienced teachers.

One notable change is that since 2001 English learning has been included in primary schools and the student participants from the present study are the product of this language reform. They are members of the generation who have learnt English since primary school instead of starting English learning at high school. In other words, this group of students has been learning English for four to six years (depending on individual primary schools), *more than* their senior peers. That is, all the non-English major participants had studied English formally for a total of nine or twelve years during primary to high schools. The student participants ranged in age from 19 to 21.

Student interviewees

The majors of the non-English major students were from:

Major	Numbers of student	English level
International Business	4	Intermediate
Electrical Engineering	5	Intermediate
Industrial Management	3	Intermediate
Finance	1	Intermediate
Business Administration	5	Intermediate
Information Management	1	Intermediate
Electronic Engineering	1	Intermediate
Mechanical Engineering	4	Advanced
Total	24	

Teacher participants

The selection criteria for teacher participants related to professional qualifications and experience: a degree in linguistics, applied linguistics, TESOL or education, and at least seven years of teaching experience. A total of ten faculty members were interviewed; they were six teachers from participating classes, a former dean and dean of the faculty, and two other teachers from the faculty. The table below shows the group of six teachers which was comprised of one female PhD graduate and five Master graduates. There were three tenured full-time faculty members teaching reading classes, and three part-time teachers teaching listening/speaking classes. Three were female and another three were male.

Teachers' gender & their age

Gender/Age	Female	Male
36-45	3	0
46-55	0	3

Their level of teaching experience ranged from seven to 17 years. Pseudonyms have been given to the teachers consisting of an English given name and a Chinese family name. This was appropriate given that when English was being used, most English teachers commonly used English names for ease of memory.

Teachers' teaching status

Teacher	Years of experience	Position of teaching full/part time faculty	observation of the English class	Year of the class/ English level
Emma Huang	17	full time	reading	Sophomore /Intermediate
David Wong	17	full time	reading	Sophomore /Intermediate
Ian Lin	14	full time	reading	freshman /Intermediate
Sarah Chen	9	part time	listening & speaking	freshman /advanced
Hannah Tsai	8	part time	listening & speaking	Sophomore /Intermediate
Matthew Kuo	7	part time	listening & speaking	Sophomore

				/Intermediate
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The teaching skills and attitudes toward students among these experienced teachers all appeared to be rather different. For the purpose of data analysis and discussion, the present study also refers at times to teachers according to whether their teaching position was part-time or tenured. Additionally, as the above table shows the years of teaching by tenured teachers was almost double the years of part-time teachers.

Recruitment of experienced teachers

It was not an easy task to recruit teachers whose English lessons would be observed (Medgyes, 1994). After many experienced teachers had refused me, I wondered if it would be easier to focus on the recruitment of novices instead of experienced teachers. This issue may perhaps be answered by future research studies. The present research was committed to recruiting experienced teachers and the recruitment proved to be difficult. I was refused by many experienced teachers who believed their English lessons were not suitable for the present study since part of the study was looking for effective practices. The reasons for refusal included:

- There were some problem students in the class; by problem students the teacher means the students were expressing their opinions during lectures.
- The students' condition was unsatisfactory due to the previous physical education (PE) class.
- S/he was not teaching as s/he used to teach when younger, therefore it was not

convenient for me to observe.

- S/he wanted to quit her/his job desperately but s/he was just hanging in there, waiting for retirement and s/he is not sure if s/he will make it. Hence, the teaching practices were not suitable for the present research.

Despite these various reasons for difficulty in the recruitment, the present research has contributed to a clearer understanding of these teachers' teaching experiences, attitudes, knowledge, skills and beliefs. It is important that, before presenting the coming chapter, a clarification is necessary. Before I recruited the teachers, I informed teachers that the present research was looking for effective classroom practices and that is why teachers who believed their practices were not effective refused to participate. Hence, the six experienced teachers accepted my invitation because they perceived their practice to be effective and good. For the tenured teachers, they were the most experienced teachers in the faculty and I was appointed to contact these teachers after I contacted the Dean of the Faculty explain the purpose of the research. Three part-time teachers were recruited after there were no more tenured teachers who wished to be observed.

The research study by Hung and Yeh (2013) has shown that “even the teachers with many years of teaching experience still needed stimulus and support to promote their continuous learning” (p.163). The results of data from the present study echoed their findings. The participating teachers requested informally that I email them those effective ways of learning/teaching. One teacher asked for my suggestions on whether she taught in the right way. Others commented that they were hoping to read this research in journal publications so they could learn about effective practices. This may

suggest that even though they are experienced teachers who had considerable teaching experience they still wished to improve their practice.

One of the most important implications in relation to the recruitment of teachers for the study was that the aim of looking for effective teaching turned out not to be as critical as anticipated. For example, some teachers refused to participate in the study due to the fact that they believed their practices were no longer effective. In fact, the results of the thesis indicate that the aim of seeking out effective practice in order to recruit teachers to the study was not necessary. Many teachers perceive their practices as effective, however, the students or their actual presentation of the lesson may reveal differences in comparison to teachers' perceptions (Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

In addition, as mentioned in the previous section, effective teaching is in fact a difficult concept. Hence, the research study objectives of looking for effective teaching and accordingly recruiting effective teachers was not critical to the study. The main aim of the study with regard to the recruitment of teachers ought to be about teachers' knowledge and beliefs and their relation to teachers' practices.

The research site

In comparison to other universities in Taiwan, the participating university has made an extremely large investment in improving students' English proficiency by offering different kinds of English programs. It was for this reason that I chose this university

over others as, in comparison to other universities, the students and teachers may have a greater number and range of English learning/teaching experiences. This university, for instance, has extra English classes such as the GEPT (General English Proficiency Test), an internal English proficiency test, English for a specific purpose and an enhancement English for the lowest five achievers from each reading and listening/speaking class.

English subjects in some universities are comprised of three hours per week with all language aspects, while others separate reading from speaking/listening with two hours each week for a semester. English classes for non-English majors commonly involve mid-term and final examinations for each reading and listening/speaking class. However, the participating university carries out four additional tests within a semester, including tests for subscribed English learning magazines and tests from the internal Language Centre. According to the former Dean who implemented this reform, non-English major students would be expected to understand general English, that is, they are expected to understand basic daily use of English.

In the participating university, English is commonly a compulsory subject in freshman and sophomore years. In the third year of students' university study, the university provides a survey to investigate the willingness of students to enroll in professional English classes such as English for finance or presentation English and so forth. When more than half of the students in an individual class are willing to learn ESP (English for a specific purpose) then the entire class can request taking ESP as an elective subject.

The research was undertaken within the Department of Applied Foreign Languages at Western Taipei University. Before I began my observations, one of my concerns was that my expectations might influence the participating teachers to modify their teaching to meet the research aim of effective classroom practice or to impress me as the researcher. Due to this, before recruiting the teachers, I informed them that I did not wish them to restructure their lessons for the purpose of the research. The teachers understood and complied with this request. In order to know whether the teachers did make changes to make their practices more effective to fit the research purpose, the student interviewees were asked during their interviews whether the teacher taught differently in approach, style or methods during the two weeks observations compared with previously. All six groups of students reported that during the observation weeks nothing had changed in the teachers' teaching.

In addition, I fully informed the teachers and the 24 student interviewees of the aims of the study before I recruited them (Please see Appendix 1 and 4). I had intended to inform the entire class of the aims of the present research before class observation. However, the teachers insisted that in order for the data to occur naturally it was preferable not to inform the students. They explained that by doing so I would see the actual classroom behaviour of the students. Given that the teachers know the culture of the university and their students better than me, I agreed with this request. As a result, none of the students within the six classes were aware of me as a researcher who was sitting in to observe the class. In some classes, the students who were seated near me were doing their Japanese assignments and chatting. This would be unlikely to occur if

the students knew a researcher was sitting in. Also when I asked if I could share the textbook with him/her, the students kindly lent me the book and explained that the lessons were too easy and s/he did not need a textbook.

It is common for students to have a home class with most of their subjects together, including English, as noted in Chapter 2. The participating university endeavors to divide students by their level of English through a placement test. Consequently, the English class is the class where all the disciplines merge. In other words, the students all come from different classes with different majors and they were often only acquainted with students from their own major. As a result, in English classes, many students were not acquainted with each other. An outside researcher could perhaps be mistaken for a student from other classes. This explains why the students seemed unaware that a researcher was sitting in to observe the class.

The participating university also separated English instruction into reading and listening/speaking classes. The reading class was in the standard classroom with projector and black board. The listening/speaking class was in the language laboratory with listening and visual facilities. They are as below:

Listening/speaking laboratory

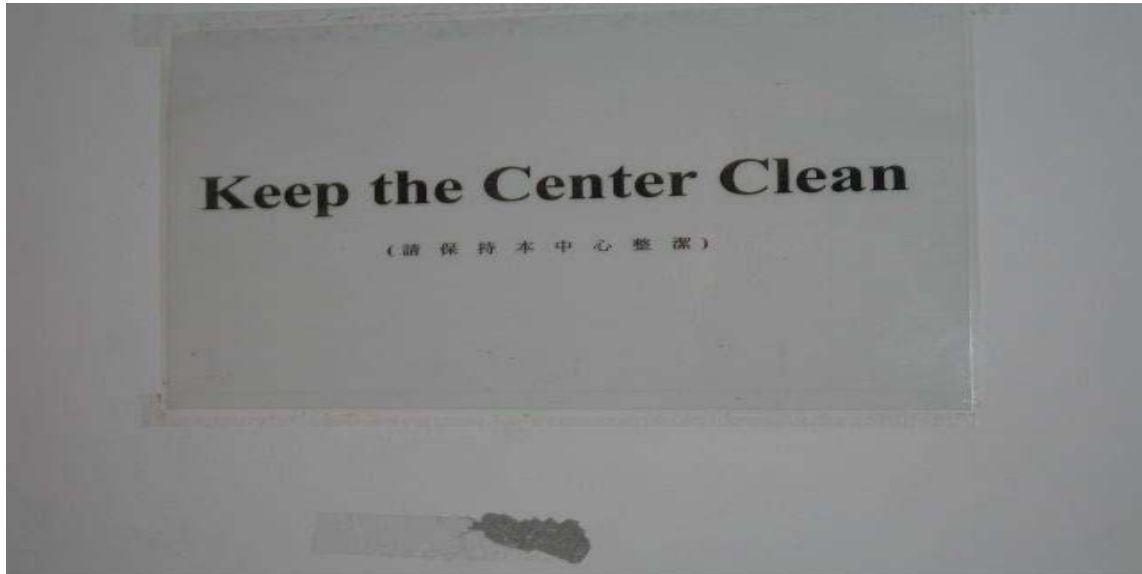


Standard reading classroom



Furthermore, the participating university has tried to build a strong English environment on the campus in order to offer students more opportunities to make contact with English on a daily base. English can be seen in many places on the campus; this is intended for both foreign and local students. Images of some of these are provided below:

Pictures on the campus













Data collection

The ethics approval from the University of Technology, Sydney and Western Taipei University were obtained prior to the collection of data. The recruitment of the participants was undertaken by international calls to experienced teachers in the Foreign Language Department in Western Taipei University. An email confirmation followed by

oral consent from each individual teacher was received in advance before I entered the research site for the classroom observations. An information letter was given to the student interviewees before the interview took place (Please see Appendix 4). The information letter indicated the purpose of the research and the time that it would take to complete the interview.

The data collection started with the classroom observation. It was based on lessons, each being two 50 minute sessions, conducted over a two week period by six experienced teachers. Both teacher and student interviews were planned to last approximately 30 minutes. However, teacher and student interviewees were rather enthusiastic and offered a considerable amount of information; therefore, the interview sometimes lasted for one and a half hours in each session.

Data analysis

In order to protect the anonymity of all participants in this study, the thesis has fictionalized the names and places where the present research takes place. For example, I refer to the university as Western Taipei University, and assigned pseudonyms to individuals when referring to them in the study. Lecturer, Associate Professor and Professor were unified as ‘teacher’ in the present study not only for the purpose of readability but also to avoid participants being identified.

The analysis procedure began first with a preliminary analysis being applied following the first week of classroom observations in order to create further questions which I

wished to explore. Second, the descriptive data from classroom observations and interviews of teachers was analyzed. Then, the teachers' interview data was coded and analyzed for themes that arose which reflected the teachers' understanding of their practice. The data was all based on a close reading of what the teachers themselves said and how they said it; including emotional responses and connotations.

Interpretivists are concerned with what human beings know of the objects, social settings, events and people with whom they are interacting, and how this understanding in turn defines settings. Freeman and Johnson's (1998a) framework fits into this paradigm, and hence, the categorization adapted their guiding framework for a knowledge base. It is comprised of three domains; they are: the teacher as learner, the pedagogical process, and the context. All three are conceptualized as necessarily and critically interdependent with each other. I checked the coding myself. These three components from the framework determined my coding at the beginning; however, as data emerged a different reading became evident. I thus categorized the emerging data under received knowledge, grounded knowledge and the contextual factors, which I considered more appropriate for understanding teachers' cognitive systems in this group of teachers. This was due to the context-sensitivity (Borg, 2006b) in that the data was collected from EFL instead of ESL. By saying that, the findings derived from the data were rather similar to the existing research in which beliefs are seen to influence teachers' practice more than knowledge; however, the new framework seems to capture the complexity of EFL teachers' cognitions more appropriately and accurately. Hence, the new framework was employed.

Teachers' use of activities or the methodologies, techniques, approaches and strategies in the classes were categorized to exemplify what teachers did in the class in order to understand what teachers know and do; this answered the first research question of the thesis. That is "what a group of Taiwanese experienced teachers of English do in the classroom?". The second research question addressed the sources of teachers' knowledge and beliefs and how this knowledge and beliefs related to their teaching practice. Teachers' reasoning in regard to classroom activity, teachers' view of classroom management, why teachers teach in the ways they do, teachers' personal experiences both inside and outside of the classrooms were all examined and categorized. According to teachers' articulated stories these experiences are categorized as either received knowledge or grounded beliefs; under the criteria of affective and evaluative features such as feelings, emotions and subjective evaluation based on teachers' preferences operate independently and are related to belief systems rather than knowledge, as noted in Chapter 3.

In addition grounded beliefs tend to be based in powerful episodic memories from prior learning and teaching experiences (Nespor, 1987), and hence, teachers' articulation in respect to prior learning and teaching are categorized as grounded beliefs. As noted in Chapter 3, the construction of grounded beliefs is based around the teacher's settings and operation. Moreover, as Freeman and Johnson (2005) point out teacher cognition may be based on *their training as teachers*. Thus, the categorization of the data analysis relating to teacher education is grouped as received knowledge which teachers received from SLTE programs, and that received knowledge often conflicted with what they learnt as a

student in the past.

Most importantly, as noted in Chapter 3, people are often unable or unwilling to clearly make their beliefs manifest for many reasons, and hence, there is no way these can be directly observed or measured. Therefore, in order to understand grounded beliefs it is essential to analyze what people say, intend, and do, as well as draw inferences from underlying states (Rokeach, 1968). In other words, the evidence of belief must correlate with statements about beliefs and behaviour should be associated with the beliefs under discussion.

Part of teachers' learning to teach is by teaching. Teachers ability to know what activities to carry out in the classroom depend on a number of considerations, and what teachers believe about these considerations (Johnson, 1999), as noted in Chapter 3. Therefore, the categorized criteria also focused on teachers' articulation about what constrains and persuades their reasoning and this led to their teaching behaviour being categorized under contextual factors. Examples include the teachers' view of: the university culture, the administration, the curriculum, classroom size and so forth. Thus, how teachers perceived these considerations within the context of their work place were categorized as contextual factors that encouraged or hindered the transfer of their knowledge or beliefs into practice. These contextual factors are discussed in Chapter 6.

Triangulation

According to Allwright (1988) who discusses research relating to teaching practice, triangulation means a combination of observation and introspection (in this case interviews). Triangulation is evident first in the fact that the lessons were observed and also recorded digitally. Secondly, I discussed my observations with the teachers individually and confirmed what I had observed in the lessons. Lastly, student focus group interviews were carried out so that the data were triangulated with the lessons observed and teacher interviews.

Credibility and validity

A member check was used in order to help improve the accuracy, credibility and validity of the present study. The member's check of the thesis included; teacher interview accuracy checks during the interview process, for instance, restating and summarizing information and then questioning the participants to determine accuracy was employed. In addition, interpretive validity or checking with individual teachers after the preliminary data of classrooms observed and interviews was completed. The teachers either affirmed that the summaries reflected their views, feelings, and experiences, or they explained in more detail to reflect their experiences. The teachers affirmed the accuracy of the data, and hence, the thesis has met the credibility of the research.

The factual evidence of the classroom climate was also checked in the interviews of the student groups. The data of the students was used to confirm the validity of the teachers' responses and what I observed in the classroom. For instance, if the teacher described

his/her classroom as dominated by talking about social issues, the question to the student group, such as “Most of the time, what does your English teacher teach in the class?” would be employed.

The data of the students in the present study was therefore used to validate both the classroom teaching from what I saw, and teachers’ reflections on what they did, in order to prevent any distortion in the researcher’s interpretations. Given that the observation of the lessons was a short period of two weeks it was appropriate, as noted earlier, that the data from the students was used to verify teachers’ interpretations of their practices. This increased the reliability, validity and adequateness of the data. However, the data of the students is given less emphasis in the result chapters to avoid confusing and blurring the focus of examining EFL teachers’ cognitions.

Limitations of the study

One limitation of the present research is that it investigates experienced teachers’ practices in the EFL context rather than ESL. Therefore, exposure to the target language and the time allocated for study of the target language are limited. In addition to this, the present data are derived from local stories and lived experiences as to what counts as effective practice, and should be interpreted only in this specific sociocultural context.

The following chapters provide discussions on the findings. Chapter 5 presents teachers’ practices in order to understand teachers’ cognitions. It includes a description of what teachers do in the classroom and a brief summary of why teachers teach in the ways

they do. It displays activities of learning/teaching taught by six experienced teachers. Chapter 6 refers to the sources of teachers' cognitions; that is, received knowledge, grounded beliefs and contextual factors. It discusses details of teachers' considerations of the reasons that influence their decision-making about teaching activities. Chapter 7 discusses the relationship among teachers' cognitions and their teaching practice. Finally, Chapter 8 is the conclusion of the thesis.

Chapter 5

Teachers' practices and teachers' cognitions

Introduction

Teachers' knowledge and beliefs that they gained from years of teaching experience are presented in this chapter since teachers' personal practical knowledge, which is now referred to as teacher cognition, can be found in teachers' practices (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988). This chapter thus tends to address what constitutes teacher cognition to answer research question one - what do experienced teachers do in the classroom and what are the teaching cognitions behind their classroom behaviours? As noted in the preceding chapters, the pedagogical knowledge base is grounded in the descriptions of the work of teaching (Johnson, 1999). Hence, the descriptions of what teachers do in the classroom are presented in this chapter, whereas the source of their cognitions is provided in the next chapter.

This chapter discusses and presents a description of teachers' cognitions which can be divided into three main categories. The three categories that emerged from the data are (1) the presentation of strategy; that is, each individual understanding of an effective teacher ought to be authoritarian or friendly in order to create an effective classroom learning demeanor (2) the presentation of content; that is, the main content in the lesson

was to inspire students or provide knowledge other than English language to assist in transmitting the subject matter. (3) the presentation of subject matter; that is, the subject matter is transmitted through the use of an adapted version of communicative language teaching (CLT) or grammar translation method (GTM).

The importance of understanding teachers' practices

This chapter introduces teachers' cognitions that can be ascertained from teachers' practices. It demonstrates six university teachers' English practices in Taiwan. Research studies in ELT around the world have argued that there is a need to examine ELT teachers' practices. For example, Pennycook (1994) argues, "It is of fundamental importance to acknowledge that different ways of teaching and learning are embedded in social, political, philosophical and cultural differences" (p. 159). Some of the data emerging from the present study reflects a movement away from the notion of methods to explore alternative pedagogies within the context where teachers work. I clarify this within the results chapters.

The definition of teacher cognition is outlined in Chapter 1 and 3. Teacher cognition according to Borg (2003a) is "what teachers think, know and believe and the relationship of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the language classroom" (p.81). It can be found in teacher's practices and a teacher's practice is his/her displayed observable behaviour in the classroom. It is generally based on some sort of beliefs or knowledge. Beliefs or knowledge are influenced by a wide range of issues such as teacher's educational background, the school, teaching and learning, the relationship

with or their attitude to the students (Hsu, 2006). One way of gaining a clear and coherent understanding of a teacher's practice is to examine their main teaching activities (Richards, 2008).

The presentation of teaching strategies: authoritarian and friendly

Authoritarian

Teacher participants who use an authoritarian approach as a teaching strategy can be aligned with a discussion in Pajares (1992) study, where a nice teacher believed it was important to teach young students discipline and hence he employed an authoritarian strategy in his class. A teaching strategy is a plan or a program that is extensively used to ensure that a certain message or lesson is passed from the teacher to the student. The presentation of strategies that emerged from the data was that teachers have either an authoritarian or friendly classroom demeanor. It was largely tenured teachers who regarded effective teaching as necessitating an authoritarian classroom demeanor; in contrast, friendly behaviour was evident in the teaching of the part-time teachers. The definition of authoritarian is characterized by or favoring absolute obedience to authority, as against individual freedom (World English Dictionary, 2012). For the purposes of this thesis it refers to a teachers' appearance or classroom demeanor or behavior that is strict.

Authoritarian behaviour is common in Taiwan in which the teacher often makes rules and has expectations concerning attendance, homework or learning rules that students should follow to achieve their teaching/learning goals. In the data, teachers' practices

that were authoritarian also revealed that teachers often taught in a lecturing form and offered fewer opportunities for students to speak in class. For example, David was strict about sleeping in class. In his morning eight o'clock class, one student had his face on the table and David woke him up by saying, "English is so important and someone is asleep, get up". Also, the attendance in his class was higher when compared with the other five classes; this was because David made a rule whereby a student's grade was lowered if the student was late to class. This rule stated that students were only allowed to be late for class twice within the 18-week semester. If a student was late for the third time, their grade would automatically be deducted from their total English grade.

The second example of a tenured teachers' belief that to be effective in practice, the teacher ought to teach through authoritarian behaviour is provided by Ian:

Ian: 我覺得上課開始點名，睡覺就開始兇，我覺得這樣效果比較好，但不符合我個性，所以我就沒這麼做。(I think the class started with the roll-call and began to stern and scold once the teacher saw a student sleep. I think this way was more effective but it was not in line with my personality, so I did not do so.)

Ian believed that effective practice required the classroom demeanor to be stern and the teacher ought to be an authoritarian; as he said above "started with the roll-call" "began to stern and scold once the teacher saw a student sleep". However, this conflicted with his personality; hence, his practice only corresponds loosely with his belief. As noted in Chapter 3, research studies have shown that knowledge or beliefs are sometimes only-loosely implemented in teachers' classroom practices. In other words, teachers know

what they should do; however, they often did not do what they should do. In this case, Ian had beliefs about what an effective teacher should be in the class; nevertheless, he chose a practice that suited his personality over how effective it might be. This finding has shown that a teacher's personality also plays a significant role in affecting a teacher's practice. This has sometimes been overlooked in studies of teacher cognition of language teaching. This finding indicates that, for some teachers like Ian, personality seems to be more influential than knowledge and beliefs in its impact on how a teacher chooses a teaching strategy.

Another example from the present data reveals the authoritarian appearance of the teacher. For instance, in Emma's interview she refers to her authoritarian behaviour in class due to her appearance.

可能我的外表看起來比較嚴肅，加上英文又是非應外系最弱的一科，我發現學生比較沒有自信來問問題，這是課後。(My appearance may look more serious, coupled with English being the weakest subject among non-English major students; I realize that students lacked confidence to ask questions after class.)

Emma was able to silence the class with her authoritarian appearance and her class was rather quiet, as was evident in the classroom observations and verified with student focus groups for the past two years learning. When I first met Emma she conveyed a dignified mien so that I was slightly in awe of her. The impression I received of Emma was verified from the lesson observations and the data of interviews with Emma and her students. Emma herself understands the affect of her serious appearance and that

students may be afraid to ask questions. Emma recalled her own schooling being influenced by authoritarian behaviour and therefore she is more accepting of this kind of behaviour.

Friendly

Another teaching strategy that emerged from the data was a friendly approach by three part-time teachers. In an informal conversation with a friend you speak in a different style from that of a job interview with a prospective employer. Similarly, when you teach in a formal classroom setting presumably a teacher converses in an educational language or speaks in a more affirmative or formal fashion. This kind of behaviour appeared to be missing in the classrooms of the part-time teachers. The present data indicate that tenured teachers tend to be more affirmative while part-time teachers tend to be more informal in class.

The part-time teachers, Sarah, Hannah and Matthew, attempted to talk like a friend rather than as a teacher to the students. A friendly atmosphere refers to a class that is relaxed and at ease and a teacher who is approachable and pleasant is behaving in a friendly manner in the classroom. For instance, friendly affection was shown in Hannah's class. When students chatted too loudly, Hannah would raise her voice to get them to listen and she constantly employed sarcasm in the class. The following examples are excerpts from Hannah's class.

Hannah: 哇, 幾個人共用一本書耶! 你真是貢獻!

(Wow, a few of you share a copied textbook. You are really important! What a

contribution! [Hannah is being sarcastic with the student who owns the copied textbook due to the copyright you are not allowed to copy a book.]])

Another example:

Hannah: 我說東,你就說西。

([to student] When I said East you said West [meaning challenging her, this kind of conversation commonly between friends in Taiwan])

After Hannah's students translated English sentences from English to Mandarin; she commented "Wow, translated so gracefully and elegantly." This kind of informal, mocking discourse is normally found between friends rather than between teacher and student in a Taiwanese context. Hannah stated that due to the fact that she had witnessed a quarrel between her own classmate and the English teacher in the classroom when she was an English learner in high school (This data is presented and discussed in more detail in Chapter 6), she had tried her best to have a better relationship with the students, and this resulted in friendly behaviour in her teaching.—

Historically the student/teacher relationship has been hierarchical in Taiwan (Daly, 2009). However this was not the case for the three part-time teachers. Sarah tried to relax her students with her informal friendly talk rather than use authoritarian language, which has remained popular in high school and university. In the class Sarah called students “各位未來總裁” (all future CEOs) and at the roll call:

Hereafter the English translation is provided in brackets and *italics* indicates the English

used in the original data throughout the study.

Sarah: 朱義文

(Zhu yi-wen)

朱義文(Zhu yi-wen): 這裡啦

(Here la)

Sarah: 你要講英文阿

(You must speak English arh)

朱義文(Zhu yi-wen):

I don't care

The example suggests that the ambience of the classroom was friendly and relaxed otherwise “*I don't care*” was an unlikely response to the teacher especially in a society in which students are expected to respect teachers (Daly, 2009). Also, when Sarah asked students to read out loud, the student replied ‘*hey...*’. In addition Sarah used more informal speech such as “What the hell are you covering your eyes for?” instead of saying, “Why are you covering your eyes?” or “Do not cover your eyes” in Mandarin. It was noticeable that the three part-time teachers had established a classroom demeanor in a *friendly* setting rather than one that was formal and pedagogical.

Each of the three part-time teachers had a reason for behaving in a friendly fashion in their practice. Matthew and Sarah had received a considerable amount of feedback from their students about experiencing poor attitudes from other English teachers. They thus both attempted to be friendly in class. Hannah witnessed a student quarrel with the

English teacher in the classroom when she studied at high school, as noted earlier.

Hence, she attempted to be friendly and gain a better relationship with her students. The data of the three part-time teachers in regard to the reasoning behind their friendly teaching behaviour are demonstrated in the next chapter.

Before the thesis presents further, a clarification must be made. In regard to friendly behaviour in the classroom, the teachers refer to friendly as meaning making the classroom atmosphere relaxed with the teacher being as supportive as possible. Friendly behaviour does not mean the teacher makes no demands or creates easy examinations to try to be friendly. In Hannah's interview:

“現在大部分的教材都有題庫，但那些題庫都過於簡單，我期中考就是按照題庫出，結果考完學生都叫太簡單。(To date, most of the testing materials attached to the textbook are too simple. For the midterm test I was using the testing materials from the supplementary [which come with the teacher package], as a result, after the test the students all protested the test was too easy.)

The two classes that protested that the test was too easy were listening/speaking classes from Matthew and Hannah's classes. The teachers appeared to be unable to create a satisfying test paper for the students; one possible explanation that can be deduced from this is that these part-time teachers attempt to be friendly and therefore they tend to create a 'simple test' for the students. It is also possible for the reason was similar to Hannah's comment; she mentioned her busy schedule did not allow her to create a paper

herself. She therefore used the test materials that accompanied the teacher's manual supplied by the publisher and the test failed to meet the expectations of the students.

This section argues that tenured and part-time teachers hold very different kind of teaching strategies in their teaching practices. Hence, their teaching practices reflect two diverse behaviours; that is, an authoritarian or friendly pose. They all believed that their teaching practices were effective. The results of the thesis echo Richards and Lockhart's (1994) study, in their study, two teachers conducted their teaching practices rather differently, due to the fact both of them held very different beliefs about teaching; however, they both believed their teaching practices was normal and effective as noted in Chapter 3 and 4. One may think the teaching strategies differ mostly owing to the different nature of the class; one is a listening/speaking class and the other is a reading class. From the data it emerged that part-time teachers believed English needs to be taught in a friendly behaviour regardless of whether the class is a listening/speaking or reading class. Tenured teachers commonly preferred to teach reading classes; Emma and Ian had no experience of teaching listening/speaking classes. The next section discusses teachers' knowledge of the content of their practices.

The presentation of content: motivational and informative

The presentation of content that emerged from the data was motivational and informative and was derived from teachers' understanding and beliefs about the characteristics of their students. The content of the lesson that emerged from the data was often the focus of the lesson in comparison to the subject matter of the lesson.

Motivational talk in the thesis refers to a teacher who constantly gives motivational encouragement in Mandarin. This is when the teacher grasps any opportunity to motivate the students to learn English in an enthusiastic manner.

Motivational

The presentation of content that emerged from the data is aligned with preceding research studies that teaching practice has been shaped by a teacher's personal values and beliefs (Pajares, 1992). Teachers' beliefs underpinning motivational and informative teaching behaviour are presented in the next chapter. In relation to presentation of subject matter, David's reading class is similar to that of Emma – they employed grammar teaching; nonetheless, instead of constantly talking about knowledge other than the English language, David persistently provides pep talks. Hence, his teaching practices consist of grammar teaching and motivational talk along with authoritarian behaviour. Below is an extract from David's classroom where he would read aloud an exercise from the textbook and provide the correct answer. After he had read (a) *ignoring the problem* (as below and please see Appendix 12 for materials) he then started to talk about "the importance of English" in Mandarin.

5. *What would probably NOT be done when "facing up to a problem"?*

- | | |
|----------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>a. ignoring the problem</i> | <i>b. finding the reason</i> |
| <i>c. admitting there is a problem</i> | <i>d. looking for a solution</i> |

(Reading Challenge 2, Unit 7 Are sports bad for you? p. 43)

(A) *ignoring the problem*, 沒辦法, 同學你要吃飯, 你要找工作, 就必須要學好英文, 不然找不到工作。同學連中華汽車低階的工作人員, 他們多益的分數都要 450 分, 掃地的都要 420 分。他們的每一個廠長我都跟他上過課, 他們老闆帶著學員在上課。像我們學校也是, 校長, 副校長帶著教務主任, 訓導主任, 每個禮拜四學英文, 他們個個都是博士ㄟ。同學你想你們需不需要? 還有我們學校的職員他也被安排要上英文, 為什麼? 因為現在校園裡有很多外籍學生。他們到教務處去跟你溝通, 你不講英文也不行。即使學校的教職, 你要進去, 也要通過英文這一關卡。

(a. *ignoring the problem*, no way, guys you need to eat, so if, you are looking for work then you must learn English. Guys, even entry-level administrative staff at CMC Motor [China Motor Corporation which sells BMW motors] require a TOEIC mark of 450, and 420 for floor sweeping positions. I taught each of their factory directors, their boss makes them learn English. Similarly, in our university, the Chancellor and Vice Chancellor make the Deans of Academic Affairs and Military Education learn English on Thursdays, and they are all graduated with a PhD. Guys, do you need to learn English? Staff at our university have arranged to learn English lessons, why? Because there are many foreign students around the campus. They go to the Student Centre to deal with administration regarding with their study, if the staff do not speak English it does not work. Even if you want to work at university as an administrator you also need to know English.)

Another example of David's main teaching content in the classroom:

每個人都想要錢, 那要怎樣才能有錢? 要賺錢。要賺錢, 必須要找到工作, 要找到工作必須要英文。以前只要你的專業好就可以了, 現在呢? 英

語是你的專業之一，佔一樣重要，你沒有英語，其他都不要談。(Everyone wants money but how can we get money? Make money! In order to make money, we must find a job; to find a job English is needed. Previously, your major qualifications would be enough, but how about now? English is one of your professions, equally important; if you don't have English then the other qualifications are useless.)

David used grammar teaching to deal with English exercises which provide vocabulary and points of grammar; however, when he read out the multiple choice selection he commenced a pep talk. David mentioned that he learnt extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (data is presented in the following chapter) from SLTE programs in the United States. He attempted to implement the motivation theory of learning/teaching into his practice via constant pep talks about the importance of English. This provided evidence of how received knowledge influences teachers' teaching practice. He was turning the theoretical knowledge he had learnt from SLTE programs into practical use through his constant motivational talk.

In the above data, David used entrepreneurial heavyweights in Taiwan such as BMW executives to deliver a message about the importance of English learning. The data suggest additional information from David's classroom discourse. These include his confidence in his ability in English teaching; some Taiwanese PhD holders may be under duress to improve their English; emphasizing the importance of English reveals a teacher's individual perceptions of value. David is aware of experiences in regard to what is happening outside of the classroom; that is, many elites feel pressure to improve

their English and he then brings this knowledge to the classroom and uses it as the main content of the lessons to inspire the students.

The research studies indicate that classroom management involves teacher's ability to create a climate in which learners are encouraged and excited about what they are learning (Brophy, 1998; Evertson, 1985). The data above demonstrates that David was not only creating a motivational climate to indicate the worth of learning English but through his motivational talk he informed them of the value of English learning which is connected to the workplace after the students graduate from university. Motivational talk is not related to any English language teaching methods. The knowledge of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation David acquired from RK and implemented through his motivational talk was designed to pass this message to the students and it had become the main content of his practice.

Informative

The main content of the lesson in some classes seemed to focus more on other issues than the English language itself and this finding concurred with those of Johnson (1999) and Nespor (1987). In Nespor's (1987) study, the history teachers felt that teaching facts and details of history should not be the goal of their course hence they developed other types of teaching goals, that is, teaching students manners and general learning skills such as organizing a notebook. The focus of Emma's class was centered on knowledge other than the English language and this was the main content in her practice. Three tenured teachers were aware that the contemporary students were not like past students

who would accept whatever teachers gave them; they were more difficult to teach in comparison with their former students; and hence, the three tenured teachers attempted to create their own teaching goals (Data is presented in the next chapter) for the reading class.

In Emma's teaching practice, when she started to talk about lessons through GTM, the students who were sitting around me started to do their Japanese assignments; however, when Emma talked about knowledge other than English they concentrated more and knowledge other than English formed the main content of Emma's practice. In her practice, there were a lot of information about social issues and events. With the focus of the lesson on social issues and events more than English learning, it was easy to become confused. Although it seems the focus of the teaching was to provide information about social issues and inform and discuss social events, this was frequently drawn out with her reason being that she was giving background knowledge which related to the English text. The background knowledge related to the English text then expanded to cover other social issues, events and knowledge. Below is Emma's English reading class:

Hereafter the English translation is provided in brackets and *italics* indicates the English used in the original data throughout the study.

所以我們會感嘆!為什麼同學的學習態度不好,因為身邊的資源太多,例如:網路,電視,學校,同儕間的討論,*listen to the radio*,系上。所以我們很難想像這些活在沙漠地方或者台灣偏遠山區鄉下地方,那些想要求知的孩子或大人,

他們對書本或相關資源的渴望。我們很難想像。所以為什麼台灣每一年寒暑假很多大學社團會到山區的小學住 1 或 2 個星期, 或 1 個月的生活營, 來幫助小朋友閱讀。教育心理學研究指出小孩從小閱讀, 對他的認知和邏輯是有幫助的。所以你想想, 今年暑假 2 個月如果教你去山區幫助小孩閱讀, 你要嗎? 你會說 “搭你麻豪鴨, 吃腳賣鞋”(台語)我要打工, 很多事情要忙, 每天行程都很滿。

(Today, we have plenty of resources and it is almost too easy to get free resources from both faculty and university. For instance, internet, television, the university, peer discussion, *listening to the radio*. So, it is hard for us to imagine the desire of people who live in the desert for books or their longing for knowledge. Likewise, many children and adults who live in remote areas of Taiwan also long for books and educational resources. For this reason many university students go to remote areas near the mountains during their summer break for one or two weeks every year, to help primary school children read. Educational psychology research studies have shown that the ability to read benefits learning and thinking in logical when children start to read from an early age. So if I asked you to go and spend two months in the mountain helping children read this year, would you? You would say, “Are you crazy? No way [Hok-lo] I need to do part-time work, I’m busy with events and my schedule is full every day.)

In the data above Emma provides background knowledge in Mandarin to assist the understanding of the English text which is about the Mobile Camel Library in the desert (Please see Appendix 10 for the reading material). Emma employed a local event about “university students helping children in remote areas read” as moral education and to

provide information about social events. The reading text of the lesson (Please see Appendix 10) leads to other extra information from the Discovery Channel: the function of camels' humps; how Somali pirates performed a robbery at sea; that people walk a long way to deliver a message in Africa; how the human brain is related to educational psychology; and helping children to read in remote areas. All the topics above were carried out within two 50-minute sessions, each theme taking a different amount of lecturing time with some lasting approximately seven or eight minutes and others more than ten minutes on my audio recorder.

When Emma explained why there were a lot social issues and events, she explained:

現在的學生, 他們根本不知道台灣發生了什麼事, 更不用說國際上的。學習英語不代表學生就有國際觀。因此, 我在課堂上都會帶一些社會上, 或國際上的議題。我常常會把生活, 社會議題帶進教學裡, 我可能不是很清楚知道如何減碳的方式, 並不是深入了解, 但我知道這個議題正在發燒, 它對我們的生活, 學習, 人類, 有什麼影響, 這都是知識的一環。

(Students now, they do not even know what happens in Taiwan, let alone internationally. Learning English does not mean that students acquire an international perspective. So, I always bring some sociocultural or international issues. I always brought social or life issues to my teaching. I may not know how to reduce carbon nor understand fully the issue, but I know this issue is a hit, and the kind of impact it would have on our lives, learning, humans, these are all forms of knowledge.)

Emma does not agree with the government's attempt to promote English to allow the students to gain a more international view. She believed that possessing English competence does not mean the students need to hold an international view. She believed that the students in Taiwan were simply lacking in knowledge of what happened within Taiwan. This thinking has influenced her teaching behaviour in which she provides as much up-to-date knowledge about social issues, events or other knowledge from the Discovery Channel which was her favorite TV program. In other words, the content of Emma's reading class aimed at helping her students gain knowledge of many kinds.

As noted in the Chapter 3, teacher cognition about teaching enables teachers to decide what to focus on and consequently different beliefs lead to different classroom practices (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Hence, her belief about students' lack of social knowledge influences her teaching behaviour; she believes her duty as a Taiwanese teacher is to also provide knowledge other than English to the students. Emma's belief is similar to research studies in Vietnam in which teachers believed they had social and cultural responsibility (Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996; Phan, 2004). For instance, the teachers in Phan's (2004) study perceived themselves as having two roles as EFL teachers; a teacher of English and a Vietnamese teacher. As good teachers of English, they encouraged students to take part in many necessary English teaching/learning activities, and as good Vietnamese teachers, they performed their essential duty as 'behaviour educators' or 'moral guides' (p.55). Phan (2004) therefore argues it is essential to understand teachers in different contexts as more than just English language

teachers. They also have multiple cultural and educational roles, which cannot be ignored. It is therefore important to reconceptualize the knowledge base of ELT teacher education and instructional practices as context-oriented, and to understand the role of the teacher in diverse contexts.

The presentation of subject matter: GTM and CLT

Grammar translation method (GTM)

Subject matter knowledge concerns knowledge of the key facts and major theories in a subject area and how the subject area is systematized (Shulman, 1986b). Two distinct instructional approaches emerged from the data, they are the grammar translation method (GTM) and communicative language teaching (CLT). The grammar translation method is also referred to as isolated instruction; it is similar to informative, authoritarian and pep talking teaching behaviour in which the class is much quieter given that it is mostly associated with whole-class teaching, that is, students sitting in rows listening to a lecture from the teacher who stands in front of them (Harmer, 2001; Spada & Lightbown, 2008). All the teacher participants except Sarah understood the grammar translation method as the only way to teach reading. The teaching of GTM focuses on grammatical competence emphasizing linguistic analysis and reading skills while de-emphasizing productive skills such as speaking. It was used in the 19th century to help students read and appreciate foreign language literature (Chern, 2002). Although it was recognized that students would probably never use the target language, the mental exercise of learning it was considered beneficial (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

A teacher's teaching approach is definitely influenced by the *affection and evaluation* that the teacher has of the students and this data is presented in the next chapter. The tenured teachers used the grammar translation method only owing to what they perceived the characteristics of the students to be. However, the data also revealed that tenured teachers who employed GTM were influenced by their apprenticeship of observation. This is also discussed in the next chapter. The following demonstrates through data analysis, how a teacher delivers this approach. Emma sat in her chair and provided *background knowledge* in Mandarin (Please see Appendix 10.1 for the reading text).

In the lesson Emma said:

我們常常可以看到很多家長都會去看小孩子打球。她/他們會在旁邊喊, 快跑!

快跑! 唉啊! 你怎麼那麼笨啊! 這些家長恨不得下來打球的是他們。

(We often see that many parents would go to watch their children playing games.

They will yell nearby, “run! run! Ahah! Why are you so stupid ah!” These parents, rather, they are the ones who play the game.)

Then, Emma said:

來我們看17行 (Ok, let's have a look at line 17 [of the English text]) (Please see Appendix 10.1)

Next, she started to read the reading text out loud:

“Many parents go to children's sporting events and yell insults at other players or

cheer when their child behaves aggressively.”[spoken language]

After that, she began to use *grammar teaching* with the English text orally. She said “Ok, *events* we learned this vocabulary, it is activity.” Then she said again in Mandarin “Many parents go to children’s sports events. They yell and insult other players or cheer when their child behaves aggressively.” After all of this, she wrote the form and inflection of the vocabulary on the blackboard as follows.

aggressive (adj) [adjective]

aggression (n)[noun]

aggressively (adv)[adverb]

Injure (v)[verb]

Injury (n)[noun]

acceptable (adj)[adjective]

accept (v)[verb]

The data above shows that Emma used English in one sentence; “*Many parents go to children’s sporting events and yell insults at other players or cheer when their child behaves aggressively.*” and the seven items of vocabulary above and the rest were in Mandarin. This pattern was implemented throughout the English reading text and was conducted at a rapid speed, while the rest of the practice provided information on knowledge other than English itself, that is, social issues, events and knowledge drawing from the reading text as mentioned earlier. She emphasized various declensions and conjugations. She gave lexical translations of English to Chinese and told the students whether the word was an *adjective* or *verb*, mostly by spoken language and at

times she wrote vocabularies and short sentences on the blackboard. After the individual vocabulary was explained, she would translate the sentence from English to Chinese in spoken language. These teaching techniques are the principal characteristics of grammar translation. Celce-Murcia (2001, p. 6) listed the principal characteristics of a grammar translation approach as:

- a. Instruction is given in the native language of the students.
- b. There is little use of the target language for communication.
- c. Focus is on grammar parsing, i.e., the form and inflection of words.
- d. There is early reading of difficult texts.
- e. A typical exercise is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue (or vice versa).
- f. The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use the language for communication.
- g. The teacher does not have to be able to speak the target language.

The activity in Emma's practice was GTM due to the fact that Emma was against the government's promotion of CLT, she said:

我對 CLT 有負面的看法，並不是不好，而是台灣把 CLT 捧得太高，什麼都是 communicative，用（指英文用法）的對不對，不用管它，會講就好，當然會講很好，但是後來我們發現不是會講就好，你的準確度和其他部分也很重要，但台灣在過去十年來把 CLT 捧得太高，從教育部規定的小學英文學習主旨和目標，就是 CLT 主導的，這一套 CLT 所教育出來的學生之後並沒有辦法去 handle 更深的文章，這就是 CLT 的問題！

(I have a negative view of CLT. It's not like CLT is not good, but CLT has been overemphasized in Taiwan. Everything is communicative, whether the students say it right or not, does not matter as long as they know how to speak. Of course, it is good if students can speak in English but we realize that only knowing how to speak is not enough. Your accuracy and other areas are also very important. But over the past decade CLT has been overemphasized in Taiwan, including the learning aims and objectives of primary schools ruled by the Ministry of Education, that is, CLT-led. The students educated through CLT cannot handle complicated English reading later on, which is the problem of CLT!)

In addition Emma mentioned that she did not know how to teach a listening/speaking class in a short period of two hours session. Hence, she always chose reading classes to teach and as GTM was how she learned as an English learner, she accepted this way of teaching and taught in the same way.

Another example of a teacher teaching through GTM is provided as below, in David's reading class:

David: *spicy* 形容詞。 (*spicy* [written language] adjective [spoken language])
形容詞和副詞都可以用立可白擦掉。(Adjective and adverb can be erased by liquid paper) [in spoken language]

In the above, what David means is that *spicy* is an *adjective* and when a word is an

adjective or *adverb* in a sentence, you can delete them and the sentence remains grammatically correct. Therefore, the focus is on grammar parsing. He then wrote a sentence on the blackboard as follows.

She is a spicy girl. [written]

形 (adjective)[written]

David: 前面是名詞後面是動詞 (a verb comes after a noun) [spoken in Mandarin]

David: *People (who don't play well) may be called names or yelled at.* [written]

名詞(noun)形容詞子句(it is an adjectival clause) [written]

This kind of teaching behaviour was also in Emma's teaching practice. Emma's class:

Emma: *violence* 是暴力名詞所以把動詞放後面 (*violence* is a noun so you add a verb after it.) [Spoken in Mandarin]

the media makes violence seem exciting [written on the blackboard]

↑ ↑
n. 暴力 adjective

Although the main content of their practices was quite distinct; one was motivational talk and another was providing knowledge other than English language, GTM was shared by five teacher participants, except Sarah. For instance, while walking with Emma to her class for the first lesson observation, Emma stated:

你看了就知道，我們都是這樣教的。(You will see; this is how we teach)

Later I received comments from David and Hannah about how to teach reading. Hannah said:

Reading 就很簡單就只有一種教法。教單字，句法，跟著老師讀。

(Teaching *reading* is easy; there is only one way to teach. That is teaching vocabulary, sentence patterns and read out loud after the teacher.)

It seems when English texts are involved the use of GTM has been applied even in the listening and speaking class. From the data analysis, it seems most teachers from the study consider teaching a reading class means emphasis must be placed solely on students' linguistic knowledge, while for both David and Emma local knowledge was also important. The following is David's interview which demonstrates that throughout David's 15 year career in teaching he has taught using GTM. He said:

在這個 PhD 之前，我都是和其他很多老師一樣用 *grammar translation* 現在很多老師還是用 *bottom up* 很多人都不懂 *top-down* (的教法)，一般很多現在的老師都用 *grammar translation*.

(Before this PhD [PhD candidate at the time], I was the same as many other teachers using *grammar translation*. Now still many teachers use *bottom up* [teaching], many teachers do not know *top-down*, generally a lot of teachers use *grammar translation* now.)

His use of these terminologies, *grammar translation*, *bottom up* and *top down*, have been utilized in most SLTE programs. “Bottom-up processing is evoked by the incoming data; the features of the data enter the system through the best fitting, bottom-level schemata ... top-down processing, on the other hand, occurs as the system makes general predictions based on higher level ...” (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1987, p. 221). Both these terminologies are part of the methodology theory for teaching listening and reading that teacher-learners commonly learn from SLTE programs. In other words, to teach using a *bottom up* approach means a reading text is broken into manageable discrete items and presented to learners as teaching words, sentence patterns and grammar translation. A *top down* approach means to utilize pictures from the unit to predict what the text is about.

Although David believed that his lesson had changed from a *bottom up* to a *top down* approach, his practices appeared to remain using a grammar translation method as the data revealed earlier. He thought he had changed from *bottom up* to *top down* but this was not what I observed in the class. This was probably due to the fact that David had taught using a bottom up approach for the past 15 years and had only learnt top down approach from his PhD training. He may, however, remain teaching through GTM.

In Ian’s class, he viewed his teaching practice as consisting of what he understood to be the traditional method; that is GTM. Below is the PowerPoint slide presentation from Ian’s classroom data:

UNIT 8 Running (經營) a SOHO(在家辦公事業)

*****藍色字體代表主詞 (blue means Subject)

*****紅色字體代表主要動詞 (red means Verb)

*****綠字體代表副詞子句 (green means Adverb)

*****紫色字體代表形容詞子句 (purple means Adjective)

*****褐色字體代表名詞子句 (brown means Noun Clause)

Many people in Taiwan want to be their own boss. Setting up

很多人在台灣想要成為自己的老闆創立

a SOHO is a low-cost way to make that happen. A wide variety of jobs, from design

在家辦公事業低成本的方法使得發生多種的工作從設計

work to sales, can be done as a one-man or

工作到銷售可以做為一名男士的或者

one-woman operation. With a small amount of

一名婦女的經營由於少的數量

space and a lot of hard work, a SOHO can be a great way to earn a living.

空間許多艱苦的工作在家辦公族可能是

(Please see the reading text at Appendix 9)

As Harmer (2001) pointed out when people think of learning/teaching they commonly bring to mind an image of learners sitting in rows listening to the teacher who stands in front of them. For many, this is what teaching means and it is still the most common teacher-student interaction in many cultures. This also appears to be the case in the

reading class of the present study.

The PowerPoint slides presented the whole unit and under the English text there was vocabulary translation and linguistic variations, such as *subject*, *verb* and *object*, with each item distinguished by colors. The use of colors was also to distinguish whether they were *simple*, *complex* or *compound* sentences. According to the interview with Ian and my observation of his class, the English practice presented a translation by student groups and he commented on whether the translation could be improved. Ian divides the students to do group homework, and present to the class what they have accomplished in text translation. The English reading to Chinese translation was read out by the students and Ian commented on students' translation skills and when mistake occurred, he corrected the student. When the entire reading text and an exercise of multiple-choice questions on comprehension from the textbook were finished, Ian then asked students to bring out their grammar textbook and started to talk about grammar.

This teaching behaviour is not recognized as the *traditional method* in SLTE programs; however, in Ian's view it is a *traditional method*. It seems that most teacher participants explain their teaching via the concept of *method*; therefore, there was no realization that their practice was a combination of old and new aspects. For instance, Ian included new teaching techniques such as grouping students and PowerPoint presentations while identifying with the traditional method. In the second half of the lesson in Ian's practice, he went through grammar points from the grammar textbook orally; there was no chalk and board; as Ian mentioned he does not like chalk and board teaching.

Brown (2001) points out that *grammar translation* remains popular due to the fact that it requires few specialized skills on the part of teachers. He further indicates that tests of grammar rules and translations are easy to construct and can be objectively scored. He indicates that many standardized tests of foreign languages still fail to include communication abilities, “so students have little motivation to go beyond grammar analogies, translations, and rote exercises” (p. 19). These may be some of the reasons that the teacher participants are inclined to teach GTM in the class. In fact, the participating university has increased the frequency of examinations to enhance learning (this data is presented in Chapter 6) and the teachers may have to arrange their teaching for the purposes of the test. As Brown mentioned the examinations lack testing of communication and only test grammar knowledge, hence, the teachers may need to focus on grammar teaching to help students cope with the examinations from the Language Center of the university. This may have been one of the reasons the teacher participants choose GTM in their practice.

Another reason for teachers using GTM was the influence of their prior knowledge; this is the concept of ‘apprenticeship of observation’ by Lortie (1975) and Bailey and her colleagues (1996) researched this concept and named it, a ‘teacher factor’. In their study of teachers’ prior knowledge, they described ‘good’ and ‘bad’ teaching models that were more important than materials or methodology. In the present thesis, the six teachers experienced subject matter knowledge as GTM teaching practices. Sarah perceived it as bad model and Hannah stated most her peers perceived it as a bad model but she

regarded it as acceptable and the remaining four others perceived GTM to be a good model.

Research studies have shown that those who became teachers commonly accepted or advocated the practices they had experienced and hence they were inclined to repeat their own learning experiences rather than advocate educational reform (Lortie, 1975).- From classroom observations, the climate in the classroom appeared to be one of boredom when the teacher began to analyze sentence patterns. Many students were sleeping, chatting and doing their own thing in the classroom, such as writing Japanese assignments. This may explain why David and Emma created their own teaching goals as noted, that is, using motivational talk and including knowledge other than English language.

Communicative language teaching (CLT)

Communication is based on teachers allowing students to use language for a range of different purposes and functions in the classroom. From the data, teachers who utilize CLT approach are attempting to create opportunities for students to interact with peers or themselves. However, the CLT from the three listening/speaking observed classrooms appeared to be similar to Canagarajah's (2005) studies showing that in many contexts CLT has proved to be adaptable to teacher-centered practices. Nunan's (2003) study in the Asia Pacific Region also echoed this point. In the following, Sarah explains how she improvised communicative activity to interact with the students.

我還滿機動性的，如今天要用什麼活動，我都是看班級的屬性，然後隨機帶活動或方法。

(I am very spontaneous. I would improvise and carry out suitable activities when I feel the dynamic of the class and students' characteristics fit.)

The idea expressed in the quotation above is in line with Kumaravadivelu's (2003) proposal to shift from long-cherished notions such as lesson planning, to create lessons among teacher and students. This post-method notion is not to rigidly follow what is planned but utilize student and teacher interaction to create learning materials (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Although the post-method concept was in Sarah's mind, she could not fully implement the concept since it was necessary to complete the prescribed teaching curriculum. This restricted her freedom to create many materials in the classroom. In her classroom, students were offered opportunities to interact with her or with peers. She provided a wide array of creative stimulation and attempted to offer opportunities for the students to interact with each other or her. The communicative base approach was evident from the beginning of the class when the previous lesson was reviewed by Sarah who asked volunteers to demonstrate conversation in pair-work. The students nominated each other, as the example below shows:

Sarah: 首先有沒有人要自願來對一下 24 頁的對話?

(Sarah: First of all, is anyone volunteering to do pair-work for the conversation on page 24?)

學生 A: 李旭之(student A: [who is not Li xu-zhi]): (Li xu-zhi)

Sarah: 李旭之, 好

(Sarah: Li xu-zhi, Ok)

李旭之:老師你都沒有看我, 是他們在回應又不是我。

(Li xu-zhi: teacher, you did not look at me. They are responding not me.)

學生 B: 賴成裕

(Student B: [student who is not Lai cheng-yu]: Lai cheng-yu [students appointed each other to do the pair-work])

Sarah: 賴成裕, 應該很想表現, 賴成裕 A, 李旭之 B

(Sarah: Lai cheng-yu probably wants to show off a bit; Lai cheng-yu do A, Li xu-zhi do B)

Sarah: 要不要麥克風? 要不要到台上當主角人, 要嗎? 有沒有人要上台?

(Sarah: Wanna microphone? want to come to the front as the main character, wanna? Anyone wants to come to the front?)

李旭之:我聲音夠大。

(Li xu-zhi: My voice is big enough.)

In comparison to other listening/speaking classes where some students did not seem to know each other, the students in this class pointed to others to volunteer them for pair-work. This was possibly because, unlike in other listening/speaking classes, Sarah carried out a roll-call. The dynamics in Sarah's classroom were similar to Matthew's class in which most of the learners were involved and motivated in class. For instance, in Sarah's class:

學生 C (Student C: *You need to have good communication skills if you want to work in hospitaly[hospitality]* (同學很多在笑) [almost the whole class was laughing])

Sarah: *hospitaly*, 是 *hospitaly* 嗎? 有誰知道怎麼唸?

(Sarah: *Hospitaly*, is it *hospitaly*? Who knows how to pronounce?)

學生 D: 我知道

(Student D: I know *hospitality*)

Sarah: *Excellent*.

Sarah: *patient* 是什麼意思?

(Sarah: What is *patient* in Mandarin?)

學生們: 耐心

(Students: Patient [the students voluntarily respond in Mandarin])

From the data above, it is clear that when students made a mistake, almost the whole class laughed which may indicate that many of them were paying attention and listening to their peers when they were carrying out conversational practice in front of the whole class. Also, when a student read the word *hospitaly* rather than *hospitality*, she asked the whole class the correct answer interactively rather than un-interactively giving out the answer as in reading classes. Next is additional classroom data from her class:

Student B: *Actually, I've been thinking of going into popular* [public] *relations*.

Sarah: *popular? Are you sure?* (學生都在笑) 大家要聽清楚一點, 等一下如果 he 唸錯, 你們都要說什麼? *Stop--* 對不對? *Stop--* 怎麼樣? *practice one more time*

(Sarah: *Popular? Are you sure?* [sounds like the whole class was laughing])

Everybody listen carefully, later if he does it wrong, you must say what? *Stop --*, right? *Stop --*, so, *practice one more time*)

Sarah: 好同學唸給我聽聽看

(Sarah: Ok, guys, let me hear you read out loud)

Students: *hey... (hey...)*

Sarah: 不要再 *hey* 了, *hey* 學的很像’其他就沒聲音了

(Sarah: Stop doing *hey*, *hey* is most native-like, rest of it is voiceless.)

Sarah: 林宣怡同學, 有你不會的單字嗎?

(Sarah: Lin xuan-yi, is there any vocabulary that you don’t know?)

Sarah: 請問還有誰沒被問過。

(Sarah: Excuse me; is there anyone who hasn’t been asked?)

When the students stumbled over or mispronounced unfamiliar words, she asked “argh what happened? all the words stuck together.” Then, she said “you must read it clearly, let’s do it again” or “I cannot hear you, let’s do it again” in Mandarin. These quotations demonstrate that Sarah appeared to be trying to make sure the students knew how to pronounce each word. To some degree, the teachers utilized an adapted version of a CLT approach and in this context this seemed to be a common attempt to ensure learning took place through communication so that the students understood the lesson. In looking at whether learning took place through the teaching practices of Sarah and Matthew, Sarah stated that due to bad English learning experience in her past learning in which her teachers solely lectured, she tends to ensure learning takes place through comprehension questions communicated in an interactive way.

In her practices, Hannah also implemented an adapted version of CLT. However, her students were much less concentrated in comparison with the other two listening/speaking classes. This was due to the fact that the students were learning

similar English, two years in a row and they had lost interest. This data is presented in the next chapter. In Hannah's class, there was pair-work and GTM teaching and she also used teacher questioning techniques to confirm students' comprehension of the lesson, as the classroom data below shows:

Hannah: *What about the wife, what does she order* 李見林 (Li jian-lin) ?

李見林(Li jian-lin) : *Seafood special.*

Hannah: 王方生

(Hannah: Wang fang-sheng. *What kind of the soup does the husband want?* [The student pauses for 10 seconds.])

Hannah: 快點又，你沒講出來別人不能休息。

(Hannah: Come on hurry up, others cannot take a break if you do not give out the answer.)

王方生 (Wang fang-sheng): *Tortilla soup.*

Hannah: 老師: *OK, tortilla soup, is it spicy* 劉得厚 (Liu de-hou) ? [The student is thinking.]

Hannah: *Yes, or No* 而已嘛 *is it spicy?* (It's just *Yes or No, is it spicy?*)

[The student is still thinking; one of the classmates acts the fool and says 'no' 'no' in a passing voice.]

劉得厚 (Liu de-hou): *No* (Whole class laughs out loud.)

Hannah: 你看要聽別人的話，答案是 *Yes* 。

(Hannah: See, listen to others, the answer is *yes*. [your classmate is making fool out of you, this is what happens when you listen to others and not your own knowledge])

Hannah completed her TESOL program in America and in her teaching she kept reading something from her teacher's manual and constantly checked it. At the end of the class, she came to me for advice about whether she was teaching in the right way. Her concern was that she believed she was not applying CLT properly in class according to how she had been trained in the SLTE program. This was because she was also applying some of the grammar teaching techniques she had learned from her previous local English teacher. She also believed she did not speak enough English and provide enough cultural knowledge in her practices. She said "every time I walked pass to the next class, the teacher in the next room speak a lot English. I don't speak a lot English, so is my way of teaching correct?"

It seems her teacher education program has not empowered her for the teaching skills she needs and left her with some confusion. Hannah's case is paralleled with Johnson's (1999) where a great student in her MA course not know how to handle an ESL class due to the SLTE program failing to provide teacher-learners with procedural knowledge (Johnson, 1999). She then proposed a different way of delivering a knowledge base to teacher-learners using critical reflection rather than lecturing and term papers as in most of the traditional programs. Again, in Hannah's case this reflects the fact that SLTE programs need to reconceptualize the knowledge base. Although Hannah has eight years teaching experience in the university context and is teaching at continuing education English courses in the evening, her teaching practice focused on holding the teacher manual and she seemed to follow it strictly. However, when she was discussing how an effective teacher ought to teach in the classroom, surprisingly her knowledge

was perfect and she was very confident, and this is discussed in the next chapter.

The final communicative base practice was that of Matthew. Matthew taught one of the listening/speaking classes, and his practice integrated GTM with an adapted version of the CLT approach. This consisted of three aspects in his practice. The first part was teaching vocabulary lists that informed students about the form and inflection of words, and translating the reading texts orally in Mandarin. The second part consisted of listening activities. The final part was carrying out teacher-initiated questioning about the lesson which had just been taught followed by supplementary materials about activities in daily life, such as the overseas trip planned by his wife. The final part of supplementary material in regard to daily life was conducted mostly in English. For instance, the supplementary materials were as follows:

Hereafter the English translation is provided in brackets and *italics* indicates the English used in the original data throughout the study.

Matthew: *Before Chinese New Year I'm going to travel with my wife. I don't want to go but she forces me to go with her. I have to be a driver. 她買了IC卡 (She bought the IC card already). My wife had just reserved the ticket, can you imagine how much for airline tickets? for each? 六百多 (\$600 something), to fly from Taipei to Malaysia, NT dollar.*

The extra knowledge here differs from the extra knowledge provided in Emma and

David's reading class. Here the 'overseas trip planned by his wife' is mostly carried out in English and the students need to concentrate on the teacher's spoken English. Also, the supplementary was not the main content of the practices, whereas in the practices of Emma and David, the motivational, social and international talks was in Mandarin and it constituted the main content of the practices. This may explain why the students seemed to concentrate more and be more involved in Matthew and Sarah's listening/speaking class. Given that the listening/speaking practices of Matthew and Sarah involved more English, the students may have needed to concentrate on listening for the target language.

In Matthew's practice for the first part of the lesson he spent the bulk of class time teaching the word lists and reading texts from the textbook (Please see Appendix 11 for the materials), as noted earlier. The second part of the practice was a listening activity. This was the time when no one was chatting. After listening once, when he asked if they wanted to listen a second time, the students mostly said 'yes', and ask if a third time was needed they would mostly say 'no'. This indicated many students may have been concentrating on the listening activity. A high concentration on the listening activities from the students was also evident in Sarah and Hannah's classes, and also while Matthew spoke English to carry out *the teacher questioning technique*.

The teacher questioning technique appeared to lead to motivation; the students were rather excited about having conversational practice with him. This can be demonstrated through the fact that when Matthew asked if there were any volunteers to have English

conversations with him, a good number of the students raised their hands. For instance, Matthew had just finished teaching a reading text via GTM in his listening/speaking class and the teacher questioning technique began:

Matthew's classroom data

Matthew: 等一下我會問你, 你為什麼選這間飯店, 你可以講有關人飯店大小, 價錢...等等。

(Matthew: Later I will ask you why you choose this hotel, you can talk about room size, price....etc)

student A: 講英文嗎? (In English?)

Matthew: 當然講英文, 這是英聽課。

(Matthew: Of course use English, it is *listening/speaking class*.)

Matthew: 準備好了嗎?

(Matthew: Are you ready? *Any volunteer?* [many students raise their hands] *How about you?*)

Student B: *Yes*

Matthew: *Yes* 準備好了嗎? (*Yes, ready?*)

Student B: 來吧! (Let's do it)

Matthew: ok, 開始了, 大家仔細聽。

(Matthew: *Ok*, let's start, everybody listen very carefully.)

Matthew: 可能的話講整句, 不要只講詞句。不然的話你的英語是不會進步的。如果只講單字和片語, 你是無法和外國人溝通的。

(Matthew: Possibly please say it in a whole sentence, not just a phrase otherwise your English will not be improved. If you just say words or phrases you cannot communicate with foreigners.)

Student C: *Choose clean, and* [Matthew interrupt]

Matthew: 最好說,

(Matthew: It is better to say “ *I will choose a hotel with a clean room*”)

Student C [continuing]: (*and amenities*)

Matthew: *amenities*, 你可以講簡單一點 ‘comfortable’ 就比較簡單和口語一點。

(Matthew: *Amenities*, you can say it in a simple way like ‘*comfortable*’ which is simpler and more like daily life conversation.)

The classroom data above suggest that the adapted version of CLT includes the teacher questioning technique which brought about considerable involvement from the students. The communicative process above also signifies that both Matthew and the students used the reading text as a starting point to create their own vocabulary list and learning phrases that were more suited to them. For instance, when a student used the word ‘amenities’ from the reading texts, Matthew helped the student with the word ‘comfortable’ and phrases such as ‘I’ll consider..,’ or ‘...can offer...’ were created in the classroom communicative process.

Matthew has no teacher training experience; he majored in literature and linguistics. He did not talk about *teaching methodology* or technical terminologies from SLTE programs such as *grammar translation*, *bottom up*, *top down* and *facilitator* in the interview as did the other teachers who went to SLTE programs. His lessons were not bounded by *teaching methodology* from most SLTE programs but as the data above has shown he employed English texts to create the vocabulary and sentences which suited the students’ level of English. Due to his lack of teacher training experience he was able

to step away from the notion of methods and create his own communicative instruction using extra material from daily life in his practice.-When I observed his practice, he taught reading in ways that were somewhat dissimilar to other reading classes. There was communicative process such as teacher questioning and students' queries after he had finished explaining the English text. This, however, could not be seen in the tenured teachers' reading class. The interaction and communication between students and the teacher seemed to be a common teaching activity in the teaching practices of the part-time teachers. As Wright (2004) points out when students react to the teacher's or other students' questions, raise queries, and give comments, they are vigorously participating in the negotiation of intelligible input and the making of comprehensible output.

The kinds of learning that use *interactive teaching* or teacher questioning were evident in the practices of the part-time teachers but were not often availed of in the practices of the tenured teachers. The students in Matthew's class acted positively in terms of interacting in English conversation with him. Some of the questions Matthew asked were not from the textbook and the target language was used more frequently than in the other two listening/speaking classes. Matthew believed that the reason students were eager to speak English in his teaching practice was due to his managing the classroom with a friendly demeanor. This finding echoed Borg's (2006a) study in which the friendliness of a foreign language teacher is an important characteristic of a good language teacher.

Matthew and Sarah's class spoke more English in comparison to other classes. Sarah attempted to be more communicative in the class and she tended to maintain a friendly and relaxed classroom environment although sometimes the focus digressed from the lesson. This finding was similar in Nespor's (1987) study in which the teacher attempted to be relaxed in the classroom and as a consequence only covered half the lesson in class. However, according to Sarah and her student groups, in Sarah's practice, the prescribed curriculum was not delayed because of small talk in the class.

Matthew's class used GTM, an adapted version of CLT and extra materials from daily life and according to him and his students groups there was no delay in the prescribed curriculum. Matthew was not a trained English teacher so he had fewer constraints about adhering to the notion of methods. His teaching, therefore, was influenced by his former teachers and he also created his own pedagogy to motivate learning, such as talking about real life experiences in English - his trip with his wife - in the classroom. Moreover, as noted earlier, his way of teaching reading was different to the tenured teachers who had attended teacher education programs. In Matthew's case, it seems the traditional SLTE programs which focused on the notion of methods should be reconceptualized to encourage teachers to reflect teaching activities which made more sense to them rather than impose methods on them that conflict with how they learnt as an English learner (Johnson, 1999).

The observations and the findings from the classes of Sarah and Matthew are closer to Canagarajah's (1999b) conclusion in his study in which some approaches, such as

communicative or task-oriented pedagogies, have been translated by local teachers and students into local practices that suit the style of teacher-centered instruction, as noted earlier. In this study the CLT approach appears to have been adapted by Taiwanese teachers. For instance, the two communicative based classes are those of Sarah and Matthew, instead of offering plenty of time for pair-work, focused the classroom activity on a conversation between himself and a student performed in front of the whole class.

Three listening/speaking classes have shown that a reconceptualizing of the knowledge base is needed. To shift from the notion of methods and look for alternatives pedagogies has been proposed by Pennycook (2000), Auerbach (1995), Kumaravadivela (2003), and Canagarajah (1993b). For instance, Luk (2005) argues that successful CLT ought to offer opportunities for learners to express their lives, interests and values, and in order to implement these local identities are necessary. Two classrooms were contrasted in her research. In one classroom, the students uttered words in English, in a contrived communicative event in which their own meaning and expression was completely missing. In contrast to the first classroom, the teacher guided the discussion in a largely teacher-centered setting and the students were engaged in genuine dialogue with the teacher and the class as a whole.

Her studies are successfully convincing that guiding a discussion in a whole class setting works in a teacher-centered class. Three listening/speaking classes in the present study practiced in a similar way. The findings of this thesis and the study from Luk

(2005) support Johnson and Golombek's (2011) study pointing out that research studies that look for teaching pedagogies which make sense to teachers is much more significant than looking for methodology itself. As Prabhu (1990) argues language teaching is not a matter of good or bad method but it is teachers' understanding and implementation of their own sense of plausibility that makes their teaching vibrant.

Conclusion

This chapter presents teachers' cognitions in what Shulman (1986b, 1987) has entitled teachers' professional knowledge. This knowledge is considered to have a direct influence on what and how they teach, and can be found in the teachers' practices (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988). The findings of the present study demonstrate there are three categories of teachers' cognitions, they are (1) the presentation of strategy; that is, each individual teacher's understanding of teacher behaviour may be authoritarian or friendly in order to enhance classroom learning demeanor (2) the presentation of content; that is, the main content in the lesson was to inspire students or provide knowledge other than English language to assist in transmitting subject matter. (3) the presentation of subject matter; that is, transmitting subject matter through the use of an adapted version of communicative language teaching (CLT) or grammar translation method (GTM).

This chapter has shown the centre of language teaching is not about method but what works in the classroom. Some classes work through teachers' presentation of content while others succeed through teachers' presentation of teaching strategies or subject

matter. Hence, it is important that SLTE programs shift the focus of their methods to empower teachers with the ability to interpret or reflect their teaching in a way which makes sense to them. For instance, Johnson (1999) argues that critical reflection should be included in the SLTE programs for it enables teachers to recognize how their knowledge and beliefs are successfully implemented in their practices.

In the reading classes, the students had less opportunity to offer answers to the exercises or interact with teachers. This was due to the fact that the tenured teachers commonly read out the questions from the exercise and offered the answers themselves, or the students usually waited to be called upon by the teachers. These classes were more focused on teacher lectures through GTM with an authoritarian atmosphere as the tenured teachers interpreted teaching reading to mean teaching grammar translation. However, the three classes of the tenured teachers consisted of an extra teaching strategy, which for David was motivational talk, for Emma it was social issues and some knowledge from the Discovery Channel while Ian grouped students to do translation.

Teachers' teaching practice whether is carried out by GTM or in CLT, in a friendly or authoritarian manner depends more on a teacher's thoughts about teaching, their language competence and confidence. For example, Johnson (2009) points out that many Korean teachers are more comfortable with grammar teaching because they are not confident in spoken English. Their teaching practice is also limited by their range of *teaching skills*, that is, they are more familiar with GTM. In this chapter, the data echoed Johnson's (1999) study in which, in this context, many teachers implement

GTM when teaching English reading because they were more familiar and confident with GTM.

As Emma stated she does not know how to teach a listening/speaking class in a two hour lesson and Ian mentioned he has never been overseas and he therefore prefers to teach reading. Emma and Ian always chose reading courses to teach, as noted. In addition some teachers from the present study believed the students' language ability was minimal, and thus they believed GTM to be more effective with this group of students. Further discussion on why teachers implement GTM is presented in Chapter 6 and 7.

In the listening/speaking classes that were taught by the three part-time teachers, attempts were made to have classes more communicative based in a friendly and relaxed environment. Matthew's teaching practice focused on creating an unthreatening learning environment through a friendly, interactive and communicative base with extra materials from everyday life in English rather than Mandarin. These all came together to form his unique practice. Matthew's practice is in line with Luk's (2005) study; in her study a communicative classroom with a traditional teacher-centered approach is an effective mixture of teaching technique. However, many SLTE would be against traditional methods such as GTM and teacher-centered. Hence, the finding that this combination of an old and new approach to engage students in the classroom has proved that it is necessary to reconceptualize the SLTE knowledge base.

Teachers such as Hannah who was not applying CLT in her listening/speaking class and who was afraid her practice may not be accepted, expressed a desire for a teacher development course. The data would be provided in Chapter 7. As noted in Chapter 3, there is no best method, what works depends on who the students are, who the teacher is and what the content is. Language teaching is not a matter of good or bad method but it is teachers' understanding and implementation of their own sense of plausibility that makes their teaching vibrant (Prabhu, 1990). Second language teacher education needs to reconceptualize its knowledge base so teachers such as Hannah would not feel the need to restraint their practices within a particular method. It could instead follow Sarah and Matthew's adapted communicative base teaching to fit local teacher-centered needs.

In addition, some teachers in the present study believed that teachers all teach in the same way. This concurs with the data provided earlier which indicates teachers possess limited knowledge of the methods of English teaching which take place around them and colleagues may not actively communicate with each other about such matters. The tenured teachers especially were less likely to actively seek advice on how to better conduct their lessons. Due to this perception it was feared that actively seeking advice from other teachers may cause them to lose face. Further, tenured senior teachers do not believe that other teachers have more favorable or effective teaching practices. When I asked one of the tenured teachers if they ever observed other teachers' classes or went to teaching seminars or teacher development courses, he quoted an old Chinese proverb, "No. It is impossible to observe others teaching because since ancient times, scholars tend to scorn each other (自古文人多相輕)".

Edge and Richards (1998) argue that support for teachers is necessary for teachers to examine their own practice and in so doing, the teacher attains a better understanding of the constraints of their individual context. Good teaching for Edge and Richards (1998) is never enough, teaching “ [is] always responding to another cycle of action and observation, reflection, planning, and further action, through which the very nature of practice is theorized” (p. 572). Hence, this continued learning about how to improve practice becomes inevitably tied in with the professional development of each individual teacher.

In this context, it seems many experienced teachers lack such teacher development experience, and hence, teacher cognition of each individual is rather different, although the sources components that form teacher cognition seem to be alike. These sources of components are RK, GBs and CFs. Individual teacher cognition that constrained the teaching activities in the class were to do with teachers’ views of what the contextual factors were, and how the teachers incorporated received knowledge from SLTE and how grounded beliefs impinged on the thoughts of teachers.

The concept that “teachers’ ways of thinking and understanding are vital components of their practice” has been wide recognized (Nespor, 1987, p. 317). Hence, examining the sources of teachers’ cognitions can increase our knowledge of the complex process of teaching. Hence, in the next chapter I discuss teachers’ *received knowledge, grounded*

beliefs and *contextual factors*, in an attempt to provide awareness that teachers' reasoning plays a critical role in shaping and reshaping the content and character of the practice of everyday teaching. Due to all these elements being interconnected and intertwined with one another, all the components – *received knowledge*, *grounded beliefs* and *contextual factor* – are considered in the next chapters.

Chapter 6

Received knowledge, grounded beliefs and contextual factors

Introduction

Under the framework of Freeman and Johnson (1998a), to understand a teacher's knowledge base, we must understand how a teacher learns to teach. This thesis adapted from Johnson and Freeman's framework (1998a) structures the sources of teacher cognition into RK, GBs and CFs. In Chapter 5, I explored the overall teacher cognition of six experienced teachers as embedded in their teaching practices. This chapter discusses the findings of the research questions into the sources of teachers' cognition about instructional practice of experienced EFL Taiwanese teachers.

This chapter divides teachers' beliefs into RK and GBs. The former is the beliefs which teachers received from most SLTE programs and the formation of the latter is derived from teachers' experiences which they observed from their former teachers when they themselves were English learners. This is referred to as an apprenticeship of observation. The teachers' GBs also include their personal teaching/learning experiences, and the students they face today. The results of the thesis echo Johnson and Freeman's (1998a) study that a teacher's cognition is constructed over time during their teaching, and is influenced by their prior learning experience as an English learner, their teacher education and the context.

The organization of the chapter is first, to discuss the conceptualization and differentiation between teacher's RK and GBs. It analyzes the sources which have developed into the teachers' RK and GBs. The sources of RK are mainly derived from teacher education, whereas the sources of grounded beliefs are from teachers' long-standing language learning/teaching experiences; they are influenced by (1) the influence of the apprenticeship of observation (2) teachers' personal learning experiences (3) teachers' personal teaching experiences (4) learning from the students, that is, the students they face at the present time.

Next, the organization of this chapter is to clarify the notion of contextual factors, followed by a discussion of how the main contextual factors shape teachers' learning to teach and how their thinking further impinges upon their practices. There are six main contextual factors concerning the teacher participants. They are (1) a standardized textbook and prescribed curriculum (2) large class size (3) segregated skills teaching (4) examinations (5) teacher development. These contextual factors have a great impact on teachers' cognitions and their practice. The contextual factor allows us to attain a picture of the issues pertaining to real world ELT practices in the EFL context by experienced Taiwanese teachers. Most teachers in this research tended to attribute the mismatch between their practices and their stated beliefs (i.e. RK) to traditional methods as they perceived GTM was effective with the students they were encountering at the present time. For some teachers, although they managed to overcome some contextual factors (CFs), for example, large class size, their beliefs about effective teaching non-English

major students sometimes constrained them.

Beliefs

Received knowledge and grounded beliefs

As discussed in the preceding chapters, since 1970 research studies on teacher cognition have emphasized teacher's thinking that exists behind the observable behavior in teachers' practices. Since then, the beliefs of teachers that lie behind these observable behaviors have been employed in an attempt to conceptualize how teacher's thinking plays an active role in classroom decision-making (Borg, 2006b). Thus, it is crucial to understand the process of teaching through teacher cognition.

Beliefs serve as important factors in constructing our conceptual knowledge. A belief may relate to a particular thing and have many attributes. For instance, an individual may shape beliefs about themselves and others, or any events they have encountered. Beliefs play a crucial role in our lives as they may affect our attitudes toward an object, our intentions and our behaviour (Aizen, 2005). According to Nespor (1987) teachers' beliefs play a significant role in defining teaching tasks and organizing the knowledge and information that is applicable to the classroom. Teachers' beliefs are a more powerful influence than teachers' knowledge on the way teachers plan their lesson and on teachers' decision-making (Pajares, 1992). Teachers' conscious beliefs influence their perceptions and judgments while their unconscious beliefs may also affect the way they teach. Therefore it is important to understand the belief structures of teachers as this can contribute to an understanding of teaching practice (Pajares, 1992). Teachers' beliefs about teaching often conflict with the images of teaching that are advocated in

SLTE programs (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a). The results of the thesis reflect this argument that GBs affect teachers' practices more than RK. The discussion below covers RK first followed by GBs.

Received knowledge (RK)

According to Richards (2008) there have traditionally been two strands within the SLTE field, one is classroom skills and pedagogic issues, which is also known as practical knowledge; other is what has been perceived as academic material which resonates with classroom skills, that is, knowledge about learning and teaching. Richards clarifies the two different kinds of knowledge as *knowledge about* and *knowledge how*, as noted in Chapter 1 and 3. The former mostly provides the core curriculum of SLTE programs, particularly at the graduate level; it consists of coursework such as language analysis, discourse analysis, phonology, curriculum development and methodology (Richards, 2008). Although, there was an unquestioned assumption in these kinds of SLTE programs that such knowledge informs teachers' classroom practices, some research studies show that the practices of in-service teachers often fail to apply such knowledge (Bartels, 2005).

By creating a synthesis from the research studies related to teaching, teacher knowledge and teacher education, the thesis defines RK as: the knowledge that teachers have received from teacher education programs of which they often have little experience. It is the understanding of the principle or theory or technical aspects of language teaching which are mostly received from teacher education and which teachers often exploit to

articulate their teaching. They include knowledge about subject matter, a grasp of pedagogical techniques and formal curricular knowledge (Shulman, 1986a). Five teachers of the present study, with the exception of Matthew who did not attend teacher education and possessed no such knowledge, stated that their teaching beliefs consisted of knowledge from SLTE programs. However, the practices of the four teachers revealed a weak connection to their stated teaching beliefs. Hence, the data have been divided into two specific types of beliefs in order to make the exploration feasible and practicable for educational purposes. I have categorized these data into *received knowledge* and *grounded beliefs*.

Received knowledge largely consists of what teachers received from SLTE programs when they went as teacher-learners to English speaking countries. The teaching principles in these courses was often at odds with the educational background teachers received in their original countries (Nespor, 1987). Grounded beliefs are conceptualized around a teacher's settings and operation. The thesis defines these as the beliefs that inform teachers' decision-making, problem-solving and that guide teachers to manage different levels of or unmotivated students in the classroom. They are beliefs that teachers may or may not be capable of stating explicitly. It is a combination of personal and professional experiences, beliefs, values, biases and even prejudices that guide teacher's behaviour (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Fang, 1996). In other words, grounded beliefs are based on their experiences as English learners; teachers observed and learned these experiences of learning and teaching. Their teaching skills were mostly learnt from their former teachers as an apprenticeship of observation as well as being learnt from the context in which they worked.

It is difficult to generalize and sometimes slightly problematic to classify RK and GBs. This is perhaps the nature of a study that involves knowledge and beliefs, as Pajares (1992) argues that there is a messiness in research studies on knowledge and beliefs as it is difficult to distinguish where beliefs end and knowledge begins, as noted in Chapter 3. Received knowledge consists of teachers' discourse about teaching and the way they think about teaching. For instance, in the findings, teacher participants often used terminology from teacher education programs such as *grammar translation*, *bottom up*, *top down*, *traditional methods*, *CLT*, *intrinsic* and *extrinsic motivation* when asked what they did in the class. This is what Freeman referred to as "the shared professional discourse" (Freeman, 1991, p. 446).

Teachers who had attended SLTE programs and knew this terminology used it to talk about their teaching confidently, according to the present data. For instance, they indicated that the role of the teacher should be as a *facilitator* with the practice being 50% for teachers lecturing and 50% for students practicing the language. *Classroom interaction* and *classroom management* are important, reading classes should teach *reading strategies*, listening/speaking classes should use *CLT*.

Received knowledge acquired from SLTE program

In the example below, Hannah indicates that her knowledge has been acquired from a teacher education program in the United States. Hannah:

English translation is provided in brackets and the *italics* indicate English used in the original data.

有時覺得他們國外好像 CLT 那些教學法講的很好有時忍不住想要試試。

(I sometimes felt that they overseas [the teacher education program, in her case, the United States] seem to have great teaching methodologies such as *CLT* and sometimes I could not help but want to try.)

Hannah has learnt how to teach, such as CLT from SLTE program, and although she acquired this knowledge from teacher education she has no experience of it. The thesis thus categorizes these beliefs which most teacher participants stated as their teaching beliefs, as received knowledge to distinguish from teachers' grounded beliefs. When I interviewed Hannah with questions relating to her beliefs about teaching/learning, she responded with knowledge she had learned from her teacher education course. For instance, she affirmed the practice in which "there should be 60% for students and 40% for the teacher to teach L2" and the role of the language teacher in the class should be a facilitator. This is often the knowledge gained from most SLTE programs (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). However, she has not experienced these kinds of belief and these beliefs were not evident in her classroom, hence, I categorize them as RK.

The interview data above with Hannah indicates that "the shared professional discourse" in which she talked confidently about what an effective teaching should be (Freeman,

1991, p. 446). Hannah exhibited a shared professional discourse and was able to use it to talk about teaching. The advantage of RK in the traditional teacher education program in Hannah's case was that she gained confidence in talking about teaching using professional discourse. This finding was similar in Freeman's (1991) 18 month longitudinal study reporting on how foreign language teachers' conceptions of their classroom practice developed as they took part in an in-service program. He reported that from the teacher education program teachers learnt a shared professional discourse which teachers reported as increasing their feelings of confidence in the teaching community.

Grounded beliefs (GBs):

The influence of the apprenticeship of observation

The power of the apprenticeship of observation for most of the teachers consists of two memories (Johnson, 1999). One is memories of their former local English teachers and another is being a student. These two memories establish some beliefs which are difficult to modify, that is memories from the apprenticeship of observation which are embedded into belief systems and hence newly acquired beliefs seldom change an individual (Clark, 1988; Lewis, 1990). The apprenticeship of observation influences teachers' view of what students need to be and what their role is or how to carry out their lessons.

As noted in Chapter 3, according to Nespor (1987) a knowledge system is stored primarily in semantic networks and broken down into logical components such as

principles, propositional structures and further categorized according to semantic lists. This is unlike a belief system which relies on episodic memory and is organized in the light of personal experiences, episodes or events. These decisive episodes are then maintained to frame an understanding of events later in time. These critical episodes are derived from teacher's experiences as students and have been referred to as an apprenticeship of observation. Research studies have shown that teachers *learn to teach* through their prolonged apprenticeship of observation and these experiences commonly have more impact on *learning to teach* than any sort of teacher education program (Carter, 1993; Kagan, 1992).

There were audible indications from the data that such critical episodes played significant roles in teachers' practices. For instance, teacher-learning is derived from a teacher who was an English learner influenced by their former local English teachers. Below are three examples of teachers' learning to teach being influenced by their former teachers.

Hereafter the English translation is provided in brackets and *italics* indicates the English used in the original data throughout the study.

Hannah: 當時在美國 *TESOL* 時，傳統式教法備受批評，雖然我贊同他不是一個可以讓語言正常發展管道，可是我也是一路受傳統式的教學法學來，我覺得學的很好。

(While I was doing *TESOL* in the United States, the traditional teaching method

[she means GTM] was criticized greatly. Although I agreed that it was not a natural way to develop a new language, I learned it through the traditional way of teaching and I felt I learned it well.)

Swan (2005) claims traditional ways of teaching are “older methods which have failed in practice and which are theoretically unsupported” (p. 384). However, the thesis has shown that most teacher participants have difficulty to apply ESL language learning/teaching theory to this EFL context as noted in Chapter 5. Hence, it is necessary for SLTE programs to reconsider different ways to deliver knowledge to teacher-learners, for instance, to include a reflective component in the SLTE programs as suggested by Johnson (2009) and Freeman (1991), as noted earlier.

The thesis findings have echoed Lortie’s (1975) point that most of the teacher-learners who select a career in education often had a positive perception of the way they learned and this belief guided their continuation of conventional practice rather than changing the past. This is evident from Hannah’s comments above - “I learned it through the traditional way of teaching and I felt I learned it well”. She also explained that:

Hannah: 以前我的英文老師怎麼教我的，多少都可以在我身上看到他們的影子。

(Hannah: How my English teacher taught us, you can see that shadow on me)

R：你是說在 台灣還是國外？

(Researcher: Do you mean overseas or in Taiwan?)

師：當然是台灣，高中英文老師怎麼教我，我大概就可以看到這些影子。

(Hannah: Of course, I mean in Taiwan. How my high school English teacher taught me, I probably can be seen in his/her shadow.)

Hannah: 高中英文老師的傳統方法我有持續用的單字在句型、文章、在內容、在朗讀練習。

(Hannah: The traditional method from my high school English teacher that I have continued to use are, teaching a vocabulary list, sentence patterns, text translation and read the English text out loud.)

It is the episodic memories from the apprenticeship of observation which later provide teacher-learners with inspiration and a model for their teaching practices (Nespor, 1987). The above data and much extant research confirms that there is little evidence that teachers' practice is changed from how they learned as a learner, as a result of teacher training (Water & Vilches, 2005). Hence, studies of practitioner teachers' cognition have become significant by providing a revitalizing force in finding a new knowledge base in support of SLTE programs.

In Hannah's case, once she recognized the difficulties, due to large class numbers, in experimenting with CLT from SLTE program (data is presented in the next chapter), she then reverted back to the ways in which she herself had learnt as an English learner. Due to the fact that the CLT method Hannah had learnt from her teacher education program did not work locally, she came to rely in her practice on the memory of her learning experiences as an English learner in the local context. As a result, she continues to struggle with 'learning how to teach' by herself with no teacher development program to support her. As noted in the previous chapter, she came to me following classroom

observation to enquire whether her approach in the practice was appropriate. She did not know whether using GTM and traditional practice in the listening and speaking class was acceptable. This suggests even experienced teachers such as Hannah who has eight years of diverse teaching experience may feel uncertain about their practice when their RK from SLTE programs does not work locally.

The data above also indicate that teachers' prior learning experiences with local teachers played a powerful role in shaping their views of effective learning/teaching and this finding is in accord with many research studies in this area. For example, Bailey's study (1996) illustrates how the beliefs about teaching held by a group of teacher-learners in training had been influenced by their own language learning histories. Freeman and Johnson (1998a) also note "much of what teachers know about teaching comes from their memories as students, as language learners" (p. 401). The following data are similar to Hannah's and correspond to those in the literature.

Matthew: 我會這樣教，可能也是以前上課看老師這樣教，不知不覺就學習過來，reading 的經驗比較多，從以前台灣的英文老師身上學來。

(I teach this way possibly from watching my teacher and unconsciously learning it. I had mostly English reading learning experience that I learned from my former Taiwanese English teacher.)

The data above from both Matthew and Hannah demonstrate that how a teacher learns to teach is grounded in their experiences as an English learner in a local setting; they

learn how to teach from their local teachers, and this influences their interpretations of EFL practices. Kennedy (1997) indicated that unless teacher-learners encounter practice situations that allow them to experience convincing alternative practices and experiment with new pedagogies, the imprints they accept prove very resistant to change. The teaching practices that teachers learnt when they were students “is intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytical” (Lortie, 1975, p. 62). This kind of practice is due to the fact that students did not select goals, and when preparing for class they are unaware of why teachers teach the way they do. However, they unconsciously imitate their teachers rather than understanding why their teachers taught the way they did. Hence, the existing research studies argue that teachers must be able to articulate interpretations and implement their own teaching in a way which make sense to them rather than imitate their former teachers (Edge, 2011; Johnson, 1999). Edge states,

As, it stands, however, the apprentice-copying-the-master tradition is limiting in that there is no obvious place for professional innovation or personal growth to enter the system. In a society where the strict replication of given patterns of behaviour is desired, this may be acceptable, but that kind of society is becoming less and less common. (p.15)

He continues by quoting Wright’s (2004) work:

Nowadays we have reached such a pass that the skills and mores we learn in childhood are outdated by the time we’re thirty, and few people past fifty can keep up with their culture – whether in idiom, attitudes, taste or technology- even if they try. (p.15)

Memories of the apprenticeship of observation seem to provide a lasting influence on the kind of teacher which a teacher aspires to be (Johnson, 1999). The following excerpt

from an interview with David illustrates this point.

David: 教學會受到你學習過程中某一個老師的影響。以前一個英文老師她/他會分析很長的句子，那時，在我的 *image* 裏，我很羨慕這個老師。結果沒想到現在的我就是她/他。她/他文法的分析可以分[析]的很清楚，就好像我現在一樣，用很簡單的分[析]把整個句子切割，這樣同學很容易懂。[我]當學生時後對我有影響，因我想成為她/他那個樣子，結果我達到了。以前看老師分[析]句子時很厲害，但他怎麼分[析]我不知道。

(Your teaching is affected by the teacher you had when you were learning. One of my previous English teachers was able to analyze a very long sentence. Back then, in my *image* [of the teacher], I was so envious of this teacher. Unexpectedly, I developed my teaching style from his/her teaching. Her/his analysis of the grammar was very clear just as I am right now. S/he demonstrated a simple analysis of sentences broken down into sections, which could be easily understood by the students. When I was a student s/he had an effect on me because I wanted to become like her/him, in the end, I have achieved this. The way that my English teacher analyzed the sentence was brilliant but how s/he did it, I don't know.)

This statement suggests how David may wish to have an identity as a teacher who is able to analyze sentences well and who is an 'explainer' to the learners, and this belief has affected his practice and that he attempts to focus on GTM. However, David's beliefs about effective teaching/learning are those from RK. Rather than realize he has

developed a predetermined teaching method from his formal teacher, David attributes the discrepancies between his practice and stated beliefs (i.e. RK) to learners' attributes; that is, students' poor learning attitude and low English level. This data is presented in the later section.

Teacher-learning that is derived from 'how they learned as an English learner' is one of the reasons for inconsistency between their stated beliefs (i.e. RK) and their practices. In this study, four teachers attributed the inconsistency between their stated beliefs and practices to students' poor English performance and/or negative learning attitude. However, if we only take into account the *students' attributes*, this is problematic and misleading. For instance:

Emma: (我)沒有特定的教學方式，但我的學習過程是這樣子，所以我會比較採用這種方式。

(I did not use any specific teaching activities but my learning process was like this [i.e. teacher-centered through GTM], so I used this way of teaching.)

Emma's teaching practices were derived from her experiences as an English learner and this predetermined aspects of her practice and teacher beliefs. However, she also said:

facilitator 的角色，這也是我的 *belief*。但在教非應外系時，因考慮到他們的系別，英文程度，就會影響到老師的上課角色。有很多因素，因為要讓課程進行順利一點，或趕上進度，用 *lecture* 方式會比較快速。

(The role of an English teacher should be a *facilitator*; it is my *belief*. However, concerning students with non-English major backgrounds and their English proficiency, these affect our role in the class. There are many factors affecting a teacher's role. For instance, in order to have the class run more smoothly and to keep up with the progress of the prescribed units using the *lecture* style is more efficient.)

Emma's belief that the role of a language teacher should be a '*facilitator*' conflicts with her practice and GBs as the data above has shown. She used the terminology *facilitator* as many teacher education programs in ESL contexts expect this terminology from teacher-learners (Ellis, 1996). As the preceding data indicates, Emma's experience of the local context was teacher-centered through GTM and her practices resemble these. The data of the present study suggesting that 'a teacher's role should be that of a *facilitator*' is Emma's RK that she has taken from teacher education and has little personal experience of. She stated these were her teaching beliefs; however, the RK was not reflected in her practice.

It seems that the practice of many teacher participants reflect their GBs as in Emma's practice, however, when interviewed teachers often offered beliefs from SLTE programs as their teaching beliefs. This may be because I was interviewing them and had come from Australia, an English speaking country similar to where their teacher education programs took place. Hence, this may have affected their responses; they may believe that the teaching practice where they trained would be *the norm* for a researcher from

BANA and therefore they presented RK as their teaching beliefs. However, their practices were consistent with their GBs. From the preceding data, it can be ascertained that David wished to teach like his former teacher who knew how to divide a sentence into several sections. The above data also reveals that Emma accepted her former teachers' teaching thus she said "so I used this way of teaching". These all indicate that their teaching beliefs were derived from their past learning experiences, that is, grounded beliefs not received knowledge which they claimed to be their teaching beliefs.

It is grounded beliefs that are mostly reflected in teachers' practices in contrast to RK which is weakly represented not only in terms of teaching approach but the interaction between teacher and students in some classes in the present study. The following data has shown that even though teachers had attained knowledge from teacher education programs that interaction between teacher and students is important, their practices remained more affected by GBs. For example the following data has shown that:

Emma: 師生之間的對談，互動很重要像國外講的。我知道我這方面是比較要加強的就有如你看到的課，我和學生知間的互動並不多。我的課是以我授課為主，可能是時間限制，或者我個人教學 style 和習慣。

(The dialogue and interaction between teacher and students is very important as they said in the overseas [meaning SLTE program]. I know in this area I need improvement, as you can see from my class, there was not much interaction between my students and me. My class was centered on me lecturing. Maybe it

was the time limit or my personal teaching *style* or my teaching habit.)

Emma does not know the reason why she taught this way - as the data above has shown. She taught this way because she learned this way and she finds it more acceptable to in teach the same way as she commented in the preceding data. Emma's practices were affected by her local English teachers, the CFs and the students and consequently her GBs take precedence over her RK. Although she possesses some RK from an SLTE program at overseas, her practices were affected by GBs from her former teacher and this became *routine teaching*, which shaped her teaching habits as she commented above. Besides, one of Emma's teaching beliefs is “讀書是靠個人” (learning relies on the individual). For her, learning is primarily a personal activity controlled by individuals. This is in accord with Daly's (2009) study that many teachers in Taiwan believe students are responsible for their own learning. In other words, Emma's responsibility is to teach and learning is the responsibility of the students. This belief influenced her practice of lecturing through GTM using a teacher-centered approach. This may explain why her teaching practice was lecture focused with little interaction with the students as she mentioned above. Received knowledge merely empowered her to talk about teaching but did not alter her behaviour.

This group of experienced teachers mentioned that their teaching practices were based on the influence of their former teachers from 20 years ago. Hence, it is possible that teacher education programs up to 40 years ago (their former teachers' time) may have relied heavily on studying the structure of language and their local teachers were possibly trained using this kind of teacher education course. As Hammadou and

Bernhardt (1987) point out “Teachers schooled in traditional linguistics and grammar more than likely will teach traditional linguistics and grammar” (p. 303). Alternatively their former teachers may have had little or no training, or their teacher relied on what their teacher did.

Moreover, some teachers may not ‘know how’ rather than just being resistant to theories they encountered in their education that differed from how they were taught. As noted earlier, in Johnson’s (1999) study her teacher education program had failed an excellent teacher-learner in terms of procedural knowledge. Once teachers who had been trained at SLTE programs realized the approach that they had been trained in such as CLT did not working with large size classes, many like Hannah had no choice but to return to how they learnt as an English learner. Most teacher participants believed approaches such as CLT which are advocated by many SLTE programs do not work in large classes. Hence, the findings of the thesis advocate reconceptualizing a new knowledge base.

Furthermore, teachers’ view of classroom management is significant as it is related to teaching (Freeman, 1991). Although most of the SLTE program indicates the significant role of discipline, according to the teachers it is the unforgettable episodes in their experience as a student that are stored in their memories which influence them, and thus, RK is poorly implemented in their practices. For instance, Hannah indicated that classroom management was important and this was part of the teaching beliefs which she learnt from an SLTE program from the United States:

(老師要) 能夠教室掌控，教室管理。如果老師教室掌控做得好，學生比較能靜下來，專心去吸收東西。

([talking about her teaching beliefs] A teacher needs to be able to control the class, that is, discipline. If the teacher is able to control the class, students are more able to calm down and concentrate on something and to absorb what has been taught.)

While I questioned her about how she carried out classroom management as my observation of her practice showed no evidence of this, she stated:

Hannah: 很難，所以我都是採用放任的態度，因為他們都是大人，大學生如果管理不當，學生會反彈，容易和學生起衝突，所以能夠避免就避免，所以我都蠻放任學生的。

(Hard, so I always use laissez-faire attitude. They are adults - college students, and they are all grown-ups, if inappropriately handled, students would rally and easily conflict with you. So I try to avoid conflict therefore I let them do whatever they wish.)

Hannah's GB from high school led her not to carry out discipline. She explains:

我在唸高中時，有次我們班上的一位同學不喜歡我們老師講課的方式，他就在課堂上和老師吵了起來。他告訴我們老師：“你不應該自己一直講，你應該讓我們練習”。我覺得我同學做的過分了點。老師用講課的方式對我來說

是沒問題的。

(When I was in high school one of my classmates did not like my former teacher's lecturing style, s/he quarreled with the teacher. S/he told the teacher "you shouldn't just talk; you should let us practice the language." I think my classmate is too much, I feel the teacher's lecturing style is fine for me.)

The above data is an example of how Hannah's GBs deeply influence her practices. Clearly, due to Hannah's episodic memories about the quarrel between her classmate and the English teacher, and her evaluation and judgment about teaching "adults - college students", "grown-ups", "students would rally", she decided her practices would consist of a 'laissez-faire attitude' in the class. As Pajares (1992) points out, as teachers "attempt to determine what management technique will be most effective and appropriate, they engage in a series of judgments in which they will continually evaluate people, context, and situation" (p. 313), and this kind of evaluation from past episodic memories is grounded in teachers' belief systems.

The above story is an example of how GBs influence teachers' practices more than RK. In previous data Hannah indicated that the knowledge she learnt from SLTE programs is that "discipline" is needed so students are better able to "absorb what has been taught". However, none of this RK was reflected into her practice. Although Tsui (2009) points out that in many Asian cultures, expert teachers are those who can maintain discipline in the classroom; noisy classrooms are signs of incompetence. This is certainly arguable

since in the language classroom practicing the target language may lead to a noisy classroom demeanor (Freeman, 1991; Johnson, 1999). Classroom management should depend on the activity, when communication exercises between or among students are carried out noise is inevitable (Freeman, 1991) whereas when the teacher is lecturing a noisy classroom may be a sign of incompetence as Tsui (2009) claims.

Teacher cognition provides few findings on *class management* (Spiri, 2011). Borg (2003a) conjectures the lack of discussion on *class management* in teacher cognition is due to the fact that teacher cognition research studies are often conducted in small classes of adult learners, and therefore discipline is less of a challenge for language teachers. In this study, discipline is considered an important teaching skill according to the teachers. However, some teacher participants did not implement this belief even when their classes were rather large. This finding conflicts with what Medgyes (1994) reported as the characteristics of NNESTs. In Medgyes's (1994) study characteristics such as being more empathetic, attending to real needs, being stricter, preferring controlled activities and assigning more homework did not appear much in the practices of some teachers in the present study. This may be because some teachers believed that non-English majors are not motivated to learn English (data is presented in a later section) and hence teachers did not implement discipline or give out homework.

This finding confirmed that the apprenticeship of observation plays a powerful role in influencing teachers' knowledge, reasoning and practices. Researchers have suggested that these kinds of belief should be addressed in SLTE programs. For instance, in

Johnson's (1994) study, a teacher was frustrated to find herself repeating old behavior and knew that she do not want to teach as she was depicted in the video. However she did not have any other teaching experience and did not know how to alter her behaviour. Johnson (1999) proposed that shifting beyond the apprenticeship of observation is a vital step in the developmental process of learning to teaching and that the SLTE programs should address this. She further points out that although the apprenticeship of observation facilitates teachers to function directly in classrooms, it can also restrict teachers to teaching the way they were taught.

The apprenticeship of observation forms the basis of how teachers conceptualize their cognitions and practice and Lortie (1975) argues that these memories are asymmetrical and limit teachers' practices. He points out that this kind of learning to teach "is intuitive and imitative rather than explicit and analytical" (Lortie, 1975, p. 62) as noted earlier. Hence, proponents of changing teachers' beliefs within teacher education programs argue that it is agreed that no one learns to teach solely as a result of a teacher education program. However "such programs can create opportunities for teachers come to understand who they are by recognizing their beliefs about themselves as teachers, and about teaching and learning in language classroom" (Johnson, 1999, p. 54). Crandall (2000) also argues that it is important for teacher educators to explore teacher-learners' prior learning experience and to reshape teacher-learners' beliefs through modeling of alternative pedagogies at SLTE programs.

Teachers' personal *learning* experience

As noted in Chapter 3, peoples' belief systems often include existential presumptions (Nespor, 1987). They are the indisputable, "personal truths everyone holds" (Pajares, 1992, p. 309). The data revealed that teachers' retain pre-existing presumptions formed from their learning or teaching experiences. For instance, below Matthew talks about his belief as to why teaching and learning a large amount of vocabulary is important in his practice.

Matthew: 第一要不斷的唸每個字 如 comfortable, comfortable, comfortable, comfortable, 那就寫 com, for, ta, ble, 這些 com, for, ta, ble, 都會在其他字出現, 你隨著一邊唸音節, 一邊寫你自然就會知道 com 就是 com, for 就是 for, 那這個 for 會在很多字出現. 單字要唸出聲, 不是 4 遍 5 遍, 是要一個單字 4-50 遍, 但我認為沒幾個學生可以做到這樣, 你一定要這樣不斷的刺激, 它才會進入到你的 *long-term memory*。唸和寫不一樣, 有些印章我會唸不一定會寫, 所以一定要拿一支筆自己寫。你動手去寫那個英文單字和唸不一樣, 學英文單字那麼難。

(First, you need to read each word out loud, for example, *comfortable*, *comfortable*, *comfortable*, *comfortable*. Then, you write *com*, *for*, *ta*, *ble*, these *com*, *for*, *ta*, *ble*, will appear in some other vocabularies. If you read the syllables while writing then you will naturally know *com* is *c-o-m*, *for* is *f-o-r*, then this *com* and *for* will appear in many other words. Vocabulary must be read aloud and physically written on a piece of paper, not four or five times but 40-50 times for a single word. But I think that not many students can do this. You have to maintain such a stimulus and then it will enter into your *long-term memory*.)

Systems of reading and writing are different. Some stamps [a stamp is for verifying ones identification for the important documents in Taiwan such as a bank account; it serves a similar function to a signature in Australia] I am able to read but not to write. So, students must use a pen to write it. When you physically use your hands to write, it is different from when you read it out loud. Learning English vocabulary, I do not think is that difficult.)

R: 可是這個是有效的教學方法嗎？這對學生學習有幫助嗎？

(But, this way of teaching is effective and useful to help students learn?)

Matthew: 對，我會這樣講和這樣教，但是我相信沒有幾個學生做到，大家都太懶，這是我的教學策略。單字背多了，你自然就不怕英文，單字多了，你就會聽的懂，可能講不出來，但會聽的懂，就會有興趣。

(Yes, I would say that in the class and teaching this way but I believe that not many students would do so, they are all too lazy. This is my teaching strategy. Once you have enough words then you are no longer afraid of English. When you have a huge amount of vocabulary you will understand what people say. You may not be able to speak but you will understand, then you will become interested in English learning.)

The above data indicates that Matthew believed English learning is a function of drilling of vocabulary, and that the contemporary students were too lazy to do what he suggested. The result of this finding that teachers retain pre-existing assumptions is in

line with the study reported by Nespor (1987) in which teachers “held strong beliefs about student ‘ability’, ‘maturity’, and ‘laziness’” (p. 318). Clearly, this belief has influenced Matthew’s teaching practices. Matthew taught a listening/speaking class and he spent a great deal of time writing word lists and explaining them. In the interview with Matthew, he stated that from his self-learning experience “rote learning was useful”. Therefore, in the part of his practice when he dealt with English texts, he taught a vocabulary list and translation between English and Chinese.

He commented that his educational background was similar to the majority of his students; they came from a vocational high school.¹ Commonly, these high schools did not prepare students for university entrance examinations; rather, they prepared them for the workforce. Therefore, English lessons in these schools were neglected and he studied English himself in order to attain a good result in the university entrance examination. He recounted the story of how he taught himself a large amount of English vocabulary and stated how he teaches and suggested the students should do the same, as the data above indicates. He believed students were too lazy to memorize vocabulary in the way he suggested, thus, he attempted to motivate students by talking about his trip with his wife in English, and told the students once you have enough vocabulary you can travel overseas by yourself. Therefore, his practice indeed reflects this self-learning from his personal experience.

¹ Similar to year 10 in Australia when the student is not aiming for university, the high school would advise the student to take courses such as hospitality, to prepare them for TAFE or the workforce rather than university.

As noted in Chapter 5, Matthew's educational background is Master in Linguistics and thus he has less experience associated with language teaching; his undergraduate degree was in literature and therefore he does not possess RK from a teacher education program but GBs. As Tsui (2007) points out, teachers' beliefs may often be traced back to teachers' "experience of being taught as a student, which provides teachers with an image of what teaching is and should be like" (p. 1054). This sort of influence is particularly strong for teachers who join the profession without professional training (Tsui, 2007). Hence, Matthew's practice was mostly derived from the teaching of his former reading teachers, his self-learning experience and some teaching methods he created on his own as noted in the preceding Chapter and these formed his GBs. Matthew is one of the two teachers whose stated beliefs are consistent with their practice. The other is Sarah.

Personal *teaching* experiences

Learning from teaching was situated in each teacher's specific work context. The teachers had acquired these beliefs from their teaching experiences elsewhere and they influenced their university teaching. For example, according to some teacher participants, their teaching experience outside of their university had been beneficial for making informed choices in their own teaching in the university context. Hannah commented:

Hannah 師：我會告訴學生，你現在不學到時候畢業後，又花幾千塊來進修課程學，像我有 PhD 和研究所的學生來進修推廣部學自然發音法，他們說他們的教授叫他們唸英文，他們都唸的亂七八糟，所以教授叫他們來學自

然發音法。

(I would tell students, you will spend thousands of dollars to come back to learn English at evening classes if you do not learn it now. Just like my PhDs and graduate students, they said their professors asked them to read English out loud, they all read so badly so their professors asked them to come here and learn phonetics.)

Hannah is a part-time teacher. She taught an evening English class under the management of the university. She believes that these teaching experiences are very helpful in her university teaching. She added further:

如校外的學生是有工作，工作有英文的需求，我就會知道大學的學生，如果畢業後在外工作，會遇到什麼英文需求，就會加進來。

(Because of this teaching experience I know English is needed for employment. I know after my daytime students graduate from university and join the workforce what kind of English they will need in the future and include this in my daytime class.)

Her experience of learning from teaching informs Hannah that she should include extra materials in the daytime class. However, this was not what I observed in her practices. When I inquired about the inconsistency, Hannah mentioned that owing to her busy teaching schedule, she had no opportunity to prepare extra materials, so her students were still learning ‘Is there... and Are there...’ in their freshman and sophomore years.

She admitted she did not implement the useful experience she had gained from her teaching outside the university context. There are similar situations in which teachers' grounded beliefs have been poorly represented in their practice due to the CFs; in Hannah's case, this was insufficient time.

Hannah, like other teachers, often struggled with the idea of what she should do (in this case from her GBs) and what she actually did. Whether GBs or RK are implemented in teachers' practices depends on the CFs of each teacher. As Johnson (1999) points out almost anything can be a factor for teachers. Some manage to integrate teaching experience outside of the university, into their practice while others see CFs as interference that is impossible to implement. David and Hannah both had teaching experiences outside of the university and both believed these experiences to be valuable. David's personal teaching experiences outside of the university with CEOs had influenced his practice; however, in Hannah's case her outside experiences were weakly represented in her practice. David's practices reflecting his GB are presented in the next section.

It seems Hannah was knowledgeable about her students, that is, what they already knew and that they were not interested in learning a similar level of English two years in a row. She also knew her students did not need to go through all the material in the textbook and she could skip some units. She was also aware of other knowledge that might be useful to students, that is she should included her teaching experiences from outside in her university classes. However, she was unable to implement all of the

knowledge and beliefs she had due to her busy schedule. This issue is not surprising as research studies indicate that teachers may have knowledge and beliefs, but they implement it poorly in the classroom.

As noted earlier, to address this issue, some scholars encouraged the inclusion of critical reflection in SLTE programs or changing teachers' beliefs when necessary, for example the research studies by Brownlee, Purdie and Boulton-Lewis (2001), Johnson (1999) and Freeman (2002). Johnson (1999) demonstrated the change in teachers' beliefs, in her book entitled *Understanding Language Teaching*. One of the cases described how she supervised a master teacher-learner during her two-year TESOL Master program in the United States. The student came to inquire about whether she should go through such prewriting activities as linking, webbing, and cubing when teaching a freshman composition course. This was because the teacher-learner's own experiences as a writer shaped her conception of the value of these prewriting activities that were outlined in the textbook. The teacher-learner believed these strategies were boring and from her writing experience, she would just write. However, she did admit that before writing she thought a lot.

Johnson then asked her did she think her students pre-wrote in their head also, and the teacher-learner then realized if she used these writing strategies she might not be such an anxious writer. This conversation involved teacher-learner's cognition and she then modified her beliefs from thinking prewriting was unnecessary to implementing this strategy in the classroom. This activity created an opportunity for the teacher-learner to

discover her own beliefs about writing and that constructing new beliefs with these prewriting strategies might be valuable for her students.

Without this critical reflection on alternative views about the role of prewriting strategies, the teacher-learner would continue to base her cognition on what she already knew. This lack of training in critical reflection is perhaps why some *reasonable* RK from SLTE that teacher participants stated they believed in, such as discipline when a teacher is explaining things, was not implemented by teacher-learners. A research study on a reflective teaching program with a year-long pre-service by Brownlee, Purdie and Boulton-Lewis (2001) and with 18 month in-service teachers by Freeman (1991) provides evidence to support the argument that teachers' beliefs can be changed.

For Ian and Emma, neither their experiences as a teacher educator nor a cram school experience were helpful for them. Emma perceived that her experiences as a language teacher educator at a teacher education program in Taiwan did not help with her practice at university. According to Emma, the teacher-learners at language teacher education were more motivated; her lecturing style worked well with them, there was no need to shift the content of the lesson to knowledge other than English as she did with the non-English major students. Ian only had one or two experiences as a substitute teacher for his friend at cram school and he also concluded that this was unhelpful for his university practice as he only had two hours experience in the cram school.

As noted in Chapter 4, the tenured teachers had almost double the years of teaching experience of part-time teachers, and this group of teachers possibly faced greater challenges than part-time teachers as many of them may have had less experience ‘learning how to teach’ in contexts other than the university. However, this was not always the case, an understanding and talent for teaching was different for each individual teacher; some were better than others despite their different periods of teaching (Gebhard, 2006). Also, although some teacher participants may possess teaching experiences in different settings and contexts, some of them seemed to continue to struggle with ‘learning how to teach’ as discussed in Hannah’s case earlier. Additionally, the CFs remained unresolved so that although Hannah may have had diverse teaching experiences and understood what the daytime students’ English needs would be in the future, her practice poorly reflected these beliefs.

Learning from the students

As noted in the Chapter 3, a belief system can be said to rely much more heavily on affective and evaluative components than on a knowledge system (Nespor, 1987). After giving an evaluation on their students, four teachers David, Ian, Emma and Hannah whose stated beliefs were inconsistent with their practices believed that non-English major learners in Taiwan possess insufficient English proficiency. This belief is fairly prevalent among Taiwanese English teachers. For example, David stated:

David: 非英語系無法分組，因為他們程度很差，英語系就可以。

(Non-English majors cannot be divided into groups because their English proficiency is very low, English majors can be divided into groups.)

For David non-English majors cannot carry out group work activities. However, the level of Ian's class (i.e. freshman) was even lower than David's (sophomore). When I commented that all of them teach differently and that some freshman teachers have group activity, David felt that it was impossible and insisted that I email him and explain *how* group activities were done in the class that I had mentioned. David's beliefs about students' low English level not only relates to non-English major students but to all Taiwanese students. As he explains:

David: 學校有規定要通過英檢才能畢業，那只是做個樣子。如果真的執行，那有多少人不能畢業。全國的各大專院校都不可能實施，連台大都不可能實施，那只是做個樣子。

(The university has a policy that all graduates have to pass GEPT [General English Proficiency Test] as a graduating requirement. That is just a sham. If this policy was strictly implemented, a lot of students could not graduate; all the universities in Taiwan, even the National Taiwan University [one of the prestigious university in Taiwan] cannot implement this policy. It is just a sham.)

David believed all Taiwanese students had a low English level even in the prestigious universities. This belief does not appear to take the new policy from 2001 into account. As mentioned in Chapter 2, this policy includes English learning from Year three rather than Year seven. In addition, the IELTS performance ranking has shown Taiwanese students rank second in Asia behind Hong Kong students (Chen, 2012b). The British Council has suggested the result may be related to the Taiwanese Government being

actively involved in English-based education (Chen, 2012b). Moreover, it is clear that the promotion of English learning by the Taiwanese Government has encouraged many students to learn English from an early age at cram schools. This may indicate that some teacher participants may possess limited knowledge about their students. Most teacher participants believe students possess rather low English proficiency therefore they choose to teach only basic English and do not prepare any extra materials.

David believed it was impossible to have interactive components with non-English majors due to their unmotivated attitude as noted. However, when a female student was late owing to a minor car accident David interacted with this student in a more *friendly style* which led later to the dynamics of the class changing. When David started to question the students about the theme of the English text using the pictures in the textbook, the interaction between him and his students began. Teacher questioning was conducted for a little while, then he returned to a teaching pedagogy characterized by his common teaching routine, that is, lecturing through explaining grammar points and text translation.

David's existential assumption that it is not possible to be interactive with non-English major is in line with the research by Nespor (1987) in which teachers commonly held strong beliefs about students' ability, maturity and laziness, as noted earlier. However, from what I observed, students began to pay attention and the class actually became interactive when David took the initiative following the conversation with the female student who was late. This type of finding was not uncommon; there was often a

mismatch between a teacher's intention and what was actually happening (Burns, 2010). Although David perceived it was impossible to be interactive with the non-English majors, what was actually happening was that interaction was taking place in his practice but he was unaware of this and returned to his old teaching behaviour.

This is the reason Burns (2010) called for action research, whereby teachers could investigate 'action' and 'research' themselves in their own personal teaching practices. The aim is to improve teacher's practices as a way to solve practical problems or simply to investigate alternative ways of teaching. Action research literally means that a teacher becomes an investigator of her own personal teaching context while at the same time being one of the participants in it. Classroom practice can be greatly improved through a teacher's observing their own classroom in numerous ways, such as writing a diary, recording or videotaping their own teaching, surveying and interviewing the students and reflecting on their teaching using the information they have collected. For example, Burns (2010) described a teacher of English in Italy engaged in action research to improve the oral tests she used in class. The recordings of the class showed a mismatch between her intention to facilitate students' responses during the test and what was actually happening. She saw a set of behaviours that upset her. She was interrupting the students when they were thinking about a response.

The students' data from the open questions in the questionnaire was correlated with the patterns about her disturbing the oral test. The students stated that they did not like being interrupted all the time during the oral test when they trying to think about the

answer. Following the action research and using a reflective perspective, she continued with another cycle of planning, acting, observing and reflecting. This way of learning to teach seems to have great value compared to imposing learned theories and methods on teachers. When reading a book or simply listening to others speak, such as lectures in teacher education programs may not enable teacher-learners to think deeply. Unless they participate in teaching or create alternative teaching strategies, they may only learn a minimal amount about how to teach (Burns, 2010).

Teachers' affective evaluation of the students' learning attitudes is also shown in the following. Emma explains:

現在的大學生整體學習態度非常差而不是只有英語課。

(Nowadays students' overall attitude towards learning is poor and not simply in English.)

She further explains:

台灣大部份的大學生大多像 Western Taiwan University 這樣的學生，你要花很多心力，然後他們(指學生)的學習態度也不佳。他們也無心學習，外務也很多，他們覺得英文只要 60 分(合格分)過了就 OK。他們也不會去想我在英文這方面怎樣做才能精進。或是英文很重要，他們可能沒有看到這一點。

(Most university students in Taiwan are similar to the students in the Western

Taiwan University. You must spend a lot of effort and then they have poor learning attitudes. They have no interest in learning; they have too many extracurricular activities. They feel as long as they received grade 60 in English [pass grade] then it is *OK*. They would not think what can I do to improve my English or English is very important, they may not see it.)

The previous quote suggests that Emma believes that current Taiwanese students' overall learning attitudes are poor, and therefore, they possess a lack of international knowledge and an understanding of social issues. Emma disagrees with the policy from MOE stating that English should be promoted so as to enable students to acquire international views and perspectives. As noted in the preceding chapter she did not agree that possessing knowledge of English means that the students hold international views. She believed students did not even know what was happening within their own country. After evaluation, teaching students local and international knowledge from the Discovery Channel had become the principal content of Emma's practice, as noted in the previous chapter. Emma therefore constantly lectured in Mandarin about moral, ethical and local or international issues in her English class. For example, in Emma's class:

有一天，我在看 Discovery 的時候，在肯亞為了講 “你好！恭禧！你的孫子今天要有成人禮，再見！” 要走很長的一段路。好，你會說怎麼不用電話，他們連鞋子都沒有，所以你們應該好好珍惜你身邊的資源。借一本書要走五公里，同學要做嗎？怎麼可能，連上課都不帶書，怎麼可能為了借一本書走五公里，除非我給你一百萬，可能大家就用跑的。所以我們會感嘆！為什麼同

學的學習態度不好，因為身邊的資源太多，所以大家就不會珍惜，就變成浪費，所以應該要回歸一下，到農業社會，如果回歸到農業社會，沒什麼資源，大家就會珍惜。

(One day I was watching the *Discovery* Channel, something about Kenya. People there need to walk long distances only to say four or five sentences “Hello, how are you? Congratulations! Your grandson will have a ceremony to become an adult today. Bye!” OK, guys, you would say why not use a telephone? They don’t even have shoes, so you should all appreciate the resources that are around you. To borrow a book they have to walk for five kilometers, guys will you do it? It is impossible! You guys don’t even bring a textbook to English class; it is impossible for you to walk five kilometers for a book. Unless, I gave you \$1 million dollar, then everybody is likely to run for it. So, we [teachers] always feel sorry that students’ learning attitude is bad, because there are too many resources around you, and nobody appreciates it and it becomes a waste. So we should go back to being an agricultural society, if we go back to an agricultural society with no resources, then everybody would be more appreciative.)

Emma used the talk about the Discovery Channel which she watched to educate students on the virtue of not wasting resources. This is what Emma understood about her students and is therefore a *grounded belief* as its construction is based around the teacher’s settings and operation. This finding is similar to Nespor’s (1987) study that history teachers felt that teaching facts and details of history should not be the goal of their course hence they developed other types of teaching goals, for example, teaching

students manners and general learning skills such as organizing a notebook, as noted earlier. This practice of the history teachers was due to their evaluation that students would quickly forget the course content.

Unlike Emma, Ian's evaluation of his students was that he believed the students had a poor learning attitude only in his English class, and not in their general learning. He said:

現在的 *feedback* 跟以前就差很多，現在就是可以過就好，他們沒有很強的企圖心，去想我要如何學好英文，可能 10 年前或者 5 年前還有不考學生問這個問題。

(*Feedback* now and then was very different. Now it was like, they just ask for pass grade, they do not make a strong attempt to think how can I learn good English. Many students asked this question, five or ten years ago. There were students borrowing the tape from me but now this scenario no longer exists.)

Ian believed that most students were doing well in their majored subjects and English was always the subject that tended to drag down their average academic scores. He continued with a clarifying comment that this situation was clear from his former students' entrance examination for graduate schools. Ian's conclusion above indicates two possible reasons, one is that the students did not learn well in his English class; alternatively the students were not interested in English learning.

The findings from the data in respect to teachers' evaluation of the students' learning attitude seemed to show discrepancies in the teachers' own statements. For example, David expressed the view that "students were lazy and do not like to think". However, he also explained from his teaching experiences that:

學生不喜歡老師用 “*If you have a chance to travel where would you like to go?*” 她/他們喜歡老師給一個 topic，然後學生可以互動。 *The way you used most suitable for students level* 這句話非常重要。

(In fact, the students did not like when the teacher taught this way “*if you have chance to travel where would you like to go?*” They liked the teacher to give out a *topic* so they could then interact with each other. *The way you used or are used [to teach] is the most suitable for [the] students level*, this insight is very important.)

In David's experience students do not favor questions which only require short answers in English. He further explained from his experience of the activity as follows:

好，我要你們準備3分鐘到台上來講 ‘*How to do something...*’. 有一個學生說他要說 ‘How to put on a bra’。你會很驚訝在英語課上，學生很有創意。

(Ok, I want you to prepare an English talk for three minutes about ‘*How to do something ...*’ in the front. One student said his/her talk was going to be ‘*How to put on a bra*’. You would be amazed how creative university students were in

English classroom.)

The above data provides evidence of David's GBs. This data suggests that students like to think in class, and therefore, a teacher ought to provide topics that allow them the opportunity to be creative. This conflicts with David's own assertion that "students were lazy and do not like to think". Thus far, the evaluation from their teaching experiences of the three tenured teachers and Hannah showed they believed that non-English major students' learning attitudes were poor. However, observation of the practices of some of the part-time experienced teachers and their perceptions conflicted with those of tenured senior teachers who suggested that the students had poor learning attitudes. Also, the students were participating voluntarily in the teacher-centered practice that was taking place in the English classes. The MP3 player recorded an unexpected student response in Emma's reading class.

Emma: “答案是什麼?” *B*

(Emma: What is the answer? *B*) [Emma gives out the correct answer straight away without waiting for the answer from the students.]

Male student A: *B* [To himself]

Emma: 第三題 (Question 3)

Male student A: *A* [To himself not waiting for Emma to finish the sentence]

Emma: 這個爸爸會不會讓他的小孩踢足球?

(Emma: Would the dad let his son play soccer?)

Male student A: “會!” (Yes!) [To himself.]

From another student:

Emma: 第四題(Question four)

Male student B: 大概 A 吧! (Maybe *A*!) [To himself]

Male student B keeps saying: *A la*, 如果不是的話...

(*A la*, if not *A em*) [To himself]

When Emma read question five in English:

Male student B: 這一題我也不知道

(I have no idea about this question.) [To Male student A next to him.]

Then, the student B answered after Emma translates the question into Mandarin.

Male student B said: 豬(Zhu)²

Emma: 下一題

(Emma: Next question)

Male student B did not wait for Emma's answer and said: A 吧我想。(A I think)

Although it was mostly a lecturing lesson, the students seemed to wish to interact with the teacher and wanted to become involved in the teacher's questioning exercises. This indicates that the students had a reasonable level of motivation to learn, and contradicts Emma's view that students possess a poor learning attitude in all their subjects. In addition, research studies have shown that the motivation to learn English among Taiwanese university students tends to be rather high (Su & Duo, 2010).

² (Zhu is 'pig' in Mandarin [students are often required to speak Mandarin in class], however, in Hok-lo 'zhu' is the same pronunciation as *D* in English. Because *D* and *B* in English sound similar therefore teachers and students use 'zhu'(Hok-lo as *D*) to avoid any confusion with the sound of letters between *D* and *B*.)

Grounded beliefs often influenced teachers' practices more than RK, as mentioned earlier. Because the teachers' perceived the students as possessing poor learning attitudes, they believed GTM to be the most suitable approach for unmotivated students and various teaching activities to be unnecessary. Although it may be reasonable to assume that English as a compulsory subject may result in low levels of learning motivation from non-English majors, the data seemed to reveal different conclusions. The motivation for English learning was not as low as some teachers perceived it to be and this can be clearly demonstrated through the above unexpected recordings. Also, another example caught by the MP3 player features three male students' conversations at Hannah's listening/speaking class.

Male student C: 我們一起講 (Let's do it together.)

Male student D: 我帽法度 (I can't do it) [Speaking in Hok-lo and giggling.]

Male student C: 只有這五句而已 (Is just these five sentences.)

Male student D: 我沒辦法 la, 你一定 ok 的 (I can't do it, sure you gonna be *ok*.)

Male student D asked Male student E: 喂過來一下, 這怎麼說 (Hey, come here, how to say this?)

Male student E: [Brah... brah...too fast, cannot hear probably from the recorder however it was the sentence on the textbook.]

Male student C & Male student D: 里共箱緊(You speak too fast.) [In Hok-lo.]
[Three of them non-stop giggling.]

The data from Hannah's class suggests a male 'student C' voluntarily invited male 'student D' to demonstrate a conversation in front of the whole class. The male 'student D' had less confidence and they therefore both asked male 'student E' for help. This also indicates that students possess a fairly acceptable level of learning motivation. Another example, in Sarah's class, when someone made a mistake the whole class laughed as noted in Chapter 5, indicating that many students were participating in the class. When there were phrases such as '*take off*', Sarah seemed to understand the students well. She said "Do not tell me the dirty minded translation for this phrase, I want some other answers". The students then gave the alternative translation, which suggests many students were concentrating.

The earlier data and the preceding chapter revealed that Hannah allowed students do whatever they wished due to her belief in not having conflict with the students, and given that the textbook was similar two years in a row, students lost their learning motivation. Many students were chatting and she had to constantly raise her voice when the chatting became too loud. However, when listening activities were involved the whole class was surprisingly silent, all the students stopped chatting and they seemed to concentrate on the listening activities. All of these examples suggest there was a conflict between tenured and part-time teachers in terms of students' learning attitudes. From the data, it emerged that the students appeared to possess a fairly reasonable learning attitude and this differed from the perceptions of the tenured teachers and Hannah.

This disparity between tenured and part-time teachers was probably due to the different

response from the students to the two groups of teachers. These six classes of non-English major students came from the same group. They had reading classes with tenured teachers and listening/speaking in part-time teachers' classes. Some teachers faced poor learning attitudes from their students, while others experienced a different attitude from the same group of students. It may be that this was partly related to whether their practice was accepted by their students or whether students simply preferred listening/speaking classes over reading. Teachers whose practice the students disagreed with, possibly encountered poor learning attitudes (Bie, 2011). As Fuller (1969) points out "students, ... learn what they want to learn but have difficulty learning what does not interest them" (p. 208).

When teachers are learning how to teach they gain information from their students and different teachers learning different messages according to their relationship with the students. For instance, although tenured teachers believed their students possessed a low English proficiency and a poor learning attitude, part-time teachers had different perceptions. Sarah and Matthew suggested that students' low English proficiency was due to the fact that many of them had had negative English learning experiences with tenured English teachers. Hannah believed that students spending two years learning the same thing resulted in low learning motivation. As Sarah explains:

大部分的學生因為有不好的英語學習經驗導致他們討厭英語。

(Most students had negative English learning experiences and it made them dislike English.)

Sarah's students told her about their bad English learning experiences, and this plus her own unsatisfactory English learning experience with her former English teachers influenced her belief in creating a friendly and relaxed practice. She states:

我試著讓學生開心，一旦他們開心和相信你這位老師，他們就比較願意配合和學習。

(I try to make the students happy in the class once they are happy they trust you as a teacher. They want to learn.)

This finding is similar to Nespor's (1987) study. In his study, maintaining a friendly and relaxed classroom environment was important to Ms Skylark, and therefore in her class repeating and re-explaining assignments and allowing students to initiate digressive lines of action became a focus. As a result, Ms Skylark's practices normally finished with the lesson half-covered, as mentioned in the preceding chapter. In this thesis, having been influenced by detrimental learning experiences, Sarah attempted to create a relaxed learning atmosphere using friendly small talk, such as "Did you have a haircut?" in Mandarin. Once the chat and fun had developed, it seemed difficult to get the students back to the lesson; however, she managed to control the class by informing them that they would have to do a quiz if they did not calm down and listen. I therefore inquired with both Sarah and her students group whether the prescribed lessons had been cover; they all confirmed that the prescribed lessons had been followed well.

Sarah had emphasized the power of *student investment* which is critical in foreign language teaching. This can be demonstrated by Sarah's statements, "try to make the students happy" and "once they are happy" "they trust you as a teacher" "They want to learn". Student investment is derived from Community Language Learning (CLL), it refers to the willingness of the students to participate in the course content and activities, that is, students' levels of participation in the class (Currant, 1976). Sarah believed that when the students participated more in the activities and course content ultimately they achieved more with the target language.

The students they faced

It is important to understand teachers' views about their students, that is, non-English major students and what works for them in the class. As Lin and Warden (1998) argue the lack of research pertaining to non-English majors has led many language teachers to presume that all students in Asia, including English learners and TESOL students in an ESL context, can be treated with the same standard ESL approach. They further state this has inevitably led to frustration as not only do students in the Asian EFL contexts differ from those in ESL, but the majority of learners studying English are non-English majors.

The findings of the thesis echo Abelson's (1979) study in which teachers' beliefs are derived from the affective and evaluation of the learner which further affects teachers' teaching practices and teaching attitude. According to tenured teachers, students' learning attitude was not as pleasant as their former students. This finding was similar to

Johnson's (1999) study in which a teacher who taught in an ESL program in America found that half of the students were frequently absent and many teachers and staff had burnt out. He then decided his responsibility should be to "empower my students by helping them to understand their world and by assisting them to acquire the skills needed to engage that world and to make that world, no matter how dysfunctional, respond to their needs" (p.47). The ESL class was his vehicle to cultivate such knowledge. In the present study, the experienced teachers believed many English teachers were burnt out as their students were unmotivated in their classroom.

For instance, the former Minister of Education criticized most university teachers for their lack of teaching passion (Chen, 2012a). Similarly, Emma, Sarah and Matthew believed that many English teachers perform poorly in their classroom practices due to the students they face at the present time who are often the unmotivated ones. A survey of 346 college-level English learners in Taiwan also showed that most of the students had either been fearful or had unpleasant feelings about their past English learning experiences from their English teacher (Lin & Warden, 1998). Emma summed up the situation:

其實我們看到一些新老師都表現的蠻好的。反而是資深老師表現比較不好。
因為他們覺得我的學生學習態度這麼差，我為什麼要付出那麼多。

(In fact, we often see a good performance from novice teachers. Instead, it was experienced teachers who performed relatively poorly. Because, they thought "my students' learning attitudes are so bad why I should put in so much effort".)

The data above implies that Emma believed that the students they faced at the present time did not inspire experienced teachers to “put in so much effort”. The unmotivated students they faced made teachers’ prepared activities or methods such as CLT difficult to implement since all these activities need the cooperation of the students. The teachers’ beliefs about the students were the reason that grammar teaching was considered more suitable in the practices. According to Hannah, as grammar teaching is teacher centered it is more suitable to situations in which students were unwilling to cooperate.

Emma is an experienced teacher and she suggested that some experienced teachers were unwilling to do much preparation before their classes as their students were unmotivated. For instance, these teachers allowed me to observe their practice which indicates that they all believed their practice was effective. Their willingness to be involved in the research study indicates that they possessed a fairly strong interest in teaching. However, aspects of their practice differed from Phan’s (2004) study in which teachers taught in a similar manner through GTM. In her study, the teachers developed many activities to help students to communicate and repeated homework; however, the GTM practices in the present study consisted merely of lecturing and involved limited homework. This was due to the fact that teachers’ beliefs that the students they faced today were the unmotivated ones and this affected their willingness to prepare different activities and allocate assignments. Further examples are below:

Sarah:

有些老師可能會說我放這麼多心力在這裡，你們這些孩子怎麼都不想學。那就會失望，失望後面就會沒熱情。所以會看到有些現象是，他沒熱情。所以我不想變成那樣，我盡量的給，你可以吸收多少是多少。

(Some teachers may say I put so much effort in here but you guys do not want to learn. Then they become disappointed, and then they lose their passion. The phenomenon you can see now is, they have no teaching passion. So I do not want to become like them. I try to offer as much as I can, you absorb as much as you can as an individual.)

Hence, the critical element, when investigating teacher cognition, is who the students are (Johnson, 1999). That is one of the reasons that Emma shifted the focus of her practices to include knowledge from the Discovery Channel and social and international hot issues to deal with the unmotivated learning. Based on her personal negative English learning experience, Sarah can empathize with the reason her students dislike learning English. Therefore, she offered as much as she could and wished each student to learn at their own pace. Both their affective and evaluative beliefs influenced their practices and prevented them from becoming burnt out.

Most teachers like Emma, attributed their present unmotivated students and the low English proficiency of the students as one of the reasons for the mismatch between practices and stated beliefs. Emma said:

我認為台灣學生學習的方式，還是比較古早的學習方式。這是我觀察的方式，是我們國高中時的學習方式。因為他們的英文能力還是沒有辦法很快的跳脫傳統的學習方式，他們還是要一字一句的來學。所以他們還是喜歡老師寫，他們抄，最好老師不要問問題！每次我問他們問題，他們都嚇得要死！只問他們課本上的問題，又不是問課本外的英文。

(I believe Taiwanese students' learning style is still the traditional way of learning. This is from my classroom observation. It is the learning style from our junior and senior high schools because their English level cannot be attained without the traditional way. That is why they need to learn word-by-word, sentence-by-sentence. So they still prefer to have the teacher write and they copy. They prefer to have the teacher just lecturing and not ask them questions. Every time I ask questions, they all freak out, scared to death. I only ask things from the textbook, not out of the textbook.)

According to Emma, the practice experienced by most of the students in the context of the mainstream educational system in Taiwan was one in which the teacher writes and the student copies. Many teachers had similar views to Emma and perceived contemporary students as preferring teaching and learning methods from 20 years ago - 'chalk and talk', lecturing, copying, testing and no questions. Below is another example in which Emma describes the different student characteristics teachers faced at the present time which gave rise to teachers' unwillingness to prepare for various activities in the classroom.

Emma 師：對教學要有熱忱，這是最重要的，你光有很多墨水在肚子，可是你並沒有教學熱忱。其實，我們看到現在很多的大學老師都這樣。為什麼會這樣？因為我們所面臨的學生跟我們當時當大學時，差很多。以前老師給我們什麼我們全部吃下，而且也做的很好。對不對？可是，現在你給他們一點東西，他(們)就哇哇大叫。

([an effective teacher should be someone] Having a passion for teaching this is the most important thing. If you have a lot of ink in the stomach [meaning you are knowledgeable] but you do not have enthusiasm for teaching; in fact, we see so many university teachers are like this. Why? Because the students we face now compared with when we were students, there is a big difference. Previously we all accepted whatever our teacher gave us and we managed to do well. Right? But now, you give them something, they create a commotion.)

Most of the teacher participants in the thesis were teaching in a way comparable to their many years of experiences spent at school as students. From the apprenticeship of observation, teachers revealed their ideas of what constitutes an effective teacher and how the students ought to be learn and behave, although this was often unarticulated and over-simplified (Clark, 1988). The above data has shown that Emma held a belief about how students ought to be behave from her time as a student. This is evident in her statement - “Previously we all accepted whatever our teacher gave us” “But now, you give them something, they create a commotion”. However, the contemporary students were unlike the students when she was a student. The teachers’ notion of how students should behave in the classroom was derived from their image of the apprenticeship of

observation. This belief was deeply grounded in teachers' thinking so that many of teachers had lost their teaching passion due to the fact that they perceived contemporary students were different, and experienced them as hard to teach and manage in the classroom. This can be seen from Emma's expressions of "do not have enthusiasm for teaching; in fact, we see so many university teachers are like this. Why?" "the students we face now compared with when we were students, there is a big difference". It seems the teachers have a pre-existing assumption about how students should behave in the classroom and this belief clashed with the reality that contemporary students were different, and many experienced teachers found it difficult to cope.

As Bie (2011) points out that as teachers we accept that contemporary students are different to those of the past, then certainly, we can expect unsatisfactory learning attitudes if we continue to implement practices from the past. A teacher's teaching practice is important as it determines in part whether the learning occurs or if the students like or dislike the target language. She further points out that many Taiwanese teachers perceived that overall Taiwanese students possess poor learning attitudes compared to students of the past. However from her teaching experience the contemporary students are different in that they are keen to voice their thoughts in class. She indicates that when teachers are resistant to improving their lecturing style it leads to an unmotivated learning attitude from students. In addition, as mentioned earlier that researchers have criticized the imitation of former teachers' practices as allowing no room for professional improvement and personal growth. Besides, the skills we learnt in childhood are outdated and cannot keep up with the new generations' culture "whether in idiom, attitudes, taste or technology - even if they try" as noted earlier (Wright 2004,

cited in Edge, 2011, p. 15). The contextual factors have a great impact on teachers' cognitions and their practices. Hence, the concept of the contextual factors is presented next.

The notion of contextual factors

Under the process-product research period leading up to the mid-1970s, a teacher was viewed as a doer. The social context was overlooked as a potential factor impinging on how a teacher learns to teach and forms knowledge for their professional career (Freeman, 2002). The notion of contextual factors are conceptualized from learning to teach within the specific social, political economic, institutional and cultural situations in which teachers work, a teacher's cognitions is more or less conceptualized by these (Wright, 2010). The contextual factor is the predominant concern of studies of EFL. The contextual realities include the individual university where the teachers worked or contexts of classrooms that dictated what a language teacher would do (Burns, 1996).

Context is defined as both the physical and the diachronic historical development of schooling and learning often influenced by the setting in which learning takes place (Johnson, 1999). Contextual factors therefore move beyond the physical space of the classroom and school. The thesis refers to contextual factors as social, physical, institutional, instructional settings which shape teachers' learning and further influence teachers' cognitions and their practices (Freeman, 2002). It includes not only the physical settings of the classroom or the structure of the university but the resources available in the community and the social context and political atmosphere over which

teachers often have little control. Hence, the importance of the contextual factors operates beyond the physical setting of the classrooms and institutional setting that affect the teacher.

Teachers' understanding of the influence of contextual factors on their teaching has greatly impacted on teachers' cognitions and their practices. These contextual factors that hinder the incorporation of RK into teachers' practices can no longer be ignored by teacher education programs if the programs aim to provide better education (Borg, 2003b). As many research studies and the previous chapters of the thesis have argued teacher education has failed to provide teachers with procedural knowledge and have often not taken contextual factors into consideration, offering instead a one size fits all theory – the notion of methods. It is thus important to understand these contextual factors, for as Tsui (2009) points out teachers who have not overcome some CFs have not become experts but have remained experienced teachers. Hence, these factors ought to be addressed, discussed and made visible so they make sense to teachers as individuals and language teacher education programs at large. The CFs was not raised by Sarah and Matthew, as noted in Chapter 5. Instead they developed an adapted version of CLT to overcome contextual factors. For the other four teachers the following five CFs had become constraints for them, they are: (1) the standardized textbook and prescribed curriculum influenced the time allowed for interaction between teacher and students and limited students' practice of English in the classroom (2) large class sizes were ineffective for CLT (3) segregated skills limited teaching approach (4) examinations limited teaching approach (5) lack of teacher development support limited teachers' practice.

Standardized textbook and prescribed curriculum

The standardized textbook and prescribed curriculum was one of the factors which constrained and influenced teachers' practices. The participating university acknowledged there was some poor teaching quality in some teachers' practices; therefore, they unified the textbook in order to enhance teachers' effectiveness. Below are the informal conversations regarding the standardized materials with the Dean of the Faculty. Dean of the Faculty:

是為了要控制教學品質。大學像我們這樣有很多的兼任老師，教材和教學進度統一，我們就可以控制老師們的教學品質。

([Standardized materials] It is to control teachers' teaching quality. A university like us, which has a great number of part-time English teachers; to unify the textbook and prescribed units, we can control teachers' teaching quality.)

One reason for the new reform was to provide a solution to the problem of ineffective teaching practices. The data above also implies that, according to the Dean of the Faculty, it may mostly be part-time teachers whose teaching quality was deficient. The Dean of the Faculty explained:

兼任老師來來去去，你根本不知道他們在課堂上做什麼，或者教學品質。他們可能來和同學聊天，聊聊天就走了。

(The part-time teachers come and go and the university does not know what they are doing in the class or their teaching quality; maybe they just come and chat with the students and go.)

Although the Dean of the Faculty believed part-time teachers might perform inadequately, Sarah and Matthew had received many comments from the students in regard to tenured teachers' poor teaching practices, as noted in the previous chapter. The present situation in terms of the hiring system in Taiwan is that part-time teachers need their way of teaching not only to be accepted but also liked by the students; otherwise, the students would provide a poor evaluation of the teacher and they would not be hired for the following semester. In other words, part-time teachers must make their classes stimulating and attractive to their students in order to retain their jobs while tenured teachers often may not have this concern.

The standardized textbook and prescribed the curriculum which was designed to enhance the effectiveness of teachers' practices seems to have limited teachers' teaching. The standardized materials and prescribed curriculum in a sense have removed the opportunities for students to practice their target language, as the following example shows. David clarified:

Reading 課叫學生自己起來翻譯不錯啦。但是因為我們學校有一定進度，要趕課，趕課！所以老師自己翻譯比較快。

(*Reading* class, to let students stand up and do translation is quite good. But due to the fact that our university has a prescribed curriculum, the class needs to be rushed in time. Rush for the prescribed curriculum. So translating by teachers ourselves is relatively fast.)

David mentioned it was good to let students do text translation in English reading class, however, owing to the prescribed curriculum it was time consuming to allow the students to practice English translation in the classroom. Hence, it was perceived as wasting time to let the students do translation in class and he therefore translated himself. Emma, Ian and Hannah concurred with this point arguing that to give students opportunities to practice English in class was a waste of time. The class was consequently devoted almost entirely to the teacher speaking. However, neither Sarah nor Matthew were concerned by the large class size or prescribed curriculum; their students were practicing English in class. Matthew was not only teaching English reading texts in his listening/speaking class but managed to carry out listening activities, and ensure opportunities for the students to practice English conversations and he also implemented supplementary materials which related to daily life activities. Hence, what teacher participants understand to be CFs can vary.

Below is the interview with Emma where she talked about how the prescribed materials affected her teaching practice and made her less interactive with the students. This is a similar view to that of David above. Emma gave details:

課內光是上課就很趕，所以我互動就很少。 *Interaction* 我指與學生的互動，如問問題，同學可以回應。

(In the classroom, teaching for the prescribed curriculum is very rushed, so I interact very little. By *interaction* I am referring to the interaction with the students, such as asking questions that the students can respond to.)

This data aligns with Allwright's (1990) notion that prescribed materials control learning/teaching. When teachers rely heavily on a textbook it determines the components and methods of teaching, since the textbook controls the content, methods and procedures of learning. Therefore, the standardized materials become the centre of instruction and one of the most important influences on what goes on in the classroom (Kitao & Kitao, 1997). Kumaravadivelu (2003) also points out a prescribed curriculum with a standardized textbook creates an obstacle to teaching. He criticizes the limitation of teaching materials, as by nature they represent a range of cautious and creative planning on the part of textbook writers but they are not the result of any interactive process of classroom events. He further pointed out that most of the textbooks commonly emphasize grammatical structures or vocabulary items that ought to be introduced and thus can hardly accommodate the particular interactive needs and wants of a given group of learners.

When standardized textbooks are applied, teachers are unable to implement their professional judgment to select appropriate materials in accordance with *students' needs*. The following are some further examples from teachers that argue the limitations of the

standardized textbooks. These examples are from David, Hannah, and Emma who perceived that the textbook was too easy and not appropriate to the students' English level. For instance, while I observed Hannah's listening/speaking class, the students seemed discouraged and lacking motivation, as already noted in the preceding chapters. Hannah was teaching the sentence pattern of 'Is this --- and Are these ---' from the textbook (Please see Appendix 13). The textbook seemed to be too easy for this group of students (Please see Appendix 13.1). Hannah later confirmed she was also concerned that the university had standardized the textbook and students spent two years learning the same level of English. Hannah:

Hannah: 還有像這個班有些東西都學過了，我教了他們 2 年，他們曾花同樣時間來學這種東西，難怪他們沒興趣。

(Like this class you have observed, some stuff they had learned already. I taught them for two years, they spend the same amount of time as their peers [who are in another English class] but learning these sorts of things, no wonder they are not interested.)

Hannah: 老師要能適時補充和省略，教材這部分老師也要負一些責任，以前是會補充，但現在沒有時間準備。

(In this part the teacher should take some responsibility, the teacher must be able to give extra materials and omit some others. Previously I would give extra handouts but now I have no time to prepare.)

Another example from David presented as below. The English level of his class was a level higher than Hannah:

我覺得這本教科書過於簡單，對這班級數來說。

(I think this textbook [Please see Appendix 10 and 10.1] is too easy for this level group of students.)

According to Hannah her students had lost motivation due to the inadequacy of the textbook, and she had no time to prepare supplementary material. They were dissatisfied as they were still learning the names of fruit in English at university when they had learned these in primary school (Please see Appendix 13.1) as noted in Chapter 5. The English classes were too easy; as a result, many students were doing their own things in the classroom.

Although Hannah perceived the textbook was too easy, she preferred the textbook selected by the university as this was less stressful for her. She explained:

Hannah:學校選教材，我就可以卸一些責任。因為我來就是教，壓力就不會那麼大

(I can unload some of the responsibility when the faculty selects the textbook.

Because by doing so I only come to university to teach, the pressure would not be so large.)

Hannah also mentioned that the case of who should decide the textbook was greatly debated among universities. She understood that the textbook was unsuitable for her

students and that she needed to provide supplementary material. However, she explained that her busy schedule did not allow her to do so. It seems this reform of a standardized textbook and prescribed curriculum needs to be more prudently planned as to a certain degree CFs influenced some teachers' practice. Although the Dean of the Faculty believed the standardized textbook and prescribed curriculum was introduced to make teachers more effective as she explained; it seems this reform constrained teachers' practices.

Large class size

Both contextual factors, such as large class size, and the knowledge of the learner influence teachers' knowledge of instructional strategy (Aydin, et al., 2015).

For instance, the following is the data about GTM as the most effective practice for large classes, and thus, the physical setting influenced teachers' practices.

Ian：因為班級大，所以 *grammar-translation* 是最常用，也最有效。我試過用詢問的方式，但學生不會回答又浪費時間。*Reading* 這一門課，我是用分組的翻譯報告方式讓他們練習。主要還是老師常 *grammar-translation*。

(Because of the large number of students in the class, *grammar-translation* was the most commonly used and most effective. I tried teacher questioning but students would not answer and teacher questioning was a waste of time. In the *Reading* course, I used the activity of groups giving translations. However, the classroom teaching should mainly focuses on the teacher using

grammar-translation. [He means the large class size to be effective, the teacher should teach via GTM.])

Hannah explains the large size class constrains her teaching:

我們有時候會試著去引導學生講一些英文（在課堂上），剛開始會試，到後來都放棄，班級那麼大，太耗時間，有很多兩難的地方。

([when talking about why CLT was not working in her practices] We sometimes try to guide the students to speak some English in the class, we would try at the beginning and gave up later. The class was so big, too time-consuming. There are many dilemmas.)

Hannah's interview above implied that the large class size was the reason why the RK she learnt from SLTE in the United States was not reflected in her classroom teaching. Her quotation above suggested the CFs such as large class size make it difficult to carry out some of the teaching methodology from ESL to EFL, for instance, CLT. According to MOE of Taiwan the average number of a class in a university freshman English class in 2001 was 53 (Daly, 2009). Having students speak English in a group-work setting is one of the ineffective features of CLT, which is not suitable in Asian contexts due to the size of Asian classes with approximately 40 or 50 students (Gupta, 2004; Liu, 1999).

An adapted version of CLT by Sarah and Matthew seems work well in the large class size as students were concentrating and involving in comparison to Hannah's practice

although Matthew did not know the terminology of CLT, as noted in the preceding chapters. Hannah had experienced difficulties in implementing CLT thus she reverted back to GTM. As Li (1998) points out CLT has been viewed as time consuming, as challenging to teachers who are not confident in speaking English and regarded as adding more work to an already overloaded teaching life.

Segregated skills limited teaching

In the following section I demonstrate teachers' views about *segregated skill instruction* which made their practice focus solely on GTM. The following examples are from the interview with teacher participants. Ian:

很多年前，大一沒有英聽課，一學期有了 3 學分的英文，我就會教他們英文歌，當時老師的自主權較高，可以決定自己要怎麼教。現在考試這麼多再加上 reading 和英聽分開上，以前的課本是 4skills 的書，上課時學生可以對話和演戲都可以，現在分開了，教法就要做些改變。

(Many years ago, there was no separation between speaking/listening and reading classes for freshmen. There were three credit points (i.e. three hours a week) for English in a semester. I would teach them English songs, teacher's autonomy was higher, and you could decide how to teach. Previously, the textbook included four skills and the students could have conversation, drama play and so forth. Now, they [the Faculty] separate classes of listening/speaking and reading, and this coupled with so many tests [from the Language Center] makes it necessary to change our teaching because of the separation of skills.)

The above data suggests that from Ian's perspective there are advantages to integrating skills. Ian's data states that the activities in the classroom have been affected by segregated skills instruction, that is, he can only focus on GTM, as his practice has shown in Chapter 5. After the participating university segregated the different skills, Ian decided that GTM was more effective in the reading class and he changed his teaching from allowing students do pair work or drama play to a GTM instruction to accommodate the segregated reading class.

Kumaravadivelu (2003) points out that there has been very little empirical evidence or justification to prove that effective language teaching should separate skills instruction. He is against segregating language skills for the reason that:

During the 1950s and 60s before the advent of communicative approaches, proponents of audiolingual method believed that language is basically aural-oral. That is, speech is primary and constitutes the very basis of language. They also emphasized the formal properties of grammatical usage more than the functional properties of communicative use. Given such an emphasis, it appeared reasonable to separate language skills. (p. 226)

He further argues that segregated language skills are inherently inadequate as language skills are essentially mutually reinforcing. For example, as noted in Chapter 5, in Matthew's practices, he taught the reading text first and then used the reading texts as basic information to carry out *teacher questioning* to train students' listening and speaking. Although his class is a listening/speaking class, he integrated the skills to

teach and according to him and his students' focus group, the prescribed schedule from the faculty had not been affected.

Examinations limited teaching approach

The examination tradition has influenced how teachers teach and students learn.

Originally in this context, English examinations focused on reading only, hence GTM was important as it emphasized vocabulary teaching, sentence patterns to find out what L2 grammar to use and L1/L2 translations. Teachers are therefore easily influenced by examinations which lead and shape their practice. Indeed, the examination tradition was criticized earlier by the public and consequently the Taiwanese Government changed the high school and university enrolment system from an entrance examination to include school academic performance, such as transcripts, recommendation letters, volunteer work and special talents. This was more in line with the American entrance system. It was hoped that these changes would bring about more flexibility compared to the 'all-or-nothing' entrance examinations and it was also hoped that it would change teachers' 'teach-to-test' practices (Chern, 2002).

Although the entrance examination system has changed, the examination culture seems to still be deeply embedded in this social context. Some teachers became stricter to enhance students' schooling performance in order to help their students gain entrance to prestige high schools or universities. Daly (2009) portrays such a culture accurately in this context:

At the cultural level, respect for authority, tradition and the prestigious place of

education and unique role of exams... set up the conditions for transmission and deductive-style teaching, learner responsible learning and memorization, discrete item testing and test-driven teaching. (p. 10)

Hence, it is a challenge to reform teachers' teaching in this social context (Daly, 2009). The experienced teacher participants had themselves all experienced 'all-or-nothing' examinations and they most likely learned through teach-to-test practices; hence, this kind of learning in their past experience may have had considerable impact on their teaching.

Another motive for teacher participants to teach-to-test is that, following globalization and the spread of English, the government implemented the General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) to assess citizen's English proficiency, as noted in Chapter 2. As a result, 'teach-to-test' as a means to assist students to pass the GEPT seemingly became the justification for teachers to retain a GTM instruction in their practices. Although GEPT included a listening component, the testing questions in reading remained similar to the preceding examination which focused on vocabulary, grammar selection and translations between L1 and L2. The GEPT seemed to have a strong influence on teachers' classroom teaching in most of the participating classes. For example, the teachers would give out the correct answer for the exercises from the textbook, and they would say:

Hannah: 這種句型肯定會出現在全民英檢。

(This kind of sentence pattern is sure to be on the GEPT.)

David: 這是很多英語檢定最喜歡考的問題。

(It is the favorite question on many English tests.)

Emma's classroom data:

12 月 22 日考空中英語十月號

(December 22, the test will be focusing on October issue from the Studio Classroom English Learning Magazine.)

12 月 29 小考第 8 課和第 10 課

(December 29, the quiz will be focusing on unit 8 and 10.)

期末考試 6,7,8,10

(Final exam will be focusing on unit 6,7, 8 and 10.)

These kinds of comments not only appeared in David's and Hannah's classes but also Emma and Ian were also constantly reminding students of the dates for English tests. As, for instance, in the following excerpt from an interview with Ian:

Ian: 因為考試會考圈動詞，用顏色標出來，考試時他們就不會圈錯。這個方法用了大概 4、5 年。

([talking about why there was so many colors within the English text on his PowerPoint slide] The students need to circle the verb in the examinations, marked out with colors; they will not circle the wrong word in the examinations. I have used this pedagogy for about four to five years.)

The data above indicates this kind of teaching is designed with reading examinations in

mind and would prevent the students from giving wrong answers in the test. Therefore, Ian's understanding of teaching reading is through teaching-to-test, which is a popular teaching method among English teachers in Taiwan (Chern, 2002). This also suggests that when teachers let their teaching be influenced by tests, it is easy for them to fall into the GTM instruction. Hence, the conditions under which teachers were working, and the ways in which the job of teaching had developed historically, shaped 'who teachers were' (Francis & Skelton, 2008) and this became a constraint upon them.

Some teacher participants' practices have been influenced by examinations. Leung (2009) points out that professionalism may signify different things in different contexts. In some it may mean passing the qualification of a governmental examination, for instance, receiving a local governmental teacher's certificate or a certificate from an international professional organization. It is also likely to mean behaving in accordance with the rules and norms that are prevalent within a teachers' work context, for instance a teacher may inevitably practice through a 'teach to the test' method for their students' sake even if the teacher does not fully agree such norms (Richards, 2008).

Lack of ongoing teacher development support

The resources of the community influence the quality of teachers' practices; hence, resources can become CFs for some teachers. As noted in Chapter 3, the knowledge base can be understood through explicit and implicit knowledge. However, according to Richards (2008) practice and theory can also make a difference by dividing them into teacher training and teacher development. Teacher training is regarded as basic teaching

skills and teacher development is a longer-term development of each teacher over time. Teacher training has involved the progress of a range of teaching skills that are gained via sitting in and observing experienced teachers' lessons and practicing teaching skills in a controlled setting, for example, peer-teaching. The Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) was a typical teacher training course organized by the British Council, as noted in Chapter 3.

Teacher development is commonly provided in the MA degree where practical language teaching skills were often undervalued. Ian had never been overseas; other five teachers in the present study all had received their bachelor degrees in Taiwan and had completed an MA course overseas. In other words, they received a teacher development (i.e. theory) course where teaching skills were often undervalued, and this may explain why most of them had a lack of procedural knowledge and teaching skills as most of them had been taught more theory than practical courses. Hence, a teacher like Hannah perceived that she did not know how to conduct some teaching skills and expressed the wish that there were teacher development courses in Taiwan where she could learn teaching skills instead of language teaching theory for her teaching practices. The finding of a lack of support from university or MOE of Taiwan is echoed in Nishino's (2008) study in Japan. In her study, she explains that secondary teachers of English merely teach grammar-translation in class. This, she indicates is because there was a lack of in-service training held by local boards of Education in Japan. Teacher development according to Richards (2008) differs from country to country; he alluded to teachers in Singapore who are encouraged to acquire around 100 hours in an in-service course each year whereas support for in-service teacher development is

almost non-existent in many schools in Australia.

Liou (2003) was critical of many English teachers in universities in Taiwan who have limited their professional growth by choosing the same course to teach each year. From the present data it also emerged that two teachers preferred to teaching reading classes. Ian mentioned that he had never studied overseas and he preferred to teach a reading class. Emma mentioned that the listening/speaking class is too difficult for her to teach; she explained that the difficulty was not about her language competency but teaching a listening and speaking class over a two-hour session. David commented that he was the best teacher to teach grammar in this university and all three were tenured experienced teachers. Daly (2009) points out that:

... many ELTs [English language teachers] in Taiwan may not have the language abilities or confidence in their language abilities to focus on oral communication (p.10)

Many experienced teachers chose the reading class as they perceived and commented that the GTM was the only one way to teach reading, as noted in Chapter 5. In this sense, tenured teachers teach the same course and may use the same GTM every year. Hargreaves and Woods (1984) portray some of the characteristics that formed a typical teacher identity as resistance to major changes in teaching and unwillingness to work together with colleagues.

The lack of teacher development support in Taiwan for university teachers was

criticized by the teacher participants. For example, most teachers expressed the view that it was necessary to add a cultural knowledge component to the teacher development program. In the teacher interviews, despite having completed her Master degree in the United States, Hannah mentioned she did not have adequate cultural knowledge to offer and this has influenced her practices. Similarly, Ian stated that he has never studied overseas, and therefore, he does not teach culture in the English class. Hannah explained:

文化的知識)我覺得很缺乏，其實我們文化的知識都是從書上學來的。我們很難去體驗這種東西，如生活習慣，看書去收集資料。如果師資訓練有這種文化課，我會非常有興趣去上。

([Cultural knowledge] I feel I'm lack of cultural knowledge. In fact, all the cultural knowledge that we know is from books. It is very hard for us to experience and understand these things, for example, foreign life style. We collect the information from books. If there were cultural knowledge courses in teacher development, I would love to enroll.)

Teacher participants mentioned that students always hunger to learn about the culture of others and they need teacher development to support their practices. However, the lack of teacher development has constrained their practices. For example, Hannah commented further:

他們想知道我們海外的的讀書經驗，因為他們還沒有經歷過此類經驗，所以他們非常有興趣。同學就會在期結束時的教師評鑑上寫想要了解文化差異。

(They [the students] wanted to know our study experiences overseas; because they have not yet had these kinds of experiences, so, they were highly interested. Students always comment in the teacher evaluation at the end of the semester about wanting to learn about cultural differences.)

Hence, Hannah stated that cultural knowledge is the kind of knowledge which needs to be included in teacher development programs. Emma's understanding of teacher development in the local context was that it was only offered for primary and high school English teachers and not university teachers. She said:

教育部對國小、中、高的老師是有 *push*, 規定老師在進修, 但沒有針對大學老師, 因為大學是自主的, 大學有大學法, 老師是自主的, 教育部認為, 大學老師已經在最高等教育, 應該就有反省的能力。

(Teacher ongoing development was *push* and offered by the Ministry of Education for primary and high school teachers but not available for university teacher. Due to the university is autonomy education and there is university policy. The Ministry of Education believed that the university teachers are in the highest institution and they should be able to be self-reflect.)

As long ago as 1988 Phillipson pointed out that:

Professional training of ELT people concentrates on linguistics, psychology and education in a restricted sense. It pays little attention to international relations, development studies, theories of culture or intercultural contact, or the politics or sociology of language or education. (p. 348)

This may explain the reason an English language teacher like Hannah who received her degree from an English-speaking country possessed limited cultural understanding in comparison to what was needed for her classroom teaching. Tudor (2001) points out that people who are learning another language encounter a desire to learn about the world from a different perspective. He believes learning to see the world through the eyes of a different culture is a practical means of exploring the other, which is one of the broad educational advantages of learning another language. This notion was precisely the expectation of the students according to the teacher participants.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Dörnyei (2001) in particular have conducted significant research in this respect. For example, Dörnyei (2001) suggests the following culture-related strategies to increase motivation in foreign language learning classes. They include:

- develop learners' cross-cultural awareness by focusing on cross-cultural similarities and differences
- sharing teacher's positive L2-related experiences in class
- showing films, or TV recordings, playing relevant music
- inviting interesting native-speaking guests
- organizing school trips or exchange programs to the L2 community
- finding pen-friends for your students

(p.55)

The second point above ‘sharing teacher’s positive L2-related experiences in class’, concerns the knowledge which teachers needed for their teaching practices. However, the teachers indicated the lack of teacher development in this context where they could learn teaching skills and cultural knowledge and this made their teaching practices difficult to improve.

Conclusion

The present study argues that teachers’ practices ought not only to be understood, but it is crucial to examine the reasons behind the decisions that teachers make. This chapter discusses the contextual factors which teachers believe are the factors that hinder their translation of RK and GBs into their practices. The chapter addresses the research question of what are the sources of teachers’ cognitions.

There are two different kinds of beliefs which had categorized in this chapter. One is the beliefs acquired from SLTE programs as RK. The other is the GBs, the beliefs derived from their former teachers understanding of how their students should behave and learn in the class, as well as beliefs conceptualized from their personal language learning and teaching experiences, and beliefs conceptualized from the learning attitude of their students. Received knowledge is mostly based on SLTE programs in English speaking countries in which the pedagogies are often different to NNESTs who grow up knowing what/how they learned. As received knowledge often has not come from teachers’ original educational system, teachers mostly have little direct experience. In this chapter, teachers used RK to discuss teaching and ways to think about teaching, that is, the

sharing of professional discourse (Freeman, 1991) and this cognition was conceptualized from SLTE programs.

The RK that emerged from the present research and also many teacher education programs, comes from inappropriate ways of thinking about the local context. For instance, Crandall (2000) argues that “there is a growing sense that the language teacher education programs have failed to prepare teachers for the realities of the classroom” (p. 35), that is, RK is the ideal model to practice in EFL contexts. Holliday (1994) also points out that “Teachers return from training programs unable to implement what they have learnt, because it does not fit with the conditions, needs and philosophies of their classrooms, students, institutions and communities” (p. 2).

This chapter has presented how different types of experienced teachers (i.e. tenured and part-time teachers) obtained different reactions from the same group of students. The two groups of experienced teachers had different beliefs about the students. The tenured teachers held a belief about students’ poor learning attitude and how the students should behave in the classroom and this conflicted with the behaviour of the contemporary students in comparison to their former students. This chapter indeed has demonstrated that students possess a reasonable learning motivation which is mismatched with some of the teacher participants’ beliefs concerning their present students. This is especially so in the case of tenured teachers. The data indicates that there seems to be a complex interplay between teaching and learning; students’ attitudes affect teachers’ teaching and vice versa; teachers’ beliefs also affect students’ learning and determine their like or

dislike English learning.

This chapter has revealed that teachers' GBs derived from the apprenticeship of observation enables teachers to function immediately in their practice when RK is not effective in the local context, it restraints teachers' teaching in the way they were taught. There is thus no room for alternative pedagogies or teacher development, so that shifting beyond the apprenticeship of observation is a critical step in the developmental process of learning to teach (Johnson, 1999).

It is also important to understand what specific areas of knowledge from most teacher education programs influence teachers' cognitions and practices. The findings that have emerged from the present thesis are general theory about motivation, GTM and CLT. As noted, the practices of teacher participants mostly reflected GBs not RK and this signifies the need to reconceptualize teachers' knowledge base. Second language teacher education programs that may be based on the implications of the findings from teachers' cognitions studies, could reconceptualize the knowledge base to amend the ways the program transfers knowledge and to rethink the kind of knowledge the program should offer.

This chapter has also revealed that the contextual factors which teachers believe to be factors that encourage or hinder the transfer of their cognitions into their teaching practice. Contextual factors include learning to teaching in the work situation.

Inevitably teachers' cognitions and their practices are more or less conceptualized through social, political economic, institutional and cultural factors. Although, some of the SLTE programs actively addressed these contextual factors in teacher preparation courses, much more research is required on the process of learning to teach (Wright, 2010) and CFs play a significant role in this process. Hence, in terms of CFs, the findings of the present thesis contribute to teacher preparation and teacher development. The CFs that emerged from the data were (1) standardized textbook and prescribed curriculum (2) large class size (3) segregated skills teaching (4) examinations (5) teacher development. Teachers understanding of these five contextual factors within their practices were the factors that hindered their translation of RK to their practices.

This chapter has shown the CFs that teachers believed hinder the transfer of their RK and GBs into their practices. It in a sense also addressed in part why teachers teach the ways they do. The CFs of standardized textbook and prescribed curriculum made it difficult for teachers to allocate time for interaction between teacher and students and limited students' practice of English in class. The large class size made it ineffective to implement methods from RK, such as CLT approach. The teacher participants thought that the CF such as separated skills was not as effective as the integrated skills in the traditional ELT program. With integrated skills the teachers perceived that teaching can be more interactive and communicative whereas with separate skills, GTM is the only way to teach English reading. Other CF such as examinations lead to test-driven teaching which emphasized grammar knowledge hence practice focused on GTM.

The lack of teacher development support in terms of teaching skills and cultural knowledge had also limited teachers' practice according to the teachers. How teachers learn to teach is derived from the context in which they work, however, foreign cultural knowledge was knowledge that teachers believed it was difficult to acquire from the context where they worked and hence teacher development support was important. Nevertheless, the SLTE programs have remained focused on linguistics or teaching methodology, and provided teacher-learners with little in the way of cultural understanding (Liu, 1999). Most SLTE programs do not offer knowledge of international relations or intercultural issues and as a consequence teacher participants believed they had acquired limited cultural knowledge from their MA course to offer in their practice. Again, this chapter has shown that reconceptualizing the knowledge base is important and should take intercultural knowledge into account.

These contextual factors together conceptualized teachers' cognitions into GTM practices. Therefore, due to these five CFs, four teachers modified their practices directly without changing their cognitions, and thus, there was a lack of congruence between their stated beliefs and their actual teaching practices. The congruence and lack of congruence between teachers' cognitions and their practices will be presented in the following chapter.

Chapter 7

The congruence or lack of congruence between teacher cognition and classroom practice

Introduction

This chapter addresses the question, what is the congruence or lack of congruence between teacher cognition and classroom practice, and why? It discusses the relationship between teachers' cognitions and their actual teaching practices. This chapter demonstrates their knowledge and beliefs together with the contextual factors (CFs) that influence teachers' practice. Hence, this chapter analyzes the complexity of the relationship among teachers' cognitions and their practices. This chapter explores why experienced teachers teach in ways they do as a means to understand the relationship among RK, GBs and teachers' practices.

The findings of the study support the contention that the relationship between teacher's cognition and classroom practices is an uneasy one, as the practices of four teachers did not appear to reflect their RK, while Sarah's practices reveal her RK and Matthew seemed to be closer to his GBs. It also demonstrates how four teachers' practice is more linked to their GBs despite teacher participants utilizing RK to reject GBs. The findings of the thesis are more in line with the research studies noted in Chapter 3 in which the RK teachers' received from SLTE programs is often only loosely applied in their teaching practices (Bartels, 2005). The goal of this chapter, then, is to interpret the complexity of the relationship among teachers' RK, GBs and their practices. It examines

the relationships of inconsistency and consistency among RK, GBs and teachers' practices.

Students' low English level, poor learning attitudes combined with some contextual factors led teachers to employ traditional ways of teaching which were at times inconsistent with their stated beliefs (i.e. RK) and practices. The teachers believed GTM, such as using linguistic items, sentence patterns, translating a text, grammar and providing the answer for the exercise section of each unit were effective practice when working with non-English major learners. However, the data also revealed additional information. The teachers' practices were also clearly affected by teachers' preferred teaching practice which they learned from the apprenticeship of observations, that is, their learning experiences when they were English learners.

The findings of the thesis also indicate that teachers used RK to gain confidence in defining their teaching as they had attended SLTE programs and they knew the professional discourse (Freeman, 2002). The data also revealed that, on the one hand, the teachers reject traditional teaching; however, on the other hand their practices reveal their traditional teaching from their experiences as an English learner. It is the nature of the belief system to contradict the belief system itself (Nespor, 1987). As noted in Chapter 3, RK influences teachers' perceptions and judgments while their GBs affect the way they teach. This explains why teachers mostly employed RK as a commenting guideline when elucidating their teaching; however, the practice of many of them in fact reflected their GBs.

Received knowledge inconsistent with practices

Hannah's learning to teach was affected by the SLTE program. Hannah's quote described after her return to Taiwan and she "could not help" but experiment with the "CLT method" she had learnt in the language training program in the United States. However, when she failed in her experimentation with these teaching methods, due to some concerns with CFs, such as large class numbers, her teaching practice reverted to her existing beliefs, that is her GBs, which she learnt in her apprenticeship of observation. As a result, this RK was only loosely reflected in her practice. This finding was in line with the existing studies, which indicate that new beliefs would often be accepted, tested and found effective by teachers or teachers would stick to their existing beliefs from their previous learning experiences (Guskey, 1986; Posner, et al., 1982). In Hannah's case, the findings of the thesis provide evidence that proves this point.

The knowledge base in SLTE should be reconceptualized as argued in Chapter 3. The knowledge base from SLTE was not working in the local context. Before interviewing Hannah, I had observed two weeks of her classroom practices and interviewed her group of students. She came to me after the classroom observation to ask whether she was teaching the right way since it was a listening and speaking class and she lacked experience in listening/speaking learning due to her own learning experiences that focused more on reading; therefore, she was unsure whether it was acceptable to employ teaching techniques from GTM.

During the two weeks observation in Hannah's classroom it appeared that over two-thirds of the students in the classroom were chatting and doing nothing. She raised her voice higher each time when the chatting became too noisy. In order to prevent a mistaken the interpretation of the classroom behaviour, I asked her student interviewees what they thought about Hannah's teaching. The students commented that "she do not know how to teach". When I asked them why they thought this, they answered "in comparing with other English teachers and also she teach the name of fruits, we already learn this at primary school".

The following is another description that Hannah expressed about her teaching beliefs.

Hannah: 再來能夠活用教學技巧了，要能適性教學，就是依學生的程度，情況狀況來改變教學的模式，進度和採用的教學活動。

([talking about in teaching, a teacher needs] to be able to adapt their teaching skills to suit the nature of the students. That is, according to students' level of English and the situations in class to change the mode of teaching or pace or activities.)

Although Hannah indicates in her belief statement above that her beliefs are that a teacher must teach "according to students' level of English" and "to change the mode of teaching or pace or activities", none of these were enacted in her classroom practices. These stated beliefs were the beliefs she received from SLTE program as being what an

effective teacher needs to do in the class. They seem to be her received knowledge rather than her teaching beliefs. As noted in Chapter 3 and 4 for many reasons people are often unable or unwilling to completely manifest their beliefs and hence, analysis of what people say, intend, and do, and inferences about one's underlying states is essential (Rokeach, 1968). Identification of teacher's beliefs indicates that teachers' beliefs influence their behaviour as noted in Chapter 3 and therefore these beliefs are often revealed in their practices unlike knowledge which is generally weak in their practices. In addition Hannah commented that to "adapt their teaching skills to suit the nature of the students" was the theory in many SLTE programs. For instance, Brown's (2000; 2001) two books of '*Principles of Language Learning*' and '*Teaching and Learning by Principles*' have been selected as textbook or were listed in the reading list for teacher-learners in many SLTE programs and have been translated into traditional Chinese by Taiwanese scholars.

The interview with Hannah took place after she admitted that she was not sure how to teach in the listening/speaking class and asked for help. It was a surprise to me to listen to her articulations about effective teaching and her teaching beliefs which totally contradicted what she did in the classroom. Given all her terminology and the definitions of this terminology, I felt that Hannah possibly had excellent grades in all her course work in her TESOL program. In other words, when she talks about the theories of teaching; those she received from SLTE program, she had great confidence; however, this was not the case in her actual teaching, as noted earlier.

In Hannah's case, the RK seemed empower Hannah with confidence through shared professional discourse. However, this did not translate into procedural knowledge in her classroom practices. All six teachers agreed that as a teacher you need to understand the characteristics of your students as the above data indicate. However, RK seems to be only weakly reflected in the practices of these teachers. In Hannah's class, her students were learning the same things for two years and she admitted that she was not flexible in providing extra materials. In addition Hannah commented that when she was an English learner, her classmate had, on one occasion, confronted the teacher, saying that the teacher should not just talk but that the students needed to practice the target language. Thus, her formal teacher's teaching practice was not flexible and indeed the data of her practices appear to be more like those of her former local teacher. Hence, when some teachers' practices are examined closely they fail to correlate with what the teachers stated as their beliefs, which are RK. Their practices also failed to relate to what the teachers stated were necessary attributes of good classroom practice. In fact, their practice was more linked to their GBs and this is presented in the following section.

Moreover, as noted in Chapter 4, some teachers refused my recruitment because they stated there were some 'bad students' in their class. These teachers explained that due to the fact that some students spoke directly in the classroom during the practice they did not think it was a suitable situation for me to observe. This may indicate that the teachers associate any direct speech in the classroom with a 'bad student image'. It also suggests that teacher/student interaction in the classroom is not popular in some practices of experienced teachers. Hence, RK which advocates interactive or

communicative base teaching diverges from the English practices in a large proportion of the educational system in Taiwan as much research has reported, as noted in Chapter 2 and 3 (Daly, 2009).

The finding that an SLTE program did not provide teachers with adequate procedural knowledge about day-to-day operations of running a language classroom was in line with Johnson's (1999) study. In her study, she found that the SLTE program in her university had failed her student who had received outstanding grades but had no idea how to cope with the realities of the classroom in the practicum. The student in her study had little or no control over how she should teach during the practicum. All of the evident attests to the fact that the knowledge base in the most of the SLTE programs needs to be reconceptualized, especially the traditional ones.

Teacher learning within most of the traditional SLTE programs offered course work in Second Language Acquisition, Methodology, Applied Linguistics, English Phonology and Syntax accompanied with typical lectures, assigned readings, and term papers has been questioned (Johnson, 1999; Richards, 2008). Hannah went to this kind of program in the United States and when she returned to teaching, she found these methodologies did not work. She do not know how to make her class more effective and therefore she came to me asking for advice at the end of the observations. Although those courses have been criticized due to the fact that there is an unchallenged assumption that teacher-learners would be able to transfer what they have learned from SLTE courses into effective instructional practices once they entered the classroom, many SLTE

programs remain unchanged (Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 1999; Richards, 2008).

Studies such as that conducted by Burns (1996) have indicated that each class or each group of students is different and therefore the one-size theory from SLTE programs cannot fit all. Hence, many studies have proposed different solutions. Burns (2010) suggested action research by teachers themselves, Johnson (2009) proposed reflective journal writing or reflective experiences on professional development activities in the SLTE programs. All these propositions were designed for a single purpose, that is, to move away from the current structure of the SLTE programs as mentioned above to implement some plan or activities to enable teachers to learn to reflect critically on their teaching. It is hoped that either action research or reflective experiences of professional development activities can create invaluable opportunities for teachers to rethink their beliefs and assumptions about teachers, students, learning and teaching, and the subject matter they are teaching to develop sound explanations and make sense for themselves (Johnson, 1999).

The results of the present thesis that RK was not implemented in teachers' practices accords with other research studies (Bartels, 2005; Johnson, 1999). In the present study, when teachers talked about their teaching beliefs, four teachers stated their beliefs were mostly derived from knowledge in teacher education programs in English speaking countries. However, their practices appear to be only loosely related to their stated teaching beliefs. Their actual practice was drawn from their personal learning/teaching experience, which I refer to as GBs. Only Sarah's practice and her RK is consistent and

Matthew's practices were also consistent with his GBs; since he has no teacher training experience to mould his received knowledge.

Received knowledge consistent with practices

One of the beliefs that emerged from the data is the influence of some concepts from teacher education programs, which is using less L1 in the classroom. When I observed Sarah's class, she had mostly English only in her PowerPoint slides. Below is an extract from Sarah's PowerPoint slides in her practice (Please see Appendix 8 for her PowerPoint slides):

Communications

-is a course of study that deals with how to **effectively exchange information** between **people, business, and organizations**, and also in **politics** and **government**.

Advertising

- **is the study of how to sell a product or idea to the public.**

Both of these subjects are common in business school.

She explained:

我會放一些英→英的,不管他們懂還是不懂,總是會有學生看得懂.解釋的部份也不會用太難的字,用簡單的字解釋原來那個字就是這個意思,或者有些英文,他無法就用簡單的幾個中文解釋涵,那就是為何我偏向用英→英的解釋。

(I use English definitions, regardless of whether the students are understood or not by the majority because there are always a few students who are able to understand them. The words in the definition are not too difficult. I use simple words to explain the original meaning of each word, or some English when I cannot explain with a few simple Chinese words, and that is why I am in favour of using English definitions.)

She clarified further, “There were a lot of words that have different definitions in British and American usage; therefore, I believe using English definitions made things clearer for students”. This is the reason she used English definitions; not only English vocabulary with English definitions but also idioms and phrases. When I interviewed her, she explained the detrimental English learning experiences she had had that made her think about students’ needs. One possible way of interpreting this is to argue that because of her experience of unsatisfactory English practice, she has come to rely less on her experience as an English learner and to apply teaching theories she received from teacher education. Her practices reflect a considerable amount of L2 in the class with less L1 assistance, which is advocated in most of the teacher education programs.

As noted in Chapter 3, according to Abelson (1979) belief systems commonly involve representations of “alternative worlds” that is the world as it is and the world it should be (p. 357). The world must be altered to achieve an idealized status, and discussions of such essentially involved the deficiency within which the present reality operates. This type of belief Nespor (1987) entitled ‘alternativity’ which is a type of problem-solving;

however, this is on a more abstract level than the generally studied problem-solving tasks in cognition science. Alternativity “is not a matter of finding the sequence of rules to apply to a starting state to reach a goal; it is a matter of rejecting the old rules and finding new ones which achieve the goal state” (Abelson, 1979, pp. 357-358). In other words, teachers who possess with this kind of belief are not looking for rules to implement in their practices but to reject the old rules and find new ones which achieve the goal state (Abelson, 1979).

This is especially so for teachers who had unpleasant experiences in their learning as students and who therefore often construct this kind of belief, as noted in Chapter 3. Nespor’s (1987) example reveals how Ms. Skylark due to unpleasant experiences as a student, attempted to set up the ideal classroom practices that she had imagined when she was a child. Due to this belief, her practices commonly ended with unfinished lessons. This ideal classroom has similarities to the knowledge of SLTE programs which often does not take the context into consideration. In contrast to Nespor’s (1987) study, the alternativity which a teacher has, does not necessarily follow the pattern of Ms. Skylark’s teacher education or her experiences; the present data revealed that Sarah who experienced unpleasant learning similar to Ms. Skylark sought for alternative pedagogies and inclined to and more accepting of knowledge which she learnt from teacher education. Hence, it is reasonable to argue that a teacher who was unhappy with their learning in the past may be more accepting or at least attempt to try knowledge from teacher education until this pedagogy proves to be inappropriate and they return to their teaching with GBs from their prior learning in an apprenticeship of observation, as did Hannah in the present study.

As noted earlier, the detrimental English learning experiences that Sarah experienced from some of her former teachers made her rely less on her experience as an English learner and to apply teaching theories which she received from teacher education. She criticized GBs as being old rules and embraced new ones to achieve her teaching goals; this is similar to the characteristics of belief systems which Nespor (1987) named as *alternativity*. In the present study, *alternativity* for Sarah seemed to be an appropriate way to escape from the influence of her former teachers.

Using RK to criticize GBs

An example of the research demonstrates a teacher using RK to criticize their GBs as follows. The interview with Sarah indicates that she took the path that her former teacher had encouraged her to follow but not the teaching approach. Her practice was a balance of teaching from her former teachers (i.e. motivational aspect) combined with students' learning needs, according to Sarah. She said:

Sarah: 在我是英文學生的時候,英文老師用鼓勵的方式,只要做一點好,他就 *well-done, excellent*, 因為老師用鼓勵的方式,我現在也用這種方式教學。要讓學生心情愉悅先, 參與的時候他就會很樂意參與。你觀課的時候,看到我的學生隨便講, 我也會開放那樣的空間讓他很高興, 很高興好, 還是要回到主題。以前老師用 *grammar translation* 或 *traditional* 的 *method* 我比較不用。我會站再學生的角度去想, 他們需要的是什麼?

(When I was an English student, appraisal [an encouraging] way of teaching was used by the English teacher. As long as you did a little good, s/he would say “*well-done, excellent*”. Because the teacher used appraisal in the class, I now also teach in this way. By allowing the students to feel good first, they will then be very happy to participate. When you were observing the lesson, my students would speak casually in English, I would open the space for them to be happy, very happy ok, and then we would return to the lesson. My former teacher used *grammar translation* or the *traditional method*, I don’t use it. I see things from the students’ perspective about what they need.)

Each teacher perceived the same GTM differently. Five teachers perceived GTM as effective teaching with the exception of Sarah. Research studies have also found that the reason people who accepted one concept was because they were dissatisfied with the other concept (Posner, et al., 1982). Sarah was unsatisfied with her former English teachers who implemented GTM and traditional methods hence her practice reflected more from her RK. Her teacher beliefs were mostly from RK and were consistent with her practices.

Sarah rejects GBs as she stated that her former teacher used *grammar translation* or a *traditional method*, but she does not do this. She uses the terminology *grammar translation* in English. Therefore she knew the terminology - ‘*grammar translation*’ from RK provided in most of the SLTE teacher education programs and she rejected the practice. She uses English terminology like *grammar translation* in her discussion in

Mandarin conversation, when speaking about her former teachers' practice. This complexity implies, at some point, she uses RK to criticize GBs. In a sense, the clarification of this rejection of the *traditional* and *grammar translation* is almost like RK. Hence, it seems as if Sarah is using her RK to reject her GBs.

This is different from other teacher participants, some of whom went to English speaking countries for teacher education but after trying *teaching methods* such as CLT they reverted back to GBs, for instance, *grammar translation*. However, Sarah is saying that *grammar translation* is part of the *traditional method* and she rejects this. So what constitutes traditional resembles RK and she does not wish to carry out this kind of teaching. Additionally, as noted earlier, the PowerPoint slides in Sarah's class were mostly in English and did not contain enough Chinese to support comprehension. Some students were trying to check with the dictionary during the class, but Sarah had told them to look at the slides and not to check with the dictionary. According to Sarah's report, her former teachers taught grammar translation which utilized large amounts of L1. She does not do this, hence the 'more L2 less L1' knowledge may derive from RK; to focus on L2 and be less concerned about students' understanding of the language is almost similar to an *immersion* kind of teaching. Why a teacher teaches the way they do is, in Sarah's case, given that she had oppressive learning experiences with traditional methods from former teachers, she is therefore more accepting of RK. Her RK affected her to a greater extent, although, she has retained some practice from her GBs, such as using praise to enhance learning. Nevertheless, she used received terminology to describe her teaching and employed RK to reject GBs.

As noted in Chapter 2 the present ELT practices in Taiwan are traditional (Daly, 2009). In other words, Sarah believed the reality at the present time was similar to her unpleasant experiences with her former teachers and hence she rejects the old rules and has found new ones which allow her to teach in a friendly environment. Hence she embraces the RK from SLTE programs as can be found from her practices as revealed earlier in this Chapter and Chapter 5.

In addition the teachers from the research often used RK to criticize GBs. Some teacher participants implied their practices could not reflect their teaching beliefs (i.e. RK) of optimal language teaching/learning owing to the students' poor performance. This suggests that teachers consciously perceived *traditional* as disagreeable because if it were not for the students' poor English performance they could teach in a way that was more consistent with their RK using contemporary effective methods such as CLT. However, as the later data shows, teacher participants' practices were learned from their former teachers in a local context, and they either accepted their former teachers' *traditional* practices as being effective or they envied their former teachers and wanted to emulate their teaching practices. Therefore, some teachers have shaped their practice in the same way as their former teachers without taking student factors into account. Johnson (1999) indicates that while teachers provide reasons why they teach the way they do, almost everything can be interpreted as hidden factors whereby teachers loosely implement knowledge into practice. It is therefore important that SLTE programs assist teachers to recognize their practices by discussing their learning to teach and examining their teaching beliefs. Teachers would then be able to realize their beliefs

and their practice aims by themselves (Johnson, 1999).

In regard to more L2 and less L1, Ian's perception echoed that of Sarah. He asked students to check vocabularies as homework and write in their notebooks. When a student wrote definitions in English, he gave them a higher grade than the student who wrote definitions in L1. Also, in Emma's case, she believed it was not necessary to use L1 in the textbook. And she explained, "it was not the students' first time to learn English". It is noticeable from the data that teachers' practices were to some degree influenced by teacher education about authenticity of material or more L2 less L1; this belief is mostly advocated in teacher education programs. For instance, the CLT which emerged during the 1980s and 1990s was influenced by Krashen (1985). It was an approach that concentrated on the communicative functions of language and the classrooms were characterized by attempts to ensure authenticity of materials and meaningful tasks. However, it was agreed later among many research studies that using L1 can be beneficial as it is able to activate the learner's cognitive knowledge (Cummins, 2008).

Relationship among RK, GBs and classroom practice

The relationship between teachers' cognitions and classroom practices in language teaching "is neither linear nor unidirectional. It is not linear because cognitions and practices may not always concur, due to the mediating influence of contextual factors" (Borg, 2006b, p. 275). It is not unidirectional owing to the fact that what language teachers do is based on teachers' cognitions. Borg (2006b) argues that CFs interact with

teachers' cognitions in two ways. One is that CFs cause teachers' cognitions to change. Another one is that owing to CFs teachers modify their practices directly with no change in their cognition, and this "can lead to a lack of congruence between teachers' stated beliefs and actual practices" (p. 276).

This scenario indeed emerged from the present data where four teachers due to CFs taught in the ways their teachers did and this lead to a lack of congruence between their stated beliefs (i.e. RK) and their actual practices. Four teacher participants believed that the inconsistency between their practices and their stated beliefs (i.e. RK) was due to the unmotivated students they faced as discussed in the previous chapter. The students they faced today I categorized as teachers' beliefs rather than CFs for the reason that teachers' feelings about their students was part of their belief system, although for some teachers contextual factors were evident. As already noted, the data seems to indicate that students appeared to be reasonably motivated to learn. Hence, I categorized the students they faced today as teachers' grounded beliefs rather than contextual factors. The following example shows one teacher's stated teaching beliefs. When talking about her beliefs in teaching, Hannah stated:

師：我蠻贊同應該把講台讓給學生的想法，因為語言課，老師的角色應該就是塑造環境，然後給一些 *tasks* 讓學生去發表，這是最理想的英聽課程。60%給學生，40%給老師。

(I quite agree with the idea of giving the platform to students. Because it is a language class, the teacher's role is to shape the environment and then give a

number of *tasks* to students for them to express. The optimal English listening/speaking course ratio is, 60% for students and 40% for teacher.)

R: 這一班應該沒有 60%，40% 依我看的？ (From my observation, this class does not reflect 60%, 40%, right?)

師：沒有，就像你看的，學生會做自己的事情，所以我把這個權力收回來自己教。所以這一班我是 *lecturer* 這是台灣學生的特性，他們把英文課學成其他課在上。它沒有辦法調適過來說這是一個語言課，它應該試著用這個語言，因為除了這教室以外，它沒有機會去用這個語言。

(No, as you see in the class, the students did their own thing, so I took back control. So my role is a *lecturer* in this class. This is the characteristic of Taiwanese students. They treat the English class as one of their other subjects; they cannot adapt and treat it as a language class. They should try to use this language, because except in the classroom, they do not have the opportunity to use this language outside of the class.)

Five teacher participants, with the exception of Matthew (because he has no teacher training experience to mould his RK), shared Hannah's view that the class should focus half on student practices and half on lecturing and the teacher's role should be a *facilitator* for effective practice, as mentioned in the section on received knowledge. Again, this 50% 50% notion relates to teachers' understanding of effective practice and is derived from most of the teacher education programs in ESL contexts and it affected teachers' cognition about effective teaching. However, their RK was not

reflected in most of the teachers' practice, except for Sarah. They conceded that a teacher-centered approach was used in their classes owing to the unmotivated students they faced and some CFs. The teachers believed that the class was large, the students' English level was low and they were unmotivated, and therefore, in the reading class it was most appropriate to employ GTM.

Below is Hannah's interview in which she stated that instructional practice should be for non-English majors. Hannah:

像這種班級就比較適合用傳統的教學方法。這種方法，按字、句的帶他們唸
再做練習，會比較適當，像應外系就都看的懂，只是藉由活動讓他們熟練。

(Like this class, this kind of class (non-English majors), the traditional way of teaching is appropriate, such as translation. This is the kind of approach: ask them to read after the teacher by vocabulary, sentence, then do exercises. Unlike English-majors who are able to understand the text and we use activities to enhance their English.)

Hence, the 50% 50% notion which teachers acquired from SLTE programs as their RK was weakly represented in their practice. This finding echoed research studies which found there is an inconsistency between teachers' practice and the knowledge they received from SLTE programs (Bartels, 2005; Johnson, 1999). The teachers stated that their English language practices were traditional and they believed traditional methods were effective practice for non-English majors. Nonetheless it was traditional practice

that accounted for the inconsistency between teachers' practice and their stated beliefs-RK.

Although there was a strong possibility that the teachers may be confronted with unmotivated students, it was also possible that teacher participants may mistakenly attribute this not *knowing how* to implement their RK in the class or their practices could be predetermined by the way their former teachers taught. For instance, David was surprised that group activity could be carried out in Ian's reading class with low English level students. He therefore insisted I email him how Ian did the grouping activity in the class, as noted earlier. Research studies have shown that RK has not been implemented in teachers' practice as traditional SLTE programs fail to offer teacher procedural knowledge as noted (Johnson, 1999). Hence, it is possible teachers' RK is inconsistent with their practice because they do not know how to teach using RK or they prefer to teach the way their former teachers did.

Four teachers' beliefs were GBs and not, as they stated, beliefs acquired from RK. As noted earlier, almost everything that is inconsistent in teachers' practices and their beliefs can be interpreted as contextual factors (Johnson, 1999). Again, to identify teachers' real teaching beliefs, inferences about individual's underlying mental state is necessary, as individuals are often incapable or unwilling, for some reason, to perfectly articulate their beliefs. Hence, to understand teachers' teaching beliefs, it is necessary to analyze what teachers say and whether they practice the behavior they lay claim to in the classroom (Rokeach, 1968). This seems to be the issue that needs to be addressed in

SLTE programs, to examine teachers' beliefs and to offer opportunities for teachers' to understand their beliefs.

The following concerns David's practices which were influenced by both the SLTE program and his teaching experience outside the university context. David emphasized *the importance of English* in his practice, as noted in the preceding chapter. Due to the influence of GBs on David's teaching, he informed students that English learning would provide social and economic success for them. He emphasized the importance of English learning through an inspirational talk about Morris Chang (Chairman and CEO of Taiwan Semiconductor Manufacturing Company; the world's largest semiconductor manufacturer) and the executives at BMW (Bavarian Motor Works) during class time, as noted in Chapter 5. In the interview when I queried him about why he constantly talked about the importance of English in his class and it seemed to become the main content of the lessons, he explained:

所以你要讓他了解，*What's the disadvantage if your English is poor*，我要他們去想會帶來什麼壞處：交不到女朋友，找不到工作，無法出國，*interview*不會講。所以這是跟他們切身的問題，為什麼英語重要。不是說英語好會為你帶來什麼好處。好處跟壞處哪個對你影響比較大，當然是壞處，好處沒有也沒關係。我常常會叫每個同學想三個英文不好，會帶來什麼不好的壞處。因為我們沒有辦法天天陪他(指學生)，我們只能時時的提醒他們。*Motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation* 我們都知道，好要鼓勵，不好也有鼓勵。

(You must let the students know, *what's the disadvantage if your English is poor?*

I want them to think about how damaging that would be. They cannot find a girlfriend, no job, cannot go overseas, unable to hold an interview. So this is the immediate concern to them. It is not about what advantages will come to you when your English is good. Advantages and disadvantages, which will have the greatest impact on you? Disadvantages! of course. It does not matter if you do not have the advantages. I often ask each student to think of three disadvantages, what are the disadvantages if their English is not good? Because, we cannot be with them every day, we can only constantly remind them. *Motivation! Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation* we all know; advantages you need to encourage, disadvantages you also need to inform them of these.)

David utilized negative descriptions about disadvantages when students' English was poor; his purpose was to highlight *the importance of English learning* to motivate students. David's practices were affected by both RK and GBs. When he explained his practice to me he employed RK to explain why there was plenty of motivational talk in the class. David mentioned that he learned the notion of *intrinsic* and *extrinsic motivation* from an SLTE program in the UK and clearly this knowledge influenced him. In addition, his outside teaching experiences to CEOs constructed his GBs about the *importance of English learning*. Both GBs and the general theory in relation to motivation from RK then played an important role in influencing his practice about the main focus in the class. Received knowledge was also evident when he was commenting on or judging the practice, that is, he knew what terminologies and how to use "the shared professional discourse" to articulate his teaching (Freeman, 1991). This is evidence of RK influencing a teacher's practice. David commented that language

teachers go to teacher education, and are aware of ‘intrinsic’ and ‘extrinsic’ motivations (These are related to motivation research studies, please see Dörnyei, 2001, for more detail) and he needed to find a way to translate this message to the students. This indicates that some of the general teaching theories from RK may be beneficial to teachers. The relationship between David’s received knowledge, grounded beliefs and classroom practices was, his practices reflect both his received knowledge and grounded beliefs. In other words, teaching methods from his grounded beliefs and motivational theory from received knowledge both have influenced his teaching.

Conclusion

This chapter has captured the complexities of what teachers know, believe and think in regard to how they teach, and how their practice has been affected by their cognitions. As this chapter has uncovered the complexities of teachers’ cognitions, teacher education should no longer ignore teachers’ prior experiences, and their interpretations of the specific practice in which they engage (Johnson, 2006).

It is important to understand the relationship between teachers’ practices and these different types of beliefs. Teacher participants who attended traditional SLTE programs and learnt teaching methodologies found it difficult to implement these in the local context. Consequently some reversed their teaching practices back to the way their former teachers used to teach. Some participants continued to struggle between RK and GBs in their teaching practices. This was so even with the teacher who had eight years teaching experience. The findings have also shown that a teacher who experienced poor

learning in her past learning experiences as an English learner was inclined to reject GBs and seek an alternative pedagogy. She was more accepting of RK which she learnt from her teacher education. However, she established an adapted version of CLT to fit the local teacher-centered culture. Her practices therefore revealed more knowledge from a SLTE program with an adapted version of CLT which embraced local contextual and sociocultural conditions.

In addition this chapter has also indicated that four teachers accepted RK and stated RK to be their teaching beliefs; however, due to the mediating influence of CFs and predetermined preferred practices derived from their former teachers, there was a lack of congruence between their stated beliefs and their actual practice. Their practices actually reflect their GBs. Teachers' GBs emerged from this context as not only the multidimensional and complex terrain of teachers' beliefs about language learning/teaching but also revealed the importance of teachers' cognitions of the context. In other words, teachers' GBs are comprised of their educational background, their experiences of learning/teaching when they were English learners, diverse teaching experiences in different settings and a variety of personal experiences, their beliefs about students, and their attitudes toward students and teaching.

The findings of this chapter have shown that there were gaps between what was actually happening in teachers' classroom practice and what they think they should do. The chapter has also discussed the possibility that teachers could refresh their cognition system within or without SLTE programs. For example, it seems to be beneficial to

include a *critical reflection* component within teacher education programs. Action research is another way of learning how to teach in which teachers investigate their own practices. This involves taking a self-reflective, critical and systematic approach to examining teachers' own teaching context. These two emphasize on a process of reflecting on teaching and this may gradually replace the traditional way of training teacher which has been conceptualized around the notion of methods.

As Prabhu (1990) has argued language teaching is not a matter of contemporary methods replacing older ones but teachers' understanding and implementation of their own sense of what is plausible in making teaching practice work. In other words, teachers should have both a context-specific base and a needs base to build up open-ended strategic frameworks for their teaching (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). For this reason, the research studies in relation to 'how a teacher learns to teach' call upon teacher-conducted classroom research to generate disciplined insights into language learning that will guide their practice (Canagarajah, 1993a).

In this thesis teachers believed that, with the exception of Sarah and Matthew, contextual factors direct what they can do in the class. As already noted, Tsui (2005) portrays some of the reasons that experienced teachers remain non-experts as being: firstly a lack of continuous renewal of teacher knowledge through interaction between theoretical knowledge and teachers' personal practical knowledge. Secondly, routine teaching practice minimizes the ability to think about contextual factors, and other pedagogical possibilities to exploit in student learning. Thirdly, lack of reinvestment in

their cognitive thinking to tackle problems and push boundaries does not enable them to develop skills in new areas and increase their expertise as teachers.

The sources of teachers' cognitions discussed in the Chapter 6 affected teachers' cognitions and thus influenced their practices. Hence, *received knowledge*, *grounded beliefs* and *contextual factors* are interconnected and interwoven with one another and further shape their individual teaching. Next, the concluding chapter relates the discussion back to the initial research questions. The significance of the components that shaped a framework for EFL teachers' cognitions is also discussed. The theoretical and practical implications and future research directions are also presented in the following chapter.

Chapter 8

Conclusions: teacher cognition and language teacher education

Prologue to the finale

This chapter synthesizes the findings of the thesis and explicitly addresses the research questions. The practical implications explicitly relate back to the underlying rationale for the thesis in order to understand teachers' cognitions. The theoretical implications, supporting the theoretical research gap is the understanding of *how teachers learn to teach*. The goal of this thesis has been to understand why teachers teach the ways they do. A qualitative analysis was designed for six experienced teachers of English who taught EFL at university level in Taiwan. The findings may contribute to our understanding of how teachers learn to teach and what they know and believe.

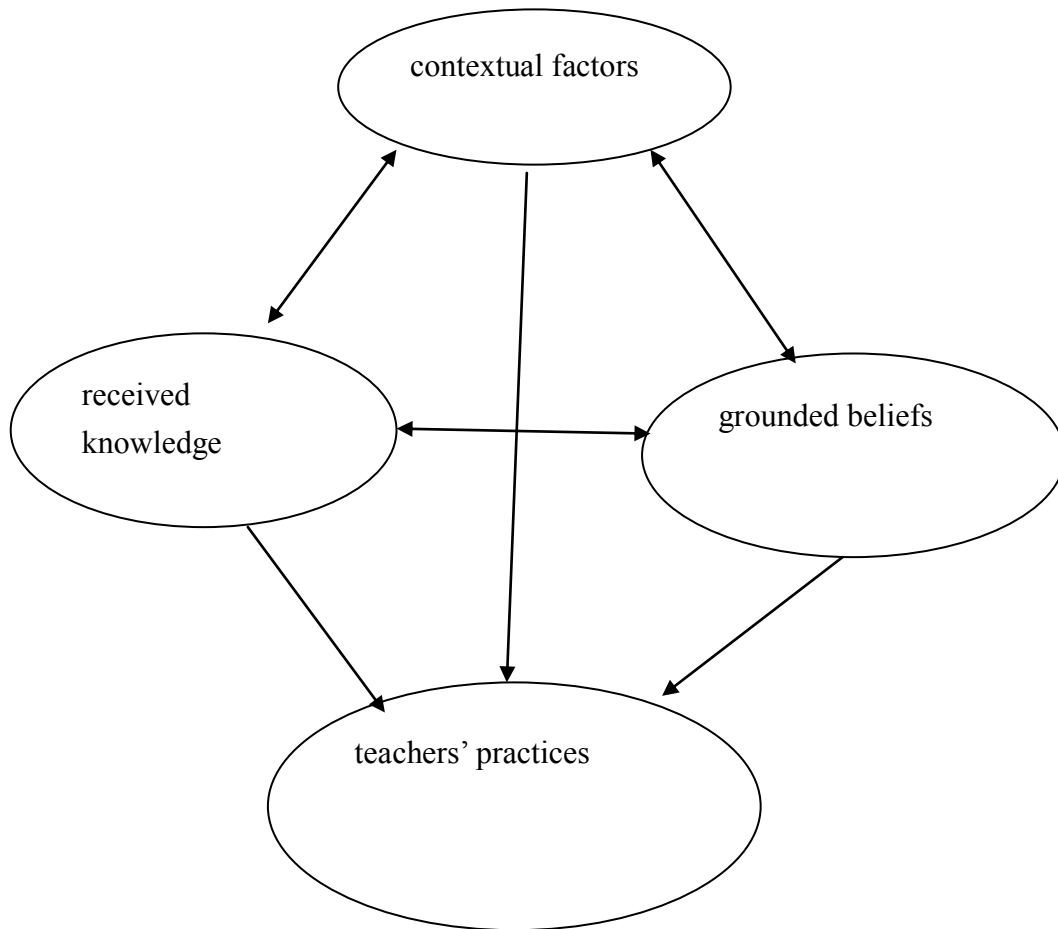
In order to understand teachers' cognitions in relation to EFL learning/teaching, classroom observations were undertaken in addition to interviews that provided comments with which to interpret their perspectives on their teaching behaviour. Both classroom observations and interviews with teachers provided fruitful data which is able to confirm and interrogate issues relating to language learning/teaching. The results of the study can be valuable for language teacher preparation, language teacher development, language teacher educators and language teachers themselves.

This chapter teases out some implications of the study findings into three areas. They are: the framework for examining EFL teachers' cognitions and practices, implications for language teacher preparation and teacher development, implications for language teachers and future research. The first implication is the practical implications that relate to research question one - what did EFL teachers do in the classroom - in order to understand teachers' cognitions. The second implication is the theoretical implications that support the theoretical research gap that was presented in Chapter 3. That is, the teacher as a learner *learning how to teach* and during the process of *learning how to teach*. These findings address research questions two and three. They are: what are the sources of teachers' cognitions and to what extent are teachers' cognitions of effective practice related to their actual teaching practices.

The framework of EFL teacher cognition

Research studies, especially those of Freeman and Johnson (1998a) point out that teachers' cognitions are a compilation of the teacher as learner learning how to teach. The present study has adapted a framework from Freeman and Johnson's (1998a) study and the emergent data of the present thesis conceptualizes the knowledge base of EFL teachers. The framework is as below:

8.1 The framework of EFL teacher cognition



As the above framework has shown teachers' cognitions are embedded within teachers' practices and thus examining the practice of teachers is necessary. It is evident that some of the ESL methodologies, such as CLT, have failed to work in the EFL context. Due to the fact that most traditional SLTE programs advocate applying new methods in favor of old methods, many research studies have reported that the traditional SLTE programs which focus on the notion of methods may not be effective in terms of providing teachers with adequate knowledge for the reality of their practices (Johnson, 1999). Hence, it is necessary to find out 'what's going on', and 'why teachers teach the

way they do' in their practices. This thesis investigated both practices and teachers' cognitions to comprehend how teachers learn to teach, and the contextual factors that have influenced their practices and how teachers' cognitions are established, regulated and changed.

Teachers' practices are examined here in ways that go against some common assumptions about practice as simply transmitting RK in the classroom (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). It does not consist solely of the roles teachers play or their actions in the classroom. The thesis has uncovered how teachers confront and negotiate the real world of the classroom. This is in contrast to the traditional views of many SLTE programs which often consider it necessary to empower teachers with teaching methods or the application of teaching theory from general education in order for them to carry out their practice effectively (Graves, 2009). Teachers' cognitions and practices present a negotiation among teachers' RK, GBs, and CFs as the framework above has shown. Each individual teacher's practice can be understood through the prism of what the individual teacher brings to it in terms of their CFs as well as how they take on RK and what their GBs are. Whether their practice develops into an effective teaching practice depends on how much and what kind of negotiation among three components a teacher accepts.

The cognitions and practices of these EFL teachers have shown that teachers' understanding of teaching strategies are different, as noted in Chapter 5; some believed in an authoritarian approach to make learning occur and others adhered to a friendly

manner in an attempt to create an unthreatening learning environment in their practices. Knowledge of content varied among these teachers, some implemented motivational talks, other developed their own teaching and learning goals. For instance, as established in the data chapters, teachers who were against the government's promotion of English, believed that knowing English does not mean possessing knowledge of international views. They often developed their own teaching and learning goals, which they believed were necessary for students to learn. These findings were in line with Nespor's (1987) study in which a history teacher believed that to teach 'fact' in the class was unhelpful and hence they established their own teaching goal of teaching students to organize a notebook.

Knowledge of subject matter revealed that most of the teachers believed GTM is the only answer to teaching reading while listening/speaking classes may possibly use an adapted version of CLT to correspond with a teacher-centred mode. Teacher participants who taught GTM in their practices were more comfortable with GTM without students' interruptions and some may have found interaction or engagement or communication challenging, and hence they preferred teaching reading over listening/speaking classes. Some teacher participants indicated that a hallmark of CLT such as looking for an information gap in pair or group work made it difficult to work in an EFL context, and thus, they developed an adapted version of CLT.

Received knowledge and grounded beliefs

Chapter 6 has shown the sources of teachers' cognitions. The source of teachers' RK

was influenced by SLTE program and their GBs were experiences they accumulated from the apprenticeship of observation, their personal teaching/learning and their students. In other words, teachers' GBs were derived from their former teachers understanding of how their students should behave and learn in the class, as well as beliefs conceptualized from their personal language learning and teaching experiences, and beliefs conceptualized from the learning attitude of their students.

As the traditional SLTE TESOL program MA courses have emphasized general theory or the notion of methods, many NNESTs felt what they had learned was not practical in their original countries, as noted earlier. According to Johnson (1999) the traditional SLTE programs provide teacher-learners with a quantifiable amount of knowledge often in the form of general theories and methods featured as suitable to any teaching context. These should be shifted to examine teachers' prior learning experiences. Given that traditional SLTE programs that are implemented through separate courses offering and carrying out teaching practices such as lectures, exams and term papers tend to be oversimplified (Kissling, 2014). In addition, the traditional SLTE programs often did not take account of sociocultural processes of learning to teach. In other words, teachers learning to teach ought to be acquired and accumulated from teaching, the students, and other sources where they work, and hence teacher cognition often results from a negotiation among RK, GBs, and CFs within a specific sociocultural context.

The RK teachers mostly acquired from SLTE programs did not provide teachers with the skills to cope with the reality of an actual classroom. As a result, teachers' practices

reverted back to repeat what they were taught when they were English learners. That is, they relied on the apprenticeship of observation which then had a powerful influence on teachers' cognitions. However, it could also restrict teachers to teaching the way they were taught. Another source which conceptualized teachers' GBs was prior language learning and teaching experiences that had had a great impact on experienced teachers and also teacher educators within this context. Borg (2009) pointed out that if we recognize that *teacher learning how to teach* is established through the negotiations among prior knowledge and knowledge from teacher education and teachers' personal experience, then to pay no attention to preservice teachers' prior knowledge is likely to hinder their ability to internalize knowledge from teacher education. Hence, he suggests it should be made explicit that to examine teacher-learners prior cognitions in the SLTE program is an imperative part of preservice teacher education.

Some aspects of RK were poorly implemented in teachers' practices owing to CFs mediating and therefore the methods employed were not locally suitable. However, many researches argue that practices derived from imitating former teachers were also not appropriate and changing teachers' beliefs from the apprenticeship of observation is an imperative step in the developmental process of *learning to teaching* in SLTE programs (Edge, 2011; Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 1999). Edge (2011) believes that a teaching practice which employs only traditional pedagogies without any additional pedagogies appears to be problematic. As Brumfit (1982) argues teachers need to constantly examine their teachers' beliefs in order to improve themselves, especially when they are involved with young people. Teachers have an obligation to develop throughout their teaching journey otherwise they will be unable to maintain a

meaningful practice. As Pennycook (1994) rightly points out “As critical educators we need a great deal of flexibility in our teaching and we need to do a great deal of listening and learning if our pedagogy is to be successful” (p. 320).

As Borg (2006b) points out “teachers’ preconceptions about language teaching may not always be conducive to effective practice, making these preconceptions explicit is an important part of the process of pre-service teacher education” (p. 276). Hence, to understand the GBs of preservice teachers within SLTE programs or to examine the GBs of in-service teachers within teacher development programs ought to be the focus for *learning how to teach* within the program. It is a given that teachers’ GBs influence the acquisition of knowledge, interpretation of teaching, course content, task definition and activity selection (Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992).

Although methodology from SLTE programs may not be suitable to a local context, RK from SLTE programs remains a source which influences teachers’ teaching. For instance, the data of the present study has shown a teacher can implement motivation theory into his practices. Also, although less confident in a teacher’s teaching practices after the methods she tried failed to work, training from a SLTE program provided her with shared professional knowledge, which allowed her to articulate her teaching more confidently.

Hence, the way SLTE programs convey RK to teacher-learners should be the focus, that

is, through critical reflective activities. By doing so, valuable knowledge, for instance, motivation theory, may be better absorbed by teacher-learners and the program could succeed better in changing teachers' beliefs about teaching from their prior of conventional teaching. After all, teachers play an important role in the reform of education (Shulman, 1987). It is therefore important for teacher educators to explore teacher-learners' prior learning experience and through modeling of alternative pedagogies at SLTE programs to reshape teacher-learners' beliefs (Crandall, 2000).

Contextual factors

In Chapter 2, we saw that the Ministry of Education in Taiwan often derived its educational reform from contemporary imported Western methods. However, when importing Western teaching methods the Ministry of Education failed to take into account local constraints, such as large class size that inevitably affected the extent to which teachers were willing or able to implement curricular innovations. This situation is similar to that in South Korea in which Johnson (2006) criticized the kind of mandate that failed to account for limited oral language proficiency in the local teachers and the backwash effect of the grammar-translation-oriented examination system. Consequently, English language teachers in South Korea have, not surprisingly, been found to enact these curricula in very traditional, non-communicative ways (Kim, 2005 cited in Johnson, 2006).

This was corroborated by the present study in that due to teacher participants having to help their students pass the GEPT in order to graduate from university, many teachers

focused more on GTM. The ELT education may be more successful if the authorities can reduce restrictions, such as standardizing the textbook and separating different teaching skills, as well as withdrawing the GEPT requirement for university graduation, as noted in chapter 6. The contextual factors that influence teachers' cognitions and practices are: (1) standardized textbook and prescribed curriculum (2) large class size (3) segregated skills teaching (4) examinations and (5) teacher development. Without these constraints teachers may be able to improve their practice and maximize learning opportunities. For instance, Kumaravadivelu (2003) argues that we need to reconsider the role of some factors that have traditionally been regarded as crucial to pedagogic success in classroom learning/teaching; such as, a well-designed textbook and well-conceived curriculum. He recognizes that the creation and utilization of learning opportunities are:

- not bound by teachers' agenda,
- not bound by teaching materials, and
- not bound by syllabus specifications (p. 45)

In addition, separating the teaching of different skills resulted in disadvantages for professional growth, especially for tenured experienced teachers who only teach specific areas (Liou, 2003). Liou (2003) argues that when teachers choose to teach in the same area every year, the possibility of improving their routine teaching is relatively small. Although separate language skills are quite normal in North America and several other countries (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) some teacher participants in the present study believed it was not an optimal practice. The disadvantage of separate language skills is that students may be required to listen to lecturing of GTM throughout a two-hour

lesson in a reading class without the opportunity to engage with other learning activities. Hence, it is beneficial to integrate all language areas, that is, reading, listening/speaking and writing.

The lack of teacher development programs in this context makes the cognitions and practices of experienced teachers vulnerable. Nunan (2003) has indicated that there is a lack of language teacher educators who are professionals in language teaching in Taiwan. There is also a lack of teacher development programs in the local context. Although the Taiwanese Government is dedicated to establishing a professional teacher support system and upgrading teachers' professional teaching capabilities in order to improve student outcomes, these projects are aimed at primary and secondary education (Hung & Yeh, 2013). The government plans to improve the English proficiency of university staff as mentioned earlier in Chapter 2 by recruiting NESTs rather than providing teacher development programs for university teachers. However, recruiting NESTs does not guarantee the teaching practices of local teachers can be improved. Instead, some teachers in this context believed they lacked the appropriate cultural knowledge and advice on teaching skills which can be improved from teacher development programs.

Hence, *teachers learning to teach* within this context were scarce according to teacher participants. One reason for this was that universities offered less teacher development seminars while other factors included a 'busy academic schedule', 'losing face' or teachers' assumptions which were indicated by a teacher through an old Chinese

proverb ‘since ancient times, scholars have tended to scorn each other’ as noted in Chapter 5. Lack of teacher development programs has limited the growth of teachers’ cognitions and their practices. Therefore, it is important for local government to develop or assist universities to promote teacher development seminars that focuses on local teachers’ strengths, weaknesses, resistances and needs. Other strategies for increasing professional development could include offering incentives such as staff development credits for attending teacher development courses; encouraging teachers to invite an observer to their teaching. This would enable teachers to review their cognitive system.

The sources of teachers’ cognitions are RK, GBs and CFs, which are embedded in teachers’ practices as the framework above has shown. If we want to understand why teachers’ teach the ways they do and the influence teachers have, it has become very clear we need to understand not only RK and GBs but also CFs. This opens up a range of ways of thinking about the interrelationships among these components. The three components of the framework 8.1 are not separate, freestanding components; they are mutually interdependent and represent important parts of teachers’ cognitions that shape their practice.

Implications for teacher preparation and teacher development

As mentioned earlier, five out of six participating experienced teachers were trained in English speaking countries. The research is therefore original with particular significance for the Taiwanese context; however, the findings are also significant for the international context. For instance, the findings of the current thesis boost the

contention that the knowledge base needs to be reconceptualized (Freeman & Johnson, 1998a). This study argues that to prescribe a core body of knowledge for language teacher programs may be too simplistic. There is a long-standing debate over what should be at the core of the knowledge base of L2 teacher education (Freeman & Johnson, 2005; Tarone & Allwright, 2005). For example, some scholars argue the knowledge base in SLTE programs should consist of courses on grammar and phonetics to train teacher-learners' language competence (Tarone & Allwright, 2005). However, as Freeman and Johnson (2005) argue, the cumulative effect of studying what language is and how it is acquired may not necessarily translate into effective L2 teaching practice. As I discussed in the earlier analysis chapters, it is possible that teachers who employ a linguistically-oriented manner of teaching may do so because their SLTE programs emphasized a linguistically-oriented course.

In addition, Graves (2009) points out, the core of SLTE programs varies widely, depending on *who* the teacher educators are and *what* their beliefs and *preferences* are. He further argues the issue is not one of the relevance of the language education course. Depending on teacher educators almost anything can be made relevant to language, but *who* makes it relevant and *why* is critical. In other words, it is important for practicing teachers to conceptualize and experience the relevance in their practice (Graves, 2009; Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Graves (2009) argues that SLTE programs can be varied and this depends on who the language teacher educators are. It is for this reason that teachers' cognitions research becomes salient to ensure the good quality of SLTE programs. NNESTs go to SLTE programs to learn how to teach not to earn a degree and without receiving any practical knowledge.

Hence, the findings of the present study suggest that the focus of SLTE programs should be shifted from the notion of methods to examine teacher-learners cognitive systems if the program aims to provide better teacher education. In addition, the way in which SLTE programs carry out their courses ought to be restructured, that is, the activities within the program ought to be able to train teacher-learners to be competent in critical reflection. In this thesis, we have seen that some teachers were able to engage their students in the class whereas others seemed not to know *how* even though they received SLTE training from BANA and are now experienced teachers.

It is reasonable to argue that the knowledge base of teaching practice does not consist of fixed knowledge, skills and understanding, but is an evolving one for each individual teacher (Graves, 2009). Thus, the traditional SLTE programs to train teacher-learners in what the language is, for example, structure of the language and phonology, consists of fixed knowledge in a one year training in MA course which does not help teachers when they come to engage with classroom reality and need to think critically about how they should carry out their practices.

To train language teachers in SLTE programs, as Edge and Richards (1998) point out, good practice needs to change continuously to be innovative, and to be socially appropriate. They proposed that the use of action research by teachers would be valuable. Hence, it is valuable to train teacher-learners in the knowledge and ability to

employ action research. Johnson (2009) argues that “narratives capture the complexities of their practice, trace their professional development over time, and reveal the ways in which they make sense of and reconfigure their work” (p. 24). As the present study has shown following each teacher’s narrative about their practice, they recognized that indeed they lacked experience in teacher development and asked me to email them information on effective teaching/learning so they could change themselves.

In addition, there are also many different ideas on how to train teacher-learners, for instance, classroom observation (Wajnryb, 1992), action research also mentioned by Burns (1992) and critical reflecting (Johnson, 2009) just to name a few. All of these three approaches are ways in which *teachers learn how to teach* through a reflective process that tend to reduce the mismatch between teachers’ cognitions and their practices. The findings of the present study have shown that there were gaps between what teachers think they should do and what was actually happening in their classroom practices. It seems valuable therefore to include a critical reflection component in SLTE programs, as critical reflection enables teachers to recognize how their cognitions are tacitly incorporated in their practices.

Including critical reflection within SLTE programs also allows teachers to examine their beliefs and to be exposed to alternative views on other teaching pedagogies. As noted in Chapter 6 in Johnson’s (1999) study, a MA student believed a prewriting strategy was not useful, changed her beliefs and implemented the prewriting activities in her class. Johnson (1999) points out that critical reflection is generally not associated with the

daily activities of teachers and that is why it is often difficult to sustain within teachers' professional lives. She argues that it is better way to foster critical reflection via collaboration so that groups of teachers attain support opportunities. By doing so, teachers are able to review their cognitions and explore alternative perspectives to construct or reconstruct their understanding of their own practices over time.

Action research provides an excellent way to allow teachers' to reflect on their practices on their own, to act both as a practitioner and researcher. This involves taking an area in a teacher's teaching where they believe there is a problem or where their teaching could be improved, subjecting it to questioning, and then developing alternatives in their own teaching context (Burns, 2010). Action research allows teachers to extend their teaching skills by examining their own teaching and discussion with other colleagues and enables them to gain more understanding of themselves as teachers, their classrooms and their students. It is thus a valuable way for teachers to reflect on their own teaching and learning through discussions with others. Then, the changes made in their teaching practices will arise from firm information rather than from a single source in a SLTE program.

In regard to classroom observation, Gebhard (2006) argues that one way to improve teachers' cognitions and practices is for teachers to become aware of effective learning/teaching by observation of other teachers. For instance, I went to six experienced teachers' classes not only to observe their teaching practice but also to reflect on my own teaching. This could be done within SLTE programs by bring

teacher-learners to observe an actual language classroom; it is unnecessary to choose the best practice. This could be followed by a discussion with the class as a whole or by asking teacher-learners to write an essay about their thoughts on what they have just observed and what they consider to be effective practice and what is not. It is important to include the CFs that have been mentioned in the present study. When a teacher observes others' practice, regardless of whether the teaching practices are different or similar to their own, they see the reactions of the students to these practices and this may benefit the teacher, who is then in a position to decide whether their practice needs to be adjusted or whether their beliefs need to be fine-tuned.

This provides ways in which teachers can raise their awareness about effective learning/teaching or think critically to argue their points in the essay or class discussion. By doing this, teacher-learners learn to examine their cognitions and reflect on their practices during their study at SLTE programs. Through this kind of training teacher-learners are likely to continue critical examination and questioning once they are engaged as teachers (Tabachnick & Kenneth, 1991; Tedick & Walker, 1995). Therefore, it may be promising to include the framework 8.1 into SLTE programs in order to understand teachers' cognitions, needs and the local context to accommodate different kinds of teachers.

In addition, Tarone and Allwright (2005) urge that a distinction be retained among teacher training, teacher education and teacher development in SLTE programs in order to accommodate a range of different needs of teacher-learners who may require a

different focus on skills, knowledge and understanding. Teachers with different mother tongues or at different stages (novice/experienced) may have different needs. The SLTE programs need to build on the respective strengths of each type of teacher-learner to assist them to overcome their obstacles (Braine, 1999; Kamhi-Stein, 2004; Kamhi-Stein, 1999). For example, one of the findings from the present study indicates that teachers were unable to include cultural material in their practice. This indicates that including cultural knowledge or the skills to search for cultural information could be included in teacher preparation and teacher development programs.

Implications for language teachers

Experienced teachers may also be rewarded by mutual classroom observation between colleagues in the place where they work. Teachers who have more diverse teaching experiences should be able to be more flexible in their practices and able to assist with rejuvenating other teachers' cognitions and thus improve other teachers' practices.

Although a diversity of pedagogies is not equivalent to effective teaching/learning, possessing a range of teaching skills provides a teacher with the ability to incorporate various pedagogies into their teaching. The ability to employ different teaching techniques can also lead to or maintain novelty in their practice and avoid it becoming routine (Tsui, 2003). By such means students may be more motivated and teachers will maintain their teaching passion despite long years of teaching.

This kind of observation benefits teachers who work independently on their development and have less time to devote to self-development (Gebhard, 2006). In

particular, university teachers who have heavy workloads may be discouraged from being actively involved in personal growth. Classroom observation thus can save them time as they would not need to attend seminars or teacher development workshops.

Some other ideas for teacher development provided by Scrivener (1994) are:

- Read new ideas in magazines and try them out
- Go to a conference or a seminar
- Learn about a completely different approach
- Join (or start) a teacher development group
- Make an agreement with a colleague to observe each other's lessons
- Find a way to get involved in some in-service teacher training
- Specialize (e.g. computers, business, self-access centres, video, music, exams, etc) (p.199)

Alternatively, teachers' professional development can be achieved through a wide range of reading in regard to teachers' and students' beliefs about teaching and learning, research studies in respect to classroom practice. Teachers' professional development can also be boosted through a teacher study group where "teachers meet regularly for collaborative inquiry about their practical experiences to achieve their collective goal of group learning in a systematic and interactive way" (Hung & Yeh, 2013, p. 154). All of these aim to build up teachers' cognitions of what is required to be a good language teacher.

Future research

The findings of the present study open up various possibilities for future research.

Firstly, teachers and students know the story of the classroom well; hence further research focusing on teachers' and students' voices may be valuable. Borg (2006b) argued for consolidating and extending language teacher cognition research to contribute to the research field. He points out that there have been “ a number of studies which have compared teachers' and students' cognitions, and while these are based on the premise that a mismatch between the two is undesirable, there is no empirical support for this” (p. 284). Hence, research studies could potentially address this gap.

Secondly, as this study has shown there are numerous gaps between what teachers learnt in SLTE programs and how they actually teach in their local context. Hence, future research directions should center on the context in which teachers work to examine the existing practices that support ELT teachers in complex social, political, economic and cultural settings (Johnson, 2009). Thirdly, if further research were to investigate teachers' cognitions to uncover a knowledge base for SLTE programs, then more analysis of different types and stages of teachers would be valuable. This would be an improvement from simply employing general teaching theory from general education or professional judgment from some linguists without a data driven investigation of what should be the core knowledge in SLTE.

Fourthly, research studies focusing on observation of teachers who teach both English majors and non-English majors are likely to be valuable. These would provide

opportunities for teachers to examine their beliefs. We would then gain insights into whether a teacher teaches differently when teaching English majors; whether when they teach English majors, teachers can truly apply their RK as the teacher participants from the present study stated or whether they simply teach in a way similar way to non-English majors. If teachers teach both groups of learners in similar ways, then, their preferred teaching practice is the dominant factor rather than external constraints, such as the unmotivated students they faced at the present time. Fifth, research studies could focus on how teacher-learners can further increase the application of their stated beliefs to their practices.

Sixth, research studies could also be valuable by applying the framework of EFL language teacher cognition that was developed in this study. Seventh, it is important for research studies to investigate more actual teaching practice in order to understand how different subsets of activities work and coexist, and therefore, teacher educators would be able to support teachers to become aware of different learning and teaching activities and how the students perceived those activities. This study hopes that by examining teachers' cognitions and interpreting these practices, the findings have contributed to language teacher preparation, language teacher development, language teacher educators and language teachers.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Information letter (for teacher participants)

Dear teachers,

My name is Kelly Chan and I am a PhD student at the University of Technology, Sydney. I am conducting a research in regard to experienced English teachers' teaching practices. The purpose of this study is to describe EFL (English as foreign language) teachers' understanding of how and why they teach as they do; and to understand how practices are influenced by teachers' pedagogical knowledge to effective English teaching and learning.

This research will involve the researcher (Kelly) observing and digitally recording two of your classes, with 2 follow-up interview around 30 minutes. The interviews will be conducted on one-to-one basis. They will involve discussing effective English teaching and learning and they will be conducted in Mandarin.

Any information or personal details gathered in the study are confidential. No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. You are free to withdraw your participation from this research at anytime without consequences and without giving a reason. If you have any concerns about the research please do not hesitate to contact me, my supervisors Prof Alastair Pennycook (email: Alastair.Pennycook@uts.edu.au) and Dr. Ross Forman (email: Ross.Forman@uts.edu.au). Any questions or suggestions would be welcome. Your assistance is greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Kelly Chan

Contact address: Faculty of Arts and Social Science, Building1, Room 1715,

Broadway NSW 2007, Australia

Telephone number: +61 2 9514 9641

Email address: kelly.s.chan@student.uts.edu.au

Note:

This study has been approved by the University of Technology, Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any aspect of your participation in this research, which you cannot resolve with the researcher, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officer (telephone 002-61-2- 9514 1279). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated fully and you will be informed of the outcome

Appendix 2: Teacher's background

1. Age

under 25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	65 above
----------	-------	-------	-------	-------	----------

2. Gender

M	F
---	---

3. What is your major and degree pursued:
4. Other languages spoken:
5. Name of the course that you normally teach:
6. Years of teaching: _____ years; in Taiwan : _____ years; out of Taiwan
_____ years
7. Average teaching hours per week?
8. Average administrative hours per week?
9. Average research study per week?
10. Have you been trained as a language teacher?
11. Levels of language classes you normally teach:

Appendix 3: Teacher's individual Semi-interview questions

1. What is the major focus and ideas of the lesson (which I just observed) and the expectations from the lesson?
2. What kind of skills (or teaching strategies) do you think are useful for English language teaching? Why?
3. What has influenced your English teaching the most?
4. What do you think are the qualities of a good English teacher?
5. What do you think is the role of the English teacher in the classroom? To what extent do you see your role as a facilitator or lecturer?
6. What are your usual teaching techniques? Why? How did you develop them?
7. How do you cope with a big class with different levels of English students? Why is this so?
8. Do you do course evaluation?
9. Do you keep a journal of your classroom teaching?
10. What teaching approaches/methods have you implemented in the classroom? Why is it so? (Methodology)
11. Do you plan your syllabus? Or do you use a textbook? (Curriculum)
12. What teaching resources do you make use of in your teaching practices (for teaching materials and classroom activities)? (Methodology)
13. From your experience what effective teaching methods or activities will best help your student learn? Please list separately the activities in listening, speaking, grammar, reading, writing, culture and vocabulary. And what students' achievement can indicate these methods or activities are effective teaching. (as a teacher)
14. Do you think that your experience as a student has affected the ways you teach? In what ways? (as a student)
15. What textbook in your experience is suitable for this English level learning? Why?
16. What kind of knowledge do you think is useful for English language teaching (ex: language, culture, learners, teaching and learning pedagogy)?
17. Do you know your students' learning style? What are they? How do you help students improve their English?
18. What knowledge about learners do you think you have? How do you develop this knowledge?
19. How do you continue to upgrade your English proficiency, teaching skills and knowledge throughout your teaching career?

Appendix 4: Information letter (for student participants)

Dear students,

My name is Kelly Chan and I am a PhD student at the University of Technology, Sydney. I am conducting a research in regard to experienced English teachers' teaching practices. The purpose of this study is to describe EFL (English as foreign language) teachers' understanding of how and why they teach as they do; and to understand how practices are influenced by teachers' pedagogical knowledge to effective English teaching and learning.

This research would welcome your assistance in a follow-up interview of around 30 minutes. The interview would be conducted in a group of 4 students and audio-recording. It would involve discussing questions about effective English teaching and learning, and it will be conducted in Mandarin.

Any information or personal details gathered in the study are confidential. No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. Whether you do take part, or do not take part in the interview, your marks or performance will not be affected in anyway. You are free to withdraw your participation from this research at anytime without consequences and without giving a reason. If you are interested in participating, please contact me, Kelly. If you have any concerns about the research please do not hesitate to contact me, my supervisors Prof Alastair Pennycook (email: Alastair.Pennycook@uts.edu.au) and Dr. Ross Forman (email: Ross.Forman@uts.edu.au). Any questions or suggestions would be welcome. Your assistance is greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Kelly Chan

Contact address: Faculty of Arts and Social Science, B1, Level 17, Room 1715,
Broadway NSW 2007, Australia

Telephone number: +61 2 9514 9641

Email address: kelly.s.chan@student.uts.edu.au

Note:

This study has been approved by the University of Technology, Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any aspect of your participation in this research, which you cannot resolve with the researcher, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officer (telephone 002-61-2- 9514 1279). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated fully and you will be informed of the outcome.

Appendix 5: Student's background

Please tick in the appropriate boxes with √

1. Age

16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41+
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-----

2. Gender

M	F
---	---

3. What is your major in the University: _____ Which faculty: _____

4. Years of English study: _____ years

What is your L1 _____, L2 _____

Have you been to an English private lesson or after-school classes? _____ years

5. I study English approximately _____ hours per week.

6. Have you taken any English Proficiency Test?

Yes	GEPT	TOEIC	IELTS	TOEFL	OTHERS
Pass level /score					
No					

7. What English level class are you in the University?

Low	Low-intermediate	Intermediate	Intermediate-advanced	Advanced
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Appendix 6: Semi-interview questions (student focus-group)

1. What do you think is the major focus and ideas of the lesson (which I just observed) and the expectations of the lesson from your teacher?
2. What kind of skills (or teaching strategies) do you think your teacher has? Do you think these teaching skills help you learn? Why?
3. What do you think are the qualities of a good English teacher?
4. What do you think is the role of the English teacher in the classroom? Does your teacher's role as a facilitator or lecturer most of the time?
5. What are your teacher's usual teaching techniques? Does it help you learn?
6. How does your teacher cope with a big class with different levels of English students?
7. Does your teacher do course evaluation?
8. What kind of activities help you learn better in English class (ex: teacher explains/student listen, teacher explains using board/OHP or slides, teacher demonstrate with teaching aids. teacher leads whole class discussion, teacher questioning students, and students' work in pairs/ groups)?
9. What teaching approaches/methods have your teacher implemented in the classroom? (Methodology)
10. Has your teacher use a textbook? Yes? Do you think the textbook is suitable for this class? No textbook? Then what materials does your teacher use?
11. What teaching resources does your teacher make use of in this teaching practices (for teaching materials and classroom activities)? (Methodology)
12. From your experience what effective English teaching methods or activities from your teacher will best help you learn? Please list separately the activities in listening, speaking, grammar, reading, writing, culture and vocabulary. And what your achievement can indicate these methods or activities are effective learning.
13. What textbooks in your experience are suitable for this English level learning?
14. What kind of knowledge do you think your teacher has (ex: language, culture, learners, teaching and learning pedagogy)?
15. Do you think your teacher have knowledge about learners?
16. Do you think your teacher known your learning style, English level; known what your strength and weakness in English? How does s/he try to help you learn?

Appendix 7 Chinese data collection information

親愛的老師:

我的名字是詹淑芬，我是雪梨理工大學博士班學生。我正在進行一項研究，有關經驗英語教師的教學實踐。其目的是為了研究英語教師如何教學以及為什麼以此教學的瞭解，以及針對教師教學課程如何受到他們的教學知識所影響而成為有效的教與學之研究做探討。

這項研究將包含研究者（詹淑芬 Kelly Chan）的觀察和錄音筆錄音您的兩個班，以及2次後續訪談 - 時約30分鐘。訪談將以1對1進行。訪談將討論有關有效的英語教與學，以及將用國語進行。研究有關之任何資料，包括您個人資料將會是保密的。老師的身份並不會在任何期刊被認出。任何時間您可以自由退出您的參與，並不用說明理由。如果您有任何有關這個研究的問題，您可以連絡詹淑芬，或者她的指導教授 Alastair Pennycook教授(Alastair.Pennycook@uts.edu.au) 以及 Ross Forman 博士(Ross.Forman@uts.edu.au)。非常歡迎任何指導以及建議。感謝您的參與。此致 詹淑芬

連絡地址：University of Technology, Sydney

Faculty of Arts and Social Science, Building1, Room 1715,
Broadway NSW 2007, Australia

電話號碼：+61 2 9514 9641

備註欄：這項研究已經通過雪梨理工大學人類研究倫理委員會的審核。如果您有任何投訴，或者任何您參與這項研究的異議，而無法與研究者溝通，您可以與人類研究倫理委員會辦事員連絡（電話 61-2 - 9514 1279）。您的任何投訴均會得到保密，以及充分調查，您也將會被告知調查結果。

教師背景

1. 年齡

25歲以下	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	65歲以上
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

2. 性別

男	女
---	---

3. 什麼是你的主要學位:

4. 你熟悉的其他語言:

5. 你通常教的課程名稱:

6. 教學年數: ____年, 在台灣____年, 台灣外____年

7. 平均每週教學時數:

8. 平均每週行政時數:

9. 平均每週研究時數:

10. 你是否受過師資訓練:

你通常教授的英語班級數為:

教師個人訪談, 半結構訪談問題

1. 剛才課程, 主要的加強, 以及期望的教與學為何?
2. 什麼樣的技能 (或教學策略), 您認為對英語教學有幫助? 為什麼?
3. 什麼對您的教學影響最深?
4. 您認為什麼是良好英語教師的素質?
5. 您認為教師在課堂上的角色為何? 您認為您的角色為誘導者, 或授課者?
6. 什麼是您常用的教學技巧? 為什麼? 如何獲得這些技巧?
7. 您如何應付大班不同英語層次學生? 為什麼這樣做?
8. 您做課程評估嗎?
9. 您對您課堂教學有寫日誌的習慣嗎?
10. 您通常在課堂上, 使用什麼教學方法? 為什麼? (方法)
11. 您設計您的教學教材嗎? 還是您使用教科書? (課程)
12. 您的教學資源是什麼? (教學材料和教學活動)? (方法)
13. 從您的經驗, 什麼有效的教學方法和活動最能幫助您的學生學習? 請由, 聽力, 口語, 文法, 閱讀, 寫作, 文化和詞彙分別列出。從那些學生成就可以表現出這些方法或活動是有效的教學。(作為老師)
14. 您認為您的經驗作為一個學生, 有無影響您的教學方法? 在哪些方面? 如何影響? (作為學生)
15. 以您的經驗, 什麼教科書是適合這個英語級數班? 為什麼?
16. 什麼樣的知識, 您認為對英語教學是有幫助的 (例如: 語言, 文化, 學習, 教與學教學法)?
17. 您知道您學生的學習方式嗎? 它們是什麼? 您如何幫助學生提升英語?
18. 有關學習者知識, 什麼您認為您有? 您如何獲得這方面的知識?
19. 在您的教學生涯, 您如何繼續提升您的英語程度, 教學技能和知識?

親愛的學生：

我的名字是詹淑芬，我是雪梨理工大學博士班學生。我正在進行一項研究，有關經驗英語教師的教學實踐。其目的是為了研究英語教師如何教學以及為什麼以此教學的瞭解，以及針對教師教學課程如何受到他們的教學知識所影響而成為有效的教與學之研究做探討。

這項研究將包含研究者（詹淑芬 Kelly Chan）的2次訪談 - 時約30分鐘。訪談將以一組4個學生進行。訪談將討論有關有效的英語教與學，以及將用國語進行。

研究有關之任何資料，包括您個人資料將會是保密的。學生的身份並不會在任何期刊被認出。您參加與否，將不會影響到您的學校成績。任何時間您可以自由退出您的參與，並不用說明理由。如果您有興趣參與，請連絡詹淑芬。如果您有任何有關這個研究的問題，您可以連絡詹淑芬，或者她的指導教授 Alastair Pennycook教授 (Alastair.Pennycook@uts.edu.au) 以及 Ross Forman 博士 (Ross.Forman@uts.edu.au)。非常歡迎任何指導以及建議。感謝您的參與。

此致

詹淑芬

連絡地址：University of Technology, Sydney
Faculty of Arts and Social Science, Building1, Room 1715,
Broadway NSW 2007, Australia
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備註欄：這項研究已經通過雪梨理工大學人類研究倫理委員會的審核。如果您有任何投訴，或者任何您參與這項研究的異議，而無法與研究者溝通，您可以與人類研究倫理委員會辦事員連絡（電話 61-2 - 9514 1279）。您的任何投訴均會得到保密，以及充分調查，您也將會被告知調查結果。

雪梨理工大學

學生背景

請選擇在適當的框中打✓

1. 年齡

16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41 +
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	------

2. 性別

男	女
---	---

3. 您在大學的主修為: _____ 哪個系 _____

4. 學習英語的年數為 _____ 年

您的母語為: _____ 第二語為: _____

您有無參加過學校以外的英語課程, 或者私人家教英語? _____ 年

5. 我研讀英語大約每星期 _____ 小時。

6. 您有沒有參加過英語檢定考試?

有	全民英檢	多益測驗	雅思	托福	其它
通過級數/分數					
否					

7. 您在大學的英語級數班為:

低級	中低級	中級	中高級	高級
----	-----	----	-----	----

學生焦點團體訪談：半結構訪談問題

1. 您認為剛才課程，主要的加強，以及期望的教與學為何？
2. 您認為您的老師有什麼樣的技能（或教學策略），您認為這些對您的英語學習有幫助嗎？為什麼？
3. 您認為什麼是良好英語教師的素質？
4. 您認為教師在課堂上的角色為何？您認為您的老師角色為誘導者，或授課者？
5. 什麼是您的老師常用的教學技巧？它是否幫助您學習？
6. 您的老師，如何應付大班不同英語層次學生？
7. 您的老師，做課程評估嗎？
8. 什麼樣的活動能更有效地幫助您在課堂學習英語（例如：老師解釋/學生聽，老師解釋使用白板/幻燈片，教師用教具演示。老師引導全班討論，老師提問學生，學生分組學習）？
9. 您的老師通常在課堂上，使用什麼教學方法？（方法）
10. 您的老師使用教科書嗎？有？您認為教科書適合這個英語級數班嗎？沒有，教科書？那麼您的老師使用什麼樣的材料？
11. 您的老師使用什麼樣的教學資源？（教學材料和教學活動）？（方法）
12. 從您的經驗，您的老師用什麼有效的教學方法和活動最能幫助您學習？請由，聽力，口語，文法，閱讀，寫作，文化和詞彙分別列出。從那些您的成就表現出這些方法或活動是有效的教學。
13. 以您的經驗，什麼教科書是適合這個英語級數班？
14. 什麼樣的知識，您認為您的老師有（如：語言，文化，學習，教學和學習教學法）？
15. 您認為您的老師有無，有關學習者的知識？
16. 您認為您的老師知道您的學習方式，英語級數，知道您英文的強項和弱點嗎？她/他如何幫助您提升英語學習？

Appendix 8 Sarah's Power Point Slides for listening/speaking class

Unit 4

Careers and Employment

Vocabulary

career	design	exactly
public relations	research	organization
communications	statistics	difficult
background	job requirement	interesting
invest	manager	knowledge
market	finance	psychology
motivate	graduate	accounting
consultant	advertising	hospitality

Vocabulary (p.24)

model	direct	brochure
photo shoot 搶拍(鏡頭)	layouts	graphic arts 平面藝術(含版畫與刻印等)

the way in which the parts of sth such as the **page of a book**, a garden or a building are **arranged** :版面設計 / 規劃圖
the layout of streets
the magazine's attractive new **page layout**

- **photo shoot**: an occasion when a photographer takes pictures of sb, for example a famous person, fashion model, etc. for use in a magazine, etc.:
- **communications management** 溝通/通訊管理
- **hospitality**: food, drink or services that are provided by an organization for guests, customers, etc.:
- the **hospitality industry** (= hotels, restaurants, etc.)

Public Relations (PR) 公共關係

- the business of giving the public information about a particular organization or person in order to create a good impression :
- She works in public relations.
- a public relations exercise

communications

- - is a course of study that deals with how to effectively exchange information between people, business, and organization, and also in politics and government.

advertising

- - is the study of how to **sell a product or idea to the public.**
- Both of these subjects are common in business school.
- *just right = perfect*

MBA

- ~ stands for Master of Business Administration
- It is a two-year business school degree that students begin after graduating from a four-year college.

value

- (especially BrE) how much sth is worth compared with its price:
- to be **good / excellent value** (= worth the money it costs)
- to be bad / poor value (= not worth the money it costs)
- Larger sizes give the best value for money.
- The car is *good value for your money*. 合算

Language Focus B

B

- Well, I think if you want to be successful in business, you have to invest a lot of money in the business at the beginning.

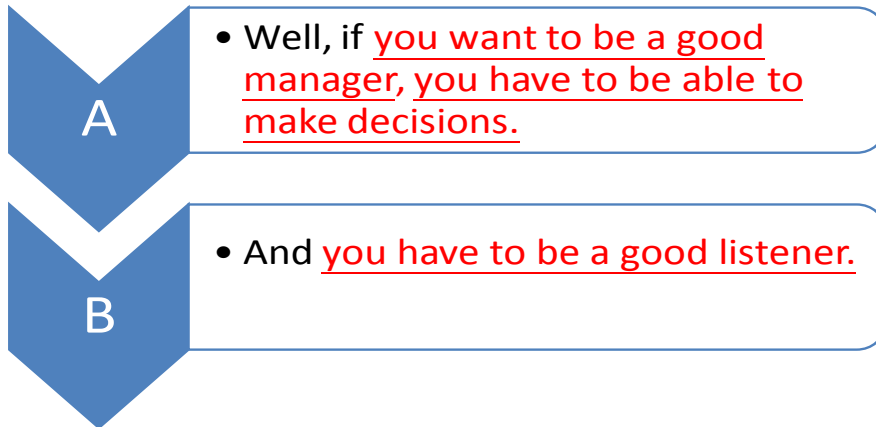
A

- Yes, and you have to offer good value for money.

B

- And you also have to be patient.

2.



Other example

You have to hire good employees

- You need to pay attention to what customers are buying.

You have to be able to manage money well.

- You have to **practice what you preach.**

- “**practice what you preach**”, which means **you** do what you tell others to do, or you do not do what you tell others not to do.

Listening and Understand

- **researcher**: refer to anyone who looks for information about a subject. 研究員
- A research can work in the **sciences**, **entertainment**, **in the media**, or in **government**.
- A **buyer** chooses and buys products for a larger store. 採購員
- A **wedding consultant** helps a bride and groom plan all aspects of their wedding.

1.

- It's very challenging at times, but I like that.
- -small clinic
- - dealing with dogs, birds, horses...huge snake.
- - It was a pet

2.

- - department store at the mall
- - don't deal with customers at all. Don't sell anything.
- - **select products for the store to sell.**
- - travel to other countries to see new items.
- - get paid to go shopping!
- - choose good products that people will want to buy.

3.

- - work in television
- - making a new program
- - look for information we need about that topic.
- -- statistics

4.

- - have you always wanted a career in this area?
- - exchange student in Canada
- - Asia
- - handle all parts of the world
- - honeymooners
- -oversea

5.

- - need to do a lot of training.
- - Tokyo for two years and then Paris
- - Japanese food / French food
- - restaurant
- - the money is pretty good
- = the paid is good

disc jockey (DJ)

- a person whose job is to introduce and play popular recorded music, on radio or television or at a club

Optional Activity: Job Opening

Salon Manager

The manager will be in charge of all aspects of the salon operations, including financial, **inventory**, customer service, employee issues.

- **Candidates must have:**
 - - at least 3 years experience managing a salon or other small related business
 - - at least 2 years college with classes in finance and / or management

2. Conversation Strategy

- **tentative** : means to be uncertain or unsure, and not aggressive. 躊躇 猶豫 / 暫時性的
- **tentative answers** : are used when the speaker doesn't want to give a direct answer, or because they don't want to seem too forward, aggressive, or conceited.

Example sentence

- Do you like your new job?
-
- **I think so. I'm not sure yet.**
- ***(not sound too conceited = pride)***
- ***guess / suppose + so***
- ***think / believe + so***
- ***feel (✕)***

Listen and Understand

- Track 35
- - Majoring in journalism of course.
- - My main area of study was **print journalism**.
- = is writing that appears in newspapers and magazines.
- 報刊雜誌的新聞工作(有別於電視和廣播的新聞工作)
- - interesting **pieces** 一則消息 / 報導 news article
- = is a specific story written by someone

- - I believe I do. I feel that I write quite well.
- - current position
- - *I feel that* the opportunities here at the Sydney Mirror are better in the sports area. I mean, your paper is a leader in sports journalism.
- - Are you able to work accurately and still meet deadlines? (= is the time and day when something must be completed.)
- - mother (tennis champion)

- - right qualifications and skills
- - move into television

4. Join In

- **IT** – stands for information technology
- **Entry-level** : means the lowest level job in a particular department. It is also the lowest-paid job.

Unit 4 Activity B

- 1. you have to invest money in the business / be patient (etc.)
- 2. If you want to pass the English exam, then you need to study every day (regularly).
- 3. if
- 4. If you want to be a teacher, you need to / should study...
- 5. If you want to be a good chef, then you have / need to be creative.5

Appendix 9 Reading text from Ian's reading class

Unit 8

perform a magic trick /
Treat or trick / 不给糖就捣蛋

Reading Passage Track 22

Many people in Taiwan want to be their own boss. Setting up a SOHO is a low-cost way to make that **happen**. A wide variety of jobs, from design work to sales, can be done as a one-man or one-woman operation. With a small amount of space and a lot of hard work, a SOHO can be a great way to **earn a living**.

The first step is to decide what type of work you'll do. That will depend on your skill set. Are you good with computers? Then you could build websites. Are you **artistic**? Then design work or drawing may be the right choice. If you have a good idea but don't have the skills, taking a class or two might **do the trick**.

Next, make sure you have the right **equipment**. That will vary for each SOHO, but you'll probably need a computer with an Internet connection. A fax machine is also a good idea. If possible, set up your office in its own room, not in your bedroom or living room. According to experts, that creates a better working environment.

Now you're ready to **look for clients**. An ad in the newspaper or online is a good start. Telling friends that you've set up a company can also help you **network**. When the big day comes and you start meeting clients, make sure to dress well. A professional **image** goes a long way towards winning a client's trust and business.

When running a SOHO, remember that the most important person is **YOU**. That means a lot of hard work, often on nights and weekends. If you do a good job (and meet your **deadlines**), then clients will come back again and again. They'll also **recommend** you to friends. Once **word of mouth** about your excellent company spreads, you won't need to look for clients. They'll start looking for you.

¹ SOHO - Small Office, Home Office

44

Appendix 10 Reading class of Emma and David

Desert Delivery

Novels, magazines, and newspapers—many people read these in their spare time. These days it is easy for most of us to get hold of the latest books or magazines. We can go to bookstores, order them through the Internet, or borrow them from the local library. Now imagine having to walk miles and miles through a hot sandy desert just to borrow a book. This is the reality for people living in the **villages** of the Garissa region of Kenya in East Africa.

In 1996, **librarian** Wycliffe Oluoch used to spend each day waiting for people to come to borrow some of the 24,000 books in his library in Garissa. The library had no shortage of books, but people weren't coming to read them. It was too much effort to walk through the desert just to borrow books. Oluoch racked his brain for ways to entice people into the library. After a lot of thought, he hit upon a great idea. If people wouldn't come to the library, then he would have to take the library to them. Oluoch strapped boxes of books onto the backs of camels and invented the Mobile Camel Library.

Starting with three camels in 1996, but more recently expanding the service to six camels, the Mobile Camel Library serves over one million people. Twice a month, the camel library can be seen carrying books all around the Garissa region. These hard-working animals need little water and can carry up to 500 pounds of books across the sands. A librarian, a library **assistant**, a **herdsman** and a **lookout** all travel with the camels. The lookout helps protect the books from thieves.

The children of Garissa love the camel library and appreciate Oluoch's effort. Eleven-year-old Mohamud Mohamed reads his library books **carefully** and always returns them on time. He knows the Garissa library **punishes** people for losing books, just like any other library. However, the punishment is very **stiff** compared to other libraries. If a village loses a book, the camel library stops visiting.



⁶ *villages*: very small towns

⁸ *librarian*: a person who works in the library

²³ *assistant*: helper

²³ *herdsman*: shepherd; a person who takes care of a herd of animals

²³ *lookout*: a guard

²⁷ *carefully*: very well; thoroughly

²⁸ *punishes*: makes one suffer for some error

³⁰ *stiff*: very high

Appendix 10.1 Reading class of Emma and David

🎧 Are Sports Bad for You?

People think children should play sports. Sports are fun, and children keep healthy while playing with others. However, playing sports can have negative effects on children. It may produce feelings of poor **self-esteem** or aggressive behavior in some children. According to research on kids and sports, 40 million kids play sports in the US. Of these, 18 million say they have been **yelled at** or called names while playing sports. This leaves many children with a bad **impression** of sports. They think sports are just too aggressive.

Many researchers believe adults, especially parents and **coaches**, are the main cause of too much aggression in children's sports. They believe children copy aggressive adult behavior. This behavior is then further reinforced through both **positive** and negative **feedback**. Parents and coaches are powerful teachers because children usually look up to them. Often these adults behave aggressively themselves, sending children the message that winning is everything. Many parents go to children's sporting events and yell insults at other players or **cheer** when their child behaves aggressively. As well, children are even taught that hurting other players is acceptable or are pushed to continue playing even when they are injured. In addition, the **media** makes **violence** seem exciting. Children watch adult sports games and see violent behavior replayed over and over on television.

As a society, we really need to face up to this problem and do something about it. Parents and coaches should act as better examples for children. They also need to teach children better values. They should not just cheer when children win or act aggressively. They should teach children to enjoy themselves whether they win or not. It is not necessary to knock yourself out to enjoy sports. Winning is not everything. In addition, children should not be allowed to continue to play when they are injured. If adults allow children to play when injured, this gives the message that health is not as important as winning. If we make some basic changes, children might learn to enjoy sports again.



⁴ *self-esteem*: opinion about oneself

⁶ *yelled at*: spoken loudly and in anger

⁷ *impression*: first idea about

⁹ *coaches*: people teaching or leading athletes

¹³ *positive*: good

¹³ *feedback*: responses to someone's work

¹⁹ *cheer*: shout with excitement or praise

²¹ *media*: television, newspapers, magazines, etc.

²¹ *violence*: action that hurts others

Appendix 11 Listening/speaking class of Matthew

4

Choose a Hotel

LESSON

A READING WARM-UP. What is the most important factor for you in choosing a hotel—price, location, etc.?

B READING. Read the hotel guide for New York City. Which hotel sounds attractive to you?

New York City has some of the best hotels in the world—and, believe it or not, some are not too expensive. But here are our picks for "the best of the best."

\$\$\$\$ Very expensive
\$\$\$ Expensive
\$\$ Moderately priced
\$ Budget

Most famous hotel

The Plaza Hotel \$\$\$

768 Fifth Ave. (at 59th St.)
800 441-1414
805 rooms



Located at the southeast corner of New York's fabulous Central Park, The Plaza is as near as it gets to the best shopping along New York's famous Fifth Avenue. This 1907 hotel, with its beautiful fountain, is a famous location in many popular movies and books. Movie stars and the rich love to get married there.

4 restaurants, excellent full-service spa and health club, concierge and ticket desk, car-rental desk, business center, 24-hour room service, babysitting, laundry

SOURCE: Adapted from *Frommer's New York City 2003*

Best service at a low price

The Broadway Inn \$\$

264 W. 46th St. (at Eighth Ave.)
800 826-6300
41 rooms

Impeccably clean and very comfortable, this hotel is a real winner. Suites can be a great deal—with sofa, microwave, mini-fridge and lots of closet space. Located right in the noisy Theater District, the hotel is peaceful and quiet inside. Best of all are the attentive staff who work hard to make their guests happy. There is a special phone number in case guests have questions while they're out sightseeing. Note: This four-story hotel has no elevators.

2 restaurants next door, concierge, fax and copy service

Most interesting hotel

Hotel Chelsea \$\$

222 W. 23rd St. (between Seventh and Eighth Aves.) 212 243-3700
400 rooms, 100 available to travelers



If you're looking for the usual hotel comforts, go elsewhere. But if you're looking for atmosphere—the New York of artists, actors, and writers—this is the only place to stay. Well-known novels and plays were written here. And artists

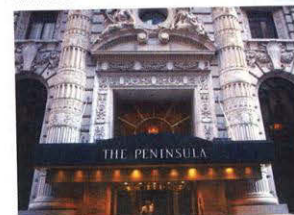
and writers live here even today. This 1884 Victorian hotel has beautiful cast-iron balconies and a busy lobby filled with artwork. Rooms are simple, but generally large. Everything is clean, but don't expect new. Not all rooms have air-conditioning. There's no room service, but the staff will be happy to help you order from local restaurants or take your clothes to the cleaners.

Restaurant, bell service, lounge

Best health club

The Peninsula-New York \$\$\$\$

700 Fifth Ave. (at 55th St.)
800 262-9467
241 rooms



The Peninsula Hotel is a place to see. Every room is high-tech with remote controls for lighting, music, TV, and air-conditioning—even in the bathroom! As a matter of fact, the huge marble bathrooms may be the most beautiful in New York City. Wonderful food service and a very helpful concierge desk ("We'll do anything guests ask, as long as it's legal."), and one of the biggest and best spa and health clubs on the roof, make this quite a hotel.

Valet parking, 2 restaurants, lounge, tri-level rooftop health club and spa with heated pool, exercise classes, whirlpool, sauna, and sundeck, 24-hour concierge, business center, 24-hour room service, in-room massage, babysitting, laundry service

Appendix 12 Reading class of David

Reading Comprehension

Choose the best answer.

- What is the main idea of the reading?
 - Children often become like their parents.
 - Children need to play sports in school.
 - Playing sports may have negative results.
 - Some sports can cause health problems.
- How many children said they had some negative experience when playing sports?
 - All of the children
 - More than half of the children
 - Less than half of the children
 - About 10% of the children
- Which is described as the main cause of more aggressive playing?
 - Adults
 - Children with low grades in school
 - New rules in sports
 - Other players
- What does the writer suggest?
 - Aggressive sports should not be shown on television.
 - Children should not play sports until high school.
 - Coaches should be required to study child psychology.
 - Parents should teach children to play sports for fun and exercise.
- What would probably NOT be done when "facing up to a problem"?
 - Ignoring the problem
 - Finding the reason
 - Admitting there is a problem
 - Looking for a solution

Idiomatic Expressions

Find these idioms in the reading.

- call (someone) names [to insult or abuse someone with words]
It is not nice to **call people names**.
- over and over [again and again; many times]
She told him **over and over** not to do that.
- knock yourself out [to try so hard you become exhausted]
Don't **knock yourself out**! This is a football match, not a war!

Fill in the blanks. Use each of the above idioms once. Change the form of the words if needed.

- Even if I _____ myself _____, I'll never get an "A" in math.
- In school, children used to _____ her _____ like "Mop Top" or "Poodle Head" because of her curly hair.
- This is her favorite book. She likes to read it _____.

Appendix 13 Listening and speaking class of Hannah

LESSON

1

Discuss What to Eat

CONVERSATION MODEL Read and listen.

A: What is there to eat?
B: Not much. Cheese, bread, ... eggs.
A: Is that all? I'm in the mood for seafood.
B: Sorry. You're out of luck. Let's go out!
A: Good idea!

Rhythm and intonation practice

GRAMMAR. Count and non-count nouns / there is and there are

Count and non-count nouns

Count nouns name things you can count. They are singular or plural.

singular count noun	plural count noun
an egg	ten eggs

Non-count nouns name things you can not count. They are not singular or plural. Don't use **a, an**, or a number with non-count nouns.

rice NOT ~~a rice~~ NOT ~~rices~~

There is and there are

Use **there is** with non-count nouns and singular count nouns.
 Use **there are** with plural count nouns.

There's milk and an apple in the fridge.
There are oranges, too. But **there aren't** any vegetables.

Use **there is** with **something, anything, or nothing**.
Is there anything to eat? No, **there isn't** anything.

count nouns

an appetizer	an onion
an apple	an orange
a cookie	a sandwich
an egg	a vegetable

non-count nouns

bread	juice	rice
candy	lettuce	salt
cheese	meat	seafood
chocolate	milk	soup
coffee	pasta	sugar
fruit		

Complete each sentence or question with a form of there is or there are.

- Is there anything in the fridge?
- Are there any cookies?
- I hope there is no chocolate in this cake. I'm allergic.
- Is there anything to eat in this house? I'm hungry.
- There are eggs in the fridge. We could make an omelette.
- I don't think there are any vegetables on the menu.
- There is too much sugar in this coffee.
- Is there enough lettuce to make a salad?

Corpus Notes:
 Learners often use "there are" incorrectly, such as before a list of items. For example, "There are a bedroom, a bathroom, and a kitchen."

GRAMMAR BOOSTER
 PAGES G7-G9
 For more ...

Appendix 13.1 Listening and speaking class of Hannah

VOCABULARY BUILDING. Categories of food. Add another food you know to each list. Then listen and practice. (Answers will vary, but may include the following:)



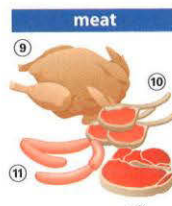
- ① apples ② bananas
③ grapes ④ oranges

mangoes



- ⑤ carrots ⑥ peppers
⑦ broccoli ⑧ onions

spinach, green beans



- ⑨ chicken ⑩ lamb
⑪ sausage ⑫ beef

pork, turkey



- ⑬ fish ⑭ clams
⑮ shrimp ⑯ crab
⑰ squid

salmon



- ⑱ pasta ⑲ rice
⑳ noodles ㉑ bread
cereal, tortilla



- ㉒ butter ㉓ cheese
㉔ milk ㉕ yogurt
cream, margarine



- ㉖ corn oil ㉗ olive oil
㉘ coconut oil
sesame oil



- ㉙ candy ㉚ pie
㉛ cake ㉜ cookies
ice cream, soft drinks

LISTENING COMPREHENSION. Listen to the conversations. Then listen again. Classify the foods in each conversation.

- dairy products
- grains
- meat
- fruit
- seafood
- vegetables

CONVERSATION PAIR WORK

Discuss what to eat. Use foods you like and eat. Use the guide, or create a new conversation.

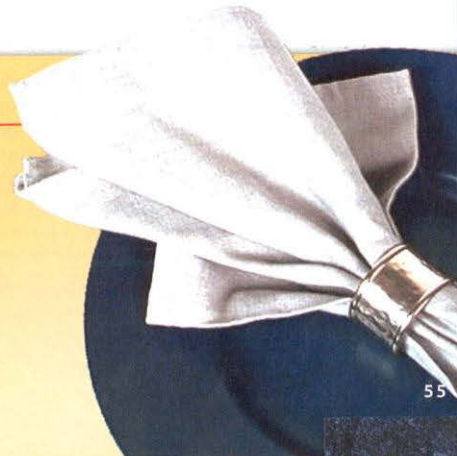
A: What is there to eat?

B: _____

A: Is that all? I'm in the mood for _____.

B: _____

Continue the conversation in your own way.



CONTROLLED PRACTICE

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