

國中英語實習教師對於文法教學的認知與實踐之個案研究

**A Study of Preservice EFL Teachers' Cognition and Practices toward
Grammar Instruction in Junior High Schools**

研究生：黃靜微

Graduate Student: Ching-wei Sylvia Huang

指導教授：劉美惠 博士

Advisor: Dr. Mei-Hui Liu

THESIS

**Presented to the Faculty of the
Department of Foreign Languages and Literature of
Tunghai University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of
MASTER OF ARTS in
Teaching English as a Foreign Language**

TUNGHAI UNIVERSITY

December 2010

中 華 民 國 九 十 九 年 十 二 月

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to many people who helped me a lot through my time in writing thesis. This study could not be finished without their kindly help and support.

To begin with, I am indebted to my dedicated advisor, Dr. Mei-hui Liu, for the consistent encouragement and unfailing patience she gave me throughout my study. Under her precious guidance, I have learned the valuable knowledge about thesis writing. It is her who has been an invaluable mentor and who led me to the end of this painstaking, but worthwhile journey.

Second, my sincere gratefulness is also expressed to my oral defense committee members, Dr. David S. D. Tseng and Dr. Muchun Yin, for their insightful comments and constructive suggestions that helped improve this thesis.

Third, I would like to thank all the professors in M. A. program for their patient instruction and Mr. Lasley for his wholehearted dedication to editing my thesis. They have been so generous in sharing their experiences with me as useful resource.

Fourth, my appreciation also goes to my dear classmates, Vickie Tsai, Phoebe Chiang, Jimmy Chu, Sam Dai, Steph Wang, and Chris Lantz. Without their encouragement and company, I wouldn't have the courage to overcome the obstacles. I would never forget the time when we studied in our M. A. resource room together.

Fifth, a special gratitude also goes to the four participating preservice teachers as well as their mentors and students, who assisted me to collect the data. Without their kindly help, this study wouldn't be written.

Finally, I would like to extend my sincere thanks to my beloved parents and my soulmate, Quo-Nan, for their encouragement and tolerance of my bad temper for the past four years. I would like to share my accomplishment with them all.

國中英語實習教師對於文法教學的認知與實踐之個案研究

中文摘要

過去許多學者雖已探討過語言教師的文法教學認知以及其和教學實踐之間的關係，然而探討英語實習教師之文法教學認知及教學實踐的相關研究仍相當有限。因此，本研究探討國中英語實習教師對於英文文法教學的認知以及如何實踐文法教學。本研究並進一步探討這些實習教師於文法教學認知之演變、其文法教學的認知與實際教學之間的關係、以及影響這些教師文法教學的可能因素。

根據混合質性及量化研究之方式，本研究透過多重資料提供者蒐集多元化資料，以探究英語實習教師學習如何教授文法的過程。本研究之主要研究對象為四位在三所公私立國中實習之英語實習教師。其它參與本研究之研究對象包括實習教師相對應之輔導老師及學生。英語實習教師參與之資料蒐集包含問卷、群體訪談、課室觀察與研究者之觀察手稿、以及刺激回憶訪談。此外，實習教師相對應之輔導老師與學生的資料蒐集分別為個別訪談及問卷。資料分析方法主要分為兩個步驟。第一個步驟為單一個案分析，亦即四個個案之研究結果以單一個案的方式呈現。第二個步驟為混合性個案分析，也就是四個個案之研究結果於相互比較之後，進一步呈現其同異處。

本研究之主要發現如下：第一、大體上而言四位英語實習教師皆清楚地了解自己在文法教學相關議題的認知（即文法教學的角色、文法教學的方式、文法教學的內容、文法教學的時間、以及針對學生文法錯誤的糾正方式）。第二、本研究發現這些實習教師於實習前後，其對於文法教學認知的議題有大約 40% 的改變，約有 60% 的認知保持不變。而在這些認知改變之中，又以實習教師在文法教學時間之相關議題上的改變最為明顯。第三、總體而言，實習教師在實際課堂教學較傾向於傳統式文法教學，因其於實際文法教學上使用大量的反覆練習模式、演譯文法教學、中文教學以及文法術語。第四，研究結果進一步顯示，這些實習

教師大部分的文法教學認知與實際課堂教學不一致。其中又以文法教學內容以及學生文法錯誤糾正方式這兩方面差異處最大。最後，影響這些實習教師實際課堂教學的因素包含學生學習情形、實習教師之教學環境以及實習教師之個人學習經驗等三大種類。

根據以上之研究結果，本研究進一步提供以下方式來協助實習教師之學習。第一、於實習期間，實習教師的輔導老師與師培指導老師須建立溝通管道，以協助實習教師在實際課堂上履行他們對於教學的認知。第二、實習學校需致力於改善教學環境以提供實習教師一個良好的學習情境。第三、師培中心之授課教師可於實習教師實習前，協助他們預先了解未來可能影響其實際課堂教學的因素。第四、師培中心可以進一步提供以下措施以協助實習教師之專業成長：(1)定期舉辦返校聚會以幫助實習教師察覺自我文法教學認知，(2)指導實習教師定期參與教學工作坊，(3)鼓勵實習教師參加教師學習社群，以及(4)要求實習教師經常反思自我的教學。

關鍵字：文法教學、實習教師的認知、實習教師的認知發展、實習教師的實際課堂教學

A Study of Preservice EFL Teachers' Cognition and Practices toward Grammar Instruction in Junior High Schools

ABSTRACT

Although researchers have investigated the essence of language teachers' cognition in grammar teaching and its relationship to instructional practices, studies regarding preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition and practices are conspicuously limited. This study hence aims to investigate preservice EFL teachers' cognition and their instructional practices about grammar instruction in junior high schools. This study in particular is concerned with these teacher subjects' cognition development, the relationship between their grammar teaching cognition and classroom practices as well as the potential factors influencing these teacher subjects' instructional practices.

Relying on triangulation mixed-method approach (Creswell, 2007), this study collected multiple data from various stakeholders to explore preservice EFL teachers' learning to teach grammar. The central participants were four preservice teachers who conducted their practicum in three different junior high schools. Also included were these teacher subjects' mentors and their students. Multiple data collected from the preservice teachers were a close-ended questionnaire, focus group interviews, classroom observations with the researcher's fieldnotes, and stimulated recall interviews. In addition, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the preservice teachers' mentors, and these teacher subjects' students were invited to fill in a close-ended questionnaire. Data analysis contained two levels: (1) within-case level, in which the data related to individual preservice teacher were analyzed as a separate case, and (2) cross-case level, in which findings of four cases were compared to find the similarities or differences, if any.

The major findings of this study were summarized as follows. First, the four teacher subjects clearly recognized their own grammar teaching cognition concerning the issues embedded in the role, approach, content, and time of grammar instruction as well as grammatical error treatment. Second, around 40% obvious changes were found in the preservice teachers' grammar teaching cognition before and after the practicum, although they kept 60% cognition unchanged. Among the changes, these teacher subjects' cognition regarding time issue of grammar instruction varied the most. Third, the teacher subjects' grammar teaching appeared traditional, as shown in their employment of repetitive practices and deductive teaching approach as well as their frequent use of Chinese and grammatical terms. Fourth, a great number of inconsistencies were found between these teacher subjects' grammar teaching cognition and practices. Mostly, the divergences were found in the categories of grammar teaching content and grammatical error treatment. Finally, these teacher subjects' grammar instruction was influenced by the factors in relation to student learning issues, preservice teachers' working environment, and personal prior learning experiences.

Based on the above findings, several suggestions were proposed to foster preservice teachers' learning to teach. First, mentors and university supervisors may build a communication channel in order to help preservice teachers put their cognition into practices during their practicum. Second, practicum schools should improve the contextual factors for the sake of providing preservice teachers a better learning environment. Third, instructors of preservice training courses should help preservice teachers acknowledge the possible factors influencing their classroom practices before they start the practicum. Fourth, teacher education programs may take the following measures to assist preservice teachers' professional development: (1) holding regular meetings to make student teachers aware of their teaching cognition, (2) educating

student teachers to attend teaching workshops regularly, (3) encouraging student teachers to join teacher learning communities, and (4) requiring student teachers to take part in reflection awakening.

Key words: grammar instruction, preservice teachers' cognition, preservice teachers' cognition development, preservice teachers' classroom practices

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CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

Learning to teach is a long-term, complex, developmental process that operates through participation in the social practices and contexts associated with learning and teaching. (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 402)

The process of learning to teach is highly complex, which places heavy cognition and performance demands on preservice teachers (Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997). As Borko and Putnam (1996) indicated, preservice teachers have to acquire a wide range of knowledge and skills before they are qualified to enter the teaching profession, such as classroom management skills, students learning problems, subject matter knowledge, and other issues of concern to teachers. To prepare preservice teachers to tackle such complex tasks, researchers have investigated many issues regarding teacher education and subsequent professional development, such as teacher cognition, teachers' knowledge growth, and teachers' pedagogical development (e.g. Burn, Hagger, & Mutton, 2003; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Schepens, Aelterman, & Keer, 2007; Shkedi & Laron, 2004). Among these issues, the importance of teacher cognition has been highlighted (e.g. Clark & Peterson, 1986; Peterson, Fennema, Carpenter, & Loef, 1989; Shavelson & Stern, 1981).

As scholars have perennially verified, teachers' classroom practices are guided by teacher cognition (e.g. Borg, 1999c; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Pajares, 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Richardson, 1996; Woods, 1996). Pajares (1992), in particular, argued that what teachers know, believe, and think may influence their perceptions and judgments, which in turn affects their behavior in the classroom. Therefore, understanding teachers' and preservice teachers' cognition is essential to improve their professional preparation and teaching practices (Borg, 2006).

In the field of language education, a bank of studies have investigated teacher

cognition in various instructional skills (e.g. Chou, 2008; El-Okda, 2005; Hsu, 2005; Johnson, 1992b; 1994; Liao, 2004; Peacock, 2001; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Wu, 2002). Grammar instruction is one of the major topics being discussed (e.g. Andrews, 1999; 2001; 2003b; Borg, 1999b; 2003b; Burgess & Etherington, 2002; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Hsieh, 2005; Hsu, 2007; Lai, 2004). As Borg (1999a) indicated, grammar instruction clearly constitutes an ill-defined domain in English language teaching. That is, the role of grammar teaching itself has generated considerable debate. For example, research findings suggested that no consensus has been reached concerning whether teachers' grammar instruction facilitates students' language learning (e.g. Brown, 2007; Celce-Murcia, 1991; Ellis, 2006; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004; Swan, 2002). Moreover, more than twenty years of studies have failed to yield certain guidelines for grammar instruction methodology (Borg, 1999a; Ellis, 1994). When, what and how to implement grammar instruction have been argued by researchers (e.g. Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2002; 2004; 2006; Larsen-Freeman, 2001; 2002; Lightbown, 1998; Williams & Evans, 1998). With this concern, Borg (1999a) proposed that investigating how teachers and preservice teachers resolve the many uncertainties that surround their own grammar teaching can help us understand the nature of teachers' theories in English teaching.

Background of the Study

To improve Taiwanese students' English language proficiency, the Ministry of Education of Taiwan (MOE) has promoted the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach in English classrooms in junior and senior high schools since the English curriculum reform was promulgated in 2001. Contrasted with traditional English teaching and learning which emphasize learners' knowledge of grammatical features, CLT focuses on developing students' ability of using language appropriately

in context (Savignon & Wang, 2003). As indicated by Brown (2007), activities in CLT classrooms help students develop communicative competence, and students are encouraged to interact with others. Under the CLT principles, linguistic features should be taught in the context in which learners' primary focus is on meaningful communication (Canale & Swain, 1980).

Yet, the implementation of CLT has encountered certain challenges in Taiwan because of the discrepancy between traditional English teaching and CLT (Cheng, 2002; Savignon & Wang, 2003). One of the central problems is that the inconsistency between teachers' perceptions of CLT and their actual in-class behaviors is revealed due to the difficulties teachers have had in defining and redefining their roles in CLT classrooms (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). To put it differently, English language education in Taiwan has been dominated by textbook-oriented, teacher-centered, and grammar-translation methods with great emphasis on rote memory in the past three decades (Rao, 2002), which differs from the communicative teaching approach. It has been found that while English teachers spoke highly of CLT, in their practices, they resorted to traditional grammar teaching (Hsu, 2007). This stance echoed Thornbury's (1998) viewpoint, suggesting that many English teachers in ESL and EFL contexts have never abandoned a grammar-driven approach though CLT has been promoted as the mainstream in language education.

In addition to the above dilemmas and challenges, ESL/EFL English language teachers may encounter other difficulties identified in previous literature when they try to implement CLT approach in grammar instruction. Such difficulties can be attributed to the influence of preservice teachers' prior schooling experiences (e.g. Freeman, 1992; Kennedy, 1990), students' various learning needs (e.g. Graden, 1996; Johnson, 1992a, Richards, 1996), teaching contexts (e.g. Andrews, 2003b; Farrell & Lim, 2005), and mentors' influence (e.g. Liu, 2005), among others. If language

teachers' primary duty is to educate the next generation, it is paramount for researchers around the world to explore what ESL/EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition is and how they actually teach grammar in CLT classrooms.

Statement of the Problem

Considering the potential connection between teacher cognition and practices, researchers have explored the relationship between teacher cognition and practices regarding grammar instruction (e.g. Borg, 1999b; 2003b; Hsieh, 2005; Hsu, 2007; Lai, 2004; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Although previous studies have investigated the essence of language teachers' cognition in grammar teaching and its relationship to instructional practices, more complete descriptive studies are limited in ESL or EFL contexts (Borg, 1999b). In Taiwan, despite the fact that some relevant studies have been carried out (e.g. Hsieh, 2005; Hsu, 2007; Lai, 2004), participants in these studies were inservice or experienced EFL teachers. Preservice EFL teachers' cognition of grammar instruction has heretofore been neglected, let alone how they develop that cognition, and how they teach grammar in real classrooms.

In addition, a review of the literature on language teacher cognition and practices regarding grammar instruction shows that most of the previous studies relied on interview and observation data collected exclusively from language teachers to construct the research findings (e.g. Borg, 1998b; 1999c; 2001; 2005; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Hsieh, 2005). That is, the extant research findings were concluded based on limited data collection methods and a single data source (i.e. language teachers).

Therefore, this study attempts to investigate preservice EFL teachers' cognition and practices toward grammar instruction, which is conspicuously absent in the literature. To enhance the validity as well as to remove the single voice from teachers' perspectives, this study is designed to draw a more descriptive, if not complete,

picture of preservice EFL teachers' learning to teach grammar by employing multiple data collection methods and involving multiple stakeholders' perspectives.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

In broad terms, this study aims to investigate preservice EFL teachers' cognition and practices regarding grammar instruction in Taiwanese junior high schools. This investigation in particular is concerned with these preservice teachers' cognition development, the relationship between their cognition and grammar teaching practices, and the possible factors influencing these preservice teachers' classroom practices as well. It is expected that the findings of this study can contribute to a more descriptive understanding of how these preservice teachers develop their cognition about grammar instruction and how they teach grammar in real classrooms.

The present study hence begins to address the following research questions:

1. What is preservice EFL teachers' cognition about grammar instruction before and after their practicum in junior high schools?
2. What changes, if any, occur in preservice EFL teachers' cognition about grammar instruction over their practicum in junior high schools?
3. How do preservice EFL teachers conduct grammar instruction in real classroom settings during their practicum in junior high schools?
4. To what extent does preservice EFL teachers' cognition correspond to their instructional practices on grammar instruction in junior high schools?
5. What are the factors influencing the consistency of preservice EFL teachers' cognition and their instructional practices on grammar instruction?

Definition of Terms

The terms used throughout this thesis are defined as follows:

1. Teacher cognition

Based on Kagan's (1990) definition, teacher cognition in this study refers to "pre- or inservice teachers' self-reflections; beliefs and knowledge about teaching, student, and content; and awareness of problem-solving strategies endemic to classroom teaching" (p. 419).

2. Preservice teachers' cognition development

According to Sendan and Roberts (1998), preservice teachers' cognition development is defined as "a process in which new information and new experiences lead student teachers to add to, reflect upon and restructure their ideas in a progressive, complex and non-linear way, leading towards clearer organization of their personal theories into thematically distinct clusters of ideas" (p. 241). Therefore, preservice teachers' cognition development is not a simple process of compiling new ideas (Sendan & Roberts, 1998).

3. Grammar teaching (i.e. form-focused instruction)

The definition of grammar teaching in this study is based on Ellis' (2006) definition. According to Ellis (2006), grammar teaching "involves any instructional technique that draws learners' attention to some specific grammatical forms in such a way that it helps them either to understand it metalinguistically and/or process it in comprehension and/or production so that they can internalize it" (p. 84).

4. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Based on the principles proposed by Brown (2007), classroom goals for CLT focus on all of the components (i.e. grammatical, discourse, functional, sociolinguistic, and strategic) of communicative competence; hence, the purpose of classroom activities is to help students develop the ability to communicate in real-life situations.

Fluency and accuracy are the complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. Besides, in the CLT classrooms, students are encouraged to construct meaning through interaction with others and are given chances to focus on their own learning process (Brown, 2007).

5. Instructional practices

In the current study, instructional practices mean preservice EFL teachers' grammar instruction in real language classrooms over their semester-long practicum in public or private junior high schools.

Significance of the Study

This study has great potential to provide a more descriptive investigation on preservice EFL teachers' cognition and instructional practices toward grammar instruction in junior high schools. Also included are these preservice teachers' cognition development, the relationship between these preservice teachers' cognition and their practices, and the possible factors influencing their practices. This study is significant in both the pedagogical and research fields.

In the pedagogical field, this study contributes in two dimensions. First, it has been suggested that research on teacher cognition can engage teachers in a form of reflective learning, by making teachers aware of the psychological bases of their classroom practices (Clark & Lampert, 1986). The preservice teachers participating in this study were given the opportunities to examine their own grammar teaching cognition and practices and further to probe the convergence and divergence between their cognition and practices. In so doing, the preservice teachers had a chance to reflect on both their cognition and their teaching and possibly to improve their teaching profession. Second, the results of this study have the potential to reveal the possible factors causing inconsistencies in or differences between preservice EFL

teachers' cognition and practices. If any discrepancies occur, it may suggest that preservice EFL teachers encountered problems or difficulties as they were teaching grammar in language classrooms. Hence, the present study can reflect the current state of English teaching education courses in Taiwan and provide suggestions to the field.

Regarding the research field, this study may contribute to fill in the gap of extant literature. As previously mentioned, studies on teacher cognition and practices relating to grammar teaching in Taiwan have focused primarily on inservice teachers, and preservice EFL teachers' perspectives have been neglected. This study therefore can serve as a reference in this field. Furthermore, this study employs multiple data collection methods and gathers multiple perspectives derived from preservice EFL teachers as well as their mentors and students. In so doing, the research results would be more valid compared to previous studies which relied on observation and interview data collected solely from language teachers.

CHAPTER TWO REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Teacher cognition has received much research attention in the field of general education over the past three decades. By the beginning of the 1970s, researchers had come to understand that teaching was a thoughtful behavior and teachers were active thinking decision-makers who processed diverse information in the classroom (Borg, 2006). Following the notion that knowledge and beliefs exert a strong influence on human action, it has been suggested that understanding the ways teachers think would shed lights on the processes of teaching and learning (Borg, 2006; Calderhead, 1996; Clark & Peterson, 1986). This perspective has attracted researchers' attention in the fields of teacher cognition and teacher instructional practice.

As mentioned in Chapter One (see p. 6), teacher cognition is defined as preservice or inservice teachers' beliefs, knowledge, and awareness about teaching, students, and problem-solving strategies embedded in the teaching context (Kagan, 1990). It is commonly held that teacher cognition is an umbrella term which is composed of teachers' knowledge and teachers' beliefs (Calderhead, 1996). Respectively, teachers' beliefs are "teachers' attitudes about education—about schooling, teaching, learning, and students" (Pajares, 1992, p. 316), while teachers' knowledge is taken to represent "factual propositions and the understandings that inform skillful action" (Calderhead, 1996, p. 715).

The purpose of this chapter is to review the research conducted in the field of teacher cognition. Previous literature in terms of teachers' beliefs and teachers' knowledge are parts of the review in order to contribute to a more complete overview of this research area. Moreover, previous studies reviewed in this chapter are not delimited in the aspect of preservice teachers. Pertinent studies related to inservice teachers' cognition and practices concerning grammar instruction are also included

due to the limitation of the extant literature about what the preservice teachers thought and how they taught grammar. The first section reviews research on teacher cognition and teaching practices in various disciplines. The second section focuses more closely on studies of language teachers' cognition about grammar instruction. Finally, the relationship between language teachers' cognition and pedagogical practices of grammar instruction is elaborated.

Research on Teacher Cognition and Teaching Practices

This section comprises four parts. The first part explores the nature of teacher cognition from two perspectives: features of teacher cognition and the formation of teacher cognition. The second part reviews the literature regarding the relationship between teacher cognition and teaching practices. Empirical evidences of convergence and divergence between teacher cognition and teaching practices are addressed in the third part. Finally, an overview of the factors influencing the consistency between teacher cognition and teaching practice is presented.

The Nature of Teacher Cognition

Features and Characteristics of Teacher Cognition

Scholars and researchers have made assumptions and propositions as to the features and characteristics that teacher cognition encompasses in general (e.g. Borg, 2006; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). After analyzing the concepts revealed in teacher cognition research, Borg (2006) suggested a number of characteristics to illustrate the essence of teacher cognition, including personal, practical, tacit, systematic, and dynamic systems. According to Borg (2006), teacher cognition can be characterized as “an often tacit, personally-held, practical system of mental constructs held by teachers and which are dynamic –i.e. defined and refined on the basis of educational

and professional experiences throughout teachers' lives" (p. 35).

In addition, Nespor (1987) identified four features concerning teachers' beliefs: 1) existential presumption, 2) alternativity, 3) affective and evaluated aspects, and 4) episodic storage. According to Nespor, existential presumption represents that teachers' belief systems often contain assumptions about the existent or non-existent entities. For instance, a teacher may believe that a student who does not study hard will not perform well in his or her school works. Alternativity indicates that teachers' belief systems sometimes involve a state which significantly differs from the reality. Teachers, for example, sometimes tend to create an ideal teaching context they have never encountered as pupils. Affective and evaluative aspects represent that teachers' belief systems encompass the elements of feelings, emotions, and moods. A teacher's emotions and feelings may have an impact on his/her decisions about what part of the content should be covered, how it should be covered, and how much time should be expended on it. Finally, episodic storage refers to how teachers attempt to build their belief systems based on their previous life experiences, both positive and negative. For example, a teacher may try to build a friendly learning environment which he or she experienced as a pupil. This feature was acknowledged by Pajares (1992) who addressed that teachers' prior experiences have a strong influence on their final judgments. He further indicated that a belief formed earlier may subsequently affect the perception and the processing of new information.

In sum, teacher cognition is a mental and dynamic construct. Teachers may actively define and redefine their own cognition as they accumulate teaching experience. It is also suggested that the formation of teacher cognition involves various components, such as prior life experiences and professional experiences, which may in turn affect teachers' perceptions of new information and further influence their classroom practices. In this study, these features were served as the

basis of analyzing preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition.

Formations of Teacher Cognition

Researchers have identified a number of issues influencing the formation of both inservice and preservice teachers' cognition (e.g. Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997; Knowles, 1992; Lortie, 1975; Olson & Singer, 1994; Richardson, 1996; Tillema, 2000; Wu, 2006). The first issue is teachers' prior learning experiences. As suggested by Lortie (1975), teachers' learning experiences act as an "apprenticeship of observation," representing that teachers arrive in teacher education programs with a set of deep-seated beliefs about the nature of teaching based on their own experiences as students. Empirically, Olson and Singer (1994) examined two inservice reading teachers' beliefs in a secondary school and concluded that teachers' beliefs were strongly influenced by their prior schooling experiences. For instance, one of the teachers stated that what she did for students was a reflection of what she had been taught as a pupil. Similarly, after conducting case studies of four preservice teachers, Knowles (1992) found that previous learning experiences had an impact on the preservice teachers' conceptions about the role of teachers. Likewise, Johnson (1994) discovered that preservice ESL teachers' beliefs were based on their images of their own formal and informal language learning experiences.

The second issue entails the formal knowledge that teachers acquire through formal education in the subjects they teach. As indicated by Richardson (1996), this knowledge encompasses teachers' conceptions or beliefs regarding the subject matter and how students learn it. The assumption that formal knowledge has an impact on inservice and preservice teachers' cognition has been supported by researchers (e.g. John, 1991; Leinhardt, 1988; Richardson, 1996; Wu, 2006). For example, Wu (2006) argued that inservice teachers with formal knowledge of their subject matter may have

beliefs that differ from teachers without this knowledge. Moreover, after observing the processes of five British preservice teachers' learning to teach, John (1991) found that these preservice teachers' conception about their subject matter had a great influence on their views of lesson planning.

The third issue is pedagogical knowledge teachers acquire from teacher training programs. According to Richardson (1996), pedagogical knowledge "relates to the practice of teaching and includes topics such as classroom management, models of teaching, and classroom environment" (p. 106). Empirical studies have shown that pedagogical knowledge and professional training provided by teacher training programs are considered as a solid base for inservice and preservice teachers' instructional belief systems (e.g. Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Grossman, 1990; Grossman & Richert, 1988; Halbach, 2000; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Richardson, 1996). For example, in Grossman's (1990) study, the findings revealed that three inservice teachers who had attended professional courses shared similar views about language teaching, whereas another three who had no professional training showed widely different conceptions toward language teaching. In addition, Grossman suggested that those who had received pedagogical instruction attributed their conceptions to the input offered by the teacher education programs. Similar evidence was also found in Mattheoudakis' (2007) study, in which the major finding indicated that preservice teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching in Greece gradually developed after participating in teacher training programs.

The fourth issue is teachers' personalities and personal experiences. As indicated by Richards and Lockhart (1994), a teacher's personality contributed to the development of teacher cognition. In their study, for example, one extroverted teacher with an outgoing personality believed in the use of role play in teaching conversational skill. According to Richardson (1996), personal experiences, such as

the understanding of schooling, society, or culture, were believed to have an impact on the accumulation of inservice and preservice teachers' cognition. This view was buttressed by Bullough and Knowles' (1991) case study which showed that a participating novice teacher's metaphor for "teaching as nurturing" came from years of parenting.

The fifth issue concerns personal reflections. As presented by Calderhead and Shorrock (1997), regular personal reflection can help teachers to analyze, discuss, evaluate and change their own practices, to make teachers aware of the contexts in which they work, and to empower teachers to control over their own professional development. Studies have shown that personal reflection influences preservice teachers' cognitive formation (e.g. Johnston, 1992; Stuart & Thurlow, 2000; Tillema, 2000). For example, to challenge preservice teachers' long-held beliefs regarding the nature of mathematics, Stuart and Thurlow (2000) offered various activities to prompt preservice teacher to reflect on their teaching. A major finding of the study revealed that the preservice teachers came to consciously understand and re-examine the effects of their beliefs on the decisions they make about classroom practices.

In addition to the influence issues mentioned above, the formation of teachers' cognition is also influenced by outside factors, such as school context and students' expectations. Findings in Pennington and Richards' study (1977) uncovered that constricted teaching contexts, such as large class size and lack of classroom discipline, made inservice and preservice teachers stray away from the beliefs they acquired from their teacher education programs and adopt a more traditional way of instruction. Furthermore, Eisenstein-Ebsworth and Schweers (1997) proposed that students' expectations were viewed as a factor influencing teacher cognition toward grammar instruction. That is, teachers might alter their instructional activities in reaction to students' expectations.

Finally, specific to preservice teachers, the mentors' effect has been considered an important issue of influence in the development of preservice teachers' cognition during instructional practicum (e.g. Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997; Nettle, 1998; Philippou & Charalambous, 2005). As claimed by Calderhead and Shorrock (1997), mentors are often the primary teachers who offer advice and feedback to preservice teachers' teaching practices; furthermore, mentors are the teachers who guide preservice teachers in identifying the weaknesses in their practices and directing their teaching. An empirical study conducted by Nettle (1998) revealed that preservice teachers' beliefs about teaching changed after a period of practice teaching, and such changes were influenced by mentors' beliefs during the practicum. Likewise, Philippou and Charalambous (2005) reached a similar conclusion, indicating that mentors could influence the formation of preservice teachers' cognition in teaching mathematics through their own teaching style, the feedback they provided to preservice teachers, and the potential messages they implicitly conveyed to preservice teachers.

Relationship between Teacher Cognition and Practices

Teachers' thought processes, knowledge, and beliefs are interrelated in the process of teaching (Borg, 1999c; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Pajares, 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Richardson, 1996; Woods, 1996). To wit, teacher cognition plays an important role in their visible and observable behaviors. As Clark and Peterson (1986) found, teacher behavior is influenced and determined by teachers' thinking process. Pajares (1992) also argued that the theories teachers hold "influence their perceptions and judgments, which in turn, affect their behavior in the classroom" (p. 370). In the field of language education, this notion was reiterated by Richards and Lockhart (1994) with a more specific statement indicating that "what teachers do is a reflection

of what they know and believe, and that teacher knowledge and ‘teacher thinking’ provide the underlying framework or schema which guides the teacher’s classroom actions” (p. 29). Correspondingly, Woods (1996) noted 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). It appears that teachers’ behaviors in the classrooms are products of their cognition.

Along with the increasing attention to the relationship between teacher cognition and teaching practices, researchers have addressed the phenomena about how teachers’ instructional decisions and classroom practices are certainly guided by their cognition (e.g. Johnson, 1999; Pajares, 1992; Thompson, 1992). Thompson (1992) claimed that “teachers beliefs appear to act as filters through which teachers interpret and ascribe meanings to their experiences as they interact with learners and the subject matter” (pp.138-139). Namely, teacher cognition acts as an important mediator when teachers conduct their teaching practices (Kangan, 1992; Pajares, 1992). It was further suggested that as soon as teacher cognition is formed, teachers tend to construct explanations to their cognitions, regardless of whether such explanations are correct or not (Johnson, 1999; Pajares, 1992). Under this assumption, teachers usually try to make their own teaching become congruent with their cognition (Nisbett & Ross, 1980).

The relationship between cognition and teaching practices is neither linear nor unidirectional though what teachers choose to do in their classroom practices could be guided by their cognition (Borg, 2006; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Shavelson & Stern, 1981). After reviewing previous studies, Shavelson and Stern (1981) proposed a conceptual model regarding the relationship between teachers’ thinking, judgments, decisions, and behavior (see Figure 2.1). In their model, a two-way interaction

between teacher cognition and classroom practices was revealed. It implied that teacher cognition was a main source in shaping teachers' behaviors in classrooms; at the same time, classroom events were principal elements which shaped teachers' subsequent cognition (Borg, 2006; Shavelson & Stern, 1981). The interactive relationship between teacher cognition and practices was acknowledged by Clark and Peterson (1986) who argued that what teachers think, know, and believe reciprocally interact with teachers' actions and behaviors. Borg (2006) further provided an explanation of the relationship between teacher cognition and classroom practices,

It is not linear because cognitions and practices may not always concur, due to the mediating influence of contextual factors; and it is not unidirectional because teachers' cognitions themselves are shaped in response to what happens in the classroom. Teaching, then, can be seen as a process which is defined by dynamic interactions among cognition, context and experience. (p. 275)

To summarize, it is significant to recognize the intimate connection between teacher cognition and classroom practices if the proposition is true that teachers are active agents and decision-makers with many techniques at their disposal to help students reach some goals (Shavelson & Stern, 1981). Understanding both inservice and preservice teachers' cognition therefore appears essential to predict and improve their teaching practices (Pajares, 1992).

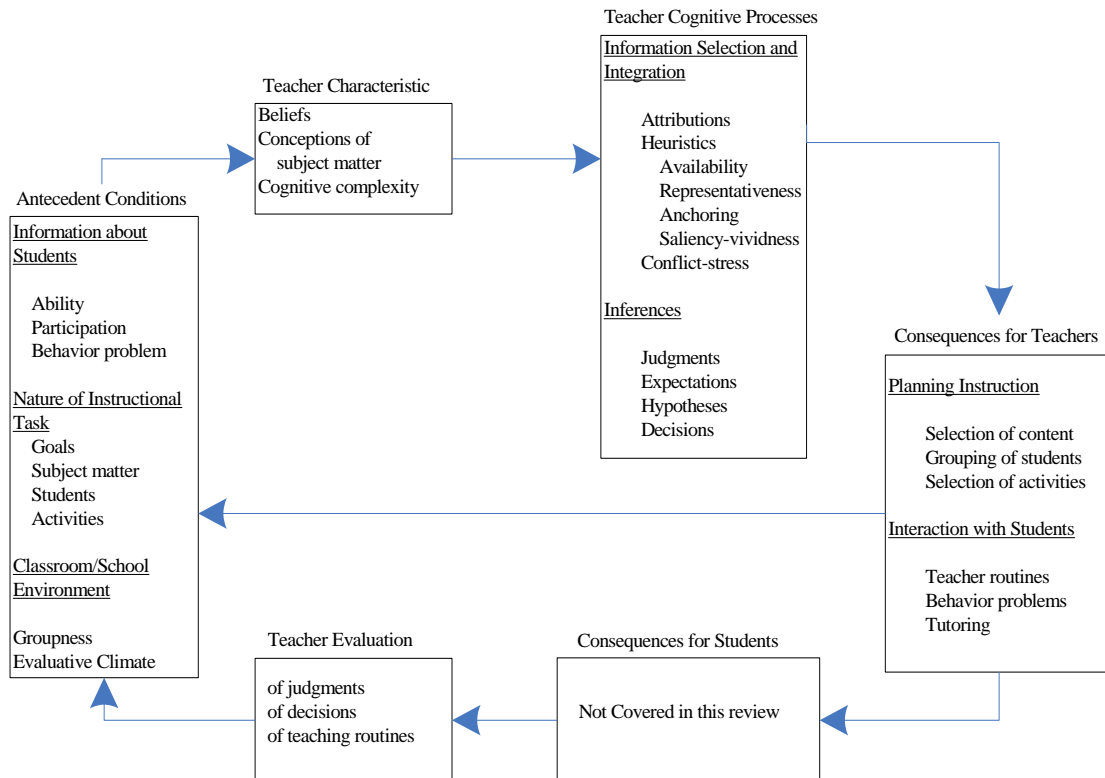


Figure 2.1 Overview of research on teachers' judgments, decisions and behavior (Shavelson and Stern, 1981, p. 461)

Convergence and Divergence between Teacher Cognition and Practices

Relying on the strong connection between teacher cognition and teaching practices, teacher education research has made strides in exploring how teachers' cognition interacts with their practices. Some researchers have suggested that teacher cognition and practices can be always consistent (e.g. Johnson, 1992b; Richardson, Anders, Tidwell, & Lloyd, 1991; Ryu & Spodek, 1996). In the field of general education, Ryu and Spodek (1996) used interviews and observations to examine the relationship between three inservice teachers' beliefs of facilitating children's peer relationships and the actions these teachers took to encourage positive peer interactions. Data analysis revealed that the teachers believed their most important goal was to help students become socially autonomous. The results further showed a consistency between what these teachers believed and how they behaved.

Similar evidence was yielded by Richardson et al's (1991) study. They employed interviews and observations to elicit 39 elementary school teachers' beliefs about the teaching of reading comprehension and to identify those teachers' practices toward reading comprehension instruction. The findings suggested that these teachers' beliefs were related to their classroom practices and it was able to predict the teachers' specific classroom behaviors on the basis of the analyses of their articulated beliefs. For example, the teachers who believed that teaching vocabulary helped students comprehend the reading passage inclined to teach vocabulary in classrooms, and those who thought that oral reading was vital to students' reading comprehension tended to read the texts aloud for students in classrooms.

In the field of language education, Johnson's (1992b) study echoed the above findings. Employing an instructional protocol, a lesson plan analysis task, a belief inventory, and classroom observations, Johnson investigated 30 ESL teachers' beliefs and practices about L2 learning and teaching which reflected the methodological divisions of skill-based, rule-based, and function-based approaches toward L2 teaching. The results showed that the majority of participating teachers held clearly defined beliefs which consistently reflected one of the methodological divisions. Furthermore, the observation data depicted that the teachers' classroom practices were found to be congruent with what they believed. For instance, one of the teachers who believed in skill-based approaches focused on decoding skills and depended on fill-in-the-blank and short answer exercises in teaching reading and writing.

Despite the fact that the above studies suggested a consistent relationship between teacher cognition and practices, other researchers have found discrepancies between the two (e.g. Chen, 2005; Duffy & Anderson, 1984; Fang, 1996; Graden, 1996; Kennedy & Kennedy, 1996; Nien, 2002). In the field of general education, Schön (1983) claimed that there is always a difference between what teachers say they

believe and the ways they behave though the discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and practices is not expected. In a similar vein, Duffy and Anderson (1984) noted that although teachers teaching reading could clearly articulate their cognition about reading instruction, their teaching practices were actually guided by the nature of teaching context and classroom environment.

Moreover, in language education, Graden (1996) investigated six experienced ESL teachers' beliefs about effective L2 reading instruction. After completing a comparison between those teachers' beliefs about reading instruction and their instructional practices, the researchers found three areas of inconsistency. Specifically, all six participating teachers believed that 1) reading proficiency was facilitated by offering students frequent chances for reading practice, 2) the use of the target language was preferable for reading instruction, and 3) oral reading interfered with reading comprehension. Yet, in practices, these teachers compromised their beliefs because of certain student factors. Because of students' low motivation and proficiency level, these teachers did not force students to read, and they also increased the use of L1 and provided students chances for oral reading. This result revealed strong evidence of the inconsistency between teacher cognition and classroom practices.

In Taiwan, Chen (2005) and Nien (2002) also provided similar findings to support the incongruent nature between teacher cognition and their teaching practices in the EFL context. In Chen's (2005) study, four EFL junior high teachers' beliefs and practices about vocabulary instruction were explored and the findings indicated that several discrepancies were found between these teachers' beliefs and their actual teaching regarding vocabulary instruction. For instance, one of the teachers in the study believed that students should be asked to look-up new words in the dictionary, yet none dictionary look-up activity was found in the teacher's practices. Nien (2002)

explored an EFL senior high teacher's beliefs and practices toward CLT and found three inconsistencies: 1) the participant highly believed in CLT, yet she applied a mixture of traditional methods in her practices, 2) the participant utilized an average of 70-80% of English instead of using all English instruction, and 3) the participant spent a large proportion of time developing students' basic linguistic ability instead of focusing on other competences, such as discourse and functional skills.

To sum up, how teachers' knowledge and beliefs interact with their actual teaching is a controversial issue in teacher cognition research. The empirical studies mentioned above showed that the extent of the congruency or discrepancy between teacher cognition and practices had not received a final conclusion. Yet, the above studies suggested there is a certain degree of association between teacher cognition and practices. Furthermore, previous studies which support the view of the inconsistent nature between teacher cognition and practices have identified specific factors that may influence teachers' pedagogical practices. The possible factors illustrated in previous studies are reviewed in the following section.

Factors Influencing the Convergence between Teacher Cognition and Practices

Due to the complex nature of teaching and teaching contexts, a considerable number of factors restrict teachers' instruction as teachers try to execute their cognition in actual classroom teaching (see Table 2.1 for a summary). In total, twenty-two factors identified by previous studies are classified into three major categories, including 1) student learning issues, 2) teachers' working environment, and 3) teacher-related issues. The student learning issues are further divided into ten sub-categories: proficiency level, motivation/involvement, grade level, comprehension, learning style, gender, reaction, affective need, special need, and classroom management. Regarding teachers' working environment, it can be divided

into eight sub-categories: teaching schedule, limited instructional hours, limited resources, large class size, institution expectation, teaching material, school exams, and mentors' effect. Teacher-related issues encompass the following sub-categories: previous teachers' instruction, prior teaching experience, prior learning experience, and personality.

First of all, of the ten sub-categories in student learning issues, students' proficiency levels and motivation were most frequently identified by previous studies. It is often found that teachers usually teach in different ways to meet students' diverse proficiency levels. Teachers also adjust their instructional methods in order to motivate students. Second, among the eight sub-categories embedded in teachers' working environment, teaching syllabus, limited instructional hours, and school exams were the three most often recognized in previous literature. Researchers believed that teachers change their instructional decisions to promote the progress of the lesson. Teachers also do not employ certain methods of instruction or perhaps change their teaching methods in order to accommodate limited instructional hours. Furthermore, previous research has shown that teachers spend a lot of time developing students' basic linguistic ability in order to prepare students for exams and are unable to actualize their teaching ideal. Third, regarding teacher-related issues, researchers have suggested that the instruction conducted by previous teachers of the classes, teachers' prior learning and teaching experiences, and teachers' personalities may create an incongruence between teacher cognition and practices. These four sub-categories were more relevant to the teachers themselves than the teaching context and classroom environment. To take one factor as an example, although a teacher considers a certain teaching method good, he or she might not implement it in the real class because of his or her personality.

All things considered, previous literature has recognized a variety of factors that

may prevent teachers from carrying out their stated cognition. To some degree, those factors reflect the difficulties or problems that teachers encounter in their classroom practices (Hsu, 2007). Identifying those difficulties therefore may help researchers and policy makers recognize the problems embedded in current junior high English education. Provided that researchers or policy makers acknowledge those difficulties, they could propose further policies to cope with those problems and promote educational reform (Fullan, 2007). The above perceived factors recognized by previous literature were used as a reference to help the present researcher examine the factors influencing preservice teachers' practices in high school contexts.

Table 2.1

Factors Influencing the Consistency between Teacher Cognition and Practices

Factors	Sources	Major Findings
<i>Student learning issues</i>		
1. Proficiency level	Chang, 2003; Chen, 2005; Chen, 2006; Graden, 1996; Johnson, 1992a; Liao, 2004; Nien, 2002; Wu, 2002	Teachers would teach in different ways to students with different proficiency levels.
2. Motivation/ Involvement	Bailey, 1996; Chang, 2002; Chen, 2005; Johnson, 1992a; Nien, 2002; Richards, 1996	Teachers would adjust their teaching in order to promote students' motivation and involvement.
3. Grade level	Chang, 2003; Chen, 2005	Teachers' perceptions of students' grade level would make them change their instruction.
4. Comprehension	Borg, 1998b; Johnson, 1992a	Teachers' considerations about students' understanding would make them change their instructional decisions.
5. Learning styles	Bailey, 1996	Teachers utilize different ways to teach in order to accommodate students' learning styles.
6. Gender	Chang, 2003; Chen, 2005;	Teachers would make different instructional manners as teaching students with different genders.
7. Reaction	Chang, 2003; Chen, 2005;	Students' different reactions make teachers teach in different ways.
8. Affective needs	Chen, 2005; Johnson, 1992a	Teachers' perceptions of students' mood would lead them to make some changes in their instruction.
9. Special needs	Feryok, 2008; Hsu, 2005	Teachers' cognition and practices might differ significantly because they'd like to meet students' needs.
10. Classroom management	Chen, 2005	Students' discipline would cause the discrepancy between teachers' cognition and their classroom practices.

Table 2.1

*Factors Influencing the Consistency between Teacher Cognition and Practices**(Continue)*

Factors	Sources	Major Findings
<i>Teachers' working environment</i>		
1. Teaching schedule	Andrews, 2003b; Bailey, 1996; Johnson, 1992a; Lee, 2008; Nien, 2002; Richards, 1996, Wu, 2002	Teachers would change their instructional decisions in order to match the progress of the lesson.
2. Limited instructional hour	Chang, 2003; Chen, 2004; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Hsu, 2005; Hsu, 2007; Liao, 2004; Liao, 2003; Nien, 2002	Time constraints would distort teachers' articulated cognition and make them act contrary to their idealized perspectives.
3. Limited resources	Chang, 2003; Feryok, 2008	Schools' limited resources would force teachers to change their instructions.
4. Large class size	Chang, 2001; Hsu, 2005; Liao, 2004; Liao, 2003; Nien, 2002	Large class size (more than 40 students) would prevent teachers from carrying out their espoused cognition.
5. Institution expectations	Feryok, 2008	Institutional expectations would lead teachers stray from their ideal teaching.
6. Teaching materials	Andrews, 2003b; Chen, 2005; Hsu, 2007	Teachers' teaching practices would be deeply influenced by the content and sequences of the textbook used in the schools.
7. School exams/tests	Andrews, 2003b; Chang, 2001; Chang, 2003; Chen, 2005; Feryok, 2008; Hsu, 2005; Liao, 2003; Nien, 2002; Wu, 2002	Teachers had to spend a lot of time developing students' basic linguistic ability in order to prepare them to pass the entrance exams, which prevented teachers from carrying out their ideal teaching.
8. Mentors' effect	Rajuan, Beijaard, & Verloop, 2008; Liu, 2005	Mentors' influence made student teachers stray from their ideal teaching.
<i>Teacher-related issues</i>		
1. Previous teachers' instruction	Chang, 2003	Teachers' practices may be influenced by previous teachers' instruction of the classes.
2. Prior teaching experience	Hsu, 2007	Teachers' prior teaching experiences would make teachers enact from different orientations.
3. Prior learning experience	Bailey et al., 1996; Freeman, 1992; Kennedy, 1990	Teachers' practices would be influenced by the models they have learned as pupils.
4. Personality	Chen, 2004	Teachers' personality would hinder teachers from carrying out their cognition.

Language Teachers' Cognition in Grammar Instruction

In the field of language education, researchers have shown interest in teacher cognition on grammar instruction (e.g. Borg, 1999a, 2003a; 2003b, 2006; Burgess & Etherington, 2002; Chandler, 1988; Eisenstein-Wbsworth & Schweers, 1997). The extant studies are reviewed in the following two sections. The first section describes the research conducted outside Taiwan (see Table 2.2 for a summary). Then, studies conducted in Taiwan are examined in the second section (see Table 2.3 for a summary).

Studies Conducted outside Taiwan

An early study of teacher cognition about grammar instruction was conducted by Chandler (1988) who used a questionnaire to investigate 50 English teachers' cognition about grammar teaching. The results of the study showed that 84 percent of the teachers taught grammar in classrooms and the majority of them claimed that the formation of their grammatical knowledge was influenced by their language learning experiences at schools. In addition, based on the teachers' responses to questions about the importance of knowing about grammar for their work, Chandler concluded that these teachers have insufficient awareness toward the role that grammatical knowledge plays in all aspects of their work.

Eisenstein-Ebsworth and Schweers (1997) used questionnaires to investigate 60 university ESL teachers' grammar teaching cognition in New York and Puerto Rico. Among those teachers, eight received the post-hoc interviews. Results of the study revealed that the majority of teachers in both groups felt grammar should be taught. A closer examination of the results showed that teachers from Puerto Rico were more in favor of conscious grammar instruction than teachers in New York. Moreover, teachers in Puerto Rico tended to use more traditional approaches in grammar

instruction. Finally, teachers in the study recognized that both curriculum design and students' expectations could influence their attitudes towards grammar instruction.

In a case study, Borg (1999a) employed interviews to examine two EFL teachers' cognition about grammar instruction in Malta. Similar to Eisenstein-Ebsworth and Schweers' (1997) study, teachers in this study appreciated the important role of grammar instruction in language teaching because they believed that grammar practices could consolidate students' understanding of grammar and offer teachers diagnostic information about students' needs. Besides, students' expectations and the errors made by students were viewed as the two factors influencing these teachers' decisions in the content of grammar teaching. Furthermore, the teachers thought that learning grammar by discovery and exposition tasks was more effective than learning by deductive approach.

Burgess and Etherington (2002) used a questionnaire to investigate 48 British university teachers' cognition towards the role of grammar and grammar teaching within English for Academic Purpose (EAP) programs. Primary findings showed that these teachers viewed grammar as an important role in language classrooms because grammar instruction helped students produce grammatically correct language. In contrast to Borg's (1999a) study, over 90 percent of the teachers thought that their students were fond of the explicit grammar instruction. In order to meet students' expectations, the majority of teachers taught grammar explicitly. Moreover, student variables were found to have certain influence on teachers' cognition about appropriate grammar teaching approaches.

In Singapore, Chia (2003) used questionnaires to investigate 96 primary school teachers' perspective toward grammar instruction. Similar to Burgess and Etherington's (2002) findings, the major result showed that the teachers preferred to use formal instruction on the basis of explicit and deductive teaching. Furthermore,

teachers in the study also thought that drilling played a central role when teachers conducted grammar instruction.

To sum up, the above studies have exhibited several similarities. First, questionnaires and interviews were the major instruments used to investigate language teachers' cognition about grammar instruction. Second, the majority of participating teachers held positive attitudes toward grammar instruction because they believed that grammar instruction could offer teachers the diagnostic information about students' needs and help students produce grammatically correct language. Third, the teachers' cognition about grammar teaching seemed to be influenced by certain factors, including 1) students' learning expectations, 2) curriculum design, 3) errors made by students, and 4) students' variables. In addition to the commonalities, yet, the teachers' cognition on the appropriate approaches to grammar instruction differed widely. Some teachers in above studies said that discovery and implicit learning was effective in learning grammar, while others believed that teachers should teach grammar explicitly in order to meet students' expectations.

Table 2.2

Summary of Previous Studies on Teacher Cognition Conducted outside Taiwan

Source	Participants	Major findings
Chandler (1988) To investigate teachers' knowledge about grammar teaching	50 teachers of English in the UK	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 84% of the teachers taught grammar in schools. 2. The teachers' main source of grammatical knowledge was from their own language learning experiences at schools. 3. The teachers have insufficient awareness toward the role that grammatical knowledge plays in all aspects of their work.

Table 2.2

*Summary of Previous Studies on Teacher Cognition Conducted outside Taiwan
(Continue)*

Source	Participants	Major findings
Eisenstein-Wbsworth & Schweers (1997) To explore teachers' perspective on conscious grammar instruction	60 university teachers of ESL in New York and Puerto Rico	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A majority of the teachers felt grammar should be taught sometimes. 2. Puerto Rico teachers were more in favor of grammar teaching than teachers from New York. 3. Puerto Rico teachers tended to conduct more traditional approaches in grammar teaching. 4. Both curriculum design and students' expectations influenced the teachers' attitudes towards grammar instruction.
Borg (1999a) To investigate teachers' theories in grammar teaching and based on the findings to provide strategies for teacher development	2 EFL teachers in Malta	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The teachers held positive attitudes toward grammar instruction. 2. Students' expectations and the errors made by students were the factors influencing the teachers' decisions in the content of grammar teaching. 3. The teachers believed that grammar should be learned by discovery and exposition tasks.
Burgess & Etherington (2002) To delve into teachers' perspectives on grammar teaching	48 teachers of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in the UK	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The teachers showed positive attitudes toward grammar instruction. 2. The teachers felt grammar instruction helped students produce grammatically correct language. 3. The majority of teachers tended to teach grammar explicitly in order to meet students' expectations. 4. The teachers' awareness of student variables was the main factor influencing their views about appropriate grammar teaching approaches.
Chia (2003) To probe teachers' beliefs about grammar instruction	96 primary teachers in Singapore	The teachers preferred to teach grammar based on explicit and deductive teaching, and drilling was the most used method.

Studies Conducted in Taiwan

As to the critical role undertaken by teacher cognition in grammar instruction in EFL context, Chen (2000) and Lai (2004) conducted similar studies in Taiwan. Chen (2000) used a questionnaire to examine 20 senior high school English teachers' beliefs about grammar instruction. Teachers in the study acknowledged the importance of grammatical rules in language learning, yet they did not agree with the view that grammar instruction should be the center of English learning. These teachers also thought that grammar rules should be illustrated and taught in a systematic way. Moreover, the teachers tended to adopt both traditional grammar-translation method and communicative language teaching approach reciprocally because they emphasized both native-like grammatical accuracy and fluency in language use. Regardless of the similarities among these teachers' beliefs, the teachers held disparate views about whether students should memorize grammatical rules. Chen (2000) inferred that those who agreed with the memorization of grammar rules might have considered the fact that students need to be prepared for the unified university entrance exam.

Similarly, Lai (2004) adopted a four-point Likert scale questionnaire to explore 199 junior and senior high English teachers' beliefs about grammar instruction. Among the participants, ten were randomly selected to receive a semi-structured telephone interview. Findings revealed that the teachers considered the crucial role that grammar played in English classrooms, but they did not consider grammar instruction as the sole focus in their classrooms. Moreover, those teachers were fond of the traditional teaching methods, such as explicit, deductive, and repetitive practices. Also, the teachers believed that the use of students' mother tongue (i.e. Chinese) in teaching grammar should depend on students' proficiency levels. If students' language proficiency levels are low, the teachers will use Chinese as the

main medium in their grammar instruction. Furthermore, these teachers have shown differing views on the use of grammatical terminology in language classrooms. Junior high teachers in the study disagreed with the use of grammatical terminology in teaching grammar, while senior high teachers strong support for it. Those who favored the use of grammatical terminology believed that using terminology could save time by showing students what teachers were referring to. Finally, contextual factors, such as preparing students for taking entrance exams and students' expectations, were found to be the factors influencing these teachers' cognition in grammar teaching.

From the abovementioned studies, it can be found that most of the inservice teachers in Taiwan held positive attitude toward the role that grammar instruction played in English learning and teaching. Basically, they believed that teaching grammar in classes could help students improve their English reading and writing competences. However, they disagreed with the view of grammar instruction as central to English learning. Entrance exams were considered as the major factor influencing these teachers' cognition in grammar instruction. With regard to how they could prepare their students for unified entrance exams, the teachers possessed different views on specific issues, such as the necessity of memorizing grammatical rules. Finally, although the Ministry of Education (MOE) had advocated communicative language teaching in English classrooms in Taiwan for many years, the majority of English teachers still considered the traditional grammar translation method as their priority of language instruction.

Table 2.3

Summary of Previous Studies on Teacher Cognition Conducted in Taiwan

Source	Participants	Major findings
Chen (2000) To investigate teachers' beliefs towards grammar instruction	20 senior high school English teachers	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The teachers acknowledged the importance of grammatical rules. 2. The teachers held conflicting views on whether students should memorize grammar rules. 3. The teachers adopted both traditional grammar translation method and CLT approach. 4. The teachers stressed both fluency and accuracy in language use.
Lai (2004) To examine teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching	199 junior and senior high English teachers	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The teachers held positive attitudes toward grammar instruction. 2. Teachers in the study were fond of traditional teaching approaches. 3. The teachers believed that the use of students' mother tongue in teaching grammar should depend on students' proficiency levels. 4. Junior high teachers in the study disagreed with the use of grammatical terms as teaching grammar, while senior high teachers agreed with it. 5. Entrance exam pressure, students' expectations and teaching materials were the factors influencing the teachers' cognition in grammar teaching.

Relationship between Language Teachers' Cognition and Practices in Grammar**Instruction**

Researchers have explored the relationship between teacher cognition and teaching practices regarding grammar instruction on the basis of their acknowledgment of the importance of grammar instruction in English teaching (e.g. Borg, 1999b; 1999c; 2001; 2005; Chung, 2008; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Hsieh, 2005; Hsu, 2007; Lee, 2008). The pertinent studies are reviewed in the following two sections. The first section reviews the research conducted outside Taiwan (see Table 2.4 for a summary). Then, studies conducted in Taiwan are examined in the second section (see Table 2.5 for a summary).

Studies Conducted outside Taiwan

In the field of research on the relationship between teacher cognition and pedagogical practices, Borg was one of the influential researchers who underscored the importance of teacher cognition on grammar instruction (Chung, 2008; Hsieh, 2005). Borg (1999b) explored five EFL teachers' cognition and teaching practices regarding grammar teaching in Malta. Employing interviews and observations, Borg discovered that grammar teaching was a "multi-faceted decision-making process" (p. 25). Teachers in the study needed to consider a variety of relevant issues with regard to teaching grammar, such as the structure of grammar lessons, the presentation of grammatical rules, and students' error treatment. Another finding was that the teachers blended inductive and deductive grammar teaching approaches based on specific instructional factors. For instance, one teacher in the study was in favor of encouraging students to discover the grammatical rules by themselves, yet sometimes the teacher directly explained the rules when he felt students were unable to reach the conclusions on their own. Moreover, results further indicated that the teachers' decisions in grammar instruction were influenced by their conflicting cognition. One of the teachers, for example, felt that grammar played a central role in students' English learning; however, the teacher taught grammar rarely because he felt insecure and perplexed at his own knowledge about grammar and was afraid he would not be able to answer students' questions.

In the same year, Borg (1999c) used unstructured classroom observations and semi-structured interviews to examine teacher cognition and classroom practices in the use of grammatical terminology. Findings in this study revealed that the teachers' decisions and pedagogical practices about the use of grammatical terms were influenced by the interaction among experiential, cognitive, and contextual factors. Specifically, three main factors were found to influence the teachers' use of

grammatical terms in classrooms, including 1) teachers' educational and professional experiences, 2) teachers' cognition about students' knowledge of the grammatical terms, and 3) specific instructional contexts. To take one of the factors as an example, students' questions about grammar promoted the teachers to use grammatical terminology; on the other hand, such terminology was avoided when the teachers realized that students were confused by the explanation.

In two related studies, Borg (2001; 2005) further investigated the impact of teachers' knowledge about grammar¹ (KAG) on their classroom practices. Findings from the two studies yielded a similarity: the teachers' self-perception of their knowledge about grammar had an impact on their instructional practices. For instance, one of the teachers was consciously aware of her knowledge about grammar, and she constantly engaged in developing it (Borg, 2005). Relying on this self-perception, the teacher regularly involved students in open, analytical discussions of grammar. In contrast, another teacher perceived the limitations of his knowledge about grammar, so his grammar instruction was infrequent and always pre-planned.

In Singapore, Farrell and Lim (2005) employed interviews and observations in exploring two primary school teachers' beliefs and practices about grammar teaching. Results revealed some divergences between teachers' stated beliefs and their pedagogical practices. Contextual factors and teachers' preference for traditional grammar instruction were the key factors influencing the convergence between these teachers' beliefs and practices. For example, both of the participants claimed that many of their classroom instructional decisions were influenced not only by their beliefs but also by limited instructional hours. Another example was that both teachers indicated that they were enthusiastic about alternative methods of grammar instruction.

¹ Based on Borg (2005), teachers' knowledge about grammar is defined as "the collection of attitudes towards and knowledge about English grammar which teachers possess" (p. 235).

However, because of their strong emotional attachment to traditional grammar teaching and learning methods, the teachers continued to employ traditional grammar teaching approaches in their English classrooms. Such findings echoed those in Borg (1999c; 2001; 2005), which suggested that teachers' instructional practices were influenced by their cognition and instructional contexts.

Likewise, Lee (2008) employed a questionnaire to explore 35 inservice secondary school ESL teachers' beliefs toward grammar teaching in Hong Kong; three of the teachers received post-hoc interviews and observations. Teachers in the study thought form-focused instruction, form-focused feedback and grammar practice were important to students' linguistic development. To a large extent, the teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching were reflected in their instructional practices. For example, one of the teachers who believed that students could benefit more from inductive learning introduced some discovery learning into his grammar teaching. In spite of some consistencies, this study disclosed that sometimes the teachers might not carry out their stated beliefs about grammar teaching in their practices due to the restraints of contextual factors, such as teaching syllabus and learners' preferences.

In a nutshell, observations and interviews were the two main instruments employed by studies mentioned above. These studies suggested that the teachers' classroom decisions and pedagogical practices regarding grammar teaching were influenced by the following factors: 1) the interaction between teachers' educational and professional experiences, 2) teachers' cognition toward students' knowledge about grammar, 3) teachers' self-perception of their knowledge about grammar, and 4) contextual factors, such as limited instructional hours and teaching syllabus.

Table 2.4

Summary of Previous Studies on Relationship between Teacher Cognition and Practices Conducted outside Taiwan

Source	Participants	Major findings
Borg (1999b) To explore teachers' cognition and teaching practices about grammar teaching	5 EFL teachers in Malta	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Grammar teaching was a multi-faceted decision-making process. 2. The participating teachers blended inductive and deductive grammar teaching approaches relying on specific instructional factors. 3. The teachers' decisions in grammar instruction were influenced by their conflicting cognition.
Borg (1999c) To examine teachers' cognition and classroom practices in the use of grammatical terminology	4 EFL teachers in Malta	The teachers' decisions and practices about the use of grammatical terminology were influenced by an interacting range of experiential, cognitive, and contextual factors.
Borg (2001) To delve into teachers' self-perceptions and practices in teaching grammar	2 EFL teachers in Malta	The teachers' self-perception of their knowledge about grammar had an impact on their instructional practices.
Borg (2005) To probe the impact of teachers' knowledge about grammar on their classroom practices	2 EFL teachers in Malta and Hungary	The teachers' awareness of their own knowledge about grammar had an impact on their classroom practices.
Farrell & Lim (2005) To examine teachers' beliefs and practices about grammar teaching	2 experienced primary school teachers in Singapore	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. There were divergences between the teachers' stated beliefs and their classroom practices. 2. Contextual factors and teachers' preference for traditional grammar instruction were the factors influencing these teachers' practices.
Lee (2008) To investigate teachers' beliefs and practices in terms of grammar instruction	35 inservice secondary school ESL teachers in Hong Kong; 3 of them received post-hoc interviews and observations	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The teachers thought form-focused instruction, form-focused feedback and grammar practice were important to students' linguistic development. 2. Most participating teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching were reflected in their practices. 3. Contextual factors sometimes prevented the teachers from carrying out their stated beliefs in their practices.

Studies Conducted in Taiwan

Following the trend of the above studies, a few researchers have started to examine the relationship between teacher cognition and practices in Taiwan (e.g. Chung, 2008; Hsieh, 2005; Hsu, 2007). Hsieh (2005) explored four junior high school English teachers' beliefs and practices about grammar instruction. Employing classroom observations and in-depth interviews, Hsieh concluded that all the participants believed in using self-made handouts and reference books to supplement the grammatical concepts which were ignored in the textbooks. Furthermore, these teachers believed that it would save teachers a lot of time and facilitate students' grammar learning by teaching grammar deductively, combining grammar teaching with other teaching activities, and providing students opportunities to use grammar. The teachers also thought that making students familiar with grammatical terminology could enhance students' English learning and prompt them to analyze the target language on their own. In pedagogical practices, six strategies used by these teachers included: 1) deductive teaching, 2) combining teaching activities, 3) giving students chances to use grammar, 4) mentioning grammatical terms, 5) comparing English and Chinese grammar, and 6) cooperative learning. After comparing teachers' beliefs and their behaviors in classes, Hsieh claimed that teachers' beliefs were highly consistent with their classroom practices.

In her large-scale study, Chung (2008) used a questionnaire and post-hoc interviews to investigate 142 senior high school EFL teachers' beliefs about grammar instruction, their classroom practices, and the relationship between the two. In agreement with Hsieh (2005), the findings suggested that these teachers underscored the importance of grammar instruction even though they did not fully agree with the current grammar teaching (i.e. traditional grammar teaching approach). The teachers had little choice but to accept the current grammar instruction because of the limited

instructional hours and the pressure of preparing students for entrance exams. These teachers also believed that grammar teaching should not occupy most of the instructional hours and should be taught after students have read or listened to the article in the lesson. Finally, these teachers thought the content of grammar teaching should depend on students' proficiency levels and materials. As for pedagogical practices, the teachers employed an analytic approach, used grammatical terms and Chinese most of the time in their grammar instruction. Comparing teachers' beliefs and their practices, Chung concluded that teachers' practices in grammar teaching tended to reflect their beliefs. To a large extent, findings of this study were in agreement with those in Hsieh (2005).

A similar study was conducted by Hsu (2007) who examined two junior high school English teachers' beliefs and practices about grammar instruction and the potential factors affecting the consistency between teachers' beliefs and practices. The major findings showed that these teachers held positive attitudes toward grammar instruction. Distinct from Chung's (2008) and Hsieh's (2005) studies, divergences were found between the teachers' articulated beliefs and instructional practices. For instance, one teacher in the study believed in the use of both inductive and deductive teaching, yet the teacher used only inductive teaching when she was teaching spoken and pronunciation instruction. Hsu further concluded that teaching materials, teachers' teaching experiences, and the limited instructional hours were the three main factors influencing the relationship between these teachers' stated beliefs and their practices.

In general, participants in the studies mentioned above were all inservice English teachers. Findings of the three studies revealed that most of the teachers in Taiwan had positive attitudes toward grammar instruction in English classrooms, as reflected in their use of additional materials to help students understand grammatical concepts that were not covered in the textbook. Moreover, teachers in two of the above studies

believed that grammar instruction should be taught in a traditional way. In spite of the similarities, findings among the three studies uncovered a strong sense of difference. Whereas Hsieh's (2005) and Chung's (2008) studies found that teachers' beliefs were highly consistent with their classroom practices, Hsu's (2007) research revealed divergences between teachers' beliefs and practices. To recap, no definite conclusion has been reached regarding how teacher cognition is reflected in their practices in the extant studies conducted in Taiwan.

Table 2.5

Summary of Previous Studies on Relationship between Teacher Cognition and Practices Conducted in Taiwan

Source	Participants	Major findings
Hsieh (2005) To investigate junior high school English teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching and its relationship to their practices	4 junior high school English teachers	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The teachers agreed with the use of self-made handouts and reference books to supplement the grammatical concepts not covered in their textbooks. 2. Teachers in the study held positive belief in teaching grammar deductively. 3. These teachers' beliefs were highly consistent with their classroom practices.
Hsu (2007) To explore junior high school English teachers' beliefs and practices concerning grammar teaching and the possible factors affecting the consistency between teachers' beliefs and practices	2 junior high school English teachers	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teachers in the study held positive attitude to grammar instruction. 2. Divergences between participating teachers' cognition and practices existed. 3. Three factors were thought to influence the consistency between these teachers' beliefs and practices: teaching materials, teaching experiences, and limited instructional hour.
Chung (2008) To examine senior high school English teachers' beliefs and practices about grammar teaching, and the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices	146 senior high school EFL teachers from Taipei area	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The participating teachers stressed the importance of grammar instruction. 2. These teachers agreed that the content and sequence of grammar teaching depended on students' proficiency levels and materials. 3. The teachers thought that grammar teaching should not occupy most of the instructional hours and should be taught after students have read or listened to the article in lesson. 4. The teachers adopted explicit and analytic approaches in their grammar instruction. 5. Teachers in the study used grammatical terms and Chinese when teaching grammar. 6. The teachers' practices in grammar teaching tended to reflect their beliefs.

Summary

Based on the studies reviewed above, several conclusions can be drawn to reveal the essence of teacher cognition, its relationship with teacher practices, and the possible factors influencing the consistency between teacher cognition and practices. First, as a mental construct, teacher cognition was believed to be dynamic in that teachers actively define and redefine their cognition as they accumulate teaching experiences. It was further suggested that the formation of cognition is a continuing process for both inservice and preservice teachers. Seven issues seemed to be influential to the formation of inservice and preservice teacher cognition, including 1) teachers' prior learning experiences, 2) teachers' subject matter knowledge, 3) teachers' pedagogical knowledge, 4) teachers' personality and personal experience, 5) teachers' personal reflection, 6) school contexts and students' expectation, and 7) mentors' effect. Second, in step with the development of teacher cognition research, researchers have identified a close but nonlinear relationship between teacher cognition and teaching practices. However, the results are still not conclusive while researchers have been exploring the convergence and divergence between teacher cognition and practices. Third, a total of twenty-two factors that may prevent teachers from carrying out their stated cognition in their practices have been recognized by previous research. It was further suggested that these factors reflect the difficulties or problems teachers may encounter in their classroom practices.

While the extant studies on teacher cognition and teaching practices about grammar instruction have started to piece up a general picture, a more complete descriptive analysis is still needed in EFL contexts (Borg, 1999b). In the previous studies conducted in Taiwan, the participants were all inservice or experienced high school teachers. Little attention has been paid to preservice EFL teachers' cognition and practices in grammar teaching. To fill the research gap, more relevant work on

preservice EFL teachers in Taiwan is essential. Moreover, most previous studies constructed the research findings based on questionnaires, interviews, or observations solely collected from language teachers, instead of collecting multiple-data sources from multiple stakeholders. To remove the single voice from language teachers' perspectives, this study is designed to employ multiple data collection methods conducted with various participants who are involved in preservice EFL teachers' learning to teach grammar in junior high schools.

CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research method applied in the current study. The first section illustrates the research settings and participants. The mixed-method approach employed in this study is described in the second section. Data collection methods, data collection procedures, and data analysis are depicted in the subsequent sections. Finally, issues regarding the validity of this study are elaborated.

Settings and Participants

The major participants in this study were four female preservice EFL teachers enrolled in a teacher education program embedded in a private university in central Taiwan. All of the four participants majored in English and had a Bachelor's degree. Their mother tongue is Mandarin Chinese. Within two-year preservice training, the four participants had finished taking all the required pedagogical courses offered by the teacher education program, such as educational philosophy, educational psychology, curriculum design, and TEFL methodology. In particular, based on these preservice teachers' descriptions of what they had been taught in TEFL methodology, these preservice teachers were mainly inculcated with innovative teaching methods, such as Communicative Language Teaching approach, Whole Language Teaching approach, Cooperative Learning, among others. During this study, these teacher subjects were having their semester-long practicum in junior high schools which had a contract with their teacher education program. Table 3.1 provides these participants' demographic data in detail.

Of the four participants, two had English teaching experience as tutors or teachers in cram schools. The duration of their teaching experience was more than six months. The educational levels of their students ranged from 1st grade to 2nd year of

senior high school, and the students' English proficiency levels were from basic to intermediate.

Table 3.1
Demographic Data of the Four Central Participants

	Angela	Brenda	Maggie	Sandra
Gender	Female	Female	Female	Female
Mother tongue	Mandarin Chinese	Mandarin Chinese	Mandarin Chinese	Mandarin Chinese
Previous English teaching experience	Yes	No	Yes	No
Duration of previous English teaching experience	Six months to one year	---	Six months to one year	---
Teaching experience description	Cram school	---	Tutor	---
Previous students' year level	4 th ~ 6 th year of Elementary school	---	2 nd year of Senior High	---
Previous students' English proficiency level	Elementary	---	Intermediate	---
Practicum institution	School A	School B	School B	School C

Note. The participants' names are pseudonyms to protect their confidentiality.

The participants conducted their practicum in two public and one private junior high schools. Maggie and Brenda were placed at the same school, and Angela and Sandra were assigned to the different ones. Furthermore, this study recruited preservice teacher's four mentors as well as one hundred and thirty-five students randomly selected from each class taught by the preservice teachers. The mentors were all inservice teachers who had been teaching English as a foreign language in different junior high schools in central Taiwan. Two of the mentors had a bachelor's degree and the others had a master's degree. The years of their teaching experience ranged from three to five years. As for the participating students, forty of them were grade 9 students, ten were grade 8, and eighty-five were grade 7. Of the one hundred

and thirty-five students, sixty-five were males and seventy were females. Table 3.2 depicts the number of participants and their participation in data collection.

Table 3.2

The Number of Participants and Their Participation in Data Collection

	Preservice EFL Teacher	Mentors	Students
Number of participants	4	4	135*
Participation in data collection	A questionnaire, focus group interviews, observations with the researchers' fieldnotes, and stimulated recall interviews	Semi-structured interviews	A questionnaire

*135 students were recruited from the classes of Maggie (N=20), Angela (N=31), Sandra (N=45), and Brenda (N=39)

Mixed-method Approach

In this study, a mixed-method approach was employed to investigate preservice EFL teachers' cognition in grammar teaching, document their instructional practices, and explore the relationship between the two. According to Creswell (2007), a mixed-method research design helps researchers understand a research problem by collecting, analyzing, and mixing quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study. Combining both quantitative and qualitative methods, the mixed-method approach provides a better understanding of the research questions than the use of either method alone (Creswell, 2003; 2007). In a similar vein, Wilson (2009) stated that instead of using either the qualitative or quantitative methods to conduct school-based research, researchers could adopt a middle stance to methodology, namely, a mixed-method approach. The fundamental rationale for employing a mixed-method approach is that this approach can offset the disadvantages that certain of the methods have and provide the opportunity for revealing a greater diversity of divergent views (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

In the current study, multiple data collected from preservice EFL teachers included a closed-ended questionnaire, focus group interviews, classroom observations with the researcher's fieldnotes, and stimulated recall interviews. Also included were individual interviews conducted with these preservice teachers' mentors and a survey with their students. To analyze the above multiple data sources, Creswell's (2007) triangulation mixed-method design was employed. On the basis of this design, the results from quantitative and qualitative data were compared to see if the two databases yield similar or dissimilar findings (Creswell, 2007). That is, the analysis of the responses to the questionnaire revealing the preservice teachers' cognition was synthesized or triangulated by the other data sources depicting how these teacher subjects taught in real classroom settings.

Data Collection Methods

Relying on a mixed-method approach, the data collection methods included a closed-ended questionnaire, focus group interviews, classroom observations with researchers' fieldnotes, and stimulated recall interviews conducted with preservice EFL teachers. Furthermore, the teacher subjects' mentors were interviewed individually and their students were invited to fill in a closed-ended questionnaire. In the sections that follow, each data collection method is delineated.

Closed-ended Questionnaires

The advantages of using questionnaires have been identified by researchers (e.g. Brown, 2007; Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). As Seliger and Shohamy (1989) stated, the use of the questionnaires makes the data more uniform and standard. Further, because the questionnaires are gathered in a standardized way, the data are more objective (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). Along with adequate development, piloting and

validation procedures, questionnaires to some extent can be used in examining language teachers' cognition in various areas of language teaching (Borg, 2006). As shown in previous studies, questionnaires have been employed as a direct method to elicit teachers' cognition toward grammar teaching (e.g. Borg, 2006; Burgess & Etherington, 2002; Lai, 2004; Lee, 2008). For example, Burgess and Etherington (2002) stated that the inclusion of different aspects to grammar instruction within one closed-ended questionnaire can provide researchers a reasonably realistic view of language teachers' cognition in terms of grammar teaching.

In the questionnaire for the preservice EFL teachers, a five-point Likert-scale was used to explore the preservice teachers' grammar teaching cognition before and after their practicum. For raising the accuracy of data description, the numbers in the Likert-scale ranged from -2 to 2 (i.e. 2= strongly disagree, 1= agree, 0= neutral, -1= disagree, -2= strongly disagree). Adapted from Lee (2008) and Lai (2004), this questionnaire contained two parts (see Appendix A and B for details). The first part documented the preservice teachers' demographic information including English teaching experience, duration of teaching experience, and the depiction of teaching experience. In the second part, fifty statements related to preservice EFL teachers' cognition of grammar instruction in junior high schools were provided. Five main categories identified in this questionnaire included (a) role of grammar instruction (items 1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26, 31, 36, 41, 45, 49), (b) approach to grammar instruction (items 2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27, 32, 37, 42, 46, 48, 50), (c) content of grammar instruction (items 3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28, 33, 38, 43, 47), (d) time issue of grammar instruction (items 4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29, 34, 39, 44), and (e) grammatical error treatment (items 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40). In addition, a total of nineteen subcategories were contained in these five main categories (see Table 3.3). The participants were asked to self-rate each item according to how they perceived the statement. To help the

participants have a better understanding of the descriptions of the items, the questionnaire was written in Chinese.

Table 3.3

Subcategories Identified in the Questionnaire for Preservice EFL Teachers

Main categories	Subcategories / Themes
Role of grammar instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The importance of grammar instruction in English learning • The importance of four skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading, writing) in English learning
Approach to grammar instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The use of Chinese as the main medium • The use of grammatical terms • Applying proactive / reactive approach • Providing students with oral practices • Providing students with repetitive pattern exercises • Applying deductive / inductive teaching approach
Content of grammar instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The number of grammatical rules teachers should teach in a class session • The difficulty level of grammatical rules teachers should teach • Covering relevant rules while teaching a certain grammar • The decision of the content and sequence in grammar instruction
Time issue of grammar instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The necessity of teaching grammar in elementary / junior high schools • Timing of implementing grammar instruction in English learning • Timing of implementing grammar instruction in one lesson unit • The duration of grammar instruction in junior high schools
Grammatical error treatment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attitude toward grammatical error correction • Timing of providing students with error correction • Applying explicit / implicit error correction

The questionnaire conducted with students of the preservice EFL teachers was also a five-point Likert-scale, ranging from -2 to 2 (i.e. 2= strongly disagree, 1= agree, 0= neutral, -1= disagree, -2= strongly disagree). Adapted from Lee (2008) and Lai (2004), this questionnaire was used to investigate how the participating students perceived their preservice teachers' grammar instruction in classrooms (see Appendix C and D for details). This questionnaire contained two parts, including students' basic demographic information and eighteen items related to preservice EFL teachers' teaching practices. Four major categories were identified in this questionnaire: (a) approach to grammar instruction (items 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17), (b) content of grammar instruction (items 2, 8, 14), (c) time issue of grammar instruction (items 4, 10, 16), and (d) grammatical error treatment (items 6, 12, 18). Moreover, ten

subcategories were included in these four categories (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.4

Subcategories Identified in the Questionnaire for Preservice EFL Teachers' Students

Main categories	Subcategories / Themes
Approach to grammar instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The use of Chinese as the main medium • The use of grammatical terms • Providing students with oral practices • Providing students with repetitive pattern exercises • Applying deductive / inductive teaching approach
Content of grammar instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The number of grammatical rules teachers should teach in a class session • Covering relevant rules while teaching a certain grammar
Time issue of grammar instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Timing of implementing grammar instruction in one lesson unit
Grammatical error treatment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Timing of providing students with error correction • Applying explicit / implicit error correction

Focus Group Interviews

As a kind of interview methods, focus groups encourage participants to interact with one another by raising questions, exchanging anecdotes, and commenting on each others' points of view (Kitzinger & Barbour, 1999). A great number of merits of using focus group interviews have been recognized by researchers (e.g. Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Creswell, 2007; Finch & Lewis, 2003; Kitzinger & Barbour, 1999; Madriz, 2000; Patton, 2002). Patton (2002) indicated that in focus groups “[p]articipants tend to provide checks and balances on each other which weeds out false or extreme views. The extent to which there is a relatively consistent, shared view can be quickly assessed” (p. 386). Bogdan and Biklen (2003) also stated,

The purpose of using a focus group interview is to stimulate talk from multiple perspectives from the group participants so that the researcher can learn what the range of views are, or to promote talk on a topic that informants might not be able to talk so thoughtfully about in individual interviews. Group participants can stimulate each other to articulate their views or even to realize what their own views are. (p. 101)

In responding to each other, participants therefore can reveal more of their own perspectives on the subject of study (Finch & Lewis, 2003). Moreover, it has been

claimed that focus groups provide researchers the flexibility to observe the interactive processes occurring among participants, which usually include spontaneous responses from the members of the group (Madriz, 2000).

Two focus group interviews were employed in this study in that they were ideal for exploring people's experiences, opinions, wishes and concerns (Kitzinger & Barbour, 1999). In the current study, focus group interview had the potential to help the present researcher gain a deeper understanding about what the preservice EFL teachers thought about grammar instruction, how they taught grammar in real classrooms, and what might be the possible factors influencing their classroom practices. To help the preservice teachers interact with each other, the present researcher provided them with five discussion questions during the interviews. Questions discussed in the two focus group interviews were slightly different in order to elicit appropriate conversation among the participants at different stages of their practicum (see Appendices E and F for interview protocols).

Following Bogdan and Biklen's (1999) suggestions, during the focus group discussions, the present researcher first made a short introduction to help the participants know what would be discussed. Then, in order to make participants feel free to express their ideas, she informed the participants that there were no correct answers to any of the questions in the group discussions. Furthermore, to encourage all the participants to share their perspectives, she invited the participant who did not share her own opinions on an issue to talk more. Basically, each participant had at least one chance to share her own view on each issue. Both group interviews lasted approximately thirty-five minutes. The focus group interviews were conducted in Chinese and audio-recorded for further transcription.

Non-participant Observations and Fieldnotes

Observation has been characterized as the fundamental and important method in all qualitative inquiry (Angrosino & Mays de Pérez, 2000; Marshall & Rossman, 1999). By conducting observations, researchers can document and describe complex actions and interactions in natural settings (Creswell, 2007; Glesne, 1999; Marshall & Rossman, 1999; Merriam, 2001; Ritchie, 2003). As Creswell (2007) indicated, observations can be used to record information as it occurring in a given setting and to explore actual behavior. By the same token, Merriam (2001) concluded that observation offers a firsthand account of the situation and allows researchers to interpret the phenomenon being investigated holistically.

In teacher cognition research, the employment of observation has been prevalent. As Borg (2006) suggested, observation plays a central role in the study of language teacher cognition because it provides a concrete descriptive basis to what teachers know, think and believe and evidence of what happens in classrooms. Judging from previous studies on teacher cognition, non-participant observation has been used broadly, where researchers typically sit at the back in the classroom that is being observed, make notes and avoid interacting with the teachers or students as the observation is carried out (Borg, 2006).

To understand how the four participants teach grammar in real classroom contexts during their practicum, non-participant classroom observations were employed in the study. Furthermore, an unstructured observation² was implemented to document the participants' grammar teaching in a holistic way. During the observations, the researcher focused on making a full account of the events. All observations were video-recorded to capture visual cues such as facial expressions,

² Unstructured observation refers to an observation in which the observer examines all aspects of the events that are relevant to the problems being investigated in a study (Borg, 2005).

gestures, body language, movement, and nonverbal parts of interaction (Flick, 2006; Wragg, 1999). To avoid disturbing the preservice teachers, the video camera was placed in the back of the classrooms during observations, and the present researcher sat at the back of the classrooms as well (see Appendix G for sample transcript of classroom observation).

In this study, the four teacher subjects were observed four times except for Maggie who was observed twice because of her mentor's requirement (see Table 3.5 for further information of classroom observations). Usually, the length of the observations lasted from thirty to forty-five minutes. In addition to Angela, the other three teacher subjects conducted their grammar teaching practices in different classes and their students' grade levels ranged from first year to third year. Moreover, the teacher subjects taught different grammatical features in different classes during their learning to teach.

Along with video-taping classroom activities, the researcher took fieldnotes during the lessons (see Appendix H for sample). As Bogdan and Biklen (2003) mentioned, fieldnotes could be an important supplement to observations in case the video recording misses any sights. Moreover, fieldnotes can "record smells, describe impressions, and provide an opportunity for extra remarks" (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003, p. 111). In this study, the researcher took records of the events, activities and people in the fieldnotes on the basis of the suggestions provided by Creswell (2007) and Bogdan and Biklen (2003). Specifically, several areas were encompassed as follows:

- Portraits of the subjects: including students and the preservice EFL teachers' physical appearance, and style of talking and acting
- Accounts of particular events: listing particular events including who was involved in the event, in what manner, and the nature of the action
- Depiction of activities: making descriptions of the teachers' behaviors and particular actions

(Bogdan & Biklen, 2003, pp. 113-114)

Table 3.5

Detailed Information about Each Preservice EFL Teacher's Classroom Observations

	Times of observation	Length of observation	Number of students	Class	Main teaching content
Maggie	2	45 minutes	36	206	Past progressive tense
		45 minutes	37	308	Relative clauses
Angela	4	30 minutes	34	116	Adjectives
		45 minutes	34	116	Causatives
		45 minutes	33	116	Present progressive tense
		30 minutes	34	116	Prepositional phrases
Sandra	4	45 minutes	44	306	Relative clauses
		40 minutes	36	118	Prepositional phrases
		45 minutes	36	118	Prepositional phrases
		45 minutes	36	118	The use of there is/there are
Brenda	4	40 minutes	30	311	Present perfect tense
		35 minutes	29	125	Adjectives
		30 minutes	39	310	Prepositional phrases
		45 minutes	29	125	Present progressive tense

Stimulated Recall Interviews

The importance of combining stimulated recall interviews with observations has been mentioned by researchers (Borg, 2006; Calderhead, 1981; Shkedi, 2005). In the study of language teacher cognition, observations are never the sole form of data, yet are commonly combined with interviews which are usually implemented subsequent to observations, either through stimulated recall or in semi-structured form (Borg, 2006). According to Calderhead (1981), it is assumed that in stimulated recall interviews, “the cues provided by the audiotape or videotape will enable the participant to relive the episode to the extent of being able to provide, in retrospect, an accurate verbalized account of his original thought processes” (p. 212). Borg (2006) also claimed that teachers cannot teach and talk about their thoughts simultaneously; therefore, retrospective verbal accounts are required to explore teachers’ interactive thinking and stimulated recall is seen to be an effective way to elicit these accounts.

In this study, a stimulated recall interview was conducted with each preservice teacher after individual classroom observation was finished in order to understand what factors might have influenced the preservice EFL teachers’ behaviors while they

were teaching English grammar. The present researcher adopted the following five steps in conducting each stimulated recall interview: (a) watching the videotape before interview in order to identify which part of preservice teacher's teaching, especially those related to grammar instruction, could elicit useful data from the participant's verbal commentaries in the interview, (b) informing the interviewee that the reason for conducting the stimulated recall interview is to understand what her concerns were as she was teaching grammar (c) providing the participant a recall interview protocol to make the participant have a basic idea of what she would be asked during the interview, (d) watching the videotape with the participant and pausing the tape in certain parts to ask the participant questions on the interview protocol, and (e) asking the participant whether she has any comments she would like to add regarding the tapes at the end of the interview. All of the interviews were conducted in Chinese and were audio-recorded (see Appendix I for sample transcript).

Semi-structured Interviews with Mentors of the Preservice EFL Teachers

Semi-structured interviews are used in general education research and language teacher cognition research as well (Borg, 2006). Researchers have made the justification for using semi-structured interviews (e.g. Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Borg, 2006; Glesne, 1999; Flick, 2006). As suggested by Borg (2006), semi-structured interviews are based on a set of topics; they are flexible and respondents are encouraged to talk in an open-ended manner about the topics being discussed. Correspondingly, Flick (2006) indicated that the general merit of semi-structure interviews is that the different types of questions allow researchers to deal explicitly with the presuppositions they bring to the interview with regard to the characteristics of the interviewee. Semi-structured interviews therefore allow researchers to explore tacit and unobservable aspects of respondents' lives (Glesne, 1999).

In the present study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with mentors of the preservice EFL teachers individually. The focus of the interviews was to explore how the mentors perceived these preservice teachers' grammar teaching in the classrooms. The interview data were further synthesized and integrated with other data sources, which could help reduce the bias and subjectivity of the research findings (Yin, 2002). The interviews were conducted near the end of the practicum. All interviews with participants were audio-taped, and each interview took about 25 to 30 minutes (see Appendix J for sample transcript).

Data Collection Procedures

Data collection procedures involved three stages: pre-practicum, practicum, and post-practicum. At pre-practicum stage, a closed-ended questionnaire was employed in order to document the preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition before their learning to teach at practicum schools.

During the preservice EFL teachers' semester-long practicum, multiple data collected from these participants were non-participant observations with the researcher's fieldnotes, and stimulated recall interviews. Also included were semi-structured interviews employed with mentors and a survey conducted with students of the four preservice EFL teachers. Stimulated recall interviews with preservice EFL teachers were implemented a few days later after each observation was carried out. Furthermore, near the end of the semester, preservice EFL teachers' mentors were interviewed once and their students were invited to fill in a questionnaire. Data collected at this stage kept track of how the four participants taught grammar in the classrooms and what their concerns were during their grammar instruction (i.e. approach, content, time issue of grammar instruction, and grammatical error treatment).

With regard to post-practicum stage, the closed-ended questionnaire was conducted again with the preservice EFL teachers to reveal their grammar teaching cognition after practicum. Moreover, focus group interviews were administered with these preservice teachers near the end of their learning to teach. Table 3.6 describes the stages of data collection, the data collection methods used at each stage and the purposes of using each method.

Table 3.6

Data Collection Stages, Methods, and Purposes of Each Method

Stage	Method	Purpose
<i>Pre-practicum</i> (2009.06)	1. Closed-ended questionnaire	Document the preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition before the practicum.
	2. Focus group interview	Examine the preservice teachers' cognition about grammar instruction.
<i>Practicum</i> (2009.09~ 2010.01)	1. Non-participant observations and fieldnotes	Observe the preservice EFL teachers' instructional practices.
	2. Stimulated recall interviews	Examine the possible factors influencing the preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching.
	3. Semi-structured interviews with mentors of preservice EFL teachers	Explore how the preservice EFL teachers taught grammar from mentors' perspectives.
	4. Questionnaire for the preservice teachers' students	Explore how the preservice EFL teachers taught grammar through students' perspectives.
<i>Post-practicum</i> (2010.02)	1. Closed-ended questionnaire	Document the preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition after the practicum.
	2. Focus group interviews	Examine the preservice teachers' cognition, practices, and the potential factors influencing their practices.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was carried out at two levels (see Table 3.7 for data analysis process at each level and the purpose for data analysis in each phase): the within-case analysis and the cross-case analysis (Merriam, 2001). In within-case analysis, the data related to individual preservice teacher were analyzed as a separate case. At this level,

data were analyzed in four phases and the rudimentary findings of each case were revealed. After within-case analysis, cross-case analysis was conducted to examine the similarities or differences, if any, among the findings of the four cases. As Miles and Huberman (1994) indicated, cross-case analysis can be used to strengthen the precision, the validity, and the stability of the findings. They further stressed that cross-case analysis helps researchers see the “processes and outcomes that occur across many cases, to understand how they are qualified by local conditions, and thus develop more sophisticated descriptions and more powerful explanations” (p. 172). Therefore, cross-case analysis can result in constructing substantive theories which offer an integrated framework covering multiple cases (Merriam, 2001).

Table 3.7

Data Analysis Process and the Purpose for Data Analysis in Each Phase

Data analysis level	Description	Purpose
Within-case analysis level	<i>Phase 1</i> Analyze closed-ended questionnaires and focus group interviews.	Investigate preservice EFL teachers' cognition toward grammar teaching before and after the practicum (answer research question 1 and 2).
	<i>Phase 2</i> Analyze observation data, fieldnotes, semi-structured interviews, and questionnaire for students.	Investigate preservice EFL teachers' instructional practices toward grammar instruction (answer research question 3).
	<i>Phase 3</i> Compare analyzed data in phase 1 and phase 2.	Examine to what extent preservice EFL teachers' cognition correspond to their instructional practices (answer research question 4).
	<i>Phase 4</i> Analyze the stimulated recall interviews.	Explore possible factors influencing the consistency of preservice EFL teachers' cognition and their instructional practices (answer research question 5)
Cross-case analysis level	Compare the findings of four cases.	Explore the similarities or differences, if any, among the four cases.

Within-case Analysis Level

Four phases were included in the within-case analysis level. In the first phase, the analysis of closed-ended questionnaires was conducted. The response patterns in each preservice teacher's questionnaire were depicted to show the tendency of the participants' agreement or disagreement with the items. Individual preservice teacher's response patterns in terms of the role, approach, content, and time issue of grammar instruction as well as grammatical error treatment were revealed via figures. Furthermore, in order to discover individual teacher subject's cognition development about grammar instruction, a comparison was made between each preservice teacher's cognition before and after the practicum. As for the focus group interview data³, the present researcher labeled and coded the transcribed interview data to gain a deeper understanding about these teacher subjects' thoughts toward grammar teaching.

The second phase encompassed the analysis of observation data, fieldnotes, and semi-structured interview data. To be more specific, the observation data were analyzed in three stages. First, the researcher read the transcripts of the observations carefully in order to build a basic understanding of the framework of individual preservice teachers' classroom practices. Then, the researcher identified instructional episodes in terms of grammar teaching. Finally, those episodes were analyzed based on the categories stemming from the preservice teachers' questionnaire.

Further analysis was conducted with the data collected from individual preservice EFL teachers' mentors and students. Regarding the mentors' interview data, the transcripts were first read and labeled by the researcher carefully. Then, the data were coded based on the categories stemmed from the preservice teachers' questionnaire. As for the survey conducted with the recruited students, descriptive

³ In addition to preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition, the second focus group interview data analyzed in this phase also revealed how these teacher subjects taught grammar in real classrooms and the possible factors that influenced their practices.

analysis was administered. Frequencies and percentage were computed to identify the overall patterns of these participating students' perspectives toward the preservice EFL teachers' grammar instruction in classroom settings. All of the data analyzed in this phase were further synthesized or triangulated in order to examine the preservice EFL teacher's instructional practices in individual school contexts.

In the third phase, multiple data sources were compared and tabulated in such a way that any convergence and divergence between the preservice teachers' cognition and classroom teaching could be revealed. As previously mentioned, the analysis of questionnaire data which showed the preservice teachers' cognition was described or clarified by the other data sources that depicted how these preservice teachers taught grammar during their learning to teach.

Finally, the analysis of stimulated recall interviews was the main focus in the fourth phase. The present researcher adopted the following three steps in analyzing the recall interviews: (a) reading the transcripts thoroughly to get a basic understanding of the preservice EFL teachers' responses, (b) labeling and coding the transcribed interview data, and (c) comparing the analyzed data with preservice EFL teachers' cognition and their teaching practices. Potential factors influencing the consistency of these preservice EFL teachers' cognition with their practices, as well as the problems they encountered during their instruction, were explored.

Cross-case Analysis Level

At the cross-case analysis level, a comparison was made of the findings of the four cases. Similarities or differences, if any, among the four participants' cognition and their instructional practices were revealed. At this level, the multiple case study analysis method adapted from Stake (2006) was used to help the researcher analyze the data. Worksheets used for this analysis were designed as "matrixes" in order that

major findings in each case could be quickly revealed. This also facilitated the identification of similarities or differences among cases. Two worksheets were employed to analyze different themes. Worksheet one was used to synthesize the findings among all preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition before and after the practicum (see Appendix K for details). Worksheet two was employed to examine the four participants' instructional practices (see Appendix L for details).

Overall, three steps were used to construct the worksheets. First, the researcher filled in the worksheets with the categories or factor clusters discovered at the within-case analysis level. Second, the researcher read the findings of each case carefully and then matched the findings with categories or factors listed on the worksheets. Finally, to avoid making any mistakes, the researcher re-read and re-checked the final results again after completing the worksheets.

Validity

To enhance the validity of the research findings, the researcher took the following two measures. First, the present researcher constructed the research findings based on multiple data sources collected from various participants. As previously mentioned, with multiple data sources integrated and synthesized from multiple stakeholders, the potential bias and subjectivity of the research findings could be reduced, which in turn would improve the validity of the study (Yin, 2002). In addition, during the process of data collection procedures, the present researcher took the following two steps suggested by Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) and Yin (2003).

1. An information letter and a consent form (see Appendices M and N for details) were provided to and signed by all of the preservice EFL teachers and their mentors. In the information letter, explicit descriptions of the data collection methods were provided to the participants.
2. To ensure the confidentiality, before the study all the participants were informed that all interview and observation data collected were used only in this research project and that the data would be reported anonymously.

Second, in order to avoid any bias that might influence the data interpretation, the researcher adopted the following two recommendations provided by Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) and Yin (2003) during the process of data analysis.

1. To attain objectivity, the present researcher asked an external observer—the researcher's thesis advisor—to help re-examine the data collection and data analysis procedures. Constant verification and elaboration of the interpretations were conducted during the processes of data collection and data analysis.
2. The four main participants were provided the data transcriptions in such a way that they could comment on the accuracy of them. In the event that any questions arose, the researcher consulted with the participants to ask for clarification and verification. In this manner, misinterpretations could be decreased.

With these data analysis strategies, the research findings will be reported in the next chapter, including preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition and practices, the relationship between the two, and the potential factors influencing these preservice teachers' practices

CHAPTER FOUR RESULTS

In this chapter, the analysis of the collected data is presented. The first section elucidates the context of the preservice teachers' learning to teach grammar. The second section depicts individual preservice EFL teacher's grammar teaching cognition before and after the practicum, as well as their cognition development⁴. The third section reports the cross-case analysis of these teacher subjects' cognition and cognition development. An examination of the preservice teachers' grammar teaching in real classroom settings is presented in the fourth section. The relationship between these teacher subjects' cognition and practices is described in the fifth section. Finally, possible factors causing the divergence between these preservice teachers' cognition and practices are investigated.

The Context in Which Preservice EFL Teachers Learn to Teach Grammar

In this study, the preservice EFL teachers experienced their teaching practicum at three different junior high schools located in central Taiwan. During the semester-long practicum, all the teacher subjects observed their mentors' classroom instruction in the first month. In the following months, the mentors started to allow these preservice teachers to teach certain parts of lesson units. Basically, one-fourth of the time these teacher subjects were requested to practice teaching grammar. Usually, each classroom session lasted forty-five minutes, but sometimes they taught grammar for around thirty minutes at their mentors' request. The four teacher subjects' tended to discuss lesson plans with their mentors before the practicum. During the preservice EFL teachers' teaching, the mentors sat at the back of the classroom and observed

⁴ In the present study, the preservice EFL teachers' cognition development refers to the changes or differences between their grammar teaching cognition before and after the practicum.

their student teachers without making any interruptions. The mentors provided their student teachers with some feedback toward their teaching in verbal or written form after each class. All of the teacher subjects responded that they had tried to refine their teaching according to the suggestions offered by their mentors.

Individual Preservice EFL Teachers' Cognition and Cognition Development toward Grammar Instruction

In this study, the preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition was analyzed based upon five categories identified in the questionnaire: 1) role of grammar instruction, 2) approach to grammar instruction, 3) content of grammar instruction, 4) time issue in grammar instruction, and 5) grammatical error treatment. In the following sections, each teacher subject's grammar teaching cognition is described based on items showing consistency. Similarities between each preservice teacher's cognition before and after the practicum are depicted first. Then, comparisons were made between individual teacher subject's cognition before and after the practicum in order to explore their cognition development. In the following figures, items receiving the number 1 or 2 are those with which the participants agree; on the other hand, items receiving the number -1 or -2 are those with which the participants disagree. Items receiving the number 0 are those about which the participants have a neutral opinion.

Angela's Cognition and Cognition Development

1. Role of grammar instruction. Figure 4.1 depicts that throughout the study Angela tended to agree that teachers in junior high schools should teach grammar

(GR05⁵) because grammar instruction helps students to learn English (GR01), to use English to communicate with others accurately and effectively (GR02 & GR04), and to make grammatical sentences when speaking and writing in English (GR03). Despite the fact that she had a positive attitude toward the role of grammar instruction, Angela thought English teaching should not solely focus on grammar instruction (GR07) and teachers should also provide reading, listening, and speaking exercises for students (GR06). Seemingly, throughout the study Angela's cognition was consistent except for item GR11, in which she originally agreed that students may not be able to use English correctly in communication without any grammar instruction; however, she showed her disagreement with this item at post-practicum stage.

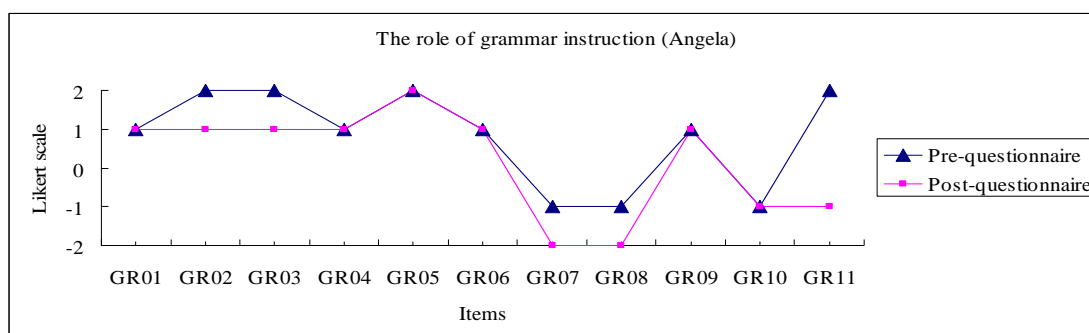


Figure 4.1 The response patterns in Angela's pre- and post-questionnaires toward the role of grammar instruction

2. *Approach to grammar instruction.* In both pre- and post-questionnaires, Angela agreed with applying proactive approach⁶ (GA03), providing oral practices (GA04), and offering students repetitive pattern practices (GA05) in grammar instruction (see Figure 4.2). Moreover, she agreed with all the items concerning

⁵ Following Lai's study (2004), the survey items in this chapter are represented by code names (GR = role of grammar instruction; GA = approach to grammar instruction; GC = content of grammar instruction; GT = time issue of grammar instruction; ET = grammatical error treatment). See Appendix O for detailed survey item.

⁶ In this study, proactive approach refers to prepare the grammar instruction before each class session. On the contrary, reactive approach (GA09) means that English teachers should not explain grammatical features until students come across any difficulties or problems.

deductive teaching approach during her practicum (GA07 & GA08) except for her neutral attitude toward the description of GA06 at pre-practicum stage. Interestingly, in addition to deductive teaching approach, she also agreed with applying inductive teaching approach (GA10, GA11, & GA12), which may imply that she had no particular preference for either of these two teaching approaches. In contrast, Angela was negative toward using grammatical terminology (GA02) and applying reactive approach (GA09) in grammar instruction. The comparison between Angela's cognition before and after the teaching practicum did not show any obvious change except for item GA01, in which she initially agreed with using Chinese as the main medium in grammar instruction but disagreed with its use after the practicum.

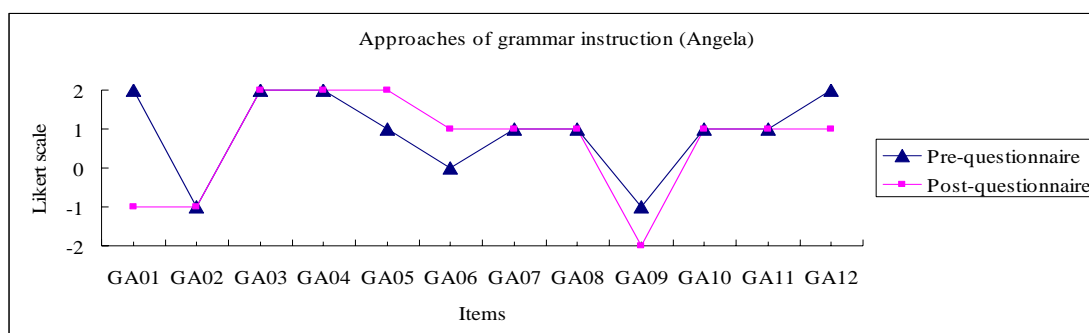


Figure 4.2 The response patterns in Angela's pre- and post-questionnaires toward approach to grammar instruction

3. *Content of grammar instruction.* Figure 4.3 shows that throughout the study Angela strongly agreed with teaching a single rule at one time (GC01), but she disagreed with providing related rules while teaching a given grammatical rule (GC04). In addition, she held a positive opinion about teaching simple grammatical rules necessary to meet students' current needs (GC02 & GC03). She further agreed that the content and sequence of grammar instruction should depend on the frequency of a given structure occurring in daily conversation (GC05), the difficulty level of a structure (GC08) and students' proficiency levels (GC09). In contrast, she disagreed

that the content and sequence of grammar teaching should be determined by the frequent errors made by students (GC07) and the differences between the structures of Chinese and English (GC10). Angela's cognition between pre- and post-practicum was consistent, with the exception of item GC06, in which she did not know whether teacher should rely on textbooks as the major teaching content at pre-practicum stage, but she disagreed with this item after the practicum.

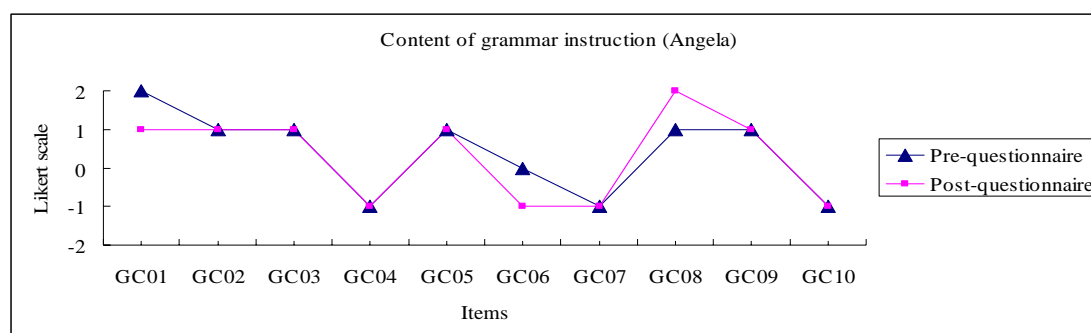


Figure 4.3 The response patterns in Angela's pre- and post-questionnaires toward content of grammar instruction

4. *Time issue of grammar instruction.* The results of both pre-and post-questionnaires showed Angela's positive attitude about teaching grammar in junior high schools (GT01) (see Figure 4.4). She also agreed with emphasizing grammar teaching after students have obtained a certain level of communicative competence (GT07). Interestingly, while Angela disagreed with teaching grammar before any other sections in a lesson (GT05), she believed grammar could be taught before the reading section (GT09). In this category, Angela's cognition before and after the practicum revealed several changes. First, Angela was positive about teaching grammar in elementary school (GT02) at pre-practicum stage, but she held a neutral opinion toward this item in her post-questionnaire. Second, she originally disagreed with spending the greater part of teaching hours in grammar instruction (GT03), yet she agreed with this item after the teaching practicum. Third, before the

practicum she was positive toward teaching grammar after the reading section (GT06), but she disagreed with this item after the practicum. Finally, she initially held negative opinion about emphasizing grammar instruction at each stage of English learning (GT08); however, she agreed with this item after the practicum.

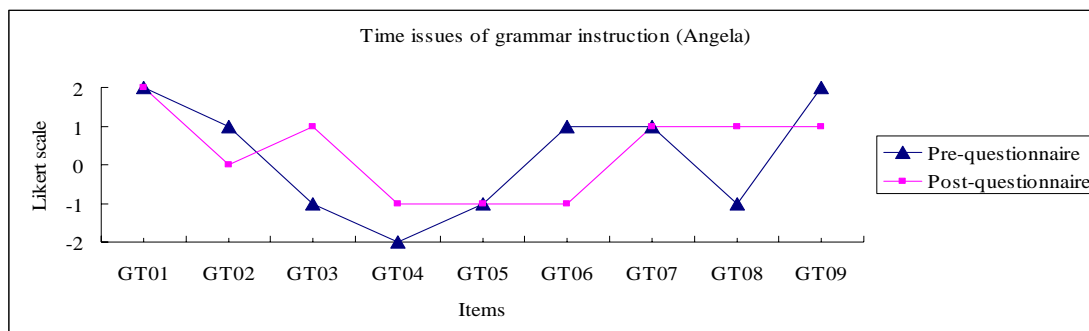


Figure 4.4 The response patterns in Angela’s pre- and post-questionnaires toward time issue of grammar instruction

5. *Grammatical error treatment.* As shown in Figure 4.5, at both pre- and post-practicum stages, Angela agreed that students’ grammar correctness level represents students’ English proficiency level (ET02). In addition, although she showed her agreement with applying implicit error correction (ET07) and correcting students’ each error immediately (ET05), she thought teachers’ corrective feedback does not help students eliminate their errors (ET03). The comparison between Angela’s cognition before and after the practicum indicated the following changes. First, Angela originally disagreed that explicit error correction could not help students improve their grammar ability (ET04), yet she agreed with this description after the practicum. Second, she disagreed with providing explicit error correction (ET08) at pre-practicum stage; however, after the practicum she held a neutral attitude toward this item. Third, before the teaching practicum she was positive toward giving students correction only when the errors caused difficulty in understanding (ET06); however, she was negative about this item at post-practicum stage.

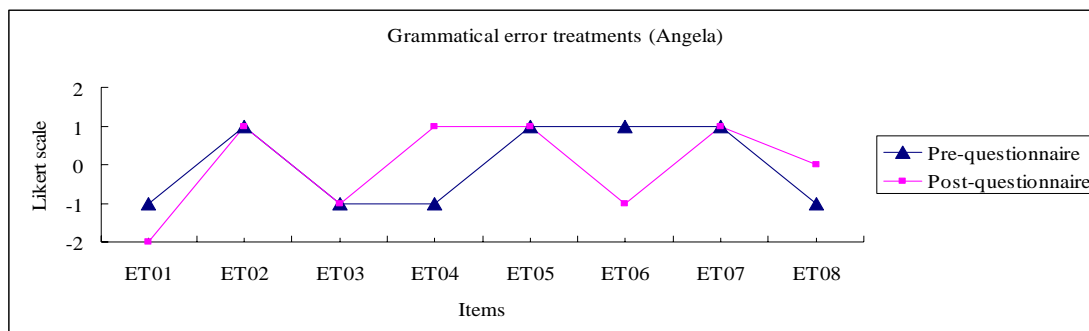


Figure 4.5 The response patterns in Angela’s pre- and post-questionnaires toward grammatical error treatment

Brenda’s Cognition and Cognition Development

1. *Role of grammar instruction.* Figure 4.6 reveals that Brenda strongly agreed with teaching grammar in English classrooms (GR05) in both pre- and post-questionnaires. She further agreed that grammar instruction helps students to learn English (GR01), to communicate with others accurately (GR02 & GR11), and to make grammatical sentences in speaking and writing English (GR03). Although Brenda was positive toward the role of grammar instruction, she believed grammar teaching should not be the only focus in English learning (GR07) and teachers should provide students with four-skill exercises (GR06) because students might not be capable of speaking and writing in English after merely learning grammar (GR09). The results further indicated that aside from item GR04, the response patterns in Brenda’s pre- and post- questionnaires were consistent. In item GR04, Brenda agreed that grammar teaching helps students communicate with others effectively at pre-practicum stage, but she had a negative attitude toward this item after the practicum.

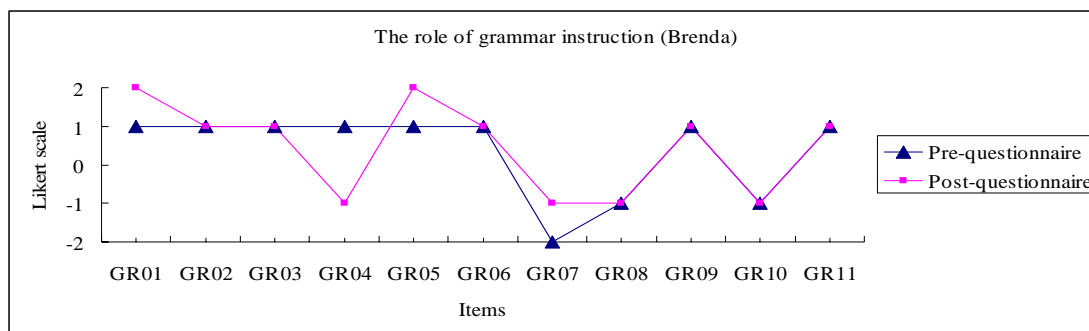


Figure 4.6 The response patterns in Brenda's pre- and post-questionnaires toward the role of grammar instruction

2. *Approach to grammar instruction.* As shown in her pre- and post-questionnaires, Brenda agreed with using Chinese (GA01), applying proactive approach (GA03), and providing oral and repetitive pattern exercises (GA04 & GA05) in grammar instruction (see Figure 4.7). She also agreed with all the items regarding inductive teaching approach (GA11, & GA12) during her practicum, except for her neutral opinion toward the description of item GA 10 at post-practicum stage. Conversely, she showed her disagreement with applying reactive approach (GA09). The comparison between Brenda's cognition before and after the practicum indicated that she was uncertain about the use of deductive teaching approach in grammar teaching (GA06, GA07, & GA08). That is, before the practicum, she was negative toward two of the statements; however, she agreed with two of the items after the practicum. Moreover, she showed negative opinion of the use of grammatical terms while teaching grammar (GA02) at pre-practicum stage, but she was neutral about this item after finishing her practicum.

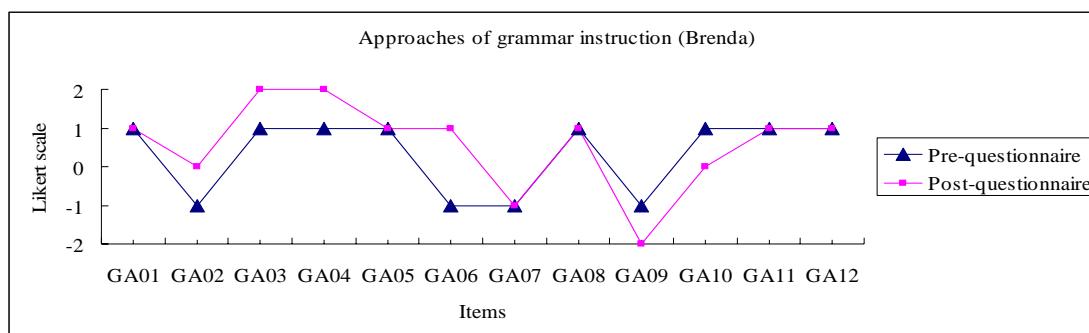


Figure 4.7 The response patterns in Brenda’s pre- and post-questionnaires toward approach to grammar instruction

3. *Content of grammar instruction.* Figure 4.8 reveals that throughout the study Brenda strongly agreed with teaching single rule at one time (GC01) but disagreed with only teaching simple grammatical rules to students in junior high English classrooms (GC03). She further agreed that the content and sequence of grammar instruction should be decided by the frequency of a given structure occurring in daily conversation (GC05), the textbooks (GC06), the difficulty level of a structure (GC08), and students’ proficiency levels (GC09). The survey results further showed Brenda’s different response patterns in her pre- and post-questionnaires in the following aspects. First, in her pre-questionnaire, Brenda disagreed with only teaching those rules which can meet students’ current needs (GC02), yet she showed her agreement with this item after the practicum. Second, before the practicum Brenda was positive toward providing related rules while teaching a given grammatical rule (GC04); however, she disagreed with this item after the practicum. Third, she initially did not know whether the content of grammar teaching should be decided by the frequent errors made by students (GC07), but she disagreed with this item after the practicum.

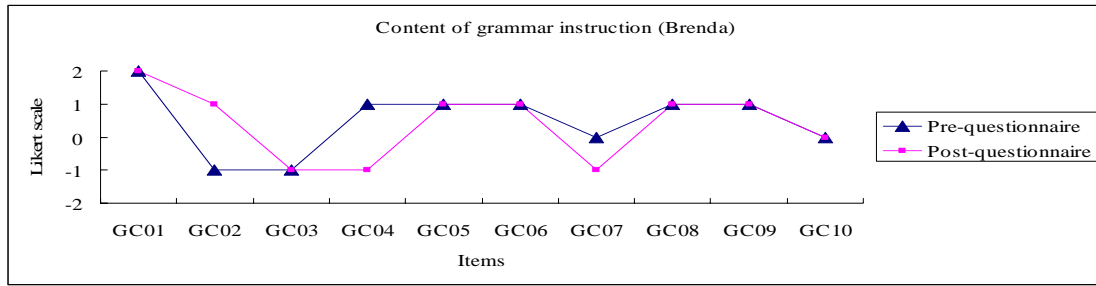


Figure 4.8 The response patterns in Brenda's pre- and post-questionnaires toward content of grammar instruction

4. *Time issue of grammar instruction.* Figure 4.9 shows Brenda's positive attitude toward teaching grammar in junior high schools (GT01) throughout the study. She disagreed with emphasizing grammar teaching after students have achieved a certain level of communicative competence (GT07) or at each stage of English learning (GT08). She further disagreed with spending the greater part of teaching hours in teaching grammar (GT03) and teaching grammar before any other sections in a lesson (GT05). Nonetheless, after the semester-long practicum Brenda's cognition underwent several changes in the following aspects. First, in items GT02 and GT04, Brenda at first disagreed with teaching grammar in elementary schools and at an early stage of English learning, but she agreed with these items after her practicum. Moreover, the results of items GT06 and GT09 showed that Brenda initially agreed with teaching grammar after the reading section, yet after her teaching practicum she was positive toward teaching grammar before the reading section.

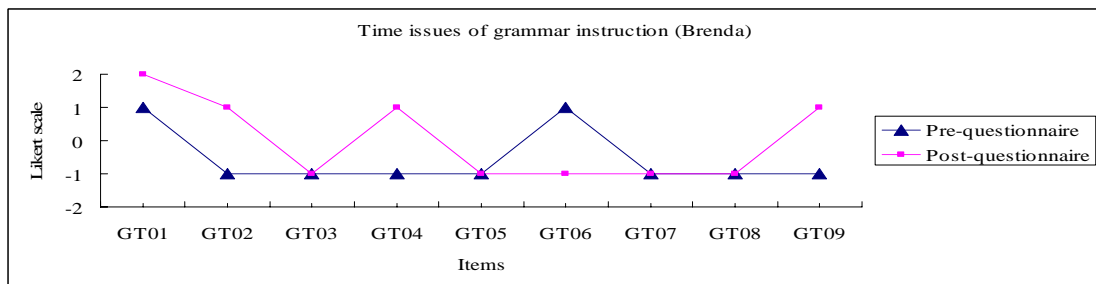


Figure 4.9 The response patterns in Brenda's pre- and post-questionnaires toward time issue of grammar instruction

5. *Grammatical error treatment.* In both pre- and post-questionnaires, Brenda agreed that students' grammar correctness level represent their English proficiency level (ET02) (see Figure 4.10). She disagreed that teachers' corrective feedback does not help students eliminate their errors (ET03). While she was negative toward employing explicit error correction (ET08) in grammar instruction, she showed much agreement with implicit error correction (ET07). Finally, Brenda disagreed with correcting students' each error immediately (ET05) and correcting students' error when they cause difficulties in understanding (ET06). In particular, two changes were found in the comparison between Brenda's cognition before and after the practicum. First, the results showed her positive attitude with not correcting students' errors in grammar instruction (ET01) at the beginning, but she disagreed with this item after the practicum. Second, she initially agreed that explicit error correction could help students improve their grammar ability, but she disagreed with this item at post-practicum stage.

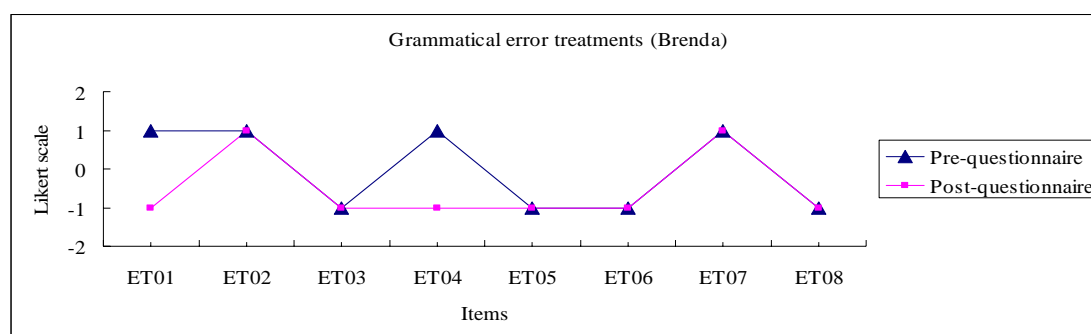


Figure 4.10 The response patterns in Brenda's pre- and post-questionnaires toward grammatical error treatment

Maggie's Cognition and Cognition Development

1. *Role of grammar instruction.* As shown in Figure 4.11, Maggie agreed that grammar instruction helps students to learn English (GR01), to communicate with others accurately and effectively (GR02, GR04, & GR11), and to make grammatical

sentences while speaking and writing in English (GR03). Despite that Maggie was positive toward the role of grammar instruction, she agreed that grammar teaching is not the main focus in English learning. She further thought that students might not be capable of speaking and writing in English even though they have learned grammatical rules (GR09). The data also revealed the changes in Maggie's cognition before and after the practicum. Specifically, she disagreed with teaching grammar in junior high schools before the practicum (GR05) and providing students with four-skill exercises (GR06); however, she showed her agreement toward these two items after her practicum.

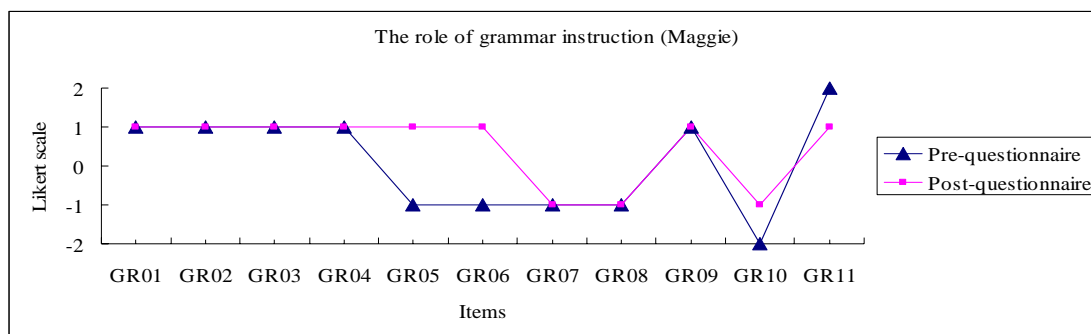


Figure 4.11 The response patterns in Maggie's pre- and post-questionnaires toward the role of grammar instruction

2. *Approach to grammar instruction.* As shown in Figure 4.12, Maggie held a positive attitude toward applying proactive approach (GA03), providing oral practices (GA04), and implementing inductive teaching approach (GA10, GA11, & GA12) in grammar instruction. In contrast, she disagreed with applying reactive approach (GA09) and deductive teaching approach (GA07, GA08, & GA09). She also disagreed with using grammatical terms while teaching grammar (GA02). The comparison between Maggie's cognition before and after the practicum revealed two changes. First, before the practicum she disagreed with using Chinese in grammar instruction (GA01), but she held a neutral attitude toward this item after the practicum.

Second, she originally showed a strong agreement with providing students repetitive pattern practices in grammar instruction (GA05); however, she disagreed with this item after the practicum.

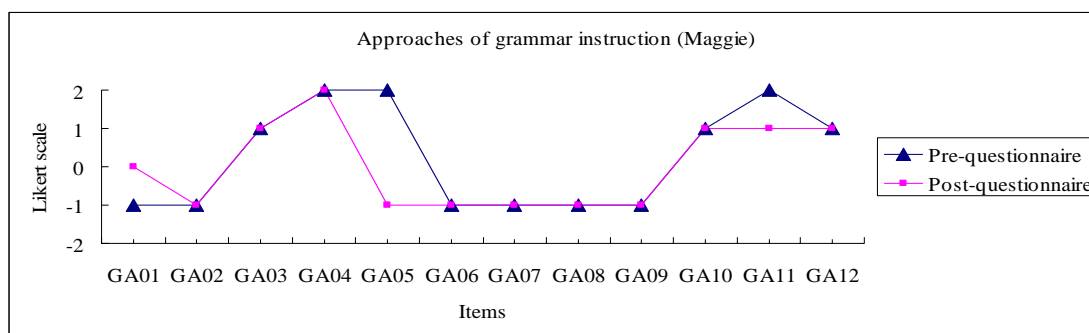


Figure 4.12 The response patterns in Maggie’s pre- and post-questionnaires toward approach to grammar instruction

3. *Content of grammar instruction.* Figure 4.13 illustrates Maggie’s positive attitude toward teaching a single rule at one time (GC01) and simple grammatical rules necessary to students’ current needs (GC02 & GC03) throughout the study. Moreover, she agreed that the content and sequence of grammar instruction should depend on the frequency of a given structure occurring in daily conversation (GC05), the textbooks (GC06), and the difficulty level of a structure (GC08). The results further indicated three differences between her cognition before and after the practicum. First, she was positive about providing related rules while teaching a given grammatical rule (GC04) at the pre-practicum stage, but she had a neutral attitude toward this item after the practicum. Second, the changes in items GC07 and GC09 revealed that before the practicum Maggie was positive about basing the content of grammar teaching on the frequent errors made by students. However, in post-practicum she disagreed with this item and further agreed with relying on students’ proficiency levels to decide the teaching content.

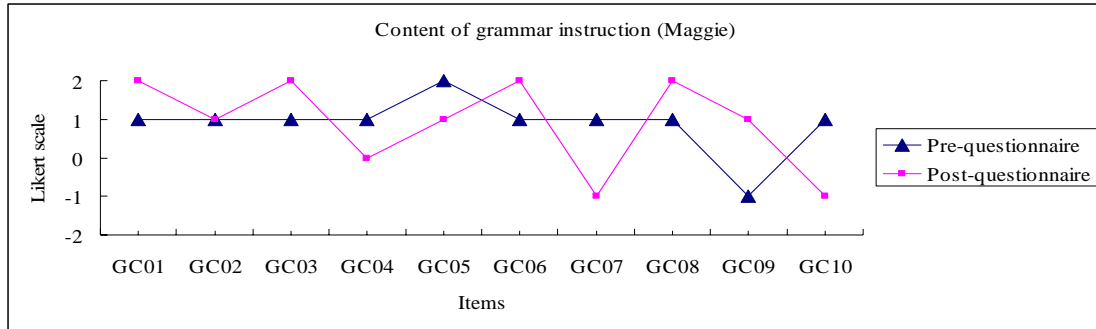


Figure 4.13 The response patterns in Maggie’s pre- and post-questionnaires toward content of grammar instruction

4. *Time issue of grammar instruction.* In pre- and post-questionnaires, Maggie was positive about teaching grammar in junior high schools (GT01) and elementary schools (GT02) (see Figure 4.14). Maggie further agreed with teaching grammar after the reading section (GT06), rather than before any other sections in a lesson (GT05). Moreover, she tended to agree with emphasizing grammar instruction either at an early stage of English learning or at each stage of English learning (GT04 & GT08). On the other hand, she disagreed with emphasizing grammar instruction only after students have obtained a certain level of communicative competence (GT07). Two changes were found in Maggie’s cognition before and after the practicum. Before her practicum, Maggie disagreed with spending the greater part of teaching hours in grammar instruction (GT03) and teaching grammar before the reading section of the unit (GT09), but she was positive toward these two items after the practicum.

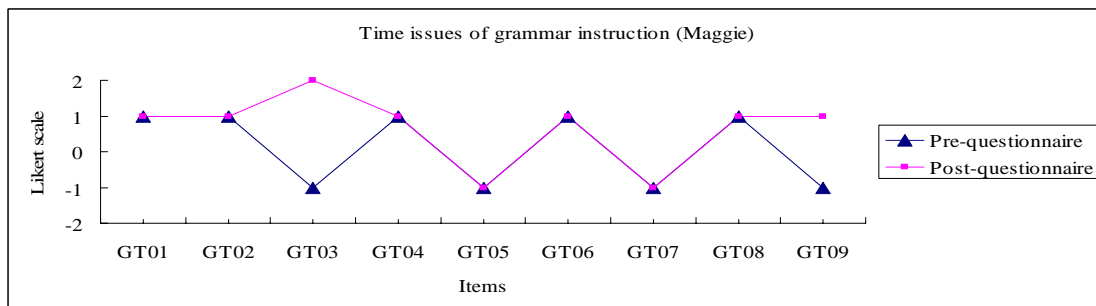


Figure 4.14 The response patterns in Maggie’s pre- and post-questionnaires toward time issue of grammar instruction

5. *Grammatical error treatment.* As shown in Figure 4.15, throughout the study Maggie inclined to agree that students' grammatical correctness level represent their English proficiency level (ET02). She strongly disagreed that teachers should not correct students' error in grammar instruction (ET01) and teachers should correct students' errors only when they cause difficulty in understanding (ET06). Compared with the descriptions related to explicit error correction (ET04 & ET08), Maggie agreed more with implicit error correction (ET07). However, two changes were found in Maggie's cognition before and after the practicum in the following aspects. Before the practicum, she agreed that teachers' corrective feedback may not help students eliminate their errors (ET03) and teachers should correct students' each error immediately (ET05); however, she was negative about these two items after the practicum.

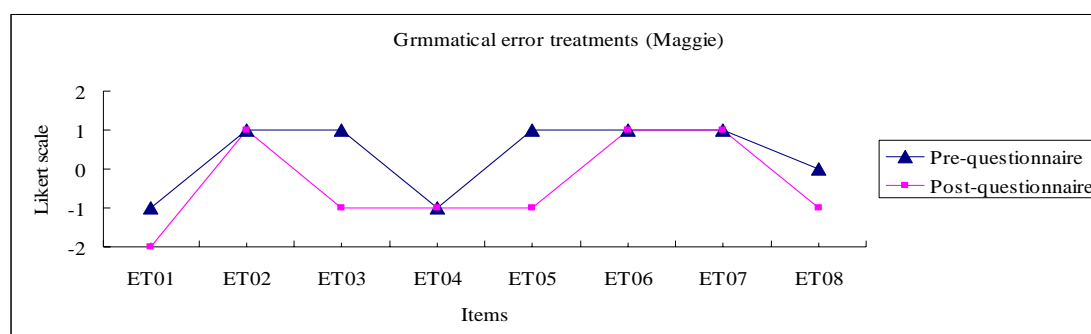


Figure 4.15 The response patterns in Maggie's pre- and post-questionnaires toward grammatical error treatment

Sandra's Cognition and Cognition Development

1. *Role of grammar instruction.* Figure 4.16 reveals that throughout the study Sandra had a positive attitude toward grammar instruction in English learning (GR01) because grammar teaching helps students to communicate with others accurately and effectively (GR02, GR04, & GR11), and to make grammatical sentences while speaking and writing in English (GR03). While Sandra was positive toward the role of

grammar instruction, she also perceived that grammar instruction should not be the only focus in English learning (GR07) and teachers should provide students with other exercises to help students develop their four skills (GR06). Yet, three differences were discovered in Sandra's response patterns between pre- and post-questionnaires. First, before the practicum she agreed that teachers should teach grammar in junior high schools (GR05) and students may not be capable of speaking and writing in English although they have learned grammar (GR09), but she disagreed with these items after the practicum. Moreover, she initially disagreed that teachers should make students read, speak, listen or write English instead of only teaching grammar (GR10), but she agreed with this description at post-practicum stage.

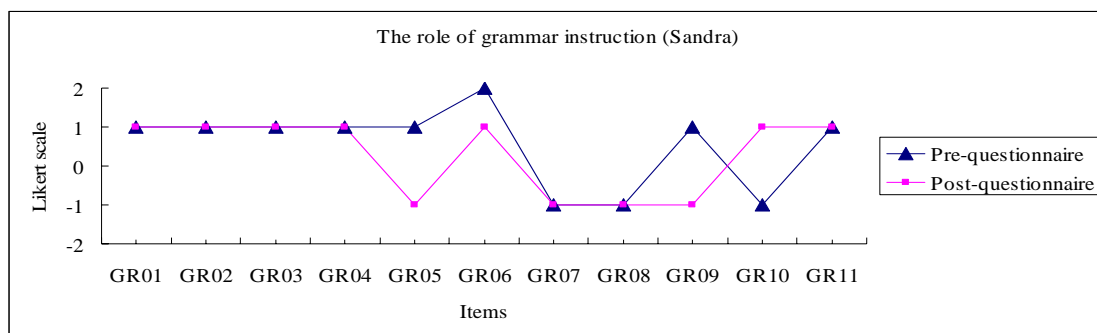


Figure 4.16 The response patterns in Sandra's pre- and post-questionnaires toward the role of grammar instruction

2. *Approach to grammar instruction.* Figure 4.17 reveals that in both pre- and post-questionnaires, Sandra agreed with applying proactive approach (GA03), providing oral practices (GA04), and implementing deductive teaching approach (GA10, GA11, & GA12) in grammar instruction. On the other hand, she was negative about applying reactive approach (GA09) and inductive teaching approach (GA06, GA07, & GA08). She further showed her disagreement with using grammatical terms (GA02) and applying repetitive pattern exercises while teaching grammar (GA05). The only difference between Sandra's pre- and post-questionnaires was that she

originally disagreed with using Chinese in grammar instruction (GA01); however, she tended to be positive toward this item after the practicum.

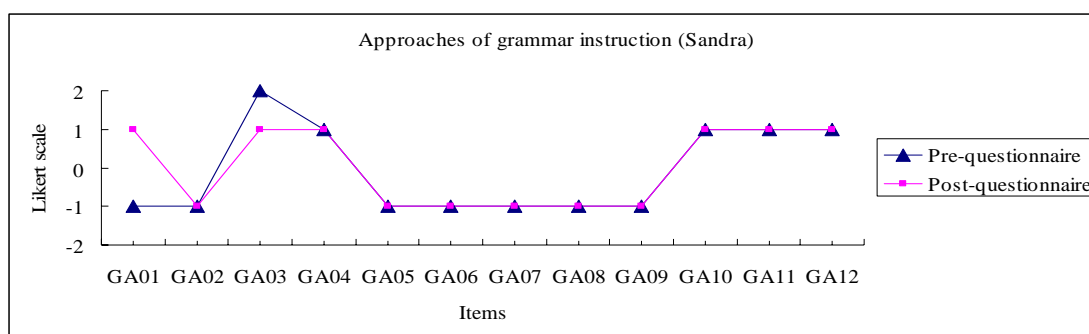


Figure 4.17 The response patterns in Sandra’s pre- and post-questionnaires toward approach to grammar instruction

3. *Content of grammar instruction.* As shown in Figure 4.18, Sandra’s pre- and post-questionnaires showed her positive opinion of teaching a single rule or structure at one time (GC01) and providing related rules while teaching a given grammatical rule (GC04). Furthermore, she agreed that the content and sequence of grammar instruction should be decided by the frequency of a given structure occurring in daily conversation (GC05), the difficulty level of a structure (GC08) and students’ proficiency levels (GC09). On the other hand, she disagreed that the difference between the structures of Chinese and English (GC10) can be used to decide the content of grammar instruction. Three changes were found in Sandra’s cognition before and after the practicum. At pre-practicum stage, she agreed that teachers should only teach those rules which can meet students’ current needs (GC02) and the frequent errors made by students should be used to decide the content of grammar instruction (GC07). However, she held a negative opinion about these two statements after finishing the practicum. In addition, she originally disagreed with only teaching simple grammatical rules (GC03), yet she tended to be positive toward this item in her post-questionnaire.

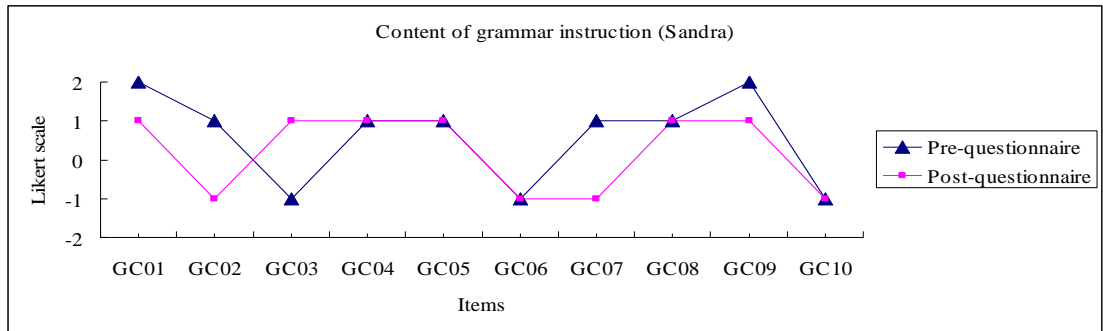


Figure 4.18 The response patterns in Sandra's pre- and post-questionnaires toward content of grammar instruction

4. *Time issue of grammar teaching.* In her both pre- and post-questionnaires, Sandra was positive toward teaching grammar in junior high schools (GT01) and in elementary schools (GT02) (see Figure 4.19). Furthermore, she agreed with emphasizing grammar instruction only after students have achieved a certain level of communicative competence (GT07), rather than at an early stage (GT04) or at each stage (GT08) of English learning. She also agreed with teaching grammar after the reading section (GT06), instead of before any other sections of a lesson unit (GT05) or before the reading section (GT09). Finally, she held a negative attitude toward spending the greater part of teaching hours in grammar instruction (GT03). In this category of teacher cognition, no change had been found between Brenda's cognition before and after the practicum.

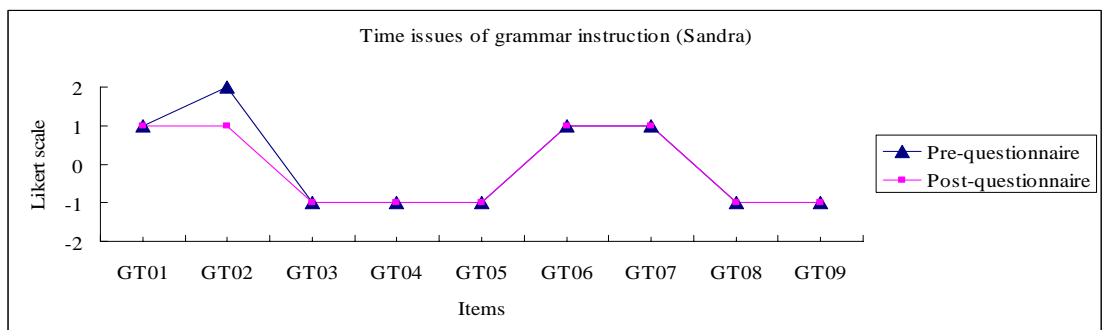


Figure 4.19 The response patterns in Sandra's pre- and post-questionnaires toward time issue of grammar instruction

5. *Grammatical error treatment.* As shown in Figure 4.20, Sandra was positive toward the role of teachers' grammatical error corrections (ET03). She agreed that students' grammar correctness level represent their English proficiency level (ET02). She further showed her positive attitude toward correcting students' errors only when the errors cause difficulties in understanding (ET06). Yet, she disagreed with correcting students' each error immediately as soon as those errors were found (ET05). In contrast to her negative attitude toward all the descriptions related to explicit error correction (ET04 & ET08), Sandra inclined to agree with implicit error correction (ET07). The only change in Sandra's cognition before and after the practicum was that she agreed with not correcting students' errors in grammar instruction (ET01) at pre-practicum stage; however, she was negative toward this item after the practicum.

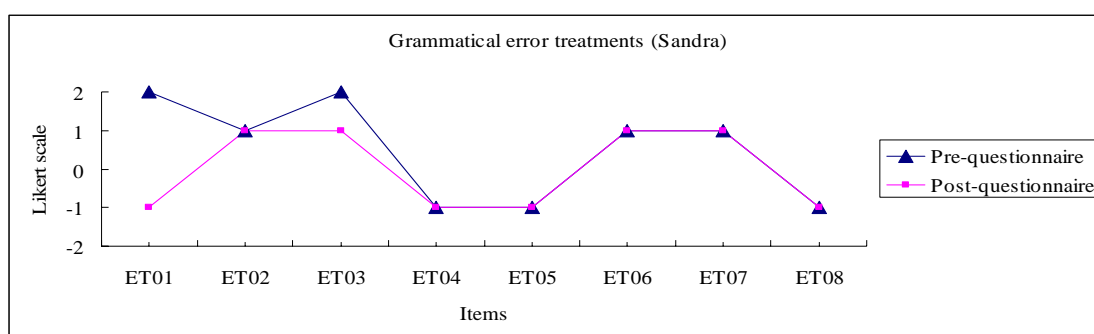


Figure 4.20 The response patterns in Sandra's pre- and post-questionnaires toward grammatical error treatment

The Cross-case Analysis of the Preservice EFL Teachers' Cognition and Cognition Development

In this section, cross-case analysis of the four participants' grammar teaching cognition and their cognition development were reported. Table 4.1 depicts the four preservice EFL teachers' cognition before and after the practicum and the changes of their cognition as well (see p. 83). In pre- and post-questionnaires, the four teacher subjects held positive attitudes toward the role of grammar instruction in English

learning. They believed that grammar instruction helps students to communicate with others accurately and effectively as well as to make grammatical sentences in speaking and writing English. Yet, they disagreed that grammar instruction should be the central focus in English teaching and perceived that teachers should provide students with other practices, such as reading and writing, in order to help them develop four skills.

In focus group interviews, the four preservice teachers also acknowledged the importance of grammar instruction. In general, these participants believed that grammar is the fundamental part of students' English learning. If students do not learn any grammatical rules, they may encounter difficulties as they develop four skills. For example, Brenda reported that "[i]f students do not learn any grammatical rules, they may encounter difficulties when they develop their four skills. Therefore, I believe grammar is the fundamental part in students' English learning" (2nd focus group interview). Maggie offered a similar comment, saying, "I think if teachers do not explain grammatical rules to students well, students may encounter problems when they develop their four skills" (2nd focus group interview).

As for approach to grammar instruction, the four preservice EFL teachers' cognition showed that they were positive toward applying proactive approach and providing oral practices throughout the study. They also agreed with implementing inductive teaching approach while teaching grammar. Conversely, they did not show much agreement with using deductive teaching approach. These teacher subjects further showed their disagreement with using grammatical terms while teaching grammar. In particular, two differences were found in these preservice teachers' cognition before and after the practicum. First, at pre-practicum stage, their opinions about using Chinese as the main medium in grammar instruction were equally split; nonetheless, after their practicum they held diverse ideas toward this issue. Second,

the four participants initially agreed with employing repetitive pattern exercises, but their opinions toward this issue were equally split at post-practicum stage.

Additionally, these preservice teachers in the focus group interview mentioned that grammar instruction should be connected with students' real life and with what students have learned. For instance, Brenda said, "I thought students would have a deeper impression if teachers could make a connection between the grammatical rules and their real life in grammar instruction" (1st focus group interview). Sandra further added, "I will apply *i+1* in my grammar instruction. That is, I will review what students have learned in the beginning. Then I will make a connection between what they have learned and what I am going to teach" (1st focus group interview).

With regard to grammar teaching content, the preservice teachers' cognition shown in both questionnaires revealed that they were positive toward teaching a single rule at one time and in teaching grammar necessary to meet students' current needs. Moreover, they tended to agree that the content and sequence of grammar instruction should be decided by 1) the frequency of a given rule occurring in daily conversation, 2) the difficulty level of a structure, and 3) students' proficiency levels. Nonetheless, two changes were found in these participants' cognition. First, before the practicum the four participants were positive about covering related rules when teaching a given grammatical structure, but they held diverse attitudes toward this issue after the practicum. In addition, their opinions about teaching simple grammatical rules were equally split at pre-practicum stage; however, they were all positive about this issue after the practicum.

These four participants in the focus group interview further stated that in addition to solely focusing on the textbooks, teachers could connect grammar instruction with other materials (e.g. English songs, movies, animations, and games) in order to motivate students. For example, Angela said, "[i]n addition to the textbooks, teachers

should offer some interesting activities in order to let each student participate in the class” (1st focus group interview). Similarly, Sandra mentioned:

If teachers are going to teach past tense, in addition to the textbooks, they could offer an English song whose lyrics contain the past tense. They could make students listen to it and then sing it together. In such a way, students might be interested in learning grammar. Or, teachers could offer students some clips extracted from animations or movies (1st focus group interview).

Concerning time issue of grammar instruction, both pre- and post-questionnaire results revealed that the four teacher subjects held positive attitudes toward teaching grammar to students in junior high and elementary schools. The results further revealed their disagreement with teaching grammar before any other sections in a lesson unit. Several changes were found in these preservice teachers’ cognition before and after the practicum. To begin with, these participants originally were positive toward teaching grammar after the reading instruction, but after their teaching experience, they perceived that grammar should be taught before the reading section. Second, before the practicum they had negative attitudes toward spending the greater part of class hours on teaching grammar; however, their opinions toward this issue were equally split after the practicum. Finally, at the pre-practicum stage, they had diverse opinions about when to emphasize grammar instruction during English learning, but after the practicum, their opinions toward this issue were equally split.

Throughout the study, the preservice teachers held positive attitudes toward the role of error correction in grammar instruction. Compared with explicit error correction, they tended to agree with implicit error correction more. In particular, two changes were discovered between these preservice teachers’ cognition before and after the practicum. First, originally their opinions toward correcting students’ each error whenever the error were found were equally split, but they were negative toward

this issue after the practicum. Second, these preservice teachers initially agreed with correcting students' errors only when those errors cause difficulty in understanding, yet their opinions toward this issue were equally split after the practicum.

As mentioned in Chapter Two, teachers' cognition is related to their teaching practices (Borg, 1999c; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Pajares, 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Woods, 1996). Clark and Peterson (1986) stressed that teachers' thinking processes tend to have an impact on their teaching behaviors. Furthermore, Richards and Lockhart (1994) indicated that "what teachers do is a reflection of what they know and believe" (p. 29). Because teachers are active decision-makers (Shavelson & Stern, 1981), there is a need for researchers to recognize the relationship between teacher cognition and classroom practices. In the next section, the preservice EFL teachers' grammar instruction practices will be discussed.

Table 4.1

Summary of Four Preservice EFL Teachers' Common Cognition before and after the Practicum and the Changes of Their Cognition

Pre-practicum	Post-practicum	Change
Role of grammar instruction		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive toward the role of grammar instruction in English learning • Negative in focusing grammar instruction as the central in English learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive toward the role of grammar instruction in English learning • Negative in focusing grammar instruction as the central in English learning 	
Approach to grammar instruction		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive in applying proactive approach • Positive in providing oral practices • <i>Positive</i> in providing repetitive pattern exercises • Positive in providing inductive teaching approach • Negative in applying reactive approach • Negative in applying deductive teaching approach • Negative in using grammatical terms • <i>Equally split</i> toward using Chinese as the main medium 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive in applying proactive approach • Positive in providing oral practices • <i>Equally split</i> toward providing repetitive pattern exercises • Positive in providing inductive teaching approach • Negative in applying reactive approach • Negative in applying deductive teaching approach • Negative in using grammatical terms • <i>Diverse opinions</i> in using Chinese as the main medium 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ ✓

Table 4.1

Summary of Four Preservice EFL Teachers' Common Cognition before and after the Practicum and the Changes of Their Cognition (Continue)

Pre-practicum	Post-practicum	Change
<u>Content of grammar instruction</u>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive in teaching a single rule at one time • Positive in teaching grammar necessary to meet student' current needs • <i>Diverse opinions</i> in covering related rules as teaching certain grammar • <i>Positive</i> in teaching simple grammatical rules • Positive in relying on following criteria as the major teaching content: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) the frequency of a given structure occurring in daily conversation 2) the difficulty level of a structure 3) students' proficiency levels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive in teaching a single rule at one time • Positive in teaching grammar necessary to meet student' current needs • <i>Positive</i> in covering related rules as teaching certain grammar • <i>Equally split</i> toward teaching simple grammatical rules • Positive in relying on following criteria as the major teaching content: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) the frequency of a given structure occurring in daily conversation 2) the difficulty level of a structure 3) students' proficiency levels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ ✓
<u>Time issue of grammar instruction cont.</u>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive in teaching grammar in junior high and elementary schools • <i>Negative</i> in spending most of the class hours on teaching grammar • Negative in teaching grammar before any other sections • Timing for giving grammar instruction in a lesson unit: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Positive</i> in teaching grammar after the reading section <i>Negative</i> in teaching grammar before the reading instruction • <i>Diverse opinions</i> about when to emphasize grammar instruction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive in teaching grammar in junior high and elementary schools • <i>Equally split</i> toward spending most of class hours on teaching grammar • Negative in teaching grammar before any other sections • Timing for giving grammar instruction in a lesson unit: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Equally split</i> toward teaching grammar after the reading section <i>Positive</i> in teaching grammar before the reading instruction • <i>Equally split</i> toward when to emphasize grammar instruction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ ✓ ✓
<u>Grammatical error treatment</u>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive toward the role of error treatment in grammar instruction and in English learning • Positive in providing implicit error correction • Negative in providing explicit error correction • Timing for providing students with error corrections: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Equally split</i> toward correcting students' each error immediately whenever the error were found <i>Positive</i> in correcting students' errors only when the errors cause difficulty in understanding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive toward the role of error treatment in grammar instruction and in English learning • Positive in providing implicit error correction • Negative in providing explicit error correction • Timing for providing students with error corrections: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Negative</i> in correcting students' each error immediately whenever the error were found <i>Equally split</i> toward correcting students' errors only when the errors cause difficulty in understanding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ ✓

Note. The tick ✓ represents the change between preservice EFL teachers' cognition before and after the practicum.

Preservice EFL Teachers' Grammar Instruction Practices

This section elucidates the cross-case analysis regarding the four preservice teachers' classroom grammar instruction practices. Multiple data collected from teacher subjects and their mentors as well as their students were analyzed based on the questionnaire categories⁷ in order to discover similarities or differences, if any, between preservice EFL teachers' cognition and their teaching practices. As shown in the preceding section, several divergences were found in the four preservice EFL teachers' cognition about grammar instruction. Yet, as revealed in the multiple-source data, their grammar instruction in real classrooms tended to be convergent. To manifest the similarities and differences among the findings of the cases, the preservice teachers' grammar teaching practices are described as a whole in this section. In order to reveal the preservice EFL teachers' classroom teaching vividly, the examples provided below were extracted directly from observation and interview data.⁸ The data collected in Chinese were translated into English and reviewed by a native speaker for correctness.

Approach to Grammar Instruction

The teacher subjects' practices regarding approach to grammar instruction can be synthesized in the following five findings. First, all these preservice teachers were apt to apply proactive approach in their grammar instruction. For example, Brenda reported that “[b]asically, I designed the courses in advance and then discussed the lesson plan with my mentor” (4th stimulated recall interview). Maggie also reiterated, “[b]efore the lesson session, I always spent several days thinking about how to

⁷ Regarding the category, “role of grammar”, the preservice EFL teachers' practices are not presented in this section because this category was designed to investigate these teacher subjects' cognition rather than their actual instruction practices.

⁸ For more observation and interview data, please refer to Appendix P.

implement grammar instruction” (2nd stimulated recall interview). The above utterances illustrate that these preservice teachers tended to prepare their grammar instruction a couple of days before the class session and they would discuss their lesson plans with their mentors, if possible.

Second, the preservice EFL teachers offered students a lot of oral practices and repetitive pattern exercises to make students familiar with the grammatical rules. For example, Angela asked students to do oral practices and repetitive exercises in order that students might have a better understanding about the use of present progressive tense. In the same way, Sandra provided students these kinds of practices while she was teaching prepositional phrases. The episodes extracted from the classroom observations of the above two examples are shown as follows.

T: What am I doing?	Ss: You are watching TV.
T: What is Jolin doing?	Ss: She is swimming.
T: What are they doing?	Ss: They are roller-skating.
	(Angela, 3 rd classroom observation)

T: I put this eraser in the box. Can you make a sentence in English?	Ss: The eraser is in the box.
T: Right. We use “in” to describe the position of the eraser. What if I put this eraser on the box, can you make a sentence?	Ss: The eraser is on the box.
T: Ok. What is this?	Ss: a pen
T: If I put this pen in front of the box, can you make a sentence?	Ss: The pen is in front of the box.
	(Sandra, 2 nd classroom observation)

It appeared that the teacher subjects inclined to offer students repetitive pattern exercises for the sake of helping students become familiar with the sentence patterns. Such exercises were implemented through oral practices. Statistical data from the questionnaire completed by students echoed such findings. Around 88% of students agreed that their preservice teacher provided oral practice (see Table 4.2). Meanwhile, about 75% of students agreed that their preservice teacher offered students repetitive pattern exercises during their grammar instruction (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.2

Frequencies of Students' Responses to the Statement, "When the preservice EFL teacher taught grammar, she offered students chances for oral practices."

Item	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	1	.7	.7
Disagree	4	3.0	3.7
No opinion	12	8.9	12.6
Agree	49	36.3	48.9
Strongly agree	69	51.1	100.0
Total	135	100.0	

Table 4.3

Frequencies of students' responses to the statement, "When the preservice EFL teacher taught grammar, she offered students chances for repetitive pattern exercises."

Item	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	0	0	0
Disagree	7	5.2	5.2
No opinion	27	20.0	25.2
Agree	55	40.7	65.9
Strongly agree	46	34.1	100.0
Total	135	100.0	

Furthermore, all the preservice EFL teachers sided with using deductive teaching approach most of the time during their grammar instruction. For example, as shown in the classroom observations, Angela taught students the structure of the present progressive tense explicitly. By the same token, Maggie directly explained the differences between past tense and past progressive tense to students. The following vignettes illustrate this kind of practice.

...The structure of present progressive is 'be verb plus v+ing'. Present progressive is used to describe an action that is happening at the moment....
 (Angela, 3rd classroom observation)

...If the action that you emphasize is temporary, then you use past tense. If the action is continuing, then you need to use past progressive....
 (Maggie, 1st classroom observation)

The interview data from all of the preservice EFL teachers' mentors supported this finding. For instance, Brenda's mentor said, "[m]ost of the time, my student teacher taught grammar deductively. Then, she offered some examples and practices to

students.” In a similar vein, Sandra’s mentor reiterated, “[b]asically, my student teacher taught grammatical rules directly and then offer some practices to students.” Statistical data from students’ survey further supported this finding. Table 4.4 shows that around 64% of students agreed that their preservice teacher tended to apply deductive teaching approach in their grammar instruction most of the time.

Table 4.4

Frequencies of Students’ Responses to the Statement, “When the preservice EFL teacher taught grammar, she directly told students the structure of the grammar being taught most of the time.”

Item	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	4	3.0	3.0
Disagree	22	16.3	19.3
No opinion	23	17.0	36.3
Agree	56	41.5	77.8
Strongly agree	30	22.2	100.0
Total	135	100.0	

Additionally, all the teacher subjects used Chinese as a crucial medium to help students learn grammatical rules. For instance, Angela told students that the structure of the English sentence, “She is a girl” is equal to the structure in Chinese; students could translate this sentence from Chinese to English word by word. Moreover, Maggie called students’ attention to the Chinese meaning of the sentence “What was she doing at 8:20 yesterday morning” and further asked students to translate this sentence into Chinese. These two typical episodes are shown below.

...她She是is一個a女生girl。完全照著中文翻....

...She is a girl. You just translate this sentence from Chinese to English directly....

(Angela, 1st classroom observation)

...這句話是什麼意思？誰可以幫我翻譯成中文？What was she doing at 8:20 yesterday morning? 她昨天早上 8:20“正在”在做什麼....

...What’s the meaning of this sentence? Who can help me translate this sentence into Chinese? What was she doing at 8:20 yesterday morning?....

(Maggie, 1st classroom observation)

The interview data conducted with all of the mentors supported this finding. For instance, Brenda’s mentor stated, “[w]hen my student teacher was giving grammar instruction, she used Chinese most of the time.” Sandra’s mentor also reported, “[m]ost of the time my student teacher spoke Chinese to teach grammar. The ratio for her use of Chinese and English was 7:3.”

Finally, grammatical terms were usually employed by all the preservice teachers in each grammar instruction session. For example, Angela used the grammatical terms, *preposition and nouns*, to explain the structure of prepositional phrases to students. In a similar vein, Sandra utilized grammatical terms to describe the differences between the *be verbs* that should be used after plural nouns and singular nouns. Detailed classroom observation episodes are shown as follows.

...Today we have learned how to add prepositions to sentences, which should be put before *nouns*....

(Angela, 4th classroom observation)

...If you use a *plural noun*, the *be verb* that you should use is *are*. On the other hand, if you use a singular noun, the *be verb* you should use is *is*....

(Sandra, 4th classroom observation)

Statistical data from students’ questionnaire showed similar results. Approximately 90% of students reported that their preservice teacher used grammatical terminology to explain the rules in their grammar instruction (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5

Frequencies of Students’ Responses to the Statement, “When the preservice EFL teacher taught grammar, she used grammatical terms in her explanation.”

Item	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	0	0	0
Disagree	4	3.0	3.0
No opinion	7	5.2	8.1
Agree	54	40.0	48.1
Strongly agree	70	51.9	100.0
Total	135	100.0	

Content of Grammar Instruction

In terms of grammar teaching content, two findings revealed preservice EFL teachers' instructional practices. To start with, from mentors' responses, it was found that when the teacher subjects taught grammar, they often covered related rules not contained in the textbooks. Three of the mentors mentioned their student teachers' provision of relevant rules for students during their grammar teaching practices. For example, Angela's mentor related that, "[w]hen teaching present participles, my student teacher usually listed extra verbs that cannot become present participles. The textbook does not contain these exceptional examples." Brenda's mentor also reported that, "[m]y student teacher provided students with some relevant rules which were not mentioned in the textbook." Sandra's mentor further added, "[a]t one time my student teacher taught students the usage of *spend*. But it was not the main focus listed in the textbook. She made a comparison between *take*, *spend*, and *cost*." The researcher's fieldnotes further coincide with these mentors' statements. For example:

In Angela's fourth grammar instruction, I discovered that her main focus was to help student become familiar with the use of prepositional phrases. Yet, she also explained the usage of proper nouns in prepositional phrases. To be more specific, Angela first explained what prepositional phrases are and then told students the differences among the prepositions *in*, *under*, *on*, *in front of*, *in back of*, *over*, etc. Then, she gave each student a handout and told students that if the noun in the prepositional phrase is a certain place, then it is unnecessary to add the definite article in the prepositional phrase, for instance, in Japan (not in the Japan).

(Fieldnotes of Angela's 4th classroom observation)

In Sandra's first teaching practice, she talked some relevant rules while teaching a certain grammar structure. While Sandra talked about the sentence pattern *too...to...* in the conversation, she also covered related sentence pattern *so...that...* and helped students distinguish the differences between these two sentence patterns. For instance, she wrote down two sentences 'I was too angry to think clearly' and 'She is so friendly that everyone likes her' on the board.

Then, she asked students to compare these two sentences and tell her the differences. Noticing that students were unable to tell the differences between these two sentences, Sandra tried to explain the structures of the two sentences.

(Fieldnotes of Sandra's 1st classroom observation)

In addition, all the teacher subjects followed the textbooks to teach grammar. That is, the content and sequence of their grammar instruction was decided by the textbooks. Maggie provided a typical explanation, saying, “[t]he textbook was my main consideration when I designed the course, and I tried to make a connection between what students have learned and what students are going to learn” (1st stimulated recall interview). Brenda further added, “I would figure out the key point of the lesson unit according to the textbook. Then I referred to some reference books to organize the handouts I would like to offer to students” (4th stimulated recall interview). As shown in the above interview data, the participants considered their textbooks the basic structure while they were designing the grammar teaching activities. Although the content of the grammar instruction depended on the textbooks, Angela, Brenda, and Maggie often designed handouts to help their students' learning. The interview data conducted with all of the teacher subjects' mentors echoed this finding. For instance, “The textbook was the main consideration for my student teacher when designing the grammar instruction because of the fixed teaching schedule” (Interview with Maggie's mentor). “During my student teacher's practicum, the content of grammar instruction in each lesson was decided by the textbook” (Interview with Sandra's mentor).

Time Issue of Grammar Instruction

With regard to time issue of grammar instruction, the results revealed that all of the teacher subjects taught grammar after vocabulary instruction. Three of them also taught grammar before students did the reading section in each unit. For example,

Angela said, “I taught grammar after students had learned vocabulary. The final part was reading instruction” (4th stimulated recall interview). Brenda also offered a similar statement, saying “[i]n each unit, I taught grammar after the vocabulary section, but reading passage hadn’t been taught to students” (4th stimulated recall interview). All of the mentors’ interview data supported such a finding. For instance, Brenda’s mentor described, “[m]y student teacher taught grammar after the vocabulary section and before the reading instruction. The reason she did this was because I taught students in this way.” Maggie’s mentor also reported, “[t]he timing of my student teacher’s implementation of grammar instruction is similar to mine. That is, grammar is taught after the vocabulary section in each unit.”

Students’ responses concerning the time their preservice teachers implemented grammar instruction disclosed similar results. As shown in Table 4.6, 63% of students agreed that their preservice teacher did not begin the unit with grammar instruction before doing other sections.

Table 4.6

Frequencies of Students’ Responses to the Statement, “The preservice EFL teacher did not begin the unit with grammar instruction before doing other sections, such as vocabulary, dialogue, reading, etc.”

Item	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	2	1.5	1.5
Disagree	24	17.8	19.3
Uncertain	24	17.8	37.0
Agree	43	31.9	68.9
Strongly agree	42	31.1	100.0
Total	135	100.0	

Grammatical Error Treatment

Concerning grammatical error treatment, two findings illustrated how the preservice teachers handled error correction during their grammar instruction. First, the four preservice teachers’ practices revealed that they corrected students’ errors

whenever the errors were found. With one voice, all the mentors reported their student teachers' practice of immediate error correction to students' each error. For example, Maggie's mentor reported that, "[m]y student teacher corrected students' each error in both written and oral practices whenever she found the error. Especially for written practice, she always asked students to write down their answers on the board. If any errors occurred, she corrected those errors immediately." The teacher subjects' students echoed this finding. According to Table 4.7, 93% of students agreed that their preservice teacher corrected students' each error immediately whenever the error was found.

Table 4.7

Frequencies of Students' Responses to the Statement, "Whenever students made grammatical errors, the preservice EFL teacher corrected the errors immediately."

Item	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	0	0	0
Disagree	1	.7	.7
No opinion	9	6.7	7.4
Agree	62	45.9	53.3
Strongly agree	63	46.7	100.0
Total	135	100.0	

Second, the four participants corrected students' grammatical errors in different ways. Specifically, Brenda and Sandra tended to provide implicit error corrections for students. Brenda asked a student question to clarify why the student made the error. Sandra repeated a student's error and adjusted her intonation in order to draw the student's attention to the error. The following episodes illustrate these two preservice teachers' implicit error correction.

T: Is this sentence correct: You have been to Canada.
 Ss: (some students) Yes
 (other students) No

T: Someone said no. Why is this sentence not correct?
 Ss: Because we don't know whether this person wants to go to Canada or not.

T: Well, the present perfect emphasizes an action which has happened so this sentence is correct.
 Ss: ...[silence]

(Brenda, 1st classroom observation)

T: If the subject is 'I' and the verb is 'spent', then what should we do in the following?
 Ss: I spent NT\$1000 to buy this...

T: to buy this T-shirt?
 Ss: buying this T-shirt

T: Yes, I spent NT\$1000 *buying* this T-shirt.
 Ss: ...[silence]

(Sandra, 1st classroom observation)

Unlike the above two teacher subjects, Angela and Maggie sided with offering explicit error corrections. For instance, Angela corrected a student's error by giving the student the right answer explicitly. Similarly, Maggie corrected students' errors explicitly as she clearly indicated that the answers students offered were incorrect and then provided the correct form. Detailed classroom observation episodes are as follows.

T: What is your answer, Shin-yun?
 Ss: in front of box

T: Are you sure? You missed a word.
 Ss: ...[silence]

Which word? You missed the word 'the'. Because you should specify the box in this picture, the answer is in front of the box.

(Angela, 4th classroom observation)

T: What kind of phrase should I add to modify this sentence?
 Ss: (One student said...) in

T: You don't need to put in here.
 Ss: (Another one said) yesterday night

T: Yesterday night is not the correct answer.
 Ss: ...[silence]

T: The correct answer is last night.
 Ss: ...[silence]

(Maggie, 1st classroom observation)

Relationship between Preservice EFL Teachers' Cognition and Practices

The relationship between the four preservice teachers' post-practicum cognition⁹ and their classroom practices with regard to approach, content, time issue of grammar instruction, and grammatical error treatment are described. Moreover, possible factors influencing the inconsistency, if any, between preservice EFL teachers' cognition and practices in grammar instruction are further revealed.

Approach to Grammar Instruction

After comparing the preservice EFL teachers' cognition and practices in terms of grammar teaching approaches, the findings revealed two consistencies and four inconsistencies (see Table 4.8). In general, the teacher subjects followed their cognition in employing proactive approach and offered oral practices to students in their grammar instruction. On the other hand, although these teacher subjects held diverse opinions about using Chinese as the major medium in grammar instruction, they tended to use Chinese most of the time in their classroom practices. Additionally, these preservice teachers were negative toward using grammatical terms but their practices revealed their frequent use of grammatical terms while they were explaining grammatical rules to students. Most of the time, the four preservice EFL teachers applied deductive teaching approach in their practices, which was inconsistent with their cognition (i.e. inductive teaching approach). Finally, all the teacher subjects provided repetitive practices for their students while their opinions about whether to provide such exercises to students were equally split.

⁹ In this study, preservice EFL teachers' cognition in post-practicum was used to compare with their grammar teaching practices, for it could represent what these teacher subjects thought about grammar instruction after they had experienced a semester-long teaching practicum and had a certain level of cognition development.

Table 4.8

A Comparison of Four Preservice EFL Teachers' Cognition and Practices in Approach to Grammar Instruction

Preservice EFL teachers' cognition	Preservice EFL teachers' practices	Consistency
Positive in applying proactive approach	Applying proactive approach every time	✓
Positive in providing oral practices	Providing oral practices every time	✓
Diverse opinions in using Chinese as the main medium	Using Chinese most of the time	×
Negative in using grammatical terms	Using grammatical terms during explanation	×
Positive in applying inductive approach	Applying deductive approach most of the time	×
Equally split toward providing repetitive practices	Providing repetitive practices every time	×

After analyzing the data, several potential factors affecting the inconsistency between these teacher subjects' cognition and practices were identified. To begin with, the factors influencing most preservice EFL teachers' decisions to use Chinese as the main medium to teach grammar were students' proficiency levels, school exams, and mentors' previous instruction, as shown in the following examples:

...If I use English to explain the grammatical rules, students might not be able to understand what I am talking about. Because of students' poor proficiency levels, it was necessary for me to use Chinese while I was teaching grammar....

(Angela, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...When students take the school exams, they need to translate sentences from Chinese to English, and this sentence pattern would be a main point in the exam. I hope when students see the Chinese of this sentence pattern, they will realize they should use *too...to...* to make sentences....

(Sandra, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...My mentor used Chinese to teach these students grammar before. If I had used English to teach grammar, they wouldn't understand it....

(Brenda, 1st stimulated recall interview)

Second, the major reasons these preservice EFL teachers used terminology to explain grammar rules were related to students' proficiency levels and comprehension. For example, Angela mentioned, “[s]tudents knew the abbreviation of *prep* before. Yet,

at that time I thought based on their proficiency levels, they should learn the spelling and meaning of *prep* so I explained this term to them” (4th stimulated recall interview). Sandra reported, “[t]he grammatical terms I used in the class were those that students could understand. If students understand those terms that I have used in the class, it’s easier for them to grasp the rules” (1st stimulated recall interview). Other possible factors affecting these preservice teachers’ use of terminology were school exams, limited instructional hours and mentors’ influence. Typically, Sandra described, “[t]he reason for me to use grammatical terms while I was teaching grammar was that these terms will also be used on school exams” (2nd stimulated recall interview). “If I had used another way to explain the structure of relative clauses at that time, I would have spent much more time to explain the rule, and the instructional hour could be extended. Therefore, I used grammatical terms to teach grammar” (Maggie, 4th stimulated recall interview). “I think it’s not difficult for students to understand these grammatical terms because my mentor frequently taught them these terms before” (Brenda, 3rd stimulated recall interview).

Third, the factors contributing to preservice EFL teachers’ inclination to apply deductive teaching approach were students’ proficiency levels, reaction, motivation, and comprehension. Typical statements offered by the teacher subjects are shown below.

...In this class, students’ proficiency level was lower. If I told them the structures of the rules directly, they would memorize the rule more easily....

(Brenda, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...Because students did not react to my questions, I directly told them the structure of the rule being taught....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...I hadn’t taught this part before, and I thought if I could explain this rule deductively, it would be easier for students to understand....

(Angela, 3rd stimulated recall interview)

...Students in this class were at lower proficiency level and their learning motivation was weak. If I had given students a lot of sentences and made them figure out the differences, they would not have been able to concentrate on my course; therefore, I directly told students the rule....

(Maggie, 1st stimulated recall interview)

Other factors influencing the preservice teachers' decisions in applying deductive teaching approach most of the time were their own learning experiences, limited instructional hours, and mentor influence. For example, Brenda mentioned, “[w]hen I was a student, my teacher directly told me the structure. At that time, my teacher did not provide any extra explanation about this rule either for us. Therefore, here I explained this rule to students directly” (3rd stimulated recall interview). Maggie said, “[i]f the instructional hours would have been extended, I would have given students a lot of similar sentences and make them induce the rule by themselves. I believed this would increase students' long-term memory of the rule being taught. However, the limited teaching hours didn't allow me to apply inductive teaching approach” (1st stimulated recall interview). Furthermore, Sandra indicated, “I used deductive teaching approach here because my mentor wanted me to finish everything that I had to teach on that day, and I had the pressure of having limited teaching hours” (1st stimulated recall interview).

Finally, with the intention of reinforcing, if not improving, students' comprehension of grammar rules, and thereby performing better on school exams, all preservice teachers tended to employ repetitive practice in their classroom instruction. Maggie provided a typical statement, saying, “I need to teach the grammar exercise section again and again because my mentor tended to give students some quizzes in which they would be tested on those structures” (4th stimulated recall interview). Brenda also indicated, “I think the reason I offered repetitive pattern practices to students was because of the school exams” (4th stimulated recall interview).

Content of Grammar Instruction

The comparison between the teacher subjects' cognition and practices in grammar teaching content (see Table 4.9) revealed that three of the participants covered related rules when teaching a given grammar structure although in their cognition, they held diverse opinions toward this issue. Moreover, the content of these preservice teachers' grammar teaching depended on textbooks while they believed that the sequence of grammar instruction should be decided by the frequency of a given structure occurring in daily conversation, the difficulty level of a structure, or students' proficiency levels,.

Table 4.9

A Comparison of Four Preservice EFL Teachers' Cognition and Practices in Grammar Teaching Content

Preservice EFL teachers' cognition	Preservice EFL teachers' practices	Consistency
Diverse opinions in covering rules related to certain grammar	Three of the four covered related rules while teaching a certain grammar	×
The content and sequence of grammar instruction should depend on 1) the frequency of a given structure occurring in daily conversation, 2) the difficulty level of a structure, or 3) students' proficiency levels	The content and sequence of grammar instruction depended on textbooks.	×

The preservice teachers reported that their mentors' expectations and the influence of school exams were the major influences on whether these preservice teachers covered relevant rules in their grammar instruction. For example,

...I covered relevant rules while teaching grammar because my mentor taught students not only the stuff on the textbook but also the related rules. It is too easy for students if they only learn the stuff on the textbook....

(Brenda, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...When students take school exams, the questions in the exams would be more difficult than those in the textbooks. Therefore, if I have time, I would like to provide students as many related rules as I can....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)

Another factor contributing to these teacher subjects' decision to rely on the textbooks as the teaching content was their teaching schedule. Sandra mentioned, “[b]ecause the teaching schedule was designed based on the textbook, we need to follow it; we might not be able to teach what we like in the classrooms” (4th stimulated recall interview). Brenda also reported, “[t]he teaching content in my grammar instruction was based on the textbook because we needed to follow the fixed teaching schedule” (4th stimulated recall interview).

Time Issue of Grammar Instruction

Table 4.10 shows a consistent relationship between preservice EFL teachers' cognition and practices regarding time issue of grammar instruction. That is, in their cognition, these preservice teachers showed a positive attitude toward teaching grammar after any other sections in a lesson unit but before the reading section. In their classroom practices, all of them taught grammar after vocabulary instruction and three of them implemented grammar teaching before their students did the reading section of the unit.

Table 4.10

A Comparison of Four Preservice EFL Teachers' Cognition and Practices Regarding Time Issue of Grammar Instruction

Preservice EFL teachers' cognition	Preservice EFL teachers' practices	Consistency
Positive in teaching grammar after other sections in a lesson	Teaching grammar after vocabulary instruction	✓
Positive in teaching grammar before students did the reading section	Three of the four taught grammar before students did the reading section	✓

Although a consistent relationship was found in these preservice teachers' cognition and practices, these teacher subjects reported that their mentors' influence was the major factor which reinforced their cognition and practices about when to

implement grammar instruction. For instance, Maggie indicated, “[i]n my class, grammar instruction was implemented after the vocabulary instruction but before the reading instruction. In fact, this was the way my mentor taught the unit, and I just followed her procedures” (4th stimulated recall interview). Sandra also stated, “[i]t was my mentor who decided the time scheduled for grammar instruction” (4th stimulated recall interview).

Grammatical Error Treatment

Table 4.11 lists the divergence between preservice EFL teachers’ cognition toward grammatical error treatment and their practices. In their post-practicum cognition, all the participants agreed with providing implicit error correction. However, two teacher subjects showed their inclination to apply explicit error correction in their classrooms. In addition, the four participants all showed their disagreement with applying immediate error correction to students’ each error, which was inconsistent with their actual tendency to correct students’ each error immediately in their classroom practices.

Table 4.11

A Comparison of Four Preservice EFL Teachers’ Cognition and Practices in Grammatical Error Treatment

Preservice EFL teachers’ cognition	Preservice EFL teachers’ practices	Consistency
Positive in providing implicit error correction	• Two of the four applying implicit error correction most of the time	✓
	• The other two applying explicit error correction most of the time	×
Negative in correcting students each error immediately	Correcting students’ errors whenever they found the errors	×

According to the interview data, students’ proficiency levels and teaching materials were the factors influencing the teacher subjects’ application of explicit

error correction. Preservice EFL teachers' typical statements are listed as below:

...I corrected this student's error directly because his English proficiency level was lower. And I thought that few students would make the same error, and it was this student's problem....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...Because I was teaching past progressive at that time, I did not want to deviate from the subject being taught. Therefore, I corrected the error explicitly....

(Maggie, 1st stimulated recall interview)

The major reasons why these preservice EFL teachers corrected students' each error immediately were mainly related to students' special learning needs and proficiency levels. The following are the explanations provided by these preservice teachers.

...I corrected students' each error immediately because I wanted to let the student know his error and to cultivate his language intuition....

(Brenda, 2nd stimulated recall interview)

...If I did not provide any error correction to the student who made the error at that time, other students would be influenced by the error. Therefore, I corrected the student's error when I found it....

(Maggie, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...The reason why I told the students right answer immediately was because this student's English proficiency was lower and I thought he might not be able to self-correct the error....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)

Summary of the Factors Influencing the Consistency between Preservice EFL

Teachers' Cognition and Practices

Table 4.12 depicts the factors contributing to the inconsistency between preservice teachers' cognition and their practices. A total of twelve possible factors preventing the teacher subjects from carrying out their espoused cognition were identified. These factors were further categorized into three main categories: student learning issues, preservice teachers' working environment, and personal prior learning experiences. Subcategories of students learning issues included students' proficiency

levels, comprehension, reaction, motivation, special learning needs. Preservice teachers' working environment factors were related to teaching schedule, teaching materials, limited instructional hours, mentors' effect, and school exams. No subcategories were identified for personal prior learning experience.

Interestingly, the teacher subjects' practices in terms of approach, content, and time issue of grammar instruction as well as grammatical error treatment seemed to be affected by different categories. Specifically, it was found that subcategories within the three main categories appeared to influence the preservice EFL teachers' practices concerning the approach to grammar instruction. Both students learning issues and factors of preservice teachers' working environment tended to have an impact on the teacher subjects' practices regarding grammatical error treatment. Finally, these teacher subjects' practices with regard to content and time of grammar instruction were mainly influenced by their working environment.

Table 4.12

A Summary of the Factors Influencing the Consistency between Preservice EFL Teachers' Cognition and Practices in Grammar Instruction

Categories of grammar instruction	Main categories of factors	Sub-categories of factors
Approach to grammar instruction	Student learning issues	1. Students' proficiency levels 2. Students' comprehension 3. Students' reaction 4. Students' motivation
	Preservice teacher's working environment	1. Limited instructional hours 2. Mentors' effect 3. School exams/Quizzes
	Personal prior learning experiences	N/A
Content of grammar instruction	Preservice teacher's working environment	1. Teaching materials 2. Teaching schedule 3. Mentors' effects 4. School exams/Quizzes
Time issue of grammar instruction	Preservice teacher's working environment	Mentors' effect
Grammatical error treatment	Student learning issues	1. Students' proficiency levels 2. Students' special learning needs
	Preservice teacher's working environment	Teaching materials

CHAPTER FIVE DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In the previous chapter, the analysis of the collected data was presented to reveal the four preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition, the changes of their cognition, their classroom practices, and the possible factors influencing their practices. This chapter now attempts to summarize the findings according to the five research questions proposed in Chapter One. Discussion of the major findings is further raised based on previous literature¹⁰. Next, the pedagogical implications are reported. Finally, the limitations of this study are described and suggestions for future research are made.

Summary and Discussion

In board terms, this study investigated preservice EFL teachers' cognition development and instructional practices regarding grammar instruction in Taiwanese junior high schools. Employing multiple data sources and involving multiple stakeholders' perspectives, this study in particular attempted to draw a more descriptive, if not complete, picture concerning the relationship between these preservice teachers' cognition and grammar teaching practices as well as the possible factors influencing these teachers' practices.

1. *What is preservice EFL teachers' cognition about grammar instruction before and after their practicum in junior high schools?*

In general, the results in preservice EFL teachers' pre- and post-questionnaires disclosed that the four participants clearly recognized their own grammar teaching cognition for most of the items. That is, these teacher subjects tended to show their

¹⁰ Owing to the conspicuous limitation of pertinent literature about preservice EFL teachers' cognition and practices about grammar instruction, previous studies related to inservice teachers' beliefs and practices were referred to in the discussion section.

agreement or disagreement toward most of the themes identified in the questionnaire during their learning to teach. The analyzed data also revealed that these teacher subjects spread out more consistent cognition regarding the issues of the role and approach to grammar instruction as well as grammatical error treatment. Relatively, they showed more diverse attitudes toward content and time of grammar instruction. In the sections that follow, the preservice teachers' cognition at pre- and post-practicum stages will be summarized.

Regarding the role of grammar instruction, throughout the teaching practicum the four preservice teachers valued the importance of grammar instruction in English learning because they believed that grammar instruction may help students communicate with others accurately and effectively, as well as make grammatical sentences when speaking and writing in English. In line with previous literature (e.g. Borg, 1998a; Burgess & Etherington, 2002; Hsieh, 2005; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Lai, 2004; Lee, 2008; Mai, 2003), these teacher subjects on the one hand perceived the importance of grammar instruction. Yet, on the other hand, they disagreed with viewing grammar instruction as the central part in English teaching. Instead, they expressed that teachers should try to help students develop four skills by providing diverse modes of practices. This result echoed Lai's (2004) study in which Taiwanese high school English teachers believed that the emphasis on grammar should not override the emphasis on meaning. Students should be provided with plentiful exposure to English rather than only receive grammar instruction. Such a finding could further be buttress Lee's study (2008) conducted in Hong Kong where English teachers in secondary schools not only appreciated the value of grammar instruction but also acknowledged the fact that solely providing students with grammar teaching is insufficient to nurture students' communicative competence.

With regard to grammar teaching approaches, throughout the study these

preservice teachers showed their agreement on relating students' real life experience and prior knowledge to classroom instruction, providing students with oral practices of grammatical rules, and applying proactive approach (i.e. preparing the grammar instruction before each class session). Furthermore, compared to deductive teaching approach, these preservice teachers showed their agreement with employing inductive instruction. As mentioned by these preservice teachers, inductive approach could allow students to reason the rules actively and further construct deeper impression toward the rules being taught. What these teacher subjects thought about inductive teaching approach was backed up by the literature, indicating that inductive teaching approach raises students' consciousness on language forms and encourages students to adopt a deeper processing of learning (Krashen, 1982; Norman & Schmidt, 1992; Ramsden, 2003). Interestingly, this result differed from what most Taiwanese junior high English teachers thought about grammar teaching approaches in previous studies (e.g. Chung, 2008; Hsieh, 2005; Lai, 2004). Most inservice teachers in these studies believed that teachers should directly analyze, explain, and discuss grammatical rules. They strongly argued that deductive grammar teaching saved instructional hours and was more efficient than the inductive one.

These preservice teachers further showed their disagreement with using grammatical terms in grammar instruction during their learning to teach. As described in Chapter Three, these teachers were trained in the Communicative Language Teaching approach when taking preservice training courses (see the section of Settings and Participants on p. 42). The reason why these teacher subjects held negative attitudes toward using grammatical terms was because they had learned that grammatical terminology is "the legacy of a grammar-translation approach to L2 teaching" and may become a burden interfering with students' learning (Eisenstein, 1987). These teacher subjects' cognition about the use of grammatical terms was in

contrast to what was perceived by ESL and EFL teachers in previous literature (Borg, 1998a; 1999c; Burgess & Etherington, 2002; Chung, 2008; Hsieh, 2005; Lai, 2004; Lee, 2008). Participating teachers in these studies believed that using grammatical terms could help students investigate the target language by themselves and enable students to understand more complicated sentences.

In particular, before the practicum the preservice EFL teachers were positive toward applying repetitive pattern exercises and their opinions were equally split toward using Chinese in their grammar instruction. Yet, they showed their neutral attitudes toward these two issues after finishing their practicum. Such changes might be influenced by their practicum experiences. As shown in the literature (e.g. Chung, 2008; Lai, 2004), the majority of English teachers in Taiwanese junior high schools tended to believe in using Chinese and providing repetitive pattern practices for students in their grammar instruction. In these studies, inservice teachers regarded Chinese as a suitable medium to help students comprehend the rules. They believed in the strength of applying repetitive exercises to make students become familiar with what was being taught.

As for grammar teaching content, the preservice teachers were in favor of using extra instructional materials, such as English songs and games, in addition to solely focusing on the textbooks. Moreover, although these participating teachers had different attitudes toward covering related rules in a unit, they tended to believe that the content and sequence of grammar instruction should depend on 1) the frequency of the given structure occurring in daily conversation, 2) the difficulty level of a structure, and 3) students' proficiency levels. Seemingly, these preservice teachers' de-emphasis of the role of textbook content was different from the perceptions of most Taiwanese inservice English teachers examined in Lai (2004) and Chung (2008). The inservice teachers believed that teaching content should be decided by the

textbooks on account that they were satisfied with the sequence of the grammatical features in the textbooks.

Concerning time issue of grammar instruction, the four participants disagreed with teaching grammar before any other sections in a lesson unit. However, they held different opinions about whether to teach grammar before or after the reading sections, whether to spend most instructional hours in grammar instruction, and when to emphasize grammar teaching in students' learning stages. It could be hypothesized that these teacher subjects' negative attitude with teaching grammar before any other sections might be influenced by what they thought about the role of grammar instruction. As previously mentioned, the four participants thought that the importance of grammar should not override that of the four skills in English teaching and learning. With this perception, these teachers tended to believe that it was not a priority to teach grammar in a lesson unit.

When speaking of grammar error treatment, these preservice teachers were positive with the importance of error correction in grammar instruction. Their positive attitudes toward grammatical error treatment appeared to accord with the finding in Lee's study (2008), in which ESL teachers in Hong Kong believed that students' grammatical errors should be corrected in order to help students eliminate their errors. As highlighted by Allwright and Bailey (1991), the reason why ESL and EFL teachers appreciated the value of grammatical error correction was due to the notion that language learners modify their hypotheses and alter their output on the basis of grammatical error correction offered by teachers. With teachers' offer of corrective feedback, students' mistakenly modifying hypotheses can be effectively prevented (Schmidt & Frota, 1986).

Moreover, although the preservice EFL teachers agreed with applying implicit error corrections, they tended to have different opinions about the timing of providing

error corrections throughout the study, which was dissimilar to the inservice English teachers investigated in Lee (2008). Teachers in Lee's study believed in using mixed strategies (i.e. both implicit and explicit error treatments) to correct students' grammatical errors rather than depending on single strategy. In addition, they further argued that teachers should not correct students' each error or mistake except for those causing difficulty in understanding.

In summary, the above results showed that certain parts of the preservice teachers' grammar teaching cognition was not similar to inservice ESL or EFL teachers' cognition documented in previous literature. Such a finding may suggest the conflict between the preservice teachers' preliminary ideals and the realities of teaching. Scholars and researchers have remarked that the differences between preservice and inservice teachers' cognition were on account of how they perceived the realities of classroom instruction (Day, 1999; Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; Richards, 1998). As indicated by Richards (1998), preservice teachers with limited teaching experience may not be able to recognize the complexities embedded in teaching environment and still carry their initial, if not idealistic, beliefs or cognition that could not match the teaching contexts. Yet, inservice teachers may have to alter their original beliefs or cognition in order to comply with the teaching difficulties, if not problems, they encounter in classroom settings everyday (Day, 1999; Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1986; Fuller & Bown, 1975; Kagan, 1992; Sendan & Roberts, 1998). The above discoveries promoted further questions that need to be explored in the future studies. For example, how could preservice EFL teachers become aware of their own grammar teaching cognition during their learning to teach? How would teacher education programs help preservice EFL teachers recognize their teaching cognition? How could teacher education programs prepare preservice teachers for facing the realities of classroom practices? How would preservice EFL teachers perceive their

cognition dissimilar to those of inservice teachers? What will happen if preservice teachers adjust their teaching cognition to match the teaching realities?

2. *What changes, if any, occur in preservice EFL teachers' cognition about grammar instruction over their practicum in junior high schools?*

With the semester-long practicum experience, around 40% obvious changes were found in the preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition before and after the practicum, albeit they still keep 60% cognition unchanged. Of the five main categories identified in the questionnaire, several changes in these participants' cognition were found in four of them (i.e. approach, content, and time issue of grammar instruction as well as grammatical error treatment). Among the changes, their cognition regarding time issue varied the most. The changes of the preservice teachers' cognition mainly covered the following aspects: 1) providing repetitive pattern practices, 2) using Chinese as the main medium, 3) teaching simple grammatical rules only, 4) covering relevant rules while teaching a certain grammar, 5) spending most instructional hours in grammar instruction, 6) timing for giving grammar instruction in a lesson unit, 7) timing of emphasizing grammar teaching, and 8) timing of providing error correction to students.

The above findings may imply that to some extent these teacher subjects' changed cognition could be attributed to their six-month long practicum experience. As argued by researchers (e.g. Halbach, 2000; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Shkedi & Laron, 2004), after receiving a series of professional training in teacher education programs, most preservice teachers would hold a set of beliefs or conceptions about teaching and learning (Halbach, 2000; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Shkedi & Laron, 2004). Yet, when preservice teachers enter the real classrooms and have chances to interact with pupils during their fieldwork, they need to face more complex issues related to students'

learning problems (Day, 1999; Richards, 1998; Shkedi & Laron, 2004). Under this circumstance, sometimes preservice teachers should leave their ideological conceptions aside and restructure their original cognition they perceived in teacher education programs in order to cope with complex student learning problems and reflect the needs of classroom realities (Buitink, 2009; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Shkedi & Laron, 2004). Such a proposition could be linked with what had been discussed in previous section, suggesting that teacher cognition is a mental and dynamic construct. Both preservice and inservice teachers may define and redefine their cognition based on their acknowledgement of the real teaching environment. Therefore, the changes of these teacher subjects' cognition indicate the result of their active attempts to balance the pre-existing cognition and present reality (Nettle, 1998).

According to the above discussions, some possible queries and inquiries could be raised. For example, how could preservice EFL teachers keep the original grammar teaching cognition they perceived from taking teacher education programs? What will happen to preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition after they experience longer terms of teaching experiences or after they become full-time teachers? What changes, if any, occur in preservice EFL teachers' cognition about grammar teaching providing that they are placed in other school contexts?

3. *How do preservice EFL teachers conduct grammar instruction in real classroom settings during their practicum in junior high schools?*

Based on the analysis of multiple-source data, these preservice EFL teachers' grammar instruction in real classroom appeared traditional and inflexible, as shown in their provision of repetitive pattern practices, application of deductive teaching approach, and frequent use of Chinese and grammatical terms. Moreover, these teachers' grammar teaching was mainly textbook-oriented and their instruction would

be confined into a specific “format.” In essence, the ways the preservice EFL teachers taught grammar departed radically from what they believed to be true about grammar instruction. It seemed that these preservice teachers could not carry their espoused cognition into actual practices. Summary of the four teacher subjects’ classroom instruction is described as follows.

In terms of grammar teaching approaches, the preservice EFL teachers were apt to apply proactive and deductive approach, provide oral and repetitive pattern practices, as well as use Chinese as the main medium and grammatical terms in their instruction. Similar to inservice teachers investigated in previous studies, these teacher subjects tended to employ deductive approach with the aim of saving instructional hours and accommodating students’ proficiency levels. The underlying causes of teachers’ reliance on deductive approach may be related to researchers’ statements, arguing that with its straightforwardness, deductive approach usually needs less teaching hours (Robinson, 1996; Seliger, 1975) and is more suitable for students with lower proficiency level (Brigham & Matins, 1999; Wang, 2002).

In addition, the finding that the preservice teachers conducted their grammar teaching primarily in Chinese corresponded to the existing literature conducted in Taiwan (e.g. Chung, 2008; Hsieh, 2005; Hsu, 2007). In these studies, Taiwanese inservice teachers mentioned that they used Chinese in their grammar teaching mainly because it could help students with low proficiency level understand the teaching content. In the current study, similar comments were proposed by the teacher subjects. To help students with limited ability to use English communicatively understand the grammatical rules, these preservice EFL teachers eventually deviated from their espoused cognition and used Chinese most of the time in their grammar instruction.

Moreover, the preservice teachers’ employment of grammatical terms in their lecturing was in line with previous studies conducted in Taiwan and Singapore (e.g.

Chung, 2008; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Hsieh, 2005; Hsu, 2007). In view of helping students comprehend the rules being taught and finishing teaching content within the limited teaching hours, it was necessary for these participants to use grammatical terms to explain the rules (see Chapter Four for details). The reasons for these teachers to use grammatical terms were coincided with those proposed by the inservice EFL teachers in Chung's (2008) study. Participating teachers in Chung's study reported that they used grammatical terms during their lectures because it could not only increase the efficiency but also foster students' quick understanding of the rule.

With regard to grammar teaching content, teacher subjects in this study tended to teach a single rule in each class session and provide relevant rules while teaching certain grammar. In addition, the content of these teachers' grammar teaching was decided by the textbook. Such a finding echoed ESL and EFL teachers' dependence on textbooks to decide the content and sequence of the grammar instruction in previous literature (Chung, 2008; Hsieh, 2005; Wu, 2006). The participating preservice teachers in this study had no choice but to rely on the textbooks as the major teaching content because they needed to follow the teaching schedule and they were aware of students' pressure of taking entrance exams (see Chapter Four for more details). As explained by Chung (2008) in her conclusion, English teaching in high schools is mainly test-driven and teachers usually teach the sentence patterns in the textbooks for the sake of meeting the requirement of the entrance exam. Most of the time, the reality did not allow the inservice teachers in her study to decide the content and sequence of their grammar instruction because of the fixed teaching schedule.

When it comes to time issue of grammar instruction, the observation data showed that these teacher subjects implemented grammar instruction after vocabulary instruction but before reading instruction. According to the interview data, why these

teacher subjects decided when to implement grammar instruction in a lesson unit was influenced by their mentors' guidance. This finding appeared consistent with previous studies (e.g. Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997; Nettle, 1998; Philippou & Charalambous, 2005) where preservice teachers' beliefs about teaching changed after a period of practice under the influence of mentors' teaching beliefs.

As for grammatical error treatment, the preservice teachers tended to correct students' each error immediately. The results also showed that two of these teachers applied implicitly error corrections and the others corrected students' errors explicitly most of the time. As mentioned in Chapter Four, students' proficiency levels appeared to influence these teacher subjects' decision in employing different types of error corrections. This result echoed Lee's study (2008) where ESL teachers in Hong Kong inclined to correct students' errors explicitly or implicitly according to students' proficiency levels. These results gave evidence of the notion that English teachers view students' different proficiency levels as a significant influence on determining the effectiveness of different types of error corrections (Ferris, 2006; Hong, 2004). That is, teachers gave implicit error feedback to students with higher proficiency levels, while teachers may correct students' errors more explicitly if students do not have adequate linguistic awareness to self-correct the mistakes (Ferris, 2006).

To sum up, the findings showed that although the preservice teachers' grammar teaching cognition differed from that of inservice teachers, the ways of how they taught grammar were similar to those of inservice teachers. The results further revealed the similarities among the four preservice teachers' implementation of grammar teaching. It is quite interesting to see that these preservice teachers taught grammar in a similar way although they experienced their learning to teach in three different public or private junior high schools located in central Taiwan. Such a phenomenon may suggest the prevalence of relying on traditional grammar translation

method in some, if not many, Taiwanese junior high schools. Although the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Taiwan has advocated the use of the CLT approach since 2001, it seems that traditional grammar translation method is still the mainstream in English classrooms in current junior high schools. The above findings lead to further questions to be investigated. How could mentors help student teachers put their grammar teaching cognition into practices during their teaching practicum? What kinds of assistance teacher education programs could offer to help preservice teachers carry out their articulated grammar teaching cognition in real classrooms? How could preservice EFL teachers be educated to apply CLT approach or innovative teaching methods to their practices in current English classrooms? How could preservice EFL teachers reflect on their own grammar teaching in order to refine their teaching skills?

4. *To what extent does preservice EFL teachers' cognition correspond to their instructional practices on grammar instruction in junior high schools?*

Overall, two-thirds of the themes identified in the questionnaire were found divergent between the teacher subjects' cognition and practices. To be more specific, all the themes under the categories of grammar teaching content and grammatical error treatment were divergent. Two-thirds of the themes related to grammar teaching approaches were divergent, too. Yet, no divergence was discovered concerning the time issue of grammar instruction.

Convergences and divergences between the four preservice teachers' cognition and practices toward the four categories are described as follows. First, two discrepancies were discovered in terms of grammar teaching content, including covering related rules and relying on textbook as the major teaching content. Second, regarding grammatical error treatment, although all the participants claimed their inclination to apply implicit error correction, two of them employed explicit error

correction in classroom practices. In addition, these teacher subjects corrected students' each error immediately, albeit they had different attitudes toward this issue. Third, two convergent results and four divergent ones were discovered in terms of grammar teaching approach. The two convergent findings were applying proactive approach and providing oral practices. On the contrary, the four divergent results included 1) using Chinese as the main medium, 2) using grammatical terms, 3) applying deductive approach, and 4) providing repetitive practices. Finally, the research findings revealed the consistent relationship between the preservice EFL teachers' cognition and practices regarding time issue of grammar instruction. That is, the preservice EFL teachers carried out their espoused cognition in their instructional practices. They implemented grammar instruction after the vocabulary section and before the reading section.

On the basis of the above findings, some aspects of convergences were found between the participating preservice teachers' cognition and their practices about grammar instruction. Such a finding may match previous researchers' expectation that teachers' cognition and practices should be consistent (e.g. Johnson, 1992b; Richardson et al., 1991; Ryu & Spodek, 1996). It was claimed that the consistency between teachers' cognition and practices is crucially important to the aspect of teaching effectiveness (Nien, 2002). Nien further stressed that if teachers could carry out the approaches they decide to take into real practices, their instruction would become more effective. If the discrepancy is large, it could be possible that teachers' teaching effectiveness will decrease (Chen, 2005).

However, a large number of divergences were found between these teacher subjects' cognition and practices in the current study. This conclusion was in line with previous literature which reminded us that what teachers say they believe may not be the same as what they behave in classroom instruction (Duffy & Anderson, 1984;

Nespor, 1987; Schön, 1986). Educational researchers strongly argued that with the discrepancies emerging between a teacher's espoused cognition and his/her practices, the reasons or factors causing the inconsistencies should be elucidated (e.g. Borg, 1998a; 1999b; 2005; Chen, 2005; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Garden, 1996; Hsu, 2007; Johnson, 1992b), which will be discussed in the next section. The above research results promote further questions to be answered. For instance, how do preservice EFL teachers balance their grammar teaching cognition and practices based on the requirements proposed by their working place? What will happen if preservice EFL teachers run into problems with balancing their cognition and the real teaching realities? How could preservice EFL teachers adjust themselves to the inconsistencies between their cognition and practice? How could teacher education programs help preservice EFL teachers deal with the discrepancies occurring in their cognition and practices?

5. *What are the factors influencing the consistency of preservice EFL teachers' cognition and their instructional practices on grammar instruction?*

A total of twelve factors were identified to influence the consistency of the preservice EFL teachers' cognition and their practices on grammar instruction (see details in Chapter Four). Referring to previous literature, those identified factors were classified into three main categories, including 1) student learning issues, 2) preservice teachers' working environment, and 3) personal prior learning experiences. Among these, eight of these factors embedded in the above three categories seemed to influence the preservice teachers' grammar teaching approaches. Furthermore, the way these teacher subjects corrected students' grammatical errors was affected by student learning issues and working environment. Finally, the factors embedded in these teacher subjects' working environment appeared to mostly influence them when

to teach what they should teach in grammar instruction.

The above findings supported the research in which the preservice teachers' instructional practices were influenced by students in classroom settings (e.g. Andrews, 2003a; Feryok, 2008; McNamara, 1995). Namely, teachers usually take students' various learning needs and learning processes into considerations in order to offer the teaching methods which could fit with students' learning situation. For instance, it is often discovered that teachers usually teach in different ways to students with diverse proficiency levels (e.g. Graden, 1996; Johnson, 1992a; Liao, 2004; Nien, 2002; Wu, 2002). Moreover, teachers' perceptions about students' understanding toward the teaching content would make teachers' practices deviate from their espoused cognition (Borg, 1998b; Johnson, 1992a).

In addition to student learning issues, it seems that the preservice teachers' working environment embedded in their practicum schools also influenced the convergence between these teacher subjects' cognition and practices. Researchers have contended that why (preservice) teachers do what they do cannot be divorced from the effects and dynamics of the school teaching contexts (e.g. Clement & Vandenberghe, 2000; Day, 1999; Kleinsasser, 1993; Lortie, 1975; Rosenholz, 1989). For example, teachers may exclude certain methods of instruction or perhaps change their teaching methods due to the limited instructional hours (e.g. Farrell & Lim, 2005; Hsu, 2005; Hsu, 2007; Liao, 2004; Nien, 2002). Teachers may also change the ways how they usually teach students in order to match the teaching schedule (e.g. Andrews, 2003a; Bailey, 1996; Johnson, 1992a; Nien, 2002; Richards, 1996).

Finally, the present study supported previous studies in which the preservice teachers' prior learning experiences have a certain impact on their instructional practices (e.g. Bailey et al., 1996; Freeman, 1992; Kennedy, 1990; Lortie, 1975). As argued by Lortie (1975), student teachers arrive in teacher education programs with a

set of beliefs or cognition about teaching and learning based on their own prior learning experiences as students. Freeman (1992) further provided a typical statement, indicating that “the memories of instruction gained through their ‘apprenticeship of observation’ function as de facto guides for teachers as they approach what they do in the classroom” (p. 3). If the assumption that teachers teach as they have been taught is true, it might be possible that teachers stick to the models they have learned while they are pupils (Bailey et al., 1996).

With the above discussions, further queries could be raised. For example, how could teacher education programs educate preservice EFL teachers for coping with the students’ learning issues during their learning to teach? What kinds of assistance that mentors can offer to help preservice EFL teachers deal with teaching environment during their learning to teach? How can teacher education programs help preservice teachers break the cycle of inheriting traditional language teaching from their previous teachers?

Pedagogical Implications

The results of this study suggested that the preservice EFL teachers mostly did not teach according to what they believed to be true, although they could identify their own grammar teaching cognition. That is, after taking a two-year long training in teacher education program, these participating preservice EFL teachers could recognize their grammar teaching cognition. However, during their teaching practicum, they encountered problems or difficulties in putting their articulated cognition into classroom practices. Under the influences of students learning issues, school working environment, and personal learning experiences, the preservice teachers were forced to adjust their teaching approaches into traditional ones.

According to the above discussions, it appears that how to help preservice

teachers put what they have learned in teacher education programs into practices becomes an important issue. If the purpose of preservice teacher education is to prepare qualified teachers for our next generation, student teachers at the very beginning of their professional lifespan should learn how to “develop critique, challenge common practices, and engage in inquiry intended to alter the life chances of children” (Cochran-Smith, 2001, p. 3). With all these concerns, several suggestions are offered to preservice teachers’ mentors, university supervisors, and practicum schools as well as teacher educators at teacher training program.

First, during the practicum it is paramount for mentors and university supervisors, the major stakeholders in the student teaching triad model, to foster preservice teachers’ learning to teach in order to help preservice teachers carry out their positive cognition (e.g. Chaliés, Bruno-Méard, Méard, & Bertone, 2010; Ferrier-Kerr, 2009; Goodnough, Osmond, Dibbon, Glassman, & Stevens, 2010; Slick, 1997). Researchers have argued that more efforts should be made to educate mentors regarding how to endow the interns with autonomy in designing teaching activities (e.g. Abell, Dillon, Hopkin, McInerney, & O’Brien, 1995; Rowley, 1999). That is, mentors should learn how to give preservice teachers a wider space for applying alternative teaching approaches (e.g. McNamara, 1995; Orland-Barak & Hasin, 2010; Rowley, 1999). In so doing, preservice teachers will have a better chance to approach students and to learn how to cope with practical dilemmas emerging from the teaching realities in their classes and/or schools. Rowley (1999) further suggested that a mentor training program could be established to help mentors reflect on the ways of serving as effective helpers through reading and discussing professional articles. By the same token, the role of university supervisor is thought to be as important as what mentors play during preservice teachers’ learning to teach (e.g. Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Chaliés et al., 2010; Enz & Freeman, 1993; Goodnough et al., 2010; McNamara, 1995;

Proctor, 1991; Slick, 1997). It was suggested that university supervisors in teacher training programs could offer supportive assistance to help preservice teachers win over a larger space for designing teaching activities. That is, university supervisors should try to build a channel to negotiate with preservice teachers' mentors for the sake of helping their student teachers employ the teaching approaches they learned in teacher education programs.

Second, practicum schools should try to improve the contextual factors that may hinder preservice teachers' learning to teach in order to provide preservice teachers with a better teaching environment. Researchers have suggested that teaching contexts have certain impact on student teachers' practices (e.g. Buitink, 2009; Flores & Day, 2006). Hence, practicum schools have the responsibility to know whether the teaching environment may foster or hinder preservice teachers' professional development (Mcnamara, 1995; Tang, 2003). To explore whether the teaching circumstances negatively influence preservice teachers' learning to teach, practicum schools, for instance, could hold meetings with preservice teachers to talk about the problems the student teachers encounter during the internship. Alternatively, practicum schools could invite preservice teachers to offer feedback about how they perceive the teaching context. As the contextual factors influencing preservice teachers' practices have been identified, the practicum schools could try to work on how to improve the teaching circumstances. Taking the results of this study as an example, limited instructional hours were found to be one of the major contextual factors determining, if not affecting, preservice teachers' practices. The curriculum committees should discuss how to set up a more flexible teaching schedule to allow preservice teachers, as well as other school teachers, to have enough teaching hours to carry out their cognition into practices.

Third, instructors in preservice training courses should give preservice teachers a

chance to acknowledge the possible factors which may hinder them from applying innovative teaching methods to classroom instruction before they start their practicum. Obviously, findings in this study and previous literature suggested that student learning issues, teachers' teaching environment, and teachers' personal experiences have a certain impact on teachers' practices of employing alternative teaching approaches (e.g. Chang, 2001; Chung, 2008; Hsieh, 2005; Hsu, 2007; Nien, 2002). The above factors should be integrated and highlighted in related educational courses. Along with recognizing these potential factors, preservice teachers would be aware of the difficulties they will encounter while getting into the real classrooms in the future. For instance, course instructors could provide preservice teachers with some teaching scenarios which involve the possible factors. Then, preservice teachers could have discussions with their instructors or peers to figure out how to employ alternative teaching approaches under such factor-surrounded teaching environment. With such brainstorming activities, it is hoped that preservice teachers could develop the ability to avoid overusing the grammar translation method under the influence of traditional teaching contexts prevalent in current junior high schools.

Finally, teacher education programs could further take the following measures when preservice EFL teachers are experiencing their learning to teach in various schools. To begin with, regular meetings could be held to make preservice teachers aware of their own teaching cognition during the internship. As suggested by researchers, if preservice teachers have any cognition that may not benefit their students' learning in the future, instructors in teacher education programs should educate preservice teachers with positive conceptions of how to foster students' learning (e.g. Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Feiman-Nemser, McDiarmid, Melnick & Parker, 1989; Peacock, 2001). In accordance with the finding of this study, certain issues should be discussed among preservice EFL teachers in the regular meetings,

such as “the place of grammar,” “to teach or not to teach grammar,” “how to present grammar” and “grammar teaching techniques” (Brown, 2007). Based on preservice teachers’ sharing and discussion of how they perceive grammar teaching, teacher educators would have the opportunities to amend preservice teachers’ negative cognition by giving them additional instruction, if necessary. For example, Peacock (2001) suggested that instructors in teacher education programs could provide preservice teachers with an “instructional package” in which preservice teachers are required to read professional articles or books and have discussions with their peers. After receiving such training, preservice teachers may adjust their teaching cognition which is contradictory to what was promoted by professional scholars and researchers.

Next, preservice teachers should be educated to attend workshops regularly (Villegas-Reimers, 2003) in such a way that they could construct a better understanding about how to deal with various student learning problems. By attending workshops, preservice teachers would have more opportunities in learning how to teach grammar appropriately to meet student learning needs.

Additionally, preservice teachers could be encouraged to join teacher learning communities (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006). Provided that preservice teachers are involved in a learning community, they are offered a channel to share and learn new pedagogies from others. In addition to traditional face-to-face conversation, preservice teachers may join online learning communities which provide platforms for preservice teachers to share and address perplexing dilemmas inherent in daily practice without the constraints of time and space (Bulu & Yildirim, 2008; Lieberman, 2000; Olofsson, 2007).

Furthermore, preservice teachers should be required to take part in reflection awakening activities (e.g. Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997; Day, 1999; Reiman &

Thies-Sprinthall, 1998; Richards, 1998; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 2001). If preservice teachers could reflect on the origins and consequences of their actions, they would have a chance to take greater control over their own professional growth and connect their own teaching experience and theoretical knowledge together. As indicated by educational researchers (e.g. Gebhard, 1999; Porter, Goldstein, Leatherman, & Conrad, 1990, Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Trumbull, 2006), writing journals or learning logs was regarded useful for student teachers to reflect on their own learning to teach. Student teachers' autonomous learning can be promoted in the writing process and meanwhile they can take responsibility for their own learning.

Limitations of the Present Study

There are certain limitations that may narrow the scope of this study which attempted to document preservice EFL teachers' learning to teach grammar. First, a closed-ended questionnaire was used as the major instrument to explore preservice EFL teachers' cognition in this study. Although questionnaires have been employed as a direct method to elicit teachers' cognition toward grammar teaching in previous studies (e.g. Borg, 2006; Burgess & Etherington, 2002; Chung, 2008; Lai, 2004; Lee, 2008), it may be insufficient to use questionnaires as the major way to explore the essence of preservice EFL teachers' cognition. For this reason, the results of this study only revealed part of preservice EFL teachers' grammar cognition. Second, although most of the preservice EFL teachers were observed four times, it may not be enough to represent the entire state of their teaching. Due to the time constraint and limited budget, the present researcher spent around six months to keep track of the four teacher subjects' cognition development and practices about grammar teaching. The time period of the observations may not be long enough. Third, this qualitative study recruited four teacher subjects; however, more teacher subjects should be included to

document how preservice EFL teachers in various junior high schools develop their grammar teaching cognition and how they conduct grammar teaching in their practicum. Considering this limitation, the present researcher collected multiple data from mentors and students of the preservice EFL teachers to draw a more descriptive picture about these teacher subjects' learning to teach grammar. Finally, all the four preservice EFL teachers were from the same teacher education program embedded in a private university. The research findings may not be generalized to those preservice teachers receiving preservice training at different teacher education centers.

Suggestions for Further Research

As previously mentioned, research on preservice EFL teachers' learning to teach grammar in school teaching contexts is conspicuously absent in the pertinent literature. The findings and limitations of this study recommend the following directions for future research. First, to explore the essence of preservice EFL teachers' cognition about grammar teaching, there is a need for researchers to use multiple data collection methods. In addition to the closed-ended questionnaire, the future study could include in-depth interviews or follow-up questions at the same time to investigate preservice teachers' grammar teaching cognition.

Second, a long-term classroom observation is necessary for future research in order to document how preservice EFL teachers teach grammar in real classrooms. Provided that a large number of classroom observations could be conducted in future studies, more details of preservice teachers' grammar instruction might be revealed.

Third, to keep track of how preservice EFL teachers develop their grammar teaching cognition and practices, it was suggested that researchers could conduct a follow-up longitudinal study after preliminary findings were drawn from a short-term investigation. With a long-term investigation, researchers may find more evidence

regarding the development of preservice teachers' cognition and practices after they become inservice teachers.

Fourth, to reveal preservice teachers' learning to teach in different contexts, researchers could recruit more preservice EFL teachers from various teacher education programs located in different geographical areas. Moreover, all the four central participants in the current study experienced their learning to teach in junior high schools. It was then recommended that further studies can be conducted in various school contexts and researchers can recruit a larger number of preservice EFL teachers to codify and discuss the complex situations they may encounter.

Fifth, for the sake of fostering preservice teachers' learning to teach grammar, researchers should investigate how mentors' negative influences on preservice teachers' cognition and practices could be delimited. If mentors' negative effect could be minimized, it is possible that preservice teachers could teach students according to what they have learned in the teacher education program, which is significant to their continual professional development.

Sixth, researchers are expected to document effective ways to revise the grammar sections in textbooks from discrete units to a more integrated illustration. It appears that most textbooks prevalently used at junior high schools in Taiwan solely highlight one or two grammatical rules in each lesson unit. Provided that preservice teachers, following their mentors, mainly rely on the sequence of textbook contents in their instructional practice, students' grammar learning might become fragmentary. With this concern, it is of great importance for future researchers to work out how to assist textbook publishers to improve and make the content of grammar sections systematic and coherent.

Finally, researchers could further investigate how to foster preservice teachers to teach grammar in a more integrated and communicative approach instead of adhering

to textbook-oriented grammar practices. As previously mentioned, preservice teachers' dependence on the textbooks might result in disconnected grammar teaching. Therefore, it is crucial for researchers to discuss how to educate preservice teachers to compile the grammatical rules together in order to deliver a well-organized instruction to students in junior high schools.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire on Preservice EFL Teachers' Cognition about English Grammar Instruction in Junior High Schools --Chinese Version

親愛的英語實習老師，您好：

首先非常感謝您參加此研究之問卷調查，本問卷目的在於瞭解國中英語實習老師對於英文文法教學的認知及實踐。此問卷僅供學術研究之用，不做任何其他用途，請您安心作答；問卷中各題目的答案沒有對錯之分。同時，本問卷所有的資料將嚴加保密，請您在詳細閱讀完問卷每一題的敘述之後，依照您個人的實際情形詳實作答；並請您在作答過程中，勿與他人討論彼此作答的內容。為求資料之完整性，煩請回答下列問卷中所有的問題。再次謝謝您的參與及協助！

東海大學外國語文學系碩士班英語教學組

研究生 黃靜微 敬啟

論文指導教授：劉美惠博士

第一部份：個人基本資料

說明：請勾選或填寫與您個人基本資料最符合的敘述，除第 2 題外，其餘每題皆為單選題。

1. 性別：男 女
 2. 母語（可複選）國語 閩南語 客語 英語
其他 _____（請填寫）
 3. 是否有英文教學的相關經驗？
是（請繼續回答第 4 及第 5 題）
否（本部份作答結束，請直接跳至第二部份作答）
 4. 教學經驗持續時間為
六個月以下 六個月至一年 兩年以上至三年
三年以上至五年 一年以上至兩年 五年以上
 5. 請簡單地敘述您的英文教學經驗（例如：學生背景、學生英文程度、教學內容等等）
-
-
-

第二部份 國中英語實習老師對於文法教學之認知調查

說明：本問卷所有的題目皆是與國中學校英語實習老師之文法教學認知與實踐有關的敘述，共計 50 題。請在詳細閱讀各項敘述後，依照您個人的想法來作答。

作答方式：每題皆為單選題，共有五個程度等級選項。

請在閱讀完每一題敘述之後，勾選出最能表達您目前想法的選項。

例如：如果對於某一題的敘述您覺得非常不同意，就請您在該題非常不同意的選項中勾選，其他選項依此類推。

為求資料之可用性，若非必要，請盡量選擇沒有意見以外的答案。

	非常不同意	不同意	沒有意見	同意	非常同意
1. 文法教學可以幫助學生學習英語的聽說讀寫。					
2. 教文法時，老師可以盡量使用中文以幫助學生理解。					
3. 教文法時，老師一次只須教一個文法規則或句型結構。					
4. 中學英語老師應該要教文法。					
5. 老師在教文法規則時無須糾正學生的文法錯誤。					
6. 文法教學可以幫助學生使用英語做正確的溝通。					
7. 教文法時，老師可以使用術語，例如：代名詞、分詞構句等，來解釋教學內容。					
8. 文法教學不需太過深入，只要足夠學生應付當下的學習需求即可。					
9. 小學英語老師應該教授基礎的文法規則，以有助於中學英語老師文法教學之銜接。					
10. 學生文法使用的正確性可以視為評斷他們英語能力的標準之一。					

	非常不同意	不同意	沒有意見	同意	非常同意
11. 文法教學可以幫助學生說出或寫出合乎語法的句子。					
12. 老師應該在課前規劃好課程中什麼時候要教哪個文法規則。					
13. 老師只須教授簡單的文法規則即可，太困難的文法規則可以略過。					
14. 在中學的英語課中，文法教學須占大部分的教學時間。					
15. 當學生犯了文法的錯誤時，老師的糾正無法幫助他們消除錯誤。					
16. 文法教學可以幫助學生有效率的使用英語做溝通。					
17. 教文法時，老師可以讓學生用口語練習的方式來熟悉該文法規則。					
18. 教某個文法規則時，老師應該盡量涵蓋其他相關的文法規則。					
19. 在學生學習英語的初期，老師就必須注重文法教學。					
20. 直接糾正學生的文法錯誤可以幫助他們改善口說和寫作的文法能力。					
21. 中學英語老師應該要講解文法規則，因為有時候學生對於某些句型結構即使是看過很多次還是學不會。					
22. 教某個文法規則時，老師可以讓學生反覆地做句型練習直到他們熟悉該規則為止。					
23. 文法教學的內容及次序，取決於日常會話中文法規則的常見度。					
24. 在一個單元裡，老師應先教文法，然後才教單字、會話、閱讀等其他內容。					
25. 當學生說出或寫出不合乎語法的句子時，老師應該當下立刻給予糾正。					

	非常不同意	不同意	沒有意見	同意	非常同意
26. 若要學好英語，多聽多讀及多說英語比做文法練習更重要。					
27. 直接分析文法規則可以幫助老師在教學後確認學生是否學會該規則。					
28. 文法教學的內容及次序，取決於教科書編排的順序。					
29. 在課堂中，老師應該在學生看了文章之後才教授相關的文法規則。					
30. 只有當學生說出或寫出不合乎語法並且難以理解的句子時，老師才需要糾正學生的錯誤。					
31. 英語教學應該以文法的傳授和練習為主，句子語意的傳達為輔。					
32. 教文法時，老師可以直接分析句型結構。					
33. 文法教學的內容及次序，取決於學生犯錯比例的高低。					
34. 老師必須在學生的口語溝通能力達到一定水準後才實施文法教學。					
35. 當學生說出或寫出不合乎語法的句子時，老師只須告知學生句子有錯誤，而不應該直接告訴他們正確答案。					
36. 文法教學對於學生的英語口語溝通能力沒有幫助，因為即使學生學到了文法知識，他們也無法運用在真正的口語溝通上。					
37. 教文法時，老師可以把句型結構和規則直接告訴學生後再讓他們做練習。					
38. 文法教學的內容及次序，取決於文法規則的難易度。					
39. 在學生學習英語的各個階段，老師都必須注重文法教學。					
40. 當學生說出或寫出不合乎語法的句子時，老師應該要直接改正或是提供正確答案。					

	非常不同意	不同意	沒有意見	同意	非常同意
41. 即使學生學到了文法知識，也不代表他們有能力適當的使用英語這個語言。					
42. 老師無須在課前規劃好課程中什麼時候教哪個文法規則，而是在學生遇到問題時，再針對有問題的部份講解。					
43. 文法教學的內容及次序，取決於學生英文程度的高低。					
44. 在一個單元裡，老師應該在學生看文章之前先教授或介紹相關文法規則。					
45. 文法教學無法幫助學生增進英語能力，所以與其花時間教文法，不如讓學生多說、多聽及多看英文。					
46. 教文法時，老師無須直接分析句型結構，而是讓學生自行歸納出規則。					
47. 文法教學的內容及次序，是以文法規則與中文語法之間的差異性大小來決定。					
48. 教文法時，老師可以讓學生自行歸納出規則，以加深學生的學習印象。					
49. 光是讓學生多看、多聽及多說英語卻沒有任何的文法教學，學生很可能沒有辦法使用正確的英語與他人溝通。					
50. 教某個文法規則時，老師可以提供許多例句以讓學生自行歸納出規則。					

-- 本問卷結束 --

感謝您撥空作答!

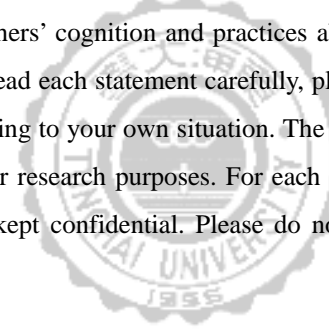
Appendix B

Questionnaire on Investigating Preservice EFL Teachers' Cognition about English Grammar Instruction in Junior High Schools --English Version

Dear Participants,

Firstly, thank you for helping with this research project. The aim of this questionnaire is to investigate preservice EFL teachers' cognition and practices about English grammar instruction in junior high schools. After you read each statement carefully, please fill out this questionnaire based on your first instinct and according to your own situation. The questionnaire is all anonyms and the information collected is only for research purposes. For each question, there is no correct answer. All of your responses will be kept confidential. Please do not discuss your answers with others during the process.

Thank you for your help!



Tunghai University

Master Program for Department of Foreign Language & Literature

Graduate Student: Ching-Wei Sylvia Huang

Thesis Advisor: Dr. Mei-hui Liu

Part 1: Basic Personal Background Information

Direction: After you read each statement, please check (✓) the one that fit in with your personal background information.

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Mother tongue: Mandarin Taiwanese Hakka English
(multiple selections Others _____
accepted)
3. Have you had any English teaching experience?
 Yes (Please continue to answer question 4 & 5.)
 No (Please skip question 4 & 5 and start to answer Part 2.)
4. How long have you taught in English?
 less than six months six months ~ 1 year 1 year ~ 2 years
 2 years ~ 3 years 3 years ~ 5 years more than 5 years
5. Please briefly describe your English teaching experience. (For example, students' language proficiency levels, content of the course.)

Part 2: Preservice EFL Teachers' Cognition about English Grammar Instruction in Junior high Schools

Direction: In this questionnaire, all of the statements are related to the teaching cognition about English grammar instruction. Please read each statement carefully, and fill out this questionnaire based on your first instinct and according to your own situation.

Answering Procedure: Please read each statement and tick ✓ the one that you think the most appropriate.

Example: If you feel strongly disagree with one statement, please tick ✓ strongly disagree.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Grammar instruction helps students learn English.					
2. Teachers could use Chinese when teaching grammar in order to help students understand the grammatical rules.					
3. Teachers should focus on a single rule and structure at one time when teaching grammar.					
4. English teachers in junior high schools should teach grammar.					
5. Teachers should not correct students' errors when giving grammar instruction.					
6. English grammar instruction helps students use English to communicate with others accurately.					
7. Teachers could use grammatical terminology, such as pronoun and participial phrase, to explain grammatical rules.					
8. Teachers should stop teaching grammar once students have been instructed what appears necessary for the time being.					
9. English teachers in elementary schools should teach grammar in order to connect with the English learning in junior high schools.					
10. Students' English grammatical correctness level can be viewed as one of the criteria of their English proficiency levels.					

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
11. Grammar instruction helps students make grammatical sentences in speaking or writing English.					
12. Teachers should plan in advance what grammatical features to teach and when to teach them.					
13. Teachers only need to teach simple grammatical rules; they don't have to teach difficult ones.					
14. Grammar instruction should occupy the greater part of teaching hours in the English classrooms in junior high schools.					
15. Teachers' corrective feedback does not help students eliminate errors.					
16. Grammar instruction helps students communicate with others in English effectively.					
17. Teachers should provide students with oral practices when teaching grammar.					
18. Teachers should try to cover every related rule when teaching a given grammatical rule.					
19. Grammar instruction should be emphasized at an early stage of English learning.					
20. Teachers' explicit error correction helps students improve their grammatical performance in speaking and writing English.					
21. Teachers should teach grammar because students fail to learn some structures or patterns after reading or hearing the structures for many times.					
22. Teachers should provide repetitive patterns exercises for students when teaching grammar.					
23. The content and sequence of grammar instruction depends on the frequency of a given structure occurring in daily life conversation.					
24. In a lesson unit, teachers should teach grammar before any other sections, such as vocabulary, conversation, reading, etc.					
25. Students should be corrected immediately whenever they make spoken or written grammatical errors.					

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
26. If one wants to learn English well, abundant reading and listening is more important than doing form-focused practices.					
27. Teachers should analyze grammatical rules directly in order to ensure if students have learned the grammatical rules or not.					
28. The content and sequence of grammar instruction depends on the textbooks used in the classes.					
29. Grammar should be taught after students do the reading passage in a lesson unit.					
30. Teachers should correct students' spoken or written grammatical errors only when the errors cause difficulty in understanding.					
31. English teaching mainly involves the instruction and practice on grammar; the meaning of the language is subsidiary.					
32. Teachers should present grammar points deductively when teaching grammar.					
33. The content and sequence of grammar instruction depends on the frequent errors made by students.					
34. Grammar should be emphasized after students have obtained a certain level of communicative competence.					
35. Teachers should only inform or underline students' spoken or written grammatical errors, but not tell them the correct answers directly.					
36. Grammar instruction doesn't help students gain communicative competence because the grammatical knowledge cannot be applied in real communication.					
37. Teachers should directly analyze the structures of the rules and let them do related exercises.					
38. The content and sequence of grammar instruction depends on the difficulty level of a structure.					
39. Grammar instruction should be emphasized at every stage of English learning.					
40. Teachers should correct students' spoken or written grammatical errors explicitly or provide them with the correct answers directly.					

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
41. Even though students have learned English grammatical rules, it does not mean they are capable of speaking and writing in English.					
42. Teachers should not plan what grammatical features to teach before the class; they should wait until students have difficulties or problems with certain features.					
43. The content and sequence of grammar instruction depends on students' proficiency levels.					
44. Grammar should be taught before students do the reading passage in a lesson unit.					
45. Grammar instruction doesn't help students in English learning. Instead of spending time teaching grammar, teachers should make students read, speak, and listen to English more.					
46. Teachers should not explain the rules but let students induce the rules by themselves when teaching grammar.					
47. The content and sequence of grammar instruction depends on the difference between the structures of Chinese and English.					
48. Teachers can let students induce the grammatical rules in order to make students impressive.					
49. Students may not be able to use English correctly in communication if they just read, speak and listen to English without giving any grammar instruction.					
50. Teachers can provide students with a lot of similar sentences to make students induce the grammatical rule when teaching grammar.					

--END--

Thank you for your help with this project!

Appendix C

Survey for Students of Preservice EFL Teachers--Chinese Version

親愛的同學，你好：

首先非常感謝你參加這項問卷調查，本問卷之目的在於從你的角度來瞭解英文實習老師在課堂上是如何教學生英文文法。此問卷僅供學術研究之用，不做任何其他用途，請你安心作答；問卷中各題目的答案沒有對錯之分。同時，本問卷所有的資料將嚴加保密，請你在詳細閱讀完問卷每一題的敘述之後，依照你個人的實際情形詳實作答；並請你在作答過程中，勿與他人討論彼此作答的內容。為求資料之完整性，煩請回答下列問卷中所有的問題。再次謝謝你的參與及協助！

東海大學外國語文學系碩士班英語教學組

研究生 黃靜微 敬啟

論文指導教授：劉美惠博士

第一部份 基本資料填寫

說明：請勾選或填寫與你個人基本資料最符合的敘述

1. 請問你是 男生 女生
2. 請問你班上的英文實習老師是？ _____
3. 請問你的母語是？ 國語 閩南語 客語 英語
其他 _____
4. 請問你學英文多久了？
一年以下 一年以上至兩年
兩年以上至三年 三年以上至五年
五年以上至七年 七年以上至十年
十年以上

背面尚有題目

第二部份 英文實習老師之文法教學問卷

說明：本部份所有的題目皆是與英文實習老師之文法教學有關的敘述，共計 15 題。請在詳細閱讀各項敘述後，依照你個人的想法來作答。

作答方式：每題皆為單選題，共有五個程度等級選項。

請在閱讀完每一題敘述之後，**勾選出**最能表達你目前想法的選項。

例如：如果對於某一題的敘述你覺得非常不同意，就請你在該題非常不同意的格子中勾選，其他選項依此類推。

為求資料之可用性，若非必要，請盡量不要選沒有意見之答案。

	非常不同意	不同意	沒有意見	同意	非常同意
1. 當英文實習老師教文法時，每堂課超過 30 分鐘以上的時間都是使用中文講解。					
2. 當英文實習老師教某一個文法規則時，會提供其他相關文法規則或句型結構。					
3. 當英文實習老師教文法時，會使用文法術語，例如：代名詞、Be 動詞等，來解釋教學內容。					
4. 在每一單元課程中，英文實習老師都是先教文法，然後才教單字、會話或閱讀等其他內容。					
5. 當英文實習老師教某一個文法規則時，會提供口語練習的機會讓你們練習該文法規則。 例如：造句或唸句子。					
6. 如果有某位同學犯了文法方面的錯誤，英文實習老師會在課堂上立刻糾正他的錯誤。					
7. 當英文實習老師教某一個文法規則時，會讓你們反覆地做句型練習。					
8. 在每一次的課程中，英文實習老師一次只教一個文法規則或句型結構。					
9. 當英文實習老師教某一個文法規則時，經常一開始就直接分析該文法規則的組織架構是什麼。					
10. 在每一單元課程中，英文實習老師都是先教單字、會話或是課文，然後才教該課的文法規則。					

	非常不同意	不同意	沒有意見	同意	非常同意
11. 當英文老師教某一個文法規則時，不會主動跟你們說句型結構是什麼，而是提供許多類似的句子讓你們自行發現該文法規則的組織架構。					
12. 如果有某位同學犯了文法方面的錯誤，英文實習老師不會在課堂上立刻糾正他的錯誤。					
13. 在每一次的課程中，英文實習老師一次都教一個以上的文法規則或是句型結構。					
14. 在每一單元課程中，英文實習老師會在教課文或是會話的同時分析文法規則或句型結構。					
15. 如果有某位同學犯了文法方面的錯誤，英文實習老師只會告知他句子有錯誤，然後讓這位同學自己想出正確答案。					

-- 問卷結束，謝謝你的參與 --

Appendix D

Survey for Students of Preservice EFL Teachers--English Version

Dear Students,

First of all, thank you for helping with this research project. The aim of this interview is to investigate how the students view the preservice EFL teachers' English grammar instruction in real classrooms. All the information collected from this interview is only for research purposes. For each question, there is no correct answer; therefore, you can feel free to share your opinions with the researcher. With the aim of analyze the data conveniently, the interview will be tape recorded. All of your responses will be kept confidential. Thank you for your help!

Tunghai University

Master Program for Department of Foreign Language & Literature

Graduate Student: Ching-Wei Sylvia Huang

Thesis Advisor: Dr. Mei-hui Liu

Part 1: Basic Personal Background Information

Direction: After you read each statement, please check (✓) the one that fit in with your personal background information.

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Who is the preservice EFL teachers in your class? _____
3. Mother tongue: Mandarin Taiwanese Hakka English
 Others _____
4. How long have you been learning English?
 less than 1 year 1 year ~ 2 years 2 years ~ 3 years
 3 years ~ 5 years 5 years ~ 7 years more than 10 years

Part 2: Students' perceptions about preservice EFL teachers' grammar instruction

Direction: In this questionnaire, all of the statements are related to how the preservice EFL teachers taught grammar in real classrooms. Please read each statement carefully, and fill out this questionnaire based on your first instinct and according to your own situation.

Answering Procedure: Please read each statement and tick ✓ the one that you think the most appropriate.

Example: If you feel strongly disagree with one statement, please tick ✓ strongly disagree.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. In a session, the preservice EFL teacher usually spent 30 minutes using Chinese to teach grammar.					
2. The preservice EFL teacher provided students with some related rules while teaching a given structure.					
3. When the preservice EFL teacher taught grammar, she used grammatical terms in her explanation.					
4. The preservice EFL teacher began the unit with grammar instruction before doing other sections, such as vocabulary, dialogue, reading, etc.					
5. When the preservice EFL teacher taught grammar, she offered students chances for oral practice.					

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
6. Whenever students made grammatical errors, the preservice EFL teacher corrected the errors immediately.					
7. When the preservice EFL teacher taught grammar, she offered students chances for repetitive pattern exercises.					
8. The preservice EFL teacher usually focused on a single rule or structure at one time.					
9. When the preservice EFL teacher taught grammar, she directly told students the structure of the grammar being taught most of the time.					
10. The preservice EFL teacher did not begin the unit with grammar instruction before doing other sections, such as vocabulary, dialogue, reading, etc.					
11. While the preservice EFL teacher taught a given grammar, she did not analyze the rules directly, rather she provided students a lot of similar sentences to make students induce the rule.					
12. The preservice EFL teacher tended to correct students' every error whenever the error was found.					
13. The preservice EFL teacher taught more than one rules or structures at one time.					
14. In a lesson unit, the preservice EFL teacher analyzed grammatical rules or structures during the reading or dialog section.					
15. The preservice EFL teacher informed or underlined students' spoken or written grammatical errors and let students self-correct the errors.					

--END--

Thank you for your help with this project!

Appendix E

Focus Group Interviewing Protocol (I) – Chinese Version

親愛的實習老師：

首先，感謝您抽空到此參加本研究第一次的小組訪談。先前您在外文系的課程中已經修習過了英語教學法，以及在師資培育的系統底下也修習過了英語教材教法這兩門課程，相信您對於英文文法教學方面有基本的了解。為了要更進一步的清楚了解您在實習前對於英文文法教學的想法，煩請您針對下列問題就自己所知道的英文文法教學方法及知識與大家做討論與分享。下列問題的答案沒有對與錯之分，請您盡量地表達自己的想法。為便利訪談後資料的分析，本次訪談及討論將全程錄音，訪談及討論的內容絕對保密，請您放心回答。

再次謝謝您的參與及協助！

東海大學外國語文學系碩士班英語教學組

研究生 黃靜微 敬啟

論文指導教授：劉美惠博士

1. 在國中的英語課中，您覺得文法教學應該扮演什麼樣的角色？為什麼？
2. 在未來實習的時候，您會在課堂上使用何種方式來教學生英文文法呢？為什麼？
3. 在未來實習的時候，您會在課堂上使用何種教材來教學生英文文法呢？為什麼？
4. 在未來實習的時候，如果您的學生對於學習英文文法沒有很大的動機時，您會採取什麼樣的措施來幫助他呢？為什麼？
5. 在未來實習的時候，您認為在一個單元裡，您會在什麼時候教學生文法？為什麼？
6. 您對於未來的學生英文文法學習的預期為何？請您簡短分享一下。

Focus Group Interviewing Protocol (I) – English Version

Dear preservice EFL teachers:

First of all, thank you for attending the first focus group discussion in this research project. Before this discussion, you have taken the courses of SLA and TEFL. Therefore, you should have a basic understanding about English grammar instruction. To understand how you view English grammar instruction before the practicum, please try to share your own views and discuss the following questions with others. For each question, there is no correct answer; hence, you can feel free to share your own views. With the aim of analyze the data conveniently, the interview will be tape recorded. All of your responses will be kept confidential. Thanks for your help!

Tunghai University

Master Program for Department of Foreign Language & Literature

Graduate Student: Ching-Wei Sylvia Huang

Thesis Advisor: Dr. Mei-hui Liu

1. How do you think the role of grammar instruction in the English language classrooms in junior high schools? Why do you think so?
2. What kinds of teaching methods will you use in your grammar instruction during the practicum? Why do you want to use those teaching methods in the classrooms?
3. What kinds of teaching materials will you use in your grammar instruction during the practicum? Why do you want to use those materials in the classrooms?
4. During your practicum, if your students have low motivation in learning English grammar, what will you do to motivate them? Why do you think so?
5. During your practicum, when will you implement grammar instruction in a lesson unit?
6. During your practicum, what are your expectations to the students' learning of grammar? Please briefly share your own perspectives.

Appendix F

Focus Group Interviewing Protocol (II) – Chinese Version

親愛的實習老師：

首先，感謝您可以抽空到此參加本研究第二次的小組訪談。為期半年的實習即將落幕，藉由實際的教學，相信您對於英文文法教學方面有更深入的了解。為了要更進一步的清楚了解您在實習後對於英文文法教學的想法以及如何實踐，煩請您針對下列問題就自己知道的英文文法教學方法及知識與大家做討論與分享。下列問題的答案沒有對與錯之分，請您盡量地表達自己的想法。為便利訪談後資料的分析，本次訪談及討論將全程錄音，訪談及討論的內容絕對保密，請您放心回答。

再次謝謝您的參與及協助！

東海大學外國語文學系碩士班英語教學組

研究生 黃靜微 敬啟

論文指導教授：劉美惠博士

1. 在國中的英文課中，您覺得文法教學應該扮演什麼樣的角色？為什麼？
2. 在您實習的時候，您在課堂上都是使用何種方式來教學生英文文法呢？為什麼您要用這樣的方式來教文法呢？
3. 在您實習的時候，您在課堂上都是使用何種教材來教學生英文文法呢？為什麼您要用這樣的教材來教文法呢？
4. 在您實習時的時候，您的學生對於英文文法學習有任何的學習動機嗎？如果沒有，您都會採取什麼樣的措施來幫助他學習英文文法呢？為什麼您要用這樣的方式？
5. 在您實習時的時候，您都在什麼時候教文法(例如：閱讀課文前、閱讀課文後)？
6. 在學生學習英文文法方面，請問您在實習前的預期和你在實際教導學生之後有什麼樣的差異處呢？請您簡短分享一下。

Focus Group Interviewing Protocol (II) – English Version

Dear preservice EFL teachers:

First of all, thank you for attending the second focus group discussion in this research project. After the six-month instructional practices, you might have a profound understanding about English grammar instruction. To understand how you view English grammar instruction after the practicum and how you implement grammar instruction, please try to share your own views and discuss the following questions with others. For each question, there is no correct answer; hence, you can feel free to share your own views. With the aim of analyze the data conveniently, the interview will be tape recorded. All of your responses will be kept confidential. Thanks for your help!

Tunghai University

Master Program for Department of Foreign Language & Literature

Graduate Student: Ching-Wei Sylvia Huang

Thesis Advisor: Dr. Mei-hui Liu

1. How do you think the role of grammar instruction in the English language classrooms in junior high schools? Why do you think so?
2. What kinds of teaching methods and materials did you use to teach grammar in the English classrooms during your practicum? Why did you use those materials and teaching methods in the classrooms?
3. What kinds of teaching materials did you use to teach grammar in the English classrooms during your practicum? Why did you use those materials in the classrooms?
4. During your practicum, were there any students who did not have motivation in learning English grammar? If yes, what did you do to raise their motivation? How did you motivate them? What was the major reason for you to motivate students in this way?
5. During your learning to teach, when did you implement grammar instruction in a lesson unit (e.g. before or after reading instruction)?
6. What are the similarities and differences between the expectations you made to students' grammar learning before the practicum and the real situation of students' grammar learning during your practicum?

Appendix G

Sample Transcript of Classroom Observation

Date: 10/13/2009

Observer: The researcher

Transcriber: The researcher

(T: Brenda; Ss: Students)

Content	Coding/Category
<p>T: 現在完成式的句型是什麼？</p> <p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>T: <u>主詞加 have 或什麼</u>？</p> <p>Ss: has</p> <p>(One student answered teacher's question.)</p> <p>T: 然後呢？<u>pp 是什麼</u>？</p> <p>Ss: 過去分詞。</p> <p>(One student answered teacher's question.)</p> <p>(Teacher wrote down "S+have/has+pp" on the board.)</p> <p>T: 對。過去分詞。那我們說現在完成式有三種用法，<u>第一種是已完成或未完成的事情或動作</u>。就像我們昨天講的，我已經看過那部電影了，或者是我已經寫完我的作業了。這些都是屬於目前為止，已完成或未完成的事情或動作。那看一下第二個，<u>到目前為止，已經有過或沒有過的經驗</u>。比如說我們昨天有講過，到目前為止我從來沒開過車，或是到目前為止我從來沒有去過美國。這些都是到過去有過或沒有過的經驗。那我們看一下第三點，<u>從過去為止一直持續的動作或是狀態</u>。那大家看一下左邊，有沒有看到一個 for 加上時間的量？</p> <p>(Teacher read the key points on the handout.)</p> <p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>(Teacher wrote down "for+時間的量" on the board.)</p> <p>T: 這個我們上單字時有講過對不對？有嗎？</p> <p>Ss: 有。</p> <p>(One student answered teacher's question.)</p> <p>T: <u>for 要加上時間的量</u>。那我們看一下後面的句子，A-mei has practiced the song for three hours. 阿妹已經練習那首歌從三個小時前到現在一直練習了三個小時，她有可能會繼續練習，也有可能不會繼續練習，但是她從之前到現在一直持續的再練習那首歌。這樣 ok 嗎？</p> <p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>T: 好。那我們再看下一個，<u>since 加上時間的起點</u>。</p> <p>(Teacher wrote down "since+時間的起點" on the board.)</p> <p>T: 現在完成式裡面我們常常會看到要你加 since 或是 for，所以後面要接什麼你們自己要特別注意喔。那我們來看時間的起點有什麼？先看後面的句子 I have learned English since I was ten years old. 我們來看這個句子。</p>	<p>Approach to grammar instruction</p> <p>Deductive approach</p> <p>Grammatical terms</p> <p>Deductive approach</p> <p>Deductive approach</p> <p>Deductive approach</p>

Content	Coding/Category
<p>(Teacher wrote down the sentence on the board.) T: <u>since 加上時間的起點。如果你後面要加句子的時候，這個句子一定要是過去式。</u> (Teacher circled the sentence “I was ten years old.”.) T: 誰可以跟我說這個句子從哪裡可以看出來是過去式？ Ss: was (Some students answered teacher’s question.) T: 對。<u>從 was 可以看出來它是過去式。下面有兩題練習題，現在寫一下。</u> (Teacher gave students some time to finish the practices.) (Teacher drew lots to choose someone to answer the questions.) T: 第七排，第三個。第一題答案是什麼？ Ss: B T: 對。答案是 B。Helen has been in Japan...，為什麼要選 B 呢？因為從五月開始，May 是時間的起點。從五月開始她就待在美國了。第二題，第三排，第三個。 Ss: A T: 對。答案是 A。我們來看一下為什麼答案是 A。Tom has been here... 是時間的量還是時間的起點？ Ss: 量。 (One student answered the question.) T: 對。<u>時間的量，因為兩個小時，所以要用 for。那你們要注意一下喔，不要以為看到 since 或是 for 就一定是現在完成式，它有可能是別的時態。你們看到的話一定要看上下文，看到底要用什麼。那現在來看右邊那一頁，看一下第一個，如何改為否定句。我們看一下現在完成式如何改為否定句喔。我們昨天有說過否定句是加入什麼？</u> Ss: not (Several students answered teacher’s question.) T: 對。加入 not。那要加在哪裡？ Ss: has 或 have 的後面 (Several students answered teacher’s question.) (Teacher wrote down “S+have not/has not+pp” on the board.) T: 對。加在這裡。那我昨天有說 have not 可以變成怎樣？我們是不是會縮寫？第七排第二個，縮寫是什麼？ (Teacher drew a lot to ask someone to answer.) Ss: haven’t T: haven’t。那另外這個呢？ (Teacher wrote down “haven’t” below “have not”.) Ss: hasn’t T: 對，hasn’t。所以這樣子知道怎麼改為否定句了嗎？ok？ (Teacher wrote down “hasn’t” below “has not”.)</p>	<p>Deductive approach</p> <p>Grammatical terms Repetitive practices</p> <p>Deductive approach Grammatical terms</p> <p>Deductive approach Grammatical terms</p>

Content	Coding/Category
<p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>T: 那下面有兩個句子你們練習一下。 (Teacher gave students some time to finish the practices.)</p> <p>T: 第六排，第三個。第一題答案是什麼？</p> <p>Ss: We haven't eaten dinner.</p> <p>T: 對。We haven't eaten dinner. (Teacher wrote down the sentence on the board.)</p> <p>T: 那 eat 的三態變化是什麼？第七排，第四個。</p> <p>Ss: eat, ate, eaten</p> <p>T: 沒錯。那我們看一下下面，現在完成式如何改爲疑問句，這個我們昨天也有稍微提過喔。把什麼或什麼移到前面就好了？</p> <p>Ss: has 或 have</p> <p>T: 對。has 或 have (Teacher wrote down "Have/Has+S+pp?" on the board.)</p> <p>T: <u>你只要把 have 或是 has 放到前面，剩下的照抄就可以了。Have/Has 放到前面，然後加主詞加 PP 就可以了，這樣可以嗎？</u></p> <p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>T: 那我們先一起看一下第一題練習題。He has already done the homework.要怎麼改爲疑問句？<u>大家一起講。</u></p> <p>Ss: <u>Has he already done the homework?</u> (Teacher wrote down the sentence.)</p> <p>T: Has he already done the homework? 好，那如果我要你們肯定回答呢？用簡答。如果是 yes，然後呢？</p> <p>Ss: he has...[silence]</p> <p>T: 對，如果是 has 就用 has 回答。那如果我說 no 呢？ (Teacher wrote down "Yes, he has." next to the interrogative sentence.)</p> <p>Ss: he hasn't... (Teacher wrote down "No, he hasn't." next to the interrogative sentence.)</p> <p>T: 那我可以寫成這樣嗎？No, he has not. (Teacher wrote down the sentence on the board.)</p> <p>Ss: 可以/不行。</p> <p>T: 可以的舉手？不行的舉手？ (Students raised their hands according their answers.)</p> <p>T: 答案是不行喔。很好，大部分的人都答對。不能寫成 has not。因爲在簡答句後面，一定要縮寫。<u>下面還有另外的問題，你們先練習一下。</u> (Teacher gave students some time to finish the practices.)</p> <p>T: 第二排，第七個。第二題答案是什麼？</p> <p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>T: 只要把 have 移到前面就好了。<u>大聲一點點喔。</u></p> <p>Ss: <u>Have they visited the museum?</u></p> <p>T: 對。 (Teacher wrote down the answer on the board.)</p>	<p>Repetitive exercises</p> <p>Oral practices</p> <p>Deductive approach</p> <p>Oral exercises</p> <p>Deductive approach</p> <p>Repetitive exercises</p> <p>Oral practices</p>

Content	Coding/Category
<p>T: 那回答呢？第六排第五個。如果是 yes 呢？</p> <p>Ss: <u>Yes, they have.</u></p> <p>T: 為什麼用 have 知道嗎？因為 they 是複數喔。那 no 呢？They haven't. (Teacher wrote down "Yes, they have." and "No, they haven't." on the board.)</p> <p>T: 那我們繼續看，它說<u>每個動作都可以模糊時間，但不是每個動作都能持續。我們既然說過現在完成式的概念是從過去一直持續到現在，但不是每個動作都可以持續的發生。</u>我們來看一下第一組例句，My grandfather has died跟 My grandfather has died for twenty years. 這兩個句子有什麼不一樣？</p> <p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>T: My grandfather has died.是什麼意思？</p> <p>Ss: 死。</p> <p>T: 死了就是死了。我爺爺死的這個動作已經完成了。那第二個例句呢？</p> <p>Ss: 死了二十年。</p> <p>T: 對。已經死了二十年。那你們對照一下講義左邊的第三點，從過去一直持續到目前為止的動作或狀態，那一個人有可能一直死死了二十年嗎？不可能嘛。所以第一個句子是對的還是錯的？</p> <p>Ss: 對。</p> <p>T: 第一個句子是對的。因為是強調到目前為止已經完成的動作。那第二個呢？</p> <p>Ss: 對/錯。</p> <p>(Some students answered teacher's question.)</p> <p>T: 誰說對的？</p> <p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>T: 這邊是錯的喔。一個人不可能一直死死了二十年。那我們看一下下一組，I have gotten up跟 I have gotten up for 3 hours. 第一句是什麼意思？</p> <p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>(Teacher wrote down "get up" on the board.)</p> <p>T: 這是起床的意思喔。那它變成<u>過去分詞</u>就是 gotten up。所以第一句是什麼意思？</p> <p>Ss: 已經起床。</p> <p>(Some students answered teacher's question.)</p> <p>T: 我已經起床了，這個動作已經完成了。那第二個呢？</p> <p>Ss: 一直起床。</p> <p>(Some students answered teacher's question.)</p> <p>T: 一直起床，起床了三個小時，有可能一直重複這樣嗎？不可能對不對？所以第一個句子是圈還是叉？</p> <p>Ss: 圈。</p> <p>T: 那第二個呢？</p> <p>Ss: 叉。</p>	<p>Oral practices</p> <p>Deductive approach</p> <p>Grammatical terms</p>

Content	Coding/Category
<p>T: 所以我們剛剛說的動詞都是瞬間動詞，並不能表示持續進行一段時間。像是我們剛剛講的 die 還有 get up。其他的還有像是開始 start 和 begin。下一個我們要講的 have been to 跟 have gone to 有什麼不同。先看下面的兩個句子，They have been to Canada.跟 They have gone to Canada. <u>They have been to Canada.</u>是說他們曾經去過加拿大，表示到現在為止曾經有過的經驗。</p> <p>(Teacher drew a table to illustrate the differences between “have been to” and “have gone to”.)</p> <p>T: 那我們用畫圖來表示，這邊是台灣，這邊是加拿大，他們曾經去過加拿大，那他們有沒有回來了？</p> <p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>T: 比如說我跟你們說我曾經去過日本，那我有沒有回來了？我人現在在哪裡？Ss: 台灣。</p> <p>T: 那這邊他們曾經去過，但是現在回來了，用 have been to。那 have gone to 呢？指的是他們已經去了加拿大，那他們人現在在哪裡？</p> <p>Ss: 加拿大。</p> <p>T: 對。他們已經去了，所以他們人現在在加拿大，不是在台灣喔。你們先把中文寫上去，<u>They have been to Canada.</u>中文是什麼？<u>他們曾經去過 Canada。</u>自己寫上去，這樣要看的時候才懂。那 <u>They have gone to Canada.</u>指的是他們去了加拿大，他們人在加拿大。那我們現在來看一下第三個句子，I have gone to Canada. 這個句子有可能成立嗎？它是對的還是錯的？</p> <p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>T: 想一下我剛剛說過的 have gone to 是什麼意思？</p> <p>Ss: 錯。</p> <p>(One student answered teacher’s question loudly.)</p> <p>T: 為什麼錯？</p> <p>Ss: 因為他的人已經在加拿大了。</p> <p>T: 對。因為他人已經在加拿大了，怎麼可能站在這裡說我已經去了加拿大。所以 have gone to <u>第一人稱</u>不適用。那<u>第二人稱</u>呢？You have gone to Canada.這樣對嗎？</p> <p>Ss: 不對。</p> <p>(One student answered teacher’s question.)</p> <p>T: 為什麼？因為他也已經去了，不可能在跟你講話。所以<u>第二人稱</u>也不適用。它只能用來指他人，比如說 She has gone to Canada. He has gone to Canada.或 They have gone to Canada.</p> <p>(Teacher wrote down “一、二人稱不適用只適用於<u>第三人稱</u>” below “have gone to”.)</p> <p>T: 那如果是 have been to 呢？如果我說 I have been to Canada. 這樣對嗎？</p> <p>Ss: 對。</p> <p>T: 那 You have been to Canada.呢？</p> <p>Ss: 對/不對。</p> <p>T: 這樣也對。<u>有人說不對，為什麼不對？</u></p> <p>Ss: 因為還不知道到底要不要去。</p>	<p>Deductive approach</p> <p>Use of Chinese</p> <p>Use of Chinese</p> <p>Grammatical terms</p> <p>Grammatical terms</p> <p>Implicit error correction</p>

Content	Coding/Category
<p>T: 那大家看一下 51 頁。要再講一次嗎？還是你們要<u>直接做練習</u>？</p> <p>Ss: 直接做。</p> <p>(Teacher gave students some time to finish the practices.)</p> <p>T: 一樣，我抽的到人起來回答。第五排第三個。第一題答案是什麼？</p> <p>Ss: <u>Yes, he has. He has talked to American.</u></p> <p>T: 對。需要寫下來嗎？</p> <p>(Teacher wrote down the sentence.)</p> <p>T: 你們這邊要不要加 before 都可以，他之前跟美國人講過話。第二題，第一排第二個。</p> <p>Ss: <u>Yes, he has. He has visited the history museum.</u></p> <p>(Teacher wrote down what student said on the board.)</p> <p>T: 對。<u>你們注意一下</u> <u>visit</u> 和 <u>talk</u> 都是規則變化直接加 <u>ed</u> 就可以了。<u>那剩下的你們自己做練習</u>。我們現在看 B 部分的練習。現在寫一下第一題跟第二題。</p> <p>(Teacher gave students some time to practice.)</p> <p>T: 第二排第三個。答案是什麼？</p> <p>Ss: <u>Yes, she has. She has bought a cell phone.</u></p> <p>(Teacher wrote down what student said on the board.)</p> <p>T: 這樣子對了。那我問你們這裡可以加上哪一個副詞？</p> <p>Ss: already</p> <p>T: 對，already。要加在哪裡？</p> <p>Ss: has 後面。</p> <p>(One student answered teacher's question.)</p> <p>T: 對加在 has 後面。或者是哪裡？</p> <p>Ss: 最後面。</p> <p>T: 對。這樣沒問題吧？</p> <p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>(Practice continuing...)</p> <p>T: B 部分剩下的地方你們也回家做練習。我們看一下 C 部分。C 部分是表示動作持續一段時間了。你們現在開始寫。</p> <p>(Teacher gave students some time to finish the practices.)</p> <p>T: 第六排第三個。</p> <p>Ss: <u>Yes, they have. They have studied Chinese for a long time.</u></p> <p>(Teacher wrote down what student said on the board.)</p> <p>T: 對。Study 要去 y 加上 ied 喔。在來看一下這一題原本是用 for，那如果我要把它改成 since 要怎麼寫？since 後面要寫什麼？</p> <p>Ss: 起點。</p> <p>T: 那要怎麼寫？</p> <p>Ss: ...[silence]</p> <p>(Teacher read the textbook for a while.)</p> <p>T: 這裡好像看不出來。那我們就用 for 就好了。</p> <p>(Practice continuing...)</p> <p>T: 那我們今天的課就上到這裡，下課。</p>	<p>Repetitive exercises</p> <p>Oral practices</p> <p>Oral practices</p> <p>Grammatical terms Repetitive practices</p> <p>Oral practices</p> <p>Oral practices</p>

Appendix H

Sample of the Researcher's Fieldnotes

Observational Fieldnotes
Date: 12.11.2009 Time: 11:15~12:00 Observer: The researcher Teacher: Maggie Number of students: 37 (308) Length of observation: 45 minutes Teaching content: relative clauses
<i>Descriptive notes</i>
<p>Event 1.</p> <p>The teacher walks into the classroom and takes out a big photo. Most of the students look like excited and eager to see the big photo. Some students ask the teacher what the photo is. The teacher further explains that the photo was taken in her graduation ceremony and her boyfriend was in the photo. Some students continue to ask the teacher who is her boyfriend. The teacher says, “[m]y boyfriend is the one who has long hair.”</p>
<p>Event 2</p> <p>The teacher tells students that the sentence <i>My boyfriend is the one who has long hair</i> is a relative clauses. She translates the term “relative clauses” into Chinese. The teacher briefly introduces today’s class to students and tells students that they are going to learn the relative clauses and there will be some funny activities in today’s class.</p>
<p>Event 3</p> <p>The teacher distributes the handouts to each student. She then asks students to looks at the first part, which lists three ways to describe things in English. The teacher further explains, “[w]hen you are describing something, the easiest way is to put an adjective before a noun. For example, you can say ‘a cute girl’. You just put the adjective before the noun.” After her explanation, the teacher asks two students to provide other examples with the whole class.</p>
<p>Event 4</p> <p>The teacher then explains the second way of describing things. She uses an example “a man with long hair” to make students understand that they can use prepositional phrases to describe something. She then asks two students to offer other examples with the whole class.</p>
<p>Event 5</p> <p>Regarding the third one, relative clauses, the teacher offers students some strategies in order to help them understand how to combine two sentences into a relative clauses. The teacher directly explains, “[i]f you want to combine two sentences into a relative clause, the first step you need to do</p>

Descriptive notes

is to figure out what the antecedent is in the new sentence. She further tells students the meaning of antecedents and the usage among *who*, *which*, and *that*. After that, the teacher provides some examples of relative clauses for students to make them become familiar with this sentence pattern.

Event 6

After ensuring most of the students understand the sentence pattern of relative clauses, the teacher provided two activities for students in order to give them some exercises. In the first exercise, the teacher gives students some sentences and asks them to decide what kind of antecedent they should use in each sentence. The teacher gives students three minutes to do the exercise and then she randomly selects some students to share their answers.

Event 7

As for the second exercise, the teacher asks students to combine two sentences into a relative clause. During the exercise, most of the students are able to answer the teacher's questions successfully. After the above two exercises, the teacher then provides an activity for students. In that activity, the teacher divides students into several groups. She asks each group to select a group member to draw a lot. On each lot, the teacher wrote a phrase (i.e., the phrase could be a subject, an object, an action, a verb) before the class. After all of the groups draw lots, students are required to make those phrases into a complete relative clause. Seemingly, students look like very exciting and they really involve in this activity.

Event 8

After the activity, the teacher briefly reviews what have been taught today and then assigns the homework.

Appendix I

Sample Transcript of Stimulated Recall Interview

Date: 12/11/2010

Interviewee: Brenda

Interviewer: The researcher

Transcriber: The researcher

(Q: The researcher; A: Brenda)

Content	Coding/Category
<p>Q: 請你談一下整堂課執行下來，你的感覺是怎樣呢？是否有達到你原先的預期？</p> <p>A: 我覺得是還好，因為學生反應沒有很熱烈，可能跟我自己也有關係吧，就是沒有什麼表情和肢體動作，講解也悶悶的。我希望的教學本來是要熱烈一點的那一種。</p> <p>Q: 那你當時為什麼沒有很多的臉部表情？</p> <p>A: 我的輔導老師那天有跟我說她覺得我那天比較緊張，所以臉上沒有什麼笑容，然後我自己看好像也是這樣。</p> <p>Q: 所以你覺得是你自己的因素來影響到學生的參與度？</p> <p>A: 對阿。因為我覺得如果老師很 high 的話，學生也會感染到那個氣氛。如果老師都悶悶的，學生也只會默默的聽，然後沒有什麼感覺。</p> <p>Q: 那針對以後的教學，對於這方面你會做怎樣的改進？</p> <p>A: 我下星期又會再上課，所以我想我會多一點肢體語言吧。我有看過其他實習老師的課，我整個覺得她就是在演戲，可是我覺得我的個性無法做到像她那樣吧，像她就是有活力一點。</p> <p>Q: 那請你看一下第二題「在本次教學中，您直接把現在完成式的句型結構寫在黑板上(i.e. S+have/has+pp)，並告知學生句型為何，是什麼原因讓您想要直接將句型寫在黑板上呢？」</p> <p>A: <u>因為我上的那個班級是 B 組的學生，有些人程度本來就比較落後，所以如果我可以在一開始就很明白的跟他們說這個句型是什麼，他們會記得比較清楚。</u>可是因為我上的這堂課是這課文法的第二堂課，我在第一堂課的時候有先畫一個樹線圖，包括了現在、過去和未來，然後跟他們說現在就用現在式，過去的話就用過去式，未來就用未來式，那如果從過去到現在要用什麼式？然後就先給學生自己想的機會，有些人不知道現在完成式是什麼，就會亂猜說是現在式和過去式，之後我在引出現在完成式的概念。那這裡我一開始試寫在黑板上是因為上一堂教過了，只是想要喚起他們對句型的回憶。</p>	<p>Deductive approach</p> <p>Students' proficiency levels</p>

Content	Coding/Category
<p>Q: 那你上一堂的上課方式也是將句型直接寫在黑板上嗎？</p> <p>A: 對。我跟他們講完現在完成式的概念後，就直接跟他們說現在完成式的句型是什麼，直接帶出來。</p> <p>Q: 那你為什麼會想要直接寫出來？</p> <p>A: <u>我覺得直接講比較清楚吧，而且其實課有點趕，所以如果想要用歸納法的話，會有點浪費時間。</u></p> <p>Q: 所以是因為時間上的限制？</p> <p>A: 時間上也有關係。<u>而且就是學生程度比較不好，如果在那邊引導來引導去，他們會更不懂。如果對 B 組的學生如果直接跟他們說文法規則是怎樣，他們會比較清楚。</u></p> <p>Q: 所以在這邊有兩個因素，第一個是時間上，第二個是學生的程度，影響到你在這邊教學法的選擇。</p> <p>A: 恩對。</p> <p>Q: 請你看一下第三題「在本次教學中，您直接告知學生現在完成式中 for 和 since 在時間用法上的不同，並各給學生一句例句，是什麼原因讓您使用這樣的教學法？」</p> <p>A: 因為 since 是這一課的單字，上單字的時候我就有稍微跟學生提過 since 的用法，那提到 since 我就會講一下 for 是怎麼樣用，我是覺得前面已經上過了，所以就直接跟他們說 for 要加一段時間，since 要接時間點。也算是複習吧。</p> <p>Q: 那你還記得之前你教單字的時候是怎麼樣教嗎？</p> <p>A: 我也是直接講，其實我是照參考書上面的上，那參考書上面都會寫說 since 後面要加什麼，我是有稍微跟學生說這兩個字的用法，有稍微區別一下，可是我其實也是直接這樣講。那給例句的話，是因為怕學生聽不懂，如果只有跟學生講的話，他們可能會不懂什麼叫一段時間，什麼叫時間的起點。所以給例句我覺得會比較清楚。</p> <p>Q: 那為什麼每次教學到一個段落，你都會叫學生寫練習題呢？</p> <p>A: <u>其實就是要確定他們有沒有懂。我覺得就有點像寫數學一樣吧，以前老師都會帶一個公式，然後就會給一個題目，馬上應用進去。那我覺得文法其實跟數學很像，馬上講一個觀念，然後看你懂不懂，當下就可以應用上去。如果發現不懂的話，可以馬上再講一次。</u></p> <p>Q: 所以你覺得以前的學習方式會影響到你現在的教學嗎？</p> <p>A: 我覺得會耶，多多少少。</p> <p>Q: 那請你看一下第四題「在本次教學中，您直接告知學生如何將現在完成式改為否定句及疑問句，並將句型結構寫在黑板上，是什麼原因讓您使用這樣的教學法？」</p>	<p>Limited instructional hours</p> <p>Students' proficiency levels</p> <p>Applying repetitive pattern practices</p> <p>Personal prior learning experience</p>

Content	Coding/Category
<p>A: 因為如果變成否定句的話就是加入 not, 那像他們以前學過的句型裡面, 如果要改為否定句也都是加入 not, 所以我覺得這個概念一帶進去的話就會很清楚。比如說 She is a teacher. 如果改為否定句就是在 be 動詞後面加入一個 not, 那我覺得疑問句也是, 就是把 be 動詞移到句首。</p> <p>Q: 那請你看一下第五題「在講解如何回答現在完成式的句子時, 您只列出了兩個選項(i.e. 肯定回答和否定回答), 但在實際的情形之下, 問句的回答也許不只有兩種, 是什麼原因讓您對學生做這樣的說明?」</p> <p>A: <u>其實主要是因為課本, 因為課本就是提供這兩種回答方式, 然後練習的話就是肯定, 否定這樣回答。但是在現實的情況之下, 我就算教了他們也不會運用。因為現實情境中的回答很多樣化, 如果你今天教了一種回答方式, 裡面有單字說不定是他們不會的。所以我這邊還是以課本為主吧。</u></p> <p>Q: 另外, 在這裡的教學當中, 您故意將回答的答案寫錯(i.e. No, he has not. & No, he hasn't.), 並詢問學生這樣的寫法是否正確, 然後才告知學生正確寫法, 是什麼原因讓您使用這樣的教學法?</p> <p>A: 我覺得這樣會讓學生印象比較深刻, 因為我覺得這個是還蠻常犯的錯誤。老師有上一年級的課, 然後一年級的學生有時候都會犯這種錯誤。如果你直接寫 No, he hasn't. 他們可能比較沒感覺。所以如果跟他們說不能縮寫的話, 他們印象可能會比較深刻。</p> <p>Q: 那你為什麼當下不考慮將錯誤的句子寫出來後, 跟學生說這個是錯的就好了呢?</p> <p>A: 如果我直接跟他們講, 可能他們連思考的時間都沒有。我那時候還有問他們說認為這樣對的舉手, 錯的舉手, 我覺得透過這樣小小的練習, 他們的印象會比較深刻。</p> <p>Q: 請你看一下第六題「在本次教學中, 您在唸完一個句子後, 都會問學生句子的中文意思為何, 或是自己說明句子中文意思為何, 是什麼原因讓您這麼做?」</p> <p>A: <u>我覺得我只是想確定他們到底懂不懂這個句子的意思, 我知道可能有學生一看就懂, 那有的人因為是 B 組, 所以對英文句子的組織結構的了解還不太好, 所以我是想要確定他們對於這個句子他們懂不懂。</u></p> <p>Q: 那在教其他的東西時, 不管是文法還是單字或是其他的東西, 你也是會這樣教學嗎?</p> <p>A: 對, 我上 reading 也是這樣上, 可是我不會直接翻譯, 我只是會問學生這邊大概在講什麼, 如果學生可以講出大概的意思, 我就知道他們有理解了。</p>	<p>Teaching materials</p> <p>Using Chinese as the major medium</p> <p>Students' comprehension</p>

Content	Coding/Category
<p>Q: 所以你就是用中文來幫助你了解學生的學習？</p> <p>A: 對，就是用中文來輔助學生了解我在幹麻。</p> <p>Q: 請你看一下第七題「在本次教學中，您利用圖表來說明 have been to 和 have gone to 之間的不同，是什麼原因讓您這麼做?」</p> <p>A: 因為我自己在想要怎麼教這裡的時候，我就在思考要怎麼教會比較清楚，所以我就想說用畫圖的方式，這樣子概念會更清楚。而且我還有比較，跟學生講說 have been to 適用各種人稱，have gone to 就沒有，我是想說讓他們抄下來，如果之後忘記了，就可以直接看圖了解這兩者的關係。</p> <p>Q: 所以你並沒有考慮說將兩個句子寫在黑板上，然後讓學生看一下有什麼不同？</p> <p>A: 我比較不偏向這樣子做，因為這兩個句子的字面意思都是去什麼地方，如果直接寫句子，學生可能會比較沒有感覺。另外就是我之前在上課的時候，就有學生問我這個問題，問我說這兩個有哪裡不同，那個學生在問我的時候，我就覺得他們可能會混淆，所以回去的時候我就在想說要怎麼把這兩個句子弄得更清楚，我最後就想說用圖表的方式。</p> <p>Q: 你覺得用圖表有什麼樣的優勢？</p> <p>A: 我覺得學生對圖會比較有感覺吧。而且我在圖旁邊有畫了一個人，就有人覺得很像一個”呆”，所以我就覺得他們的注意力有在我身上。因為我們老師上課其實不會畫圖，他 A 組在講這個地方的時候，就是直接帶過去，我覺得對 B 組的學生來說這樣會比較模糊。所以我覺得用圖表第一個可以吸引他們的注意力，第二個會比較清楚，第三個就是可以直接比較兩者的不同。</p> <p>Q: 另外，在這個部份裡，您利用錯誤的句子來強調 have been to 和 have gone to 正確的使用方式，其原因為何？</p> <p>A: 其實用錯誤的句子只是想要讓他們加深印象，想要讓學生自己想一下為什麼句子可以這樣用，為什麼不可以那樣用。因為我覺得學生上課還蠻常放空的，如果上課可以先給他們想過一次的話，他們回家就可以快速的複習。</p> <p>Q: 請你看一下第八題「在教學的尾端，您要求學生作課本上的練習，但是在某些題目要求學生回家做練習，原因為何？」</p>	

Content	Coding/Category
<p>A: 因為我覺得上 handout 的時候，該講的都講過了，課本我只讓學生做一些些而已。後來我翻了一下，發現題目真的很多。所以我想說既然他們都懂了，課本上面也有例句，想說他們都會了。其實這裡也有點模仿我們老師，就是上課時間太趕會要學生回家做，隔天在針對不懂的地方做檢討。<u>我覺得這個部份有很大是因為時間不夠的原因。如果一題一題講，又有點浪費時間，如果我跳著講，又不確定是不是重點都有講到。</u>那我們老師有時候會讓學生上台寫，然後再一題一題檢討，可是你也知道如果學生一群人擠在台上，就會很浪費時間。因為他們會想要知道自己寫的對不對，會先跟隔壁的人交頭接耳，等他們全部下台的時候，時間已經過很久了</p> <p>Q: 請你看一下第九題「在本次教學中，您大多數的時間都是用中文講解，原因為何？」</p> <p>A: <u>因為跟他們的程度有很大的關係。而且就是從以前我們老師教他們的時候就都是這樣子(講中文)，如果我突然講英文，他們應該會覺得很好笑吧。其實我第一次上台講課，有想要講英文。那天好像是下午吧，我一進去就講了 good afternoon，然後全班都笑成一團。</u></p> <p>Q: 為什麼會覺得很好笑？</p> <p>A: 我也不知道學生的笑點在哪裡，可能就是覺得我這樣很好笑吧。後來我就想說我還是用中文講好了。</p> <p>Q: 所以在這裡，你是因為你的實習輔導老師用中文上課，所以你跟著這樣教？</p> <p>A: 我們老師沒有硬性規定，<u>我覺得還有一點是因為學生程度的問題。</u>然後第二點是怕他們不適應，我怕焦點會不在我的教學上面，而是變成在我講英文的部份。</p> <p>Q: 另外，在這堂課裡，你也使用了很多 grammatical terms，為什麼？</p> <p>A: 因為我自己覺得這樣講會比較清楚，<u>而且我們老師也都會這樣講，所以學生都知道這些 term 是什麼。</u>如果講例句又講句型的話，光一個主詞就有 he/she/they 等等，我覺得用例子來講解的話，一個例子不能代表全部，如果可以有一個公式給他們，他們可以套用這樣子，對國三的學生會比較有幫助。</p> <p>Q: 所以在這邊你覺得如果有一個符號可以表示所有的主詞，在講解的時間上會比較濃縮？</p> <p>A: <u>因為我覺得你先講解一個句型出來，然後再帶入其他例子，就可以跟學生講說這就是主詞等等，那如果你先用很多個例子，然後最後再歸納成主詞，就從多要變成少，好像會比較難記起來。</u></p>	<p>Limited instructional hours</p> <p>Using Chinese as the major medium</p> <p>Students' proficiency levels</p> <p>Mentors' effect</p> <p>Using grammatical terms</p> <p>Mentors' effect</p> <p>Students' comprehension</p>

Content	Coding/Category
<p>Q: 請你看一下第十題「在本次教學中，大多數的練習題都是以紙筆的模式呈現，是什麼原因讓您提供學生大量的紙筆練習？」</p> <p>A: <u>我覺得學生講英文的意願沒有很高。因為像我平常問學生有沒有人要主動練習說英文的，全班都會很安靜。</u>就是我問班上有沒有人要自願，就有學生跟我說老師沒有人要自願上去。那這邊我覺得跟現實也有點關係，因為他們是國三，可是考試又不考口說。另外我覺得跟我是實習老師的身份也有很大的關係，如果是自己的班級，那要怎麼教就怎麼教，可是我覺得在我的老師監視之下，我覺得我還是規矩的把該上的東西上完。我們老師其實給我五堂課上，可是我沒有把他要我上的東西上完，所以我想說先把他要我上的東西上完，有時間再做其他的事，可是通常是沒有時間的。</p> <p>Q: 最後，請你回憶一下，在執行文法教學時，是否有碰到任何困難？如果有，請你描述一下您所碰到的困難為何。</p> <p>A: 我覺得我碰到的困難可能是我自己備課不足。比如說上台的時候我想要寫一個句子，其實我都會先寫在紙上，每次一寫在黑板上時，我都會想要偷瞄一下我黑板上寫的跟紙上的是不是一樣。</p> <p>Q: 是自己的信心不太足夠嗎？</p> <p>A: 對。因為會很怕是不是有寫錯，而且就是你明明在紙上寫的時候都覺得句子沒問題，不過一寫在黑板上就會覺得這句子是不是有問題。</p> <p>Q: 那你會怎樣解決這些困難？</p> <p>我之前都會偷瞄一下，不過我後來發現一個方法，就是你要上台前先去黑板上練習寫一次，我覺得就會差很多。</p> <p>Q: 這樣的困難是否會影響到你的文法教學呢？</p> <p>A: 我覺得會，因為每次都忍不住想要偷瞄一下老師，不然就偷瞄一下稿子，我覺的多少都有點影響。而且學生會看得出來你好像不是很確定，這樣會讓學生覺得你都這麼沒信心了，我們怎麼知道你教的對不對。</p> <p>Q: 因為你一開始還蠻強調句子結構的，那你會要求學生要背起來嗎？</p> <p>A: 我好像沒有跟學生講說要背起來或是記起來，可是我都會問他們句型是什麼，我在上課時會一直問他們。</p> <p>Q: 那你會希望學生背嗎？</p> <p>A: 我覺得背起來不一定會用耶。我會比較希望學生可以懂，除了要記起來之外，也要懂得怎麼運用這些句型。</p> <p>Q: 在本次教學中，請問你學到了什麼？你認為這次的教學經驗對於你往後的教學是否有帶來任何啓示？</p>	<p>Students' reaction</p>

Appendix J

Sample Transcript of Interview with A Mentor

Date: 01/19/2010

Interviewee: Angela's mentor

Interviewer: The researcher

Transcriber: The researcher

(Q: The researcher; A: Angela's mentor)

Content	Coding/Category
<p>Q: 在課堂上，請問您所指導的英文實習教師是如何教導學生英文文法的？請舉例說明。</p> <p>A: 她教學的方式其實就是根據我教給她的方法。起先先一個 warm up，然後再來講解主要的一個文法的概念，最後再帶一個活動，然後再一個總複習，接著就是分派今天的作業。我是以參加試教 15 分鐘的準備方法來教導她。那在教導文法的部份的話，她主要會先做個簡單的講解後，再用活動讓學生更熟悉這樣子。</p> <p>Q: 那在講解的時候，她是用什麼樣的方式來講解規則的呢？</p> <p>A: <u>實習老師她通常都是直接講解規則，然後再直接造句，給學生很多的例子讓他們熟悉。</u></p> <p>Q: 那她是否曾經有用過歸納法的方式來教導學生？</p> <p>A: 就我的記憶裡面好像沒有。</p> <p>Q: 請問實習老師一堂課都是教幾個句型或是規則？</p> <p>A: 因為我已經跟她講過準備方向是以試教為主，所以一般來說我給她的時間就是 15 分鐘。那她文法教學的部份，我都是讓她在上完單字後教。那有的時候是我已經上過這個文法概念，然後她在接著稍微做複習。那有時候是我都沒有提過這個文法，讓她直接上。因為我的心態是讓實習老師以試教 15 分鐘考上教甄的心態去上每一堂課。所以我跟她講過說，你要認為學生已經學過或是沒有學過都是由你自己決定。所以兩種情形我都有讓她練習。那一開始她可能時間掌控比較沒有這麼好，她有時候甚至會教到 20 或是 25 分鐘。那後來她都有盡量維持在 15 分鐘這樣。<u>基本上一堂課她都是以教一個文法規則為主。</u></p> <p>Q: 請問實習老師教學的內容是怎麼樣取決的？</p> <p>A: 像我們一課都會有兩個文法，那我會讓她自己決定說要教哪一個，<u>她會根據課本的文法下去設計活動。</u>一般來說她會以她比較好設計的去選擇教哪一個，我並不會硬要跟她說她要教哪一個文法。因為到時候考試時也是她自己決定要教哪一個。命題老師不會說你一定要教哪一個文法。</p>	<p>Approaches of grammar instruction</p> <p>Deductive approach</p> <p>Content of grammar instruction</p> <p>Numbers of rules that had been taught</p> <p>Content of grammar instruction</p> <p>Relying on textbooks as the main teaching content</p>

Content	Coding/Category
<p>Q: 所以選擇的範圍基本上還是以課本的為主？</p> <p>A: 對，沒錯。</p> <p>Q: 在課堂上，請問您所指導的英文實習老師每次都花多久的時間教文法？</p> <p>A: <u>基本上如果是文法教學加上活動和練習的話，大概都會花上一堂課的時間</u>，那如果像是純粹講解文法規則的話，我剛剛有說過，我是以讓她去參加教甄的方向去準備，所以大概就是在 15 分鐘左右。</p> <p>Q: 請問英文實習老師都在什麼時候教文法？</p> <p>A: <u>我們一般都會先上完單字，所以她通常是在單字完後教文法，那課文的部分我們都會上完文法才進入。因為可能是我的上課方式是這樣，那實習老師就是配合我，所以她的教學方式就是這樣子。</u></p> <p>Q: 在課堂上，請問您所指導的英文實習老師絕大部分都是用哪種語言教文法？</p> <p>A: <u>我想她大部分的時候還是以中文為主</u>，但是我是有鼓勵她多用英文，因為到時候考試還是用英文。<u>不過我想她也是受限於現在國中生的程度，如果要全英文的話對於孩子來說也比較難接受，所以她都是以中文為主。</u></p> <p>Q: 請問中英文的比例為何？</p> <p>A: 80% 中文，20% 英文吧。</p> <p>Q: 請問英文實習老師是否會在教文法時，使用文法術語？</p> <p>A: <u>我想現在國中的文法概念還是比較簡單，那基本的一些文法術語我們當然還是會提。</u></p> <p>Q: 那她會一直很常使用這些術語嗎？</p> <p>A: 該講的時候會講。</p> <p>Q: 您所指導的英文實習老師在教文法時，是否會補充課本以外的東西？</p> <p>A: 上文法的時候我想主要的東西還是以練習文法為主。因為只有在課文的部分才會補充其他相關的東西。因為是國一的學生，我想還是樣以讓她們熟悉這個文法為主。我不知道實習老師是不是受我的影響，因為我自己本身是不會有太多課本以外的東西。那<u>如果你說課本以外的我們多少還是會有一些涉略，以現在分詞舉例好了，就是可能會補充那一些動詞不能用現在分詞這一類的，像這個部份可能課本就沒有提，如果這個算是補充的話，那我想實習老師應該是算有吧。</u></p> <p>Q: 請問是每一堂課都會有補充嗎？</p> <p>A: 有時候我們會參考講義的量然後再取決適不適合學生，會補充可適量的話沒這麼多，東西也沒有這麼深。</p>	<p>Time issues of grammar instruction</p> <p>Teaching grammar after vocabulary section but before the reading instruction</p> <p>Using Chinese as the main medium</p> <p>Employing grammatical terms</p> <p>Providing relevant rules while teaching a given rule</p>

Content	Coding/Category
<p>Q: 您覺得這些東西對學生來說是否太過簡單或是艱難？</p> <p>A: 一般來說都還好，因為她補充的東西我覺得有可能就是適合她們現在的程度，所以我覺得不會。</p> <p>Q: 就是以課本為主再稍微做一些延伸？</p> <p>A: 對。</p> <p>Q: 若學生說出或寫出不合乎語法的句子時，您所指導的英文實習老師是否會在課堂上糾正學生的文法錯誤？</p> <p>A: <u>會。我想不管是寫還是說的部份她會糾正。尤其是寫的部份，她都會叫孩子上來寫答案，那有錯的部份就直接在黑板上做修改。至於口說的部份，我想如果她有注意到的話，當下就會提出糾正。</u></p> <p>Q: 請問實習老師是用何種方式來糾正？</p> <p>A: <u>我想絕大多數的時間她都是用直接糾正的方式，因為像是如果孩子答不出來，她就必須用更明顯的方式來讓孩子知道錯誤。或是有時候如果因為孩子程度比較低的話，她是會直接指出哪裡有錯誤，然後直接給正確答案。</u></p> <p>Q: 請問是每一次都會糾正嗎？</p> <p>A: 沒錯。</p> <p>Q: 在課堂上，請問您所指導的英文實習老師是否會增進學生學習英文文法的動機呢？請舉例說明。</p> <p>A: 有阿。我覺得她的文法設計教學都蠻不錯的，然後像她引起動機的部份，我想孩子都很喜歡上她的課。再加上年輕就是本錢，相形之下學生都比較喜歡上她的課，所以我都回家哭。因為她們現在才國一，所以她們還沒有辦法脫離國小開開心心學英文的迷思，她們也會期待老師要帶活動。像我本身的話就比較少帶活動。</p> <p>Q: 您覺得這樣的方式可以增進學生學習英文文法的動機嗎？</p> <p>A: 對。</p> <p>Q: 英文實習老師每次教文法時，您認為學生大約都聽的懂多少(1-10分)？</p> <p>A: 我想大概八成的學生都有聽懂。因為畢竟班上本來就會有一些學生從 A-Z 傻傻分不清楚。你也不可能預期說帶了一些活動，她就什麼都了解了。那如果以其他八成學生來說，也許有一些本來程度不好的，她們也許會因為比較有興趣，所以就go去聆聽老師在講什麼。</p> <p>Q: 那另外兩成的人可能就是因為自己本身的因素？</p> <p>A: 對，這兩成的學生本來就是屬於程度沒這麼好的。</p>	<p>Grammatical error treatment Correcting Ss' each error immediately</p> <p>Explicit error correction</p>

Content	Coding/Category
<p>Q: 那我最後再請問老師您都會針對實習老師的教學給哪方面的建議?</p> <p>A: 我會。其實我都會先跟實習老師說什麼時候會讓她上台教學。其實在一開學的時候我就跟實習老師講過我帶領她的方式是以幫助她考上教甄為主。所以我每一課都會讓她上 15 分鐘的文法。然後我會讓她知道說她什麼時候可以上台, 這樣她可以提前準備。那等到她設計好活動, 我會先跟她做討論。時間允許的話我甚至會請她 demo 一次給我看。那我當場看的話都會私下給她一些 feedback, 然後請她做修正。</p> <p>Q: 那這些建議大部分都是怎樣的方向?</p> <p>A: 我覺得她剛開始主要是在時間控制這方面。等到時間控制好了之後, 在來就是講解的技巧。因為她的講話方式有的時候比較會難理解吧。就是你會抓不到重點, 然後比較沒有起伏。有時候聽起來會抓不到重點, 然後會比較想睡。那這個方面後來我有稍微給她一些指導。我想她現在需要努力的部分應該就是班級經營這方面。比如說突然有一些突發狀況的話, 要怎麼去處理。我想這個部份也不是說一下子就可以學起來了, 也是需要一些實際經驗。所以每個階段給她的意見基本上 focus 是不太一樣的。</p> <p>Q: 非常感謝老師的幫忙, 我們今天的訪談到這邊結束。</p>	

Appendix K

Cross-case Analysis of Preservice EFL teachers' Grammar Teaching Cognition (pre-practicum stage)

Categories	Angela	Brenda	Maggie	Sandra
Role of grammar instruction				
The importance of grammar instruction in English learning	✓	✓	✓	✓
The importance of other skills in English learning	✓	✓	✓	✓
Approaches of grammar instruction				
The use of Chinese as the main medium	✓	✓	✗	✗
The use of grammatical terms	✗	✗	✗	✗
Applying proactive approach	✓	✓	✓	✓
Applying reactive approach	✗	✗	✗	✗
Providing students with oral practices	✓	✓	✓	✓
Providing students with repetitive pattern exercises	✓	✓	✓	✗
Applying deductive teaching approach	✓	◎	✗	✓
Applying inductive teaching approach	✓	✓	✓	✗
Content of grammar instruction				
Teaching a single rule at one time	✓	✓	✓	✓
Providing related rules while teaching a given structure	✗	✓	✓	✓
Teaching only simple grammatical rules	✓	✗	✓	✗
Teaching grammar necessary to meet students' current needs	✓	✗	✓	✓
The content and sequence of grammar instruction	△	△	△	△
Time issues of grammar instruction				
The necessity of teaching grammar in junior high schools	✓	✓	✓	✓
Spending most of class hours on teaching grammar	✗	✗	✗	✗
Teaching grammar before any other sections in a lesson unit	✗	✗	✗	✗
Teaching grammar after reading section	✗	✓	✓	✓
Teaching grammar before reading section	✓	✗	✗	✗
Grammatical error treatment				
The importance of error treatment in grammar instruction and in English learning	✗	✓	✓	✓
Correcting students' each error immediately	✓	✗	✓	✗
Correcting students' errors only when the errors cause difficulty in understand	✓	✗	✓	✓
Providing implicit error correction	✓	✓	✓	✓
Providing explicit error correction	✗	✗	✗	✗

✓: Positive toward the issue ✗: Negative toward the issue ◎: Neutral opinion toward the issue
 △: The preservice teachers thought the content of grammar instruction should be depend on 1) the frequency of a given structure occurring in daily conversation, 2) students' proficiency level, 3) the difficulty level of a structure

**Cross-case Analysis of Preservice EFL Teachers' Grammar Teaching Cognition
(post-practicum stage)**

Categories	Angela	Brenda	Maggie	Sandra
Role of grammar instruction				
The importance of grammar instruction in English learning	✓	✓	✓	✓
The importance of other skills in English learning	✓	✓	✓	✓
Approaches of grammar instruction				
The use of Chinese as the main medium	✗	✓	◎	✓
The use of grammatical terms	✗	◎	✗	✗
Applying proactive approach	✓	✓	✓	✓
Applying reactive approach	✗	✗	✗	✗
Providing students with oral practices	✓	✓	✓	✓
Providing students with repetitive pattern exercises	✓	✓	✗	✗
Applying deductive teaching approach	✓	◎	✗	✓
Applying inductive teaching approach	✓	✓	✓	✗
Content of grammar instruction				
Teaching a single rule at one time	✓	✓	✓	✓
Providing related rules while teaching a given structure	✗	✗	◎	✓
Teaching only simple grammatical rules	✓	✗	✓	✓
Teaching grammar necessary to meet students' current needs	✓	✓	✓	✗
The content and sequence of grammar instruction	△	△	△	△
Time issues of grammar instruction				
The necessity of teaching grammar in junior high schools	✓	✓	✓	✓
Spending most of class hours on teaching grammar	✓	✗	✓	✗
Teaching grammar before any other sections in a lesson unit	✗	✗	✗	✗
Teaching grammar after reading section	✗	✗	✗	✓
Teaching grammar before reading section	✓	✓	✓	✗
Grammatical error treatment				
The importance of error treatment in grammar instruction and in English learning	✗	✓	✓	✓
Correcting students' each error immediately	✓	✗	✗	✗
Correcting students' errors only when the errors cause difficulty in understand	✗	✗	✓	✓
Providing implicit error correction	✓	✓	✓	✓
Providing explicit error correction	◎	✗	✗	✗

✓: Positive toward the issue ✗: Negative toward the issue ◎: Neutral opinion toward the issue
 △: The preservice teachers thought the content of grammar instruction should be depend on 1) the frequency of a given structure occurring in daily conversation, 2) students' proficiency level, 3) the difficulty level of a structure.

Appendix L

Cross-case Analysis of Preservice EFL Teachers' Grammar Teaching Practices

Categories	Angela	Brenda	Maggie	Sandra
Approaches of grammar instruction				
The use of Chinese as the main medium	✓	✓	✓	✓
The use of grammatical terms	✓	✓	✓	✓
Applying proactive approach	✓	✓	✓	✓
Applying reactive approach	✗	✗	✗	✗
Providing students with oral practices	✓	✓	✓	✓
Providing students with repetitive pattern exercises	✓	✓	✓	✓
Applying deductive teaching approach	✓	✓	✓	✓
Applying inductive teaching approach	✗	✗	✗	✗
Content of grammar instruction				
Teaching a single rule at one time	✓	✓	✓	✓
Providing related rules while teaching a given structure	✓	✓	✓	✗
Relying textbooks as the main teaching content in grammar instruction	✓	✓	✓	✓
Time issues of grammar instruction				
Teaching grammar before any other sections in a lesson unit	✗	✗	✗	✗
Teaching grammar after reading section	✗	✗	✗	✓
Teaching grammar before reading section	✓	✓	✓	✗
Grammatical error treatment				
Correcting students' each error immediately	✓	✓	✓	✓
Providing implicit error correction	✗	✓	✗	✓
Providing explicit error correction	✓	✗	✓	✗

✓: Applying the item in the class ✗: Did not applying the item in the class

Appendix M

Information Letter for Preservice EFL Teachers and Consent Form

親愛的英語科實習老師您好：

我是東海大學外國語文學系英語教學研究所的學生；承蒙外文系劉老師的大力推薦，同意我邀請各位英語科實習老師們參加一項碩士論文研究案，其主題為國中英語實習教師對於文法教學的認知與實踐之個案研究。此研究將從 97 學年度第二學期末持續至 98 學年度第一學期末（自 98 年 6 月至 99 年 2 月止）。為了解各位實習老師在英文文法教學上的認知以及如何實踐，將煩請您撥冗參加以下幾項資料蒐集活動：

活動	時間
國中英語科實習教師對於英文文法教學之認知問卷調查二次 (15~ 20 分鐘)	97 學年度第二學期(98 年 6 月份期間) 98 學年度第一學期(99 年 2 月份期間)
小組訪談二次 (30 ~ 40 分鐘)	97 學年度第二學期(98 年 6 月份期間) 98 學年度第一學期(99 年 2 月份期間)
教育實習 課室教學觀察	98 學年度第一學期期間 (詳細時間會再與老師您討論)
刺激回憶訪談 (訪談次數依課室觀察次數為主， 每次約 30 分鐘)	98 學年度第一學期期間 (詳細時間會再與老師您討論)

敬請注意，此研究對於您的參與特別注意以下重要細節：

1. 除了課室教學觀察以外，所有資料蒐集之活動過程將會安排於課餘時間進行，以避免妨礙您正常學習及實習進度。
2. 此研究將會使用代碼和匿名方式來保護所有參與者的隱私權，以避免任何人辨認出您所提供的資料內容，如此將防止資料提供者被指認出來時可能造成的任何困擾。
3. 所有資料將會以最安全的方式由我親自蒐集、保存、分析、及研究，而不至於讓其他人指認出您參與此研究案。
4. 將來於此研究報告、論文和其他出版刊物中，您的真實姓名會以其他名字替代，以完全保護所有參與者的隱私權。

此研究案完成之後，如有需要，我將會把研究結果之摘要呈現予您。老師您的支持與幫忙不僅能提供此研究相關之資料，並有助於未來臺灣國民中學英語師資培育之發展與改革；同時您也可以了解自己的教學信念為何，以及是否能實踐自我之教學信念。

如果您對此研究案或您的參與有任何問題或疑問的話，可以直接與我聯絡（聯絡細節如下）。為了感謝您參與此研究案，於研究結束之前，個人將準備精美禮物感謝您的參與。

誠摯地感謝您的參與，期盼能於整個研究案期間與您相見！

敬祝教安！

英語科實習教師參加研究案同意書

本項表格內容主要為取得您的同意參加由東海大學外國語文學系英語教學研究所學生黃靜微所執行之研究案，其主題為『國中英語實習教師對於文法教學的認知與實踐之個案研究』。

敬請以工整字體填寫以下劃線空白處並且勾選相關的空格。

實習學校： _____

姓名： _____

* 我本人已經於首頁信件中讀過此計劃案之內容綱要，我現在決定

同意參加此研究案

不同意參加此研究案

(簽名):

(日期):

Appendix N

Information Letter for Mentors and Consent Form

親愛的實習輔導老師您好：

我是東海大學外國語文學系英語教學研究所的學生，目前我正與您所指導之英文科實習教師進行一項碩士論文研究案，其主題為國中英語實習教師對於文法教學的認知與實踐之個案研究。此研究將從民國98年9月持續至99年2月止。為了解各位輔導老師所指導之英文實習教師在實際的課堂上如何教授英文文法，將煩請您撥冗參加以下資料蒐集活動：

活動	時間
個別訪談 (15 ~ 20 分鐘)	98 學年度第一學期期間 (詳細訪談時間會再與老師您討論，將會配合您的課餘時間)

敬請注意，此研究對於您的參與特別注意以下重要細節：

1. 訪談過程將會安排於課餘時間進行，以避免妨礙您正常教學進度。
2. 此研究將會使用代碼和匿名方式來保護所有參與者的隱私權，以避免任何人辨認出您所提供的資料內容，如此將防止資料提供者被指認出來時可能造成的任何困擾。
3. 所有訪談資料將會以最安全的方式由我親自蒐集、保存、分析、及研究，而不至於讓其他人指認出您參與此研究案。
4. 將來於此研究報告、論文和其他出版刊物中，您的真實姓名會以其他名字替代，以完全保護所有參與者的隱私權。

此研究案完成之後，如有需要，我將會把研究結果之摘要呈現予您。老師您的支持與幫忙不僅能提供此研究相關之資料，並有助於未來臺灣國民中學英語師資培育之發展與改革；同時您寶貴的意見也將提供英文科實習教師一個檢視自我實際教學的機會，以期達到教學成長。

如果您對此研究案或您的參與有任何問題或疑問的話，可以直接與我聯絡（聯絡細節如下）。為了感謝您參與此研究案，於研究結束之前，個人將準備精美禮物感謝您的參與。

誠摯地感謝您的參與，期盼能於接下來的訪談與您相見！

實習輔導老師參加論文研究案同意書

本項表格內容主要為取得您的同意參加由東海大學外國語文學系英語教學研究所學生黃靜微所執行之論文研究案，其主題為『國中英語實習教師對於文法教學的認知與實踐之個案研究』。

敬請以工整字體填寫以下劃線空白處並且勾選相關的空格。

任教學校： _____

姓名： _____

* 我本人已經於首頁信件中讀過此計劃案之內容綱要，我現在決定

同意參加此論文研究案

不同意參加此論文研究案

(簽名):

(日期):

Appendix O

Code Names of the Survey Items in the Preservice EFL Teachers' Questionnaire

Category	Item	Statement
<i>Role of grammar instruction</i>	GR01.	Grammar instruction helps students learn English.
	GR02.	English grammar instruction helps students use English to communicate with others accurately.
	GR03.	Grammar instruction helps students make grammatical sentences in speaking or writing English.
	GR04.	Grammar instruction helps students communicate with others in English effectively.
	GR05.	Teachers should teach grammar because students fail to learn some structures or patterns after reading or hearing the structures for many times.
	GR06.	If one wants to learn English well, abundant reading and listening is more important than doing form-focused practices.
	GR07.	English teaching mainly involves the instruction and practice on grammar; the meaning of the language is subsidiary.
	GR08.	Grammar instruction doesn't help students gain communicative competence because the grammatical knowledge cannot be applied in real communication.
	GR09.	Even though students have learned English grammatical rules, it does not mean they are capable of speaking and writing in English.
	GR10.	Grammar instruction doesn't help students in English learning. Instead of spending time teaching grammar, teachers should make students read, speak, and listen to English more.
	GR11.	Students may not be able to use English correctly in communication if they just read, speak and listen to English without any grammar instruction.
<i>Approach to grammar instruction</i>	GA01.	Teachers could use Chinese when teaching grammar in order to help students understand the grammatical rules.
	GA02.	Teachers could use grammatical terminology, such as pronoun and participial phrase to explain grammatical rules.
	GA03.	Teachers should plan in advance what grammatical features to teach and when to teach them.
	GA04.	Teachers should provide students with oral practices when teaching grammar.
	GA05.	Teachers should provide repetitive patterns practices for students when teaching grammar.
	GA06.	Teachers should analyze grammatical rules directly when teaching grammar in order to ensure if students have learned the grammatical rules or not.
	GA07.	Teachers should present grammar points deductively when teaching grammar.
	GA08.	Teachers should directly tell students the structures of the rules and let them do related exercises.
	GA09.	Teachers should not plan what grammatical features to teach before the class; they should wait until students have difficulties or problems with certain features.
	GA10.	Teachers should not explain rules but let students induce rules themselves when teaching grammar.
	GA11.	Teachers can let students induce grammatical rules when teaching grammar in order to make students impressive.
	GA12.	Teachers can provide students with a lot of similar sentences to make students induce the grammatical rule when teaching grammar.

Category	Item	Statement
<i>Content of grammar instruction</i>	GC01.	Teachers should focus on single rule and structure at one time when teaching grammar.
	GC02.	Teachers should stop teaching grammar once students have been instructed what appears necessary for the time being.
	GC03.	Teachers only need to teach simple grammatical rules; they don't have to teach difficult ones.
	GC04.	Teachers should try to cover every related rule when teaching a given grammatical rule.
	GC05.	The content and sequences of grammar instruction depends on the frequency of a given structure occurring in daily conversation.
	GC06.	The content and sequences of grammar instruction depends on the textbooks used in the classes.
	GC07.	The content and sequences of grammar instruction depends on the frequent errors made by students.
	GC08.	The content and sequences of grammar instruction depends on the difficulty level of a structure.
	GC09.	The content and sequences of grammar instruction depends on students' proficiency levels.
	GC10.	The content and sequences of grammar instruction depends on the difference between the structures of Chinese and English.
<i>Time issue of grammar instruction</i>	GT01.	English teachers in junior high schools should teach grammar.
	GT02.	English teachers in elementary schools should teach grammar in order to connect with the English learning in junior high schools.
	GT03.	Grammar instruction should occupy the most part of teaching hours in the English classrooms in junior high schools.
	GT04.	Grammar instruction should be emphasized at an early stage of English learning.
	GT05.	In a lesson unit, teachers should teach grammar before any other sections, such as vocabulary, conversation, reading, etc.
	GT06.	Grammar should be taught after students do the reading passage in a lesson unit.
	GT07.	Grammar should be emphasized after students have obtained a certain level of communicative competence.
	GT08.	Grammar instruction should be emphasized at every stage of English learning.
	GT09.	Grammar should be taught before students do the reading passage in a lesson unit.
<i>Grammatical error treatment</i>	ET1.	Teachers should not correct students' errors when giving grammar instruction.
	ET2.	Students' English grammatical correctness level can be viewed as one of the criteria of their English proficiency levels.
	ET3.	Teachers' corrective feedback does not help students eliminate errors.
	ET4.	Teachers' explicit error corrections help students improve their grammatical performance in speaking and writing English.
	ET5.	Students should be corrected immediately whenever they make spoken or written grammatical errors.
	ET6.	Teachers should correct students' spoken or written grammatical errors only when the errors cause difficulty in understanding.
	ET7.	Teachers should only inform or underline students' spoken or written grammatical errors, but not tell them the correct answers directly.
	ET8.	Teachers should correct students' spoken or written grammatical errors explicitly or provide them with the correct answers directly.

Appendix P

Further Samples of Observation and Interview Data

I. Focus group interview data of the preservice EFL teachers' grammar teaching cognition

A. Role of grammar instruction

...我覺得文法支撐著學生的英文學習，尤其是在聽說讀寫上面。而且其實國中的英文教材通通包含著文法的存在....

...I think grammar is the fundamental part in students' learning, especially in the four skills. In addition, English teaching materials in junior high schools always contain grammatical rules....

(Angela, 2nd focus group interview)

...如果學生沒有學過文法，那麼我覺得他們在其他的聽說讀寫都會有學習上的困難，所以文法其實是在支撐其他領域....

...If students do not learn any grammatical rules, they may encounter difficulties when they develop their four skills. Therefore, I believe grammar is the fundamental part in students' English learning....

(Brenda, 2nd focus group interview)

...我覺得如果老師沒有把文法講清楚的話，學生在之後聽說讀寫上面的學習都會有困難....

...I think if teachers do not explain the grammatical rules to students well, students may encounter problems when they develop the four skills....

(Maggie, 2nd focus group interview)

B. Approach of grammar instruction

...我覺得在教學生文法的時候，可以將要教的文法跟他們的現實生活做連結，學生會記得比較久....

...I think students might have a deeper impression if teachers can make a connection between the grammatical rules being taught and their real life....

(Brenda, 1st focus group interview)

...現在網路上有很多文法動畫，其實可以在上課前給學生看看那些東西，因為那些東西比老師在上面講的還要更有趣、更生動，有些也跟他們生活有關....

...There are many animations which are related to English grammar on the internet. I think teachers can let students watch those animations before the classes because those animations are more interested and vivid than teachers' solely explanations. Sometimes, those animations are related to their real life....

(Maggie, 1st focus group interview)

...如果教文法，我覺得我會比較傾向於用 *i+1* 的方式。先複習學生以前學過的，然後再做連結，慢慢的加一點新的東西....

...I think I will apply *i+1* while I am teaching grammar. That is, I will review what students have learned in the beginning. Then I will make a connection between what they have learned and what I am going to teach....

(Sandra, 1st focus group interview)

C. *Content of grammar instruction*

...我覺得除了課本以外，老師應該要帶一些比較有趣的遊戲，然後讓學生每個人都參與感，如果學生沒有學會的老師正在教的文法，他們就沒有辦法參與這個遊戲，這樣子也許就會比較想要學習....

...I think in addition to the textbooks, teachers should offer some interesting activities in order to let each student participate in the class. If students do not acquire the rule being taught, they may not be able to participate the activity. I believe in this way, students can be motivated....

(Angela, 1st focus group interview)

...一開始上課時，除了課本之外老師可以帶一些有關英文的小遊戲，先讓整個課堂的氣氛變的比較好一點....

Before the class, teachers could provide students with some little games instead of solely focusing on the textbooks. By doing so, the learning environment would become well....

(Brenda, 1st focus group interview)

...如果說我今天要教過去式，除了課本老師可以找一首裡面有過去式歌詞的歌，放給大家聽然後唱一下，學生可能就對文法有了興趣。或者是找動畫、電影然後看個小小的片段....

...If teachers are going to teach past tense, in addition to the textbooks, they could offer an English song whose lyrics contain the past tense. They could let students listen to it and then sing it together. In such a way, students might be interested in learning grammar. Or, teachers could offer students some clips extracted from animations or movies....

(Sandra, 1st focus group interview)

II. Observation and interview data of the preservice EFL teachers practices toward grammar instruction

A. Approach of grammar instruction

1. Applying proactive approach

...在課程前會先想好要怎麼樣上這堂課，然後會設計一些活動讓學生練習....

...I figure out how to teach grammar before each class and then designed some following activities in order to help students practice the rules being taught....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...基本上我會在上課之前先想好要怎麼樣帶這堂課，然後會找出時間跟我的輔導老師討論....

...Basically, I designed the courses in advance and then discussed the lesson plan with my mentor....

(Brenda, 4th Stimulated recall interview)

...我都是會在上課前幾天先想好要怎麼樣呈現我的教學....

...Before the class session, I always spent several days thinking about how to implement grammar instruction....

(Maggie, 2nd stimulated recall interview)

...我會在課堂前就先想好要怎麼教，然後有時間的話會找輔導老師討論....

...I thought about how to teach grammar in advance. If I had time, I would discuss the lesson plan I designed with my mentor....

(Sandra, 4th stimulated recall interview)

2. Providing oral and repetitive pattern practices

T: What am I doing?

Ss: You are watching TV.

T: What is Jolin doing?

Ss: She is swimming.

T: What are they doing?

Ss: They are roller-skating.

(Angela, 3rd classroom observation)

T: 第一句句子，把 *be* 動詞放到句首要怎麼改？

Ss: Is she thin?

T: 剩下的我們一起講。

Ss: Are they old?

T: 第三個？

Ss: Is this boy heavy?

T: What will the first sentence become if I move the *be verb* in the beginning of the sentence?

Ss: Is she thin?

T: Let's read other sentences together.

Ss: Are they old?

T: What about the third one?

Ss: Is this boy heavy?

(Brenda, 2nd classroom observation)

T: 你們兩個，把句子的填空填出來，大聲一點。
 T: 再來下一題，一樣我要一個 A 一個 B。你們兩個人站起來講。
 T: 下一題。有沒有人要試試看？
 T: You two fill in the blank and tell everyone your answers. Speak loudly.
 T: Next one. I want two volunteers. Ok, you two stand up.
 T: Next one. Is there any volunteers?

SsA: What was Jean doing at then this morning?
 SsB: She was writing a letter.
 SsA: What were the students doing at one yesterday afternoon? SsB: They were taking a nap.
 SsA: What were you doing at 3:30 this afternoon?
 SsB: I was checking e-mail.
 SsA: What was Jean doing at then this morning?
 SsB: She was writing a letter.
 SsA: What were the students doing at one yesterday afternoon? SsB: They were taking a nap.
 SsA: What were you doing at 3:30 this afternoon?
 SsB: I was checking e-mail.
 (Maggie, 1st classroom observation)

T: 那你們看一下我把這個 eraser 放到盒子裡面，這樣要怎麼講？
 T: 好。我們會用 in 來描述位置對不對？那假設現在我把 eraser 放到盒子的上面，這樣要怎麼說？
 T: 很好。那現在這個 What is this?
 T: 那我把 pen 放在盒子的前面
 T: I put this eraser in the box. Can you make a sentence in English?
 T: Right. We use *in* to describe the position of the eraser. What if I put this eraser on the box, can you make a sentence?
 T: Ok. What is this?
 T: If I put this pen in front of the box, can you make a sentence?

Ss: The eraser is in the box.
 Ss: The eraser is on the box.
 Ss: pen
 Ss: The pen is in front of the box.
 Ss: The eraser is in the box.
 Ss: The eraser is on the box.
 Ss: a pen
 Ss: The pen is in front of the box.
 (Sandra, 2nd classroom observation)

3. Applying deductive teaching approach

...現在進行式就是 be 動詞加上 Ving。現在進行式代表什麼？它代表的就是現在正在進行的動作還有持續發生的狀態....

...The structure of present progressive is *be verb plus v+ing*. Present progressive is used to describe an action that is happening at the moment....

(Angela, 3rd classroom observation)

...如果你要形容名詞，你要把形容詞擺在它的前面....

...If you want to modify a noun, you should put the adjective before the noun....

(Angela, 1st classroom observation)

...如果你要強調那個動作是一瞬間用過去簡單式。如果是連續的就用過去進行式....

...If the action that you describe is temporary, then you use past tense. If the action is continuing, then you need to use past progressive....

(Maggie, 1st classroom observation)

...在關係子句中，who 是用在有關於人的先行詞上面；只要不是人的就是用 which；that 是用在人和非人上面....

...In a relative clause, you use *who* when the antecedent is a human being. If the antecedent is nonhuman, you use *which*. You can use *that* when the antecedent is human or nonhuman....

(Maggie, 2nd classroom observation)

...介系詞片語就是介系詞再加上一個名詞。我們把它視為一個形容詞來修飾我們想要修飾的東西....

...A prepositional phrase refers to the combination of a preposition and a noun. We view the prepositional phrase as an adjective which can be used to modify the sentence....

(Brenda, 3rd classroom observation)

...現在完成式中，since 加上時間的起點。如果你後面要加句子的時候，這個句子一定要是過去式....

...In present perfect tense, *since* is used to modify the start point of the time. If you would like to add a sentence after *since*, the sentence must be past tense....

(Brenda, 1st classroom observation)

...這句裡面 the bus 指的是代名詞。如果是放到下面這個句子時，他就會換位置。Here 後面就會變成主詞加動詞....

...*The bus* refers to the pronoun in this sentence. If you use the second sentence pattern, you need to change the position of the pronoun. That is, you need to put subject and verb after *Here*....

(Sandra, 1st classroom observation)

...如果你要用複數名詞你要搭配的 be 動詞是 are。如果你用的是單數名詞，搭配的 be 動詞就是 is....

...If the noun is plural, the *be verb* you should use is *are*. If the noun is single in this sentence, the *be verb* you should use is *is*....

(Classroom observation IV transcripts, p. 2)

...實習老師通常都是直接講解規則，然後再直接造句，給學生很多的例子讓他們熟悉....

...My student teacher usually analyzed the structure of the rule deductively. Then, she gave students many examples in order to make them become familiar with the rule being taught....

(Interview with Angela's mentor)

...大部分的時候實習老師是直接先給規則，然後再舉例子，最後做練習....

...Most of the time, my student teacher taught grammar deductively. Then, she offered some examples and practices to students....

(Interview with Brenda's mentor)

...實習老師通常是直接先給規則，然後再延伸例子....

...In my student teacher's instruction, she told students the rule deductively and then offered some additional examples to them....

(Interview with Maggie's mentor)

...基本上實習老師會先直接講規則，然後在做練習....

...Basically, my student teacher taught grammatical rules directly and then offer some practices to students....

(Interview with Sandra's mentor)

4. Using Chinese as the major medium

...她 She 是 is 一個 a 女生 girl，完全照著中文翻....

...She is a girl. You just translate this sentence from Chinese to English directly....

(Angela, 1st classroom observation)

...大家都很自然的知道要把形容詞寫在這裡，因為這個句子跟中文一樣....

...You just know where to put the adjective in this sentence, because the structure of this sentence is identical with the structure of Chinese....

(Angela, 1st classroom observation)

...They have been to Canada. 是說他們曾經去過加拿大....

...*They have been to Canada* means that they went to Canada before....

(Brenda, 1st classroom observation)

...The people in yellow shirts are his students.那些穿著黃衣服的人就是他的學生....

...*The people in yellow shirts are his students* means those people who are wearing yellow are his students....

(Brenda, 3rd classroom observation)

...這句話是什麼意思？誰可以幫我翻譯成中文？What was she doing at 8:20 yesterday morning? 她昨天早上 8:20“正在”在做什麼....

...What's the meaning of this sentence? Who can help me translate this sentence into Chinese? What was she doing at 8:20 yesterday morning?....

(Maggie, 1st classroom observation)

...那第四句話是什麼意思? He was taking a nap at 1:30 yesterday afternoon....

...What's the Chinese meaning of *He was taking a nap at 1:30 yesterday afternoon*....

(Maggie, 1st classroom observation)

...這句話的中文你們剛剛有仔細聽嗎? 廚房裡有很多食物。所以廚房裡要放在句子的最後面....

...Did you hear the Chinese meaning of this sentence clearly? There is much food in the kitchen. Therefore, we need to put 'in the kitchen' at the end of this sentence....

(Sandra, 4th classroom observation)

...I am too angry to think clearly. 這句話的中文意思是什麼?

...What's the Chinese meaning in this sentence *I am too angry to think clearly*?....

(Sandra, 1st classroom observation)

...實習老師上課大部分的時候還是以中文為主....

...When my student teacher taught grammar, she used Chinese most of the time....

(Interview with Angela's mentor)

...教文法的時候實習老師大部分都還是用中文講述....

...When my student teacher was giving grammar instruction, she used Chinese to make explanations most of the time....

(Interview with Brenda's mentor)

...實習老師大部分都還是用中文，爲了顧及全面的學生....

...Mostly, my student teacher spoke Chinese to teach grammar in order to meet with most students' English proficiency levels....

(Interview with Maggie's mentor)

...實習老師大部分還是用中文，中英文比的話大概是 70%的中文和 30%的英文....

...Most of the time my student teacher spoke Chinese to teach grammar. The ratio for her use of Chinese and English was 7:3....

(Interview with Sandra's mentor)

5. Using grammatical terms

...我們今天學到介系詞，它是用來加在名詞之前....

...Today we have learned how to add prepositions to sentences, which should be put before *nouns*....

(Angela, 4th classroom observation)

...現在進行式就是 be 動詞加上 Ving....

...The structure of present progressive is *be verb+ Ving*....

(Angela, 3rd classroom observation)

- ...介系詞片語的第一種用法就是用來修飾主詞....
 ...The first kind of prepositional phrase is used to modify the subject....
 (Brenda, 3rd classroom observation)
- ...現在完成式的句型是什麼....
 ...What is the structure of present perfect....
 (Brenda, 1st classroom observation)
- ...如果你要強調那個動作是一瞬間用過去簡單式。如果是連續的就用過去進行式....
 ...If the action that you describe is temporary, then you use past tense. If the action is continuing, then you need to use past progressive....
 (Maggie, 1st classroom observation)
- ...第二類是形容詞片語。它就是我們教過的介系詞片語當形容詞用....
 ...The second type is called adjective phrase, in which we use it as an adjective. We have learned this before....
 (Maggie, 2nd classroom observation)
- ...如果你要用複數名詞你要搭配的 be 動詞是 are。如果你用的是單數名詞，搭配的 be 動詞就是 is....
 ...If you use a *plural noun*, the *be verb* that you should use is *are*. On the other hand, if you use a *singular noun*, the *be verb* you should use is *is*....
 (Sandra, 4th classroom observation)
- ...Here comes the bus. 我要你們現在把 comes 改成代名詞....
 ...I want you to change *comes* into a pronoun in this sentence *Here comes the bus*....
 (Sandra, 1st classroom observation)

B. Content of grammar instruction

1. Covering related rules while teaching a certain grammar

...課本以外的實習老師多少還是會有一些涉略。以現在分詞舉例好了，她會補充一些不能變成現在分詞的動詞，這個部份可能課本就沒有提....

...My student teacher provided students with some relevant rules which were not mentioned in the textbook. For instance, when teaching present participles, my student teacher usually listed extra verbs that cannot become present participles. The textbook does not contain these exceptional examples....

(Interview with Angela's mentor)

...實習老師會補充課本以外類似的文法。尤其是 A 組的部份會盡量補充....

...When teaching a grammar, my student teacher provided students with some relevant rules which did not mention in the textbook. Especially for students in higher proficiency level, she would provide students as many related rules as she can....

(Interview with Brenda's mentor)

...有一課有教到 *spend*，然後其實課本裡是講解 *take* 的用法，所以實習老師又在補充 *spend* 和 *cost* 這兩個字的用法...另外那一次課本有講到 *so that* 的用法，實習老師有補充 *too to*....

...At one time my student teacher taught students the usage of *spend*. But it was not the main focus listed in the textbook. She made a comparison between *take*, *spend*, and *cost*. Another time she talked about the usage of *so that* which was listed on the textbook. She also offered the usage of *too... to...* to students and made a comparison between these two phrases....

(Interview with Sandra's mentor)

In Angela's fourth grammar instruction, I discovered that her main focus was to help student become familiar with the use of prepositional phrases. Yet, she also explained the usage of proper nouns in prepositional phrases. To be more specific, Angela first explained what prepositional phrases are and then told students the differences among the prepositions *in*, *under*, *on*, *in front of*, *in back of*, *over*, etc. Then, she gave each student a handout and told students that if the noun in the prepositional phrase is a certain place, then it is unnecessary to add the definite article in the prepositional phrase, for instance, in Japan (not in the Japan).

(Fieldnotes of Angela's classroom observation)

In Angela's first classroom teaching, I found that she not only talked about the concept of present perfect, but also explained the restrictions of using present perfect. For instance, 'die' and 'get up' can not be used in present perfect.

(Fieldnotes of Brenda's classroom observation)

In Sandra's first teaching practice, she talked some relevant rules while teaching a certain grammar structure. While Sandra talked about the sentence pattern *too...to...* in the conversation, she also covered related sentence pattern *so...that...* and helped students distinguish the differences between these two sentence patterns. For instance, she wrote down two sentences *I was too angry to think clearly* and *She is so friendly that everyone likes her* on the board. Then, she asked students to compare these two sentences and tell her the differences. Noticing that students were unable to tell the differences between these two sentences, Sandra tried to explain the structures of the two sentences.

(Fieldnotes of Sandra classroom observation)

2. Relying textbook as the major teaching content

...都是根據課本提到的來編排課程，到了比較後期的部分我有加上文法卷的使用，但是文法卷的設計還是以課本為主軸....

...I designed the courses based on the content of textbook. During the later period of my teaching practicum, I provided handouts for students while teaching grammar. Yet,

the design of the handouts was based on the textbook....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...基本上我都會先看課本的主軸是什麼，然後再找一些參考書和網路上的一些資料來編制我的講義，就是以課本為基準....

...Basically, I would figure out the key point of the lesson unit being taught in the textbook. Then I referred to some reference books and internet reference to design the handouts I wanted to offered to students. Textbook was the main consideration for me while I was designing the courses....

(Brenda, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...我都是以課本為主然後幫學生把他們以前學過的一些東西跟這堂課要學的東西做一個連結。另外我也會準備自編講義來上課，不過主要的方向還是以課本為主....

...The textbook was my main consideration when I designed the course, and I tried to make a connection between what students have learned and what they are going to learn. In addition, I designed handouts to help students' learning. But strictly speaking, I relied on the textbook as the major teaching content....

(Maggie, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...就是課本為主，但是我會再自己去找有相關的句型。我不會使用課本上的例句....

...Textbook was the main consideration for me to design the course. Yet, I tried to find out some sample sentences from other references. I wouldn't use the sample sentences listed on the textbook....

(Sandra, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...實習老師會根據課本的文法下去設計教學活動....

...My student teacher designed her grammar instruction based on the content of the textbook....

(Interview with Angela's mentor)

...實習老師會自己做講義，但是基本上她的講義是以課本為基底....

...My student teacher designed handouts by herself while teaching grammar. Yet, textbook was the main consideration for her while designing handouts....

(Interview with Brenda's mentor)

...實習老師的教學當然是取決於課本，因為我們有一定的進度要跑....

...The textbook was the main consideration for my student teacher when designing the grammar instruction because of the fixed teaching schedule....

(Interview with Maggie's mentor)

...實習期間，實習老師每一課文法教學的內容都是以課本為主....

...During my student teacher's practicum, the content of grammar instruction in each lesson was decided by the textbook....

(Interview with Sandra's mentor)

C. *Time issue of grammar instruction*

1. Teaching grammar after vocabulary instruction, before reading instruction

...我們是已經上完單字了，接著就馬上上文法。最後才會講到課文的部份....

...We taught grammar after students had learned vocabulary. The final part was reading instruction....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...文法的部分都是在學生已經上完單字之後教的，不過課文的部分還沒有上....

...In each unit, I taught grammar after the vocabulary section, but reading passage hadn't been taught to students....

(Brenda, 4th Stimulated recall interview)

...我們班都是先上完單字才講到文法，最後才會上課文....

...In my class, vocabulary instruction was implemented before grammar instruction. And reading instruction was implemented at the final part....

(Maggie, 2nd stimulated recall interview)

...先上完單字課文，才講到文法....

...Grammar instruction was implemented after the vocabulary instruction....

(Sandra, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...實習老師通常是在單字完後教文法，課文的部分我們都會上完文法才進入....

...In general, my student teacher taught grammar after the vocabulary instruction. Reading instruction was implemented after the grammar instruction....

(Interview with Angela's mentor)

...實習老師都在單字後，課文之前教文法。她會這樣做應該是因為我都這樣教....

...My student teacher taught grammar after the vocabulary section and before the reading instruction. The reason she did this might be because I taught students in this way....

(Interview with Brenda's mentor)

...他的模式應該跟我很接近，就是單字上完後再上文法....

...The timing of my student teacher's implementation of grammar instruction is similar to mine. That is, grammar is taught after the vocabulary section in each unit....

(Interview with Maggie's mentor)

...他都是在教完單字和課文之後教文法....

...My student teacher taught grammar after vocabulary and reading instructions....

(Interview with Sandra's mentor)

D. Grammatical error treatment

1. Applying implicit error correction

T: 如果我想要用 I 來開頭，後面的動詞要變成 spent，那接下來要怎麼辦？

Ss: (One student said...) I spent NT\$1000 to buy this....

T: to buy this T-shirt?

Ss: buying this T-shirt

T: Yes, I spent NT\$1000 buying this T-shirt.

Ss: ...[silence]

T: If the subject is *I* and the verb is *spent*, then what should we do in the following?

Ss: I spent NT\$1000 to buy this...

T: to buy this T-shirt?

Ss: buying this T-shirt

T: Yes, I spent NT\$1000 buying this T-shirt.

Ss: ...[silence]

(Sandra, 1st classroom observation)

T: 那 You have been to Canada.呢？這句對嗎？

Ss: 對/不對。

T: 有人說不對，為什麼不對？

Ss: 因為還不知道到底要不要去。

T: 還不知道到底要不要去？可是現在完成式的概念是強調已經完成或是已經發生的事情。所以這句是對的。

Ss: ...[silence]

T: Is this sentence correct 'You have been to Canada'?

Ss: Yes / No

T: Someone said no. Why this sentence is incorrect?

Ss: Because we don't know whether this person wants to go to Canada or not.

T: Well, the present perfect emphasizes an action which has happened so this sentence is correct.

Ss: ...[silence]

(Brenda, 1st classroom observation)

2. Applying explicit error correction

T: 那欣芸寫什麼？

Ss: in front of box

T: 是嗎？少了一個字，什麼字？the 對不對？因為你要特定是這一個盒子，所以是 in front of the box。

Ss: ...[silence]

T: What is your answer, Shin-yun?

Ss: in front of box

T: Are you sure? You missed a word. Which word? You missed the word 'the'. Because you should specify the box in this picture, the answer is *in front of the box*.

Ss: ...[silence]

(Angela, 4th classroom observation)

T: at 後面加上小時間之後，後面要有一個大時間，所以我要再加一個什麼？ Ss: (One student said...) in
 T: 不用加 in。 Ss: (Another one said) yesterday night
 T: yesterday night 不對。 Ss: ...[silence]
 T: What kind of phrase should I add to modify this sentence? Ss: (One student said...) in
 T: You don't need to put in here. Ss: (Another one said) yesterday night
 T: Yesterday night is not the correct answer. Ss: ...[silence]

(Maggie, 1st classroom observation)

3. Applying immediate error correction

...我想不管是寫還是說的部份他會糾正。她都會叫孩子上來寫答案，有錯的部份就當場直接在黑板上做修改。至於口說的部份，我想如果他有注意到的話，當下就會提出糾正....

...My student teacher corrected students' each error in both written and oral practices whenever she found the error. Especially for written practice, she always asked students to write down their answers on the board. If any errors occurred, she corrected those errors immediately. As for oral practices, if she discovered the errors, she provided error correction for students at the moment....

(Interview with Angela's mentor)

...她幾乎每一次都會馬上糾正學生的錯誤。如果是寫出錯誤的句子的話，他是一定會在課堂上糾正。如果是說出錯誤的句子，她要是注意到錯誤的話也會在課堂上糾正....

...My student teacher corrected students' each error immediately. If students wrote wrong sentences, she must correct the errors during the class time. If students' spoken sentences were ungrammatical and my student teacher discovered those errors, she corrected those errors during the class time, too....

(Interview with Brenda's mentor)

...當她發現學生犯錯時，她會馬上糾正....

...My student teacher corrected students' each error immediately whenever she found the error....

(Interview with Maggie's mentor)

...會做口語上的糾正，就直接現場糾正....

...My student teacher corrected students' errors orally. That is, she corrected students' grammatical errors immediately....

(Interview with Sandra's mentor)

III. Preservice EFL teachers' detailed statements about the factors influencing the consistency between their cognition and practices

A. Approach of grammar instruction

1. Using Chinese as the major medium

...因為我發現如果我用英文講，他們會聽不懂...我必須用中文，學生才知道我在幹麻....

...If I use English to teach grammar, students might not be able to understand what I am talking about. Because of students' poor English proficiency level, I needed to use Chinese while I was teaching grammar....

(Angela, 1st Stimulated recall interview)

...因為學生完全聽不懂英文，很明顯的我做過很多次的課室觀察，如果我講英文的話，我想他們一定無法適應，而且又是講解文法這種東西...

...Students couldn't understand what I was talking about if I spoke English while I was teaching. Obviously, I have made several times of classroom observations, and I think if I had used English to teach grammar, students probably couldn't get with it, especially for grammar instruction....

(Maggie, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...因為考試的時候通常都是翻譯題，學生必須看著中文才知道要怎麼寫英文，這樣子(利用中文學習英文句型)對學生來說可能會比較簡單又易懂....

...Students need to translate sentences from Chinese to English during the school exams most of the time. If students can learn grammatical rules via Chinese, it will be easier for them to comprehend the rule....

(Angela, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...在翻譯的考試裡面都會考這樣的一個句型，所以我希望學生可以看到這個句型的中文，就是要用 too..to..這個句型....

...When students take the school exams, they need to translate sentences from Chinese to English, and this sentence pattern would be a main point in the exam. I hope when students see the Chinese of this sentence pattern, they will realize they should use *too...to...* to make sentences....

(Sandra, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...會用中文來上文法這跟學生程度比較低有很大的關係。而且從以前我們老師教他們的時候，就是用中文上課居多...如果用英文上課，他們會不適應....

...Because of students' lower English proficiency level, I used Chinese as the major medium while teaching grammar. Moreover, my mentor used Chinese to teach these students grammar before. If I had used English to teach grammar, they wouldn't get with it....

(Brenda, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...第一次上課時，學生問我老師你幹麻一直講英文，所以之後上課我就全部換成中文。可能是平常他們老師不會這樣子上課，所以他們不習慣...

...In my first teaching, I used English to explain the rules. Yet, students asked me why I spoke English all the time. After that, I spoke Chinese to teach grammar. The reason why I used Chinese to teach grammar was because students used to be taught by my mentors in Chinese....

(Sandra, 1st stimulated recall interview)

2. Using grammatical terms

...原本學生只知道 *prep.* 的縮寫是什麼。但是那個時候我覺得以學生的程度他們可以知道 *prep.* 完整的拼法是什麼，所以我就講了...

...Students knew the abbreviation of *prep* before. Yet, at that time I thought based on their proficiency levels, they should learn the spelling and meaning of *prep* so I explained this term to them....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...我想因為這班學生程度都不錯，所以只要稍微跟他們說一下，他們就會懂了。如果今天是在 B 組的話，可能就還要稍微說一下什麼是介系詞....

...Because students are at high proficiency level, they all understand those grammatical terms. If students' proficiency level is low, then it is necessary for me to provide students with extra explanations about the meaning of preposition....

(Brenda 3rd stimulated recall interview)

...我用的那些術語是學生可以聽得懂的...如果學生聽得懂我講的術語是什麼，對他們來說會比較清楚吧....

...The grammatical terms I used in the class were those that students could understand. If students understand those terms that I have used in the class, it's easier for them to grasp the rules....

(Sandra, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...因為我知道他們懂所以我才講，這樣對他們的理解會比較清楚....

...I used the grammatical terms because I am confident that students all have known those terms. Using grammatical terms could help them to comprehend the rules being taught....

(Angela, 2nd stimulated recall interview)

...我會跟學生講這些文法術語是因為他們考試的時候會考....

...The reason for me to use grammatical terms while I was teaching grammar was because these terms will also be used on school exams....

(Sandra, 2nd stimulated recall interview)

...這些介系詞，介系詞片語等等的術語對他們來說不是很陌生，而且在趕課的時候用會比較方便而且省時間....

...I believe students are familiar with these grammatical terms, such as preposition, prepositional phrase, and so on. In addition, I used grammatical terms to explain the structures of the rules because it saved me a lot of instructional hours so that I could catch up the progress....

(Brenda, 3rd stimulated recall interview)

...如果我要把關代這個東西換成是平常說話的方式來解釋的話，可能就要講很久，就會導致教學時間被拉長，所以才會用文法術語去解釋....

...If I had used another way to explain the structure of relative clauses at that time, I would have spent much more time to explain the rule, and the instructional hour could be extended. Therefore, I used grammatical terms to teach grammar....

(Maggie, 2nd stimulated recall interview)

...因為我自己覺得這樣講會比較清楚，而且我們老師也都會這樣講，所以學生都知道這些 term 是什麼....

...I think if I use some grammatical terms while I teach grammar, it would be easier for students to understand the structures of rules. Moreover, it's not difficult for students to understand these grammatical terms because my mentor frequently taught them these terms before....

(Brenda, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...其實我的老師本身很傾向於用術語來教，他都把所謂的文法規則都講成是公式，雖然我覺得這樣很不好，不過這畢竟是他的班級，所以我也只好跟著一起用....

...I used grammatical terms while teaching grammar since my mentor inclined to use those terms in classes. She thought the structure of a grammatical rule is so called a 'formula'. Even though I do not agree with this kind of teaching approach, after all this is her class, so I just followed her teaching method....

(Sandra, 2nd stimulated recall interview)

3. Applying deductive teaching approach

...因為以國中生的英文程度如果可以直接告訴他們規則是什麼，對他們來說會比較有幫助，就是會比較好記....

...Based upon junior high school students' current English proficiency, if I could tell them the structure of the rule directly, it would be easier for them to memorize the rule....

(Angela, 2nd stimulated recall interview)

...因為我上的那個班級是 B 組的學生，有些人程度本來就比較落後，如果我可以在一開始就很明白的跟他們說這個句型是什麼，他們會記清楚....

...In this class, students' proficiency level was lower. If I told them the structures of the rules directly, they would memorize the rule more easily....

(Brenda, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...我覺得這個班級的程度不是很好，學習動機也很薄弱，如果給了學生一大堆的例句，最後讓他們自行找出差異點在哪，我覺得他們一定不知道心都跑去哪裡了，所以我在這裡才會直接跟學生做說明....

...Students in this class were at lower proficiency level and their learning motivation was weak. If I had given students a lot of sentences and made them figure out the differences, they wouldn't have been able to concentrate on my course; therefore, I directly told students the rule....

(Maggie, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...因為我想學生都沒什麼反應，所以我只好自己直接講規則....

...Because students did not react to my questions, I directly told them the structure of the rule being taught....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...因為我一開始有想要讓學生自己歸類，可是因為我還沒有教，而且我想如果我可以直接把規則跟他們說，對他們來說會比較容易理解....

...I have ever considered letting students induce the rule by themselves. But I hadn't taught this part before, and I thought if I could explain this rule deductively, it would be easier for students to understand....

(Angela, 3rd stimulated recall interview)

...會直接跟學生說 *who/which/that* 的用法是因為我覺得直接講學生比較容易理解....

...The reason why I explained the usage among *who*, *which*, and *that* in the related clause was because I thought students could understand this part easily if I told them the rules directly....

(Maggie, 2nd stimulated recall interview)

...像我以前學這個的時候，老師就是直接講，好像也沒有特別做說明...所以我也就直接講規則....

...When I was a student, my teacher directly told me the structure. At that time, my teacher did not provide any extra explanation about this rule either to us... Therefore, here I explained this rule to students directly....

(Brenda, 3rd stimulated recall interview)

...像是我以前的老師，他們大概都是這樣子的教法，所以我就用相同的方式直接跟學生說明形容詞子句如何合併....

...When I was a student, my teacher taught like this. They directly told students how to make related clauses. Therefore, I taught in the same way....

(Maggie, 2nd stimulated recall interview)

...直接給學生規則是因為要節省時間....

...The reason for me to teach students the rule directly is that I want to save the instructional hours....

(Angela, 2nd focus group interview)

...我覺得直接講比較清楚吧，而且其實課有點趕，所以如果想要用歸納法的話，會有一點浪費時間....

...I think if I directly explain the structure of the rule to students, it would be easier for them to comprehend. Also, I did not have much instructional hours. If I have used inductive approach to teach them the rule, it would have spent me a lot of time....

(Brenda, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...因為如果時間夠長可以這樣子跟學生講，給學生很多例子讓他們自行歸納，我自己覺得這樣學生可以記的比較久，但是教學時間真的無法讓你這樣進行教學....

...If the instructional hours had been extended, I would have given students a lot of similar sentences and make them induce the rule by themselves. I believed this would increase students' long-term memory of the rule being taught. However, the limited teaching hours didn't allow me to apply inductive teaching approach....

(Maggie, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...因為我有時間上的壓力。我的老師會希望我把該上的東西上完....

...I used deductive teaching approach here because my mentor wanted me to finish everything that I had to teach on that day, and I had the pressure of having limited teaching hours....

(Sandra, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...其實這是跟我的老師學的。她常常會先自己歸類，然後直接跟學生說有哪些要注意的規則....

...I learned this teaching method from my mentor. She usually sorted out some key points in advance and then directly told students those points during class time....

(Brenda, 3rd stimulated recall interview)

4. Providing repetitive pattern practices

...學生剛接觸到一個句子時會有點陌生，如果一直給他們練習，他們會比較清楚。不過一方面也是因為考試的關係....

...When students have learned a rule, they could be unfamiliar with it. If the teacher can give them repetitive pattern exercise, they will become familiar with the rule. I think the reason I offered repetitive pattern practices to students was because of the school exams....

(Brenda, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...因為我的老師考試時會考練習題，所以我一定要反覆地上這個部份....

...I need to teach the grammar exercise section again and again because my mentor tended to give students some quizzes in which they would be tested on those structures....

(Maggie, 4th stimulated recall interview)

B. Content of grammar instruction

1. Covering related rules while teaching a certain grammar

...對於補充的東西，雖然學生不一定可以吸收，但是我的輔導老師認為這是一種螺旋性課程...所以我也跟著這麼做....

...As for the related rules I covered in the class, I think students may not understand all of those things. But my mentor believed that providing students some relevant rules while teaching grammar was a kind of 'spiral course'. Therefore, I provided relevant rules for students here....

(Angela, 2nd focus group interview)

...我的老師上課他不會只上課本裡面的東西，因為只有課本的話就沒有什麼好教的，所以我會補充一點相關知識給學生....

...I covered relevant rules while teaching grammar because my mentor taught students not only the stuff on the textbook but also the related rules. It is too easy for students if they only learn the stuff on the textbook....

(Brenda, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...考試的時候會考比課本難的東西。所以如果時間充裕我會補充一些知識給學生....

...When students take school exams, the questions in the exams would be more difficult than those in the textbooks. Therefore, if I have time, I would like to provide students as many related rules as I can....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...因為要應付學生的考試，所以基本上我會從各個方面找出學生可能遇到的文法規則去做補充....

...Basically, I would provide as many relevant rules as I can in order to help students cope with the school exams....

(Brenda, 4th stimulated recall interview)

2. Relying on textbook as the major teaching content

...因為學校進度就是按照課本這樣跑，你也不可能說要教自己想要的東吧....

...Because the teaching schedule was designed based on the textbook, we need to follow it; we might not be able to teach what we like in the classrooms....

(Sandra, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...文法教學照著課本下去編排，這是因為我們都有既定的進度要去執行....

...The teaching content in my grammar instruction was based on the textbook because we needed to follow the fixed teaching schedule....

(Brenda, 4th stimulated recall interview)

C. *Time issue of grammar instruction*

1. Teaching grammar after vocabulary instruction, before reading instruction

...因為我的老師都是這樣子上課的，所以我算是 follow 他....

...Because this was the way that my mentor gave the instructions, I think I just followed her steps....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...因為我的老師教學的順序就是這樣，所以我大部分都是配合他，也不可能有什麼樣的變動....

...It was my mentor who decided the time schedule for grammar instruction. I just followed her procedures. It is impossible for me to change the sequence of grammar instruction....

(Brenda, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...我們班都是先上完單字才講到文法，最後才會上課文。這個部份的話是我的老師決定的....

...In my class, grammar instruction was implemented after the vocabulary instruction but before the reading instruction. In fact, this was the way my mentor taught the unit, and I just followed her procedures....

(Maggie, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...我的老師教學的順序就是這樣....

...It was my mentor who decided the time scheduled for grammar instruction....

(Sandra, 4th stimulated recall interview)

D. *Grammatical error treatment*

1. Applying explicit error correction most of the time

...因為這個學生的程度比較不好，再加上這個錯誤比較少見，就是比較少人會犯這個錯，我覺得是他的個人問題，所以我就直接告訴他....

...I corrected this student's error directly because his English proficiency level was lower. And I thought that few students would make the same error, and it was this student's problem....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)

...我現在在講過去進行式,如果再把他們帶到另一個句型跟他們解釋為什麼這樣是錯的, 就會偏離了主題...所以我才會直接指出學生的錯誤....

...Because I was teaching past progressive at that time, I did not want to deviate from the subject being taught. Therefore, I corrected the error explicitly....

(Maggie, 1st stimulated recall interview)

2. Correcting students' errors immediately

...冠詞、形容詞和名詞在疑問句中,學生很容易將順序放錯。老師說這是語感的問題。馬上糾正的話是因為那位同學程度比較不好,我想讓他知道有錯誤,然後讓他自己去培養語感....

...In interrogative sentence, students are confused about the sequences among article, adjectives, and nouns. It is easy for them to make errors. My mentor said this student made this error due to his weak language intuition. I corrected student's error immediately because that student was at lower proficiency level. I wanted to let the student know there's an error in his sentence and to cultivate his language intuition....

(Brenda, 2nd stimulated recall interview)

...如果我沒有立刻指正讓學生一直講,到時候其他人也會跟著講錯....

...If I had not provided error correction for this student immediately, other students would have made the same error....

(Maggie, 1st stimulated recall interview)

...會立刻糾正學生的錯誤是因為這個學生程度比較不好,我覺得他可能沒有辦法自行改正,所以我就在課堂上糾正他....

...The reason why I told the students right answer immediately was because this student's English proficiency was lower and I thought he might not be able to self-correct the error....

(Angela, 4th stimulated recall interview)