

**The Relationship between Teacher Education, Teacher Cognition and
Classroom Practice in Language Teaching: A Case Study of MA
Students' Beliefs about Grammar Teaching**

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the development of the grammar teaching beliefs and practices of three practising teachers of English in Turkey taking an MA course. Teachers were interviewed and observed over a 20-month period; the observations shed light on how they taught grammar, while the interviews explored their beliefs about grammar teaching and provided insight the relationship between their beliefs and practices. Analysis of the findings indicated that teachers taught differently from many of their stated beliefs, either temporarily or consistently, that the reasons for this were complex, and that teachers' reasoning was flexibly adjusted in response to practical classroom circumstances. Drawing on a distinction between core and specific beliefs, the analysis also showed that tensions occurred when teachers' core beliefs about teaching and learning generally were not aligned with specific beliefs about teaching and learning English. Thus at any one time core and specific beliefs competed for influence over teachers' practices mediated by contextual and affective factors. Analysis also indicated that teacher learning is a complex non-linear process made of different stages unique to each teacher. Various factors facilitated this process; teachers' dissatisfaction with aspects of their beliefs and practices; being aware of and questioning their beliefs and practices; exposure to alternative ideas and practices which were perceived to be intelligible, plausible and fruitful; and opportunities to explore their teaching and experiment with alternative practices. It is argued that the development of new teaching routines is a dynamic, cyclical and dialectic process which involves ongoing interaction between affective, cognitive, contextual and experiential factors. Some important implications of the study for language teacher education discussed are that helping teachers raise awareness of tensions, discussing these collaboratively with teacher educators and engaging teachers with data from real classrooms can help teachers develop their classroom practices.

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1. INTRODUCTION

This study is about the development of the grammar teaching beliefs and practices of in-service English language teachers during the course of an MA programme. It examines how teachers teach grammar and the underlying reasons why they teach in the way they do.

My own interest in this topic comes from my professional work as a teacher educator. I have long been fascinated by the different ways teachers respond to and interpret input from teacher education and particularly intrigued by the multitude of factors which seem to impact on teachers' learning during teacher education programmes. My own work has been predominantly with in-service teachers, so it seemed quite natural for me to focus the study on in-service teacher education. Moreover, grammar teaching has always interested me both as a teacher and language learner, so this encouraged me to narrow the focus of the study to this area of teaching. My main motivation, however, for conducting this particular study was my perception that an understanding of the processes of teacher learning and the way teachers make sense of their work has had insufficient influence on the knowledge base for in-service language teacher education. I discuss this at length in Chapter 3.

The purpose of this introductory chapter is to situate the study and provide a framework for readers to follow. In doing so I first outline the general aims of the study, then briefly summarise its methodological orientation, and finally provide an overview of the contents of the following chapters of this thesis.

1.1 Aims of the study

In the past 30 years teacher cognition research has become an established domain of inquiry. This has generated interest in how teachers in real classrooms actually teach and in the factors underlying their pedagogical decision-making. Research on teacher education, and more recently language teacher education, has begun to shed light on the complex cognitive processes teachers undergo in formal learning situations provided by teacher education. However, very little research has been conducted on in-service teacher education, even less so in language teacher education, and it cannot be assumed that findings from pre-service teacher education will necessarily apply to in-service teachers.

The main aim of this study is to investigate the ways in which in-service language teacher education impacts on teachers' prior beliefs and their actual classroom

practices in relation to grammar teaching over a period of time. Specifically this work addresses the following questions:

- What are teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning grammar?
- How do they actually teach grammar?
- What factors influence their instructional decisions?
- To what extent and in what ways do these beliefs and practices change over time?
- What is the relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices?

Greater understanding of the relationship between teacher education, teacher beliefs and classroom practice may help teacher educators to make more sense of their work, to better understand the factors which facilitate and hinder teacher learning, and ultimately to contribute to the provision of more effective teacher education.

1.2 Research stance

In order to help readers frame this study, I briefly outline its defining methodological features (I discuss these at length in Chapter 4). The research stance of this study reflects the tradition of constructivist-interpretive inquiry, and follows a qualitative methodology. The research design of the study is characterised in the following ways:

- All data is collected in natural settings, such that all descriptions of teachers' classroom practices are taken from naturally occurring classroom situations.
- Emphasis is given to participants' own perspectives on their work, and to obtaining rich descriptions of this work.
- Data is collected using multiple instruments (mainly non-participant observations and semi-structured interviews).
- Data is presented in the form of transcriptions of lessons supplemented by field notes and interview extracts of teachers' commentaries on their own work.
- Data is collected at different points over a period of 20 months in order to capture the developmental nature of teachers' beliefs and practices.
- Data collection, within a flexible pre-planned framework, is iterative and progressively focused, such that exact questions to be asked at each stage of data collection are informed by analysis of the previous stage.

- An exploratory approach is taken to ensure open-minded engagement with the data, and to allow salient issues to emerge through analysis of the data, and as such does not seek to prove or refute existing theory.
- Assertions are grounded in data using extensive extracts from teachers' commentaries and lessons.
- Steps are taken to enhance the quality of the research in terms of reliability of the instruments and validity of the findings, and to ensure its ethical integrity.

1.3 Overview of the study

This thesis consists of ten chapters organised broadly into the following three sections: (1) Chapters 1-4 introduce the study, outline the context in which it was conducted, explain the need for the study and how it relates to existing knowledge, and describe its methodology and research design; (2) Chapters 5-8 present the data; (3) Chapters 9-10 discuss the findings and highlight their implications for language teacher education and for further research. I now provide a slightly more detailed overview of the chapters.

Chapter 2 provides background to the study by introducing the context in which it takes place. It outlines the specific characteristics of both the in-service teacher education programme which participants were taking and the monolingual teaching context in which they were working during the study. It also briefly discusses the relationship between my role in the study as researcher and that of course tutor on the teacher education programme.

Chapter 3 establishes a theoretical rationale for the study by situating it with regard to existing research on teacher beliefs, teacher education and grammar teaching. In this chapter I argue that not enough is currently known about how in-service teacher education impacts on teachers' beliefs and practices and demonstrate how this study addresses this gap.

Chapter 4 outlines the research questions which the study addresses, examines its methodological assumptions, presents a detailed account of the empirical procedures involved in the collection, analysis and presentation of the data, and highlights the steps taken to enhance the reliability and validity of the data collection and analysis and ensure the ethical integrity of the study.

Chapters 5-7 present the findings of the study. Each chapter analyses data from one of the three participants, using extensive extracts from actual classroom events and

teachers' verbal commentaries on their work to illustrate salient facets of their grammar work, make explicit their thinking behind this work, and exemplify the development of their beliefs and practices over time.

Chapter 8 examines the main commonalities and differences between the development of the three participants' beliefs and practices, and the contribution of the teacher education programme to these developments.

Chapter 9 discusses the insight provided by the analysis of the three participants' beliefs and practices. It revisits the research questions, and presents the main contributions the study makes to existing knowledge about grammar teaching, teacher education and research. It presents a conceptualisation of grammar teaching which incorporates the range of cognitive, affective, contextual and experiential factors which influence teachers' instructional decisions, and a conceptualisation of teacher learning which highlights the processes of in-service teacher learning and the factors which influence the uptake of new ideas. It also comments on some of the limitations of this research.

Chapter 10 examines the implications of this study for in-service teacher education and makes practical recommendations for activities and tasks which can enhance teacher learning. Finally it outlines suggestions for further research.

2. CONTEXT

My aim in this chapter is to provide important contextual background to the study by introducing the educational environment in which it took place. I start by summarising the specific characteristics of both the monolingual teaching context in which participants were working during the study and the in-service teacher education programme which they were taking. Finally, I briefly discuss the relationship between my dual role in the study as researcher and that of course tutor on the teacher education programme. In order to protect the anonymity of participants I refrain from naming the institution and restrict the following information to that which assists readers in making sense of the specific features of the context.

2.1 Participants' teaching context

The context for the study is a part-time MA programme in a private Turkish university, where all the students are experienced practising teachers of EFL (English as a Foreign Language). Although most universities in Turkey are state-run, there are a number of private universities, many of whom conduct their instruction in English. Despite years of study of English at school, most students have poor knowledge and command of English, so preparatory schools exist within such universities in order to bring students' levels of English up to the required standard, usually equivalent to FCE (Cambridge First Certificate in English) level or below. The nature of the nationwide university entrance and placement system is such that students are admitted to a university according to their performance in a three-hour examination, which means that students may not go to the university and department of their choice. In this context, some students may not have specifically chosen to study at an English-medium university and may not, therefore, be highly motivated to learn English.

All teachers, including the participants of this study, teach full-time (20-25 hours per week) in the university's preparatory programme, which prepares students for English-medium academic study in the departments within the university. Students are mostly aged 19-21, and class sizes range from 15-25. The teaching context is a monolingual classroom setting where most teachers are non-native speakers of English.

The preparatory school has its own EAP syllabus and in-house textbooks (in addition to published course-books) which teachers are expected to follow. Although teachers are encouraged to adapt the syllabus and course-books to the needs of their students, the curriculum is often perceived by teachers as being fairly rigid.

Traditionally Turkish students are very exam-oriented, and they put pressure on teachers to 'teach for the exam' by giving copious exam practice. Teachers are encouraged to teach both skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) and language (grammar and vocabulary), and are discouraged from using traditional expository grammar work. However, students tend to expect grammar lessons to consist of explanation of rules and mechanical exercises. Students are tested on skills and language, both receptively and productively.

The preparatory school actively promotes teachers' professional development by offering the following Cambridge ESOL (formerly UCLES) training courses to its teaching staff; the ICELT (In-service Certificate for English Language Teachers) for newly-recruited local teachers, the CELTA (Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults) for newly-recruited foreign teachers, and the DELTA (Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults) for local and foreign teachers. Many teachers with at least two years' experience are also encouraged to take the MA programme part-time (see below). These courses are offered *free* for teachers working in the institution, and a reduction is usually given from teachers' normal teaching hours to enable them to take these courses. A salary increment is given to teachers who have the above qualifications. This is important in terms of the motivation of teachers taking the MA.

2.2 The MA programme

The MA programme consists of courses related to the classroom, curriculum and management. A unique feature of the MA is that it includes the DELTA course (see above) within it. Thus, the DELTA course input and all internally assessed written assignments and observed lessons are equivalent to six of the fifteen credit courses on the MA. The externally assessed DELTA final observed lesson and assignment and final written examination, however, are not part of the MA. Traditionally MA courses are not teacher training-oriented and rarely contain a practical teaching component. However, practical teaching qualifications such as the DELTA, which focus on improving classroom teaching, are crucial in helping to improve the overall quality of teaching. In terms of grammar teaching, the DELTA does not promote any particular approach, but encourages experimentation with different methods and approaches. It does, however, encourage a focus on form, meaning and use, and emphasises the importance of communication and learner-centredness. The MA programme, containing the DELTA course, is seen as a way of attracting both local and foreign staff, and of

enabling teachers to improve their classroom teaching while also working towards an academic qualification.

The main aims of the MA are to help teachers improve their teaching skills as well as their understanding of curriculum and management. Specifically with regard to pedagogy it aims to help teachers develop in three ways; (1) understanding of theories of learning and pedagogical principles; (2) ability to apply appropriate methodology to achieve learning objectives; (3) awareness of how effective teaching contributes to successful learning. It is expected, then, that teachers develop their theoretical knowledge, understanding of learning theory and teaching methodology, but also that they reflect on and improve their actual classroom practice. To this end, teaching practice is assessed as part of the MA. An entry requirement is that teachers have a minimum of two years' experience of teaching EFL to adults full-time.

The pedagogic approach promoted on the MA is essentially constructivist in nature. Students are encouraged to develop their own ideas, and course tutors are expected to refrain from proposing 'right answers' or an accepted dogma. The Turkish education system tends to reflect a transmission model of teaching and learners are accustomed to being in the role of listeners rather than active participants, so course tutors are encouraged to promote critical thinking and individual thought, and to dissuade students from simply reiterating the 'tutor's view', particularly in assignment writing. This is important from the perspective of this study, as there is always the possibility that participants here might appear to change their beliefs so as to be in line with tutors' expectations. I explore this issue in depth in Chapter 4.

Another important element of the MA is the promotion of reflective practice (see Wallace 1991; Richards & Lockhardt 1994). Particular care is taken to help participants make their own beliefs about teaching and learning explicit, and specific assignments encourage them to make explicit links between theory and practice.

The content of the MA, in terms of courses which are relevant to this study, covers background theory such as theories of learning, theories of language, theories of language learning, SLA research, classroom research, psycholinguistics and cognitive processes of language learning. It also considers practical and methodological issues such as the nature of grammar, language analysis and grammatical terminology, different approaches to teaching grammar and different lesson shapes, task-based learning, different ways of presenting and practising grammar, checking learning and error correction, pronunciation and oral drills. In addition MA students experience

learning a foreign language, carry out peer observations (of live and video lessons) of grammar lessons, and are shown demo lessons and activities. Appendix 2.1 (appendices are numbered according to chapters of the study for ease of reference for the reader) outlines the relevant input which is given over a period of four to five months.

Related to the above input, teachers are expected to complete a written assignment (of 3000 words) where they outline their principles of language teaching with reference to the relevant theory, and a practical assignment related to a particular grammar lesson they plan and teach. The latter consists of three parts; (1) a 2500-word background assignment in which they analyse their chosen grammar point, outline the main difficulties learners have with learning it, and demonstrate their awareness of various approaches and classroom techniques for overcoming these difficulties; (2) a detailed lesson plan and accompanying commentary where they outline the aims of the lesson and the specific procedures, activities, techniques and materials they aim to use, and justify these in relation to the analysis they conducted in the first part of the assignment; (3) a subsequent evaluation of the lesson in terms of achievement of aims, learners' engagement, suggestions for improvement of the lesson and the teacher's action plan for further development.

2.3 My dual role as researcher and course tutor

As Director of the MA programme, and as course tutor for one of the courses (on linguistics and SLA, see Appendix 2.1) which participants took during the period of the study, I combined the roles of researcher and course tutor. However, I was not involved personally in assessing participants' teaching practice. In order to overcome potential threats to validity and reliability of the study (see 4.5.3 below for further discussion), I endeavoured to keep the roles separate, and emphasised repeatedly to participants in the study that their participation will in no way impact on their MA studies (see informed consent form, Appendix 4.1). My own personal teaching style also helped avoid such threats, as respect is always given to participants' own views. Formal and informal feedback from my MA courses suggests that participants feel safe and free to proffer their own views, and that they feel their own views are respected. I discuss my role as researcher in more detail in Chapter 4 (see section 4.4.1 below) where I outline some of the benefits of practitioner research, and I also demonstrate the reflexive approach I took to acknowledge and explore potential biases and subjectivities on my part.

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

This study examines the development of the grammar teaching beliefs and practices of three English language teachers on an MA programme. Theoretically, the study is grounded in the domain of inquiry known as teacher cognition, and this chapter will discuss several areas of research in this domain in order to position the study within the existing body of literature in both mainstream and language teacher education. Through the discussion which follows I demonstrate that teacher beliefs are a crucial element in teacher learning and teacher education and make a case for the further study of the relationship between teacher education, teacher beliefs and classroom practice. In particular I argue for the need for further research into how in-service language teacher education impinges on teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practice.

I will first discuss the concept of teacher beliefs, consider their origins, and outline their importance in teaching and teacher education. In the second part I consider research findings which show how mainstream and language teacher education, in particular in-service, impinge on teachers' beliefs and classroom practice. In the third part I focus more specifically on the complex relationship between teacher education, teachers' beliefs and classroom practice related to grammar teaching.

3.1 Teacher Beliefs

3.1.1 Background to the study of teacher beliefs

The study of teacher beliefs has emerged in the past 30 years as a major area of inquiry in the fields of teaching and teacher education. The growing influence of constructivism and cognitive psychology in education in the 1970s led to a paradigm shift in research, whereby teachers began to be seen as active decision-makers, and teacher learning as a cognitive process involving individual and social construction of knowledge (Calderhead 1987; Carter 1990; Clark & Yinger 1977; Fang 1996; Richardson 1996a). Clark and Peterson (1986) were among the first writers to draw attention to this paradigm shift:

Prior to 1975, the dominant research paradigm was the process-product approach to the study of teaching effectiveness. Process-product researchers have been concerned primarily with the relationship between teachers' classroom behavior, students' classroom behavior, and student achievement. In contrast, the domain of research on teachers' thought processes constitutes a paradigmatic approach to research on teaching which has only recently emerged. (1986:257-61)

This new paradigm reflected the view that teachers' behaviour is thoughtful and influenced by, rather than simply being the outcome of, their thought processes. This has led to the domain of inquiry known as teacher cognition, the study of what teachers know, think and believe.

As is often the case, it took some time for ideas from mainstream education to permeate the field of language teaching, and it is only during the past 15 years that the study of language teacher cognition has also developed into a major area of research (Andrews 2003, 2007; Borg 2003a, 2006; Freeman 1992, 2002; Freeman & Johnson 1998; Freeman & Richards 1996; Johnson 1992a, 1994; Richards 1998; Roberts 1998; Woods 1996). This has enabled, as Freeman and Richards (1996) note, a greater understanding of

how language teachers conceive of what they do: what they know about language teaching, how they think about their classroom practice, and how that knowledge and those thinking processes are learned through formal teacher education and informal experience on the job. (1996:1)

Thus, it is now acknowledged that understanding teacher cognition is an essential prerequisite for understanding the processes of teaching and teacher learning.

A central point to emerge from research on teacher cognition in both mainstream and language education is that teachers' thinking and behaviour are guided by a set of beliefs which are personal, practical, systematic, dynamic and often unconscious (Borg 2006; Fang 1996; Pajares 1992; Richards 1998; Williams & Burden 1997). This has stimulated great interest in teacher education, particularly in the role of teachers' prior beliefs, how they are formed, how they influence teaching, and how they interact with teacher education. I explore these issues in turn in the remainder of this section, but first I wish to clarify some conceptual issues related to the concept of beliefs.

3.1.2 Conceptual issues

The development of teacher cognition research has been accompanied by a proliferation of terms used to describe similar or even identical concepts. Borg (2006), for example, cites over 30 different terms used in the literature. Of particular concern for researchers, and the source of much debate, has been the distinction between knowledge and beliefs. Many researchers see them as inseparable, synonymous or interchangeable (Calderhead 1996; Kagan 1990; Murphy & Mason 2006; Pajares 1992; Smith & Siegel 2004), while Woods (1996) considers beliefs to be more subjective and

implicit, and knowledge to be more objective and explicit. Indeed, some have further complicated the debate by characterising the two together with a third term; perceptions (Freeman 1994), assumptions (Woods 1996) and insights (E. Ellis 2006). Fenstermacher (1994), reflecting a more philosophical stand on the issue, posits that knowledge is epistemologically different from beliefs, as it relates to factual propositions, whereas beliefs relate to personal values which may not have epistemic merit.

A teacher cognition perspective, however, is concerned with how teachers themselves construct ideas and concepts, and there may not be such a clear-cut distinction in teachers' minds between knowledge and beliefs (Andrews 2003; Pajares 1992; Tsui 2003). If knowledge is to be seen as truth, then knowledge and beliefs may be separate entities, but if it is seen as a personal construct, then it is likely that they are overlapping concepts which are 'inextricably intertwined' in teachers' minds (Verloop, van Driel & Meijer 2001), in which case it may be unwise to try to separate them. While this stand is unlikely to solve the above epistemological debate, it does reflect a constructivist view of teachers and teaching.

For the purposes of this study I define beliefs as 'psychologically held understandings, premises and propositions about the world that are felt to be true' (Richardson 1996a:103), and make no distinction between beliefs and knowledge. Here I am concerned mainly with teachers' beliefs about the nature of language, learning, language learning and teaching. I now consider the origin of teacher's beliefs.

3.1.3 Origin of teacher beliefs

Research has highlighted a number of sources that impact on the development of teachers' beliefs. An important influence on teachers' beliefs is what Lortie (1975) calls the 'apprenticeship of observation'; the process of watching teachers from primary school onwards. During this time teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning are powerfully influenced, both positively and negatively, by their experiences as learners and are well-established by the time they go to university (Kennedy 1991; Pajares 1992).

A second important source of language teachers' beliefs is their own language learning experience. Various studies have drawn attention to the important role of teachers' educational biographies as learners in forming their beliefs (Almarza 1996; Borg 2005; Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers 1997; Farrell 1999; Johnson 1994; Numrich 1996; Richards & Pennington 1998; Woods 1996). Teachers in a study by

Bailey and her colleagues (1996), for example, expressed strong beliefs in the importance of the teacher's style and personality, and of creating a positive learning environment which they themselves had felt to be crucial in their own language learning, while a teacher in Borg (1999c) used discovery learning in her teaching as she felt it had helped her own language learning. Experience of language learning is likely to be more valuable in providing insights into the learning process when it involves learning a second language (henceforth L2) in a classroom environment similar to that of the teacher's own teaching context, as E. Ellis (2006) found. I return to this issue in section 3.3 below specifically in relation to grammar teaching.

A third source of teachers' beliefs is their own experience of teaching. This is, of course, particularly important in the case of in-service, or practising, teachers. Various studies have highlighted the powerful influence of classroom experience on teachers' beliefs (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver & Thwaite 2001; Carter 1990; Calderhead 1996; Mok 1994), while others have drawn attention to the importance of teachers' 'practical knowledge' (Elbaz 1983; Fenstermacher 1994; Munby, Russell & Martin 2001), which is derived from teachers' experience of teaching. Studies of teacher expertise have shown that experienced teachers tend to base their teaching more on routines which have developed over time and which have been reinforced if they are felt to be successful than is the case with novice teachers (Nunan 1992; Richards 1998; Tsui 2003). Teaching experience also enables the school culture or ethos (Zeichner, Tabachnick & Densmore 1987), its curriculum, and interaction with other teachers to influence their beliefs (Richardson 1997; Roberts 1998).

A fourth source of teachers' beliefs is teacher education. There has been much debate about the impact of teacher education on teachers' beliefs, but there is increasing evidence that it can influence them in some way (Borg 1998a; M. Borg 2005; Kettle & Sellars 1996; Richards, Ho & Giblin 1996). I discuss this in more detail in section 3.2 below.

Figure 3.1 (all Figures and Tables used in this study are numbered according to chapters for ease of reference for the reader) below shows the four sources and the way they interact with teachers' beliefs. While schooling and language learning have a unidirectional influence, teacher education and teaching experience both influence and are influenced by beliefs.

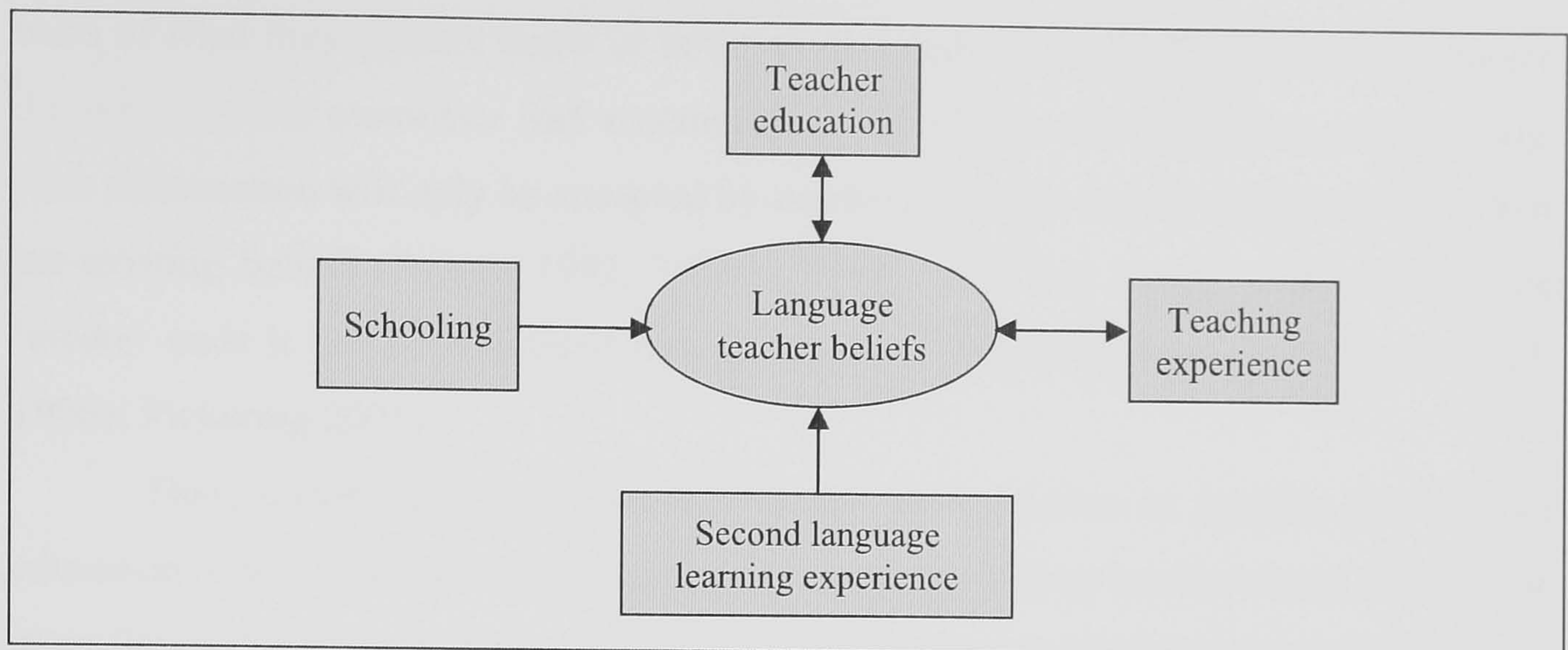


Figure 3.1: Origins of language teacher beliefs

3.1.4 Importance of teacher beliefs

Research has shown teacher beliefs to be of considerable importance for a number of reasons. Firstly, they tend to exert a powerful long-term influence on teachers' instructional practices (M. Borg 2001; Burns 1992; Freeman 1992; Johnson 1992, 1994; Kagan 1992; Pajares 1992; Richards 1998). They serve as de-facto guides for teachers when they start teaching and form the background to much of their classroom practice by influencing the way they approach planning and decision-making in class.

Secondly, these beliefs seem to be very deep-rooted and may continue to influence teachers throughout their professional lives (Borg 2003a). They seem to be difficult to change (Block & Hazelip 1995; Pickering 2005) and they may outweigh the effects of teacher education (Almarza 1996; Williams & Burden 1997), hence the old adage 'teachers teach as they are taught, not as they are taught to teach'. As Kennedy notes (1990:4):

By the time we receive our bachelor's degree, we have observed teachers and participated in their work for up to 3,060 days. In contrast, teacher preparation programmes usually require (about) 75 days of classroom experience. What could possibly happen during these 75 days to significantly alter the practices learned during the preceding 3,060 days?

I return to this issue in more depth in section 3.2 below.

Thirdly, teachers' existing beliefs act as a kind of filter through which teachers interpret new information, and strongly influence what and how they learn (Fang 1996; Pajares 1992; Richardson 1996a). Teachers, like other learners, tend to 'interpret new content through their existing understandings and modify and interpret new ideas on the

basis of what they already know or believe' (Kennedy 1991:2). Thus, beliefs influence the way teachers assimilate and accommodate knowledge about teaching and learning. New information will only be accepted by teachers in as far as it is congruent with their pre-existing beliefs (Pajares 1992; Tillema 1994), such that 'input' will only become 'intake' once it has been filtered through teachers' belief systems (Pennington 1995, 1996a; Pickering 2005).

Thus, understanding teacher beliefs and their relation to practice and teacher education is crucial to our understanding of teaching and how teachers learn. This is the main focus of this study. I now briefly comment on the relationship between beliefs and classroom practice.

3.1.5 Beliefs and classroom practice

An important area of interest in teacher education has been the relationship between teacher beliefs and classroom practice. Several researchers have drawn attention to the close reciprocal relationship between beliefs and experience in the way they influence pedagogical practice (e.g., Allen 2002; Andrews 2003; Elbaz 1983; Woods 1996). The relationship has been shown to be highly complex, and to be neither linear nor causal (Fang 1996), but rather dialectic (Clark & Peterson 1986), symbiotic (Foss & Kleinsasser 1996) and interactive: 'beliefs are thought to drive actions; however, experiences and reflection on action may lead to change in and/or addition to beliefs' (Richardson 1996a:104).

While teachers' beliefs influence what teachers do in the classroom, teachers' classroom practices do not always reflect their stated beliefs (Almarza 1996; Karavas-Doukas 1996). The reasons for this are complex, but there is much evidence to suggest that the teaching context exerts a powerful influence on teachers' ability to teach in line with their beliefs. I explore these reasons further in section 3.2.5 below.

In Figure 3.2 below I summarise the various influences of and on teacher's beliefs. Beliefs are informed initially by teachers' schooling and L2 learning experience. Input from teacher education and reflection on classroom experience is filtered by these beliefs before becoming 'intake', which in turn is filtered before teachers incorporate this into their daily teaching and it becomes 'uptake' (Pennington 1996a). Here teachers' own teaching context seems to play a key 'mediating' role (Borg 2006) in filtering such 'intake' into 'uptake'.

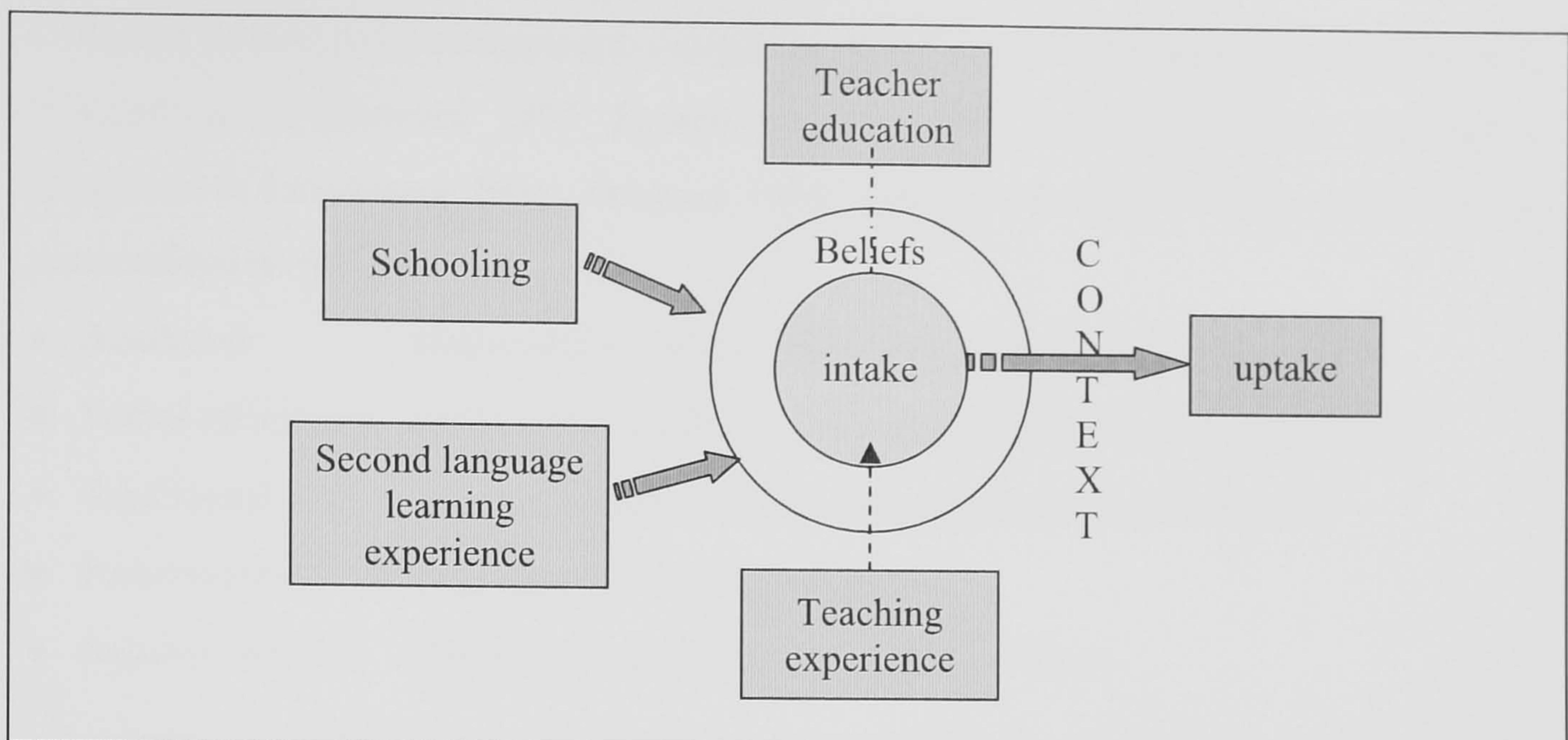


Figure 3.2: Language teacher beliefs, input, intake and uptake

3.1.6 Summary

In this section I have demonstrated why teacher beliefs are an important notion in teaching and teacher education. Here I summarise the key points from the above overview:

- The study of teacher beliefs is crucial to understanding teaching and teacher learning;
- Beliefs are formed before teachers receive formal teacher education;
- Beliefs are influenced by teachers' schooling and experience of learning a second/foreign language, as well as by teaching experience and teacher education;
- Beliefs are personal, practical, systematic, dynamic and often unconscious;
- Beliefs greatly influence teachers' planning and instructional decisions;
- Beliefs are resistant to change and filter what teachers learn from teacher education;
- The relationship between beliefs and classroom practice is interactive and dialectic.

This study explores teacher beliefs and how they affect participants' teaching, and will benefit from an awareness of the issues discussed above. I now look at research on teacher education in order to further explore the relationship between teacher education, teacher beliefs and classroom practice which forms the basis for this study.

3.2 Teacher Education and Teacher Beliefs

3.2.1 Orientations to teacher education

Historically, approaches to teacher education have tended over the years to rely on the delivery of subject knowledge and skills training, although this is now changing.

Different writers have attempted to categorise different orientations to teacher education (Calderhead & Shorrock 1997; Feiman-Nemser 1990; Korthagen 2001b; Korthagen, Loughran & Lunenberg 2005; Zeichner 1983; Zeichner & Liston 1990), which can be summarised as follows:

- Academic (transmitting subject knowledge/completing coursework)
- Social efficiency (principles of effective teaching based on science/research)
- Traditional craft (apprenticeship/wisdom of experienced practitioners)
- Personalistic (individual/developmental)
- Inquiry-oriented (developing teachers' capacity to reflect)

The academic and social efficiency orientations are based on a positivistic epistemology, relying on the presentation of propositional knowledge. The traditional craft orientation, however, acknowledges the importance of teachers' knowing-in-action (Schön 1983), yet all three often share a similarly behaviouristic approach to teacher learning and teacher education. The personalistic orientation is more humanistic and places the teacher-learner at the centre of the teacher education process, yet it downplays the existence of knowledge about teaching from research and from experienced practitioners, and overlooks the importance of scaffolding which can be provided by experienced teacher educators (Feiman-Nemser & Remillard 1996; Richardson 1997; Roberts 1998; Ur 1996). The inquiry-oriented approach, however, involves encouraging teachers to reflect on their own teaching and developing their ability to do so, and is constructivist in that it acknowledges the importance of the cognitive processes of learning to teach. Despite criticisms of inquiry-oriented teacher education (Calderhead & Shorrock 1997; Russell 2005; Zeichner 1994; Zeichner & Tabachnick 1991), it is increasingly becoming the dominant paradigm in teacher education (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner 2006; Cochran-Smith, Feiman-Nemser, McIntyre & Demers 2008; Darling-Hammond 2006a; Korthagen et al. 2005).

Language teacher education has traditionally derived its knowledge base from linguistics, SLA (Second Language Acquisition), and psychology, and has tended to focus on what teachers need to know and how to train teachers to deliver this, thus ignoring the way beliefs shape teachers' behaviour (Burns 2003; Freeman 1996; Richards 1998). In recent years, however, the growing interest in teacher cognition has led to a gradual reconceptualisation of this knowledge base, as called for by Freeman and Johnson (1998), and stimulated exploration of the processes of teacher learning. I

now focus on these processes in order to highlight some of the key issues related to belief changes which are relevant to teacher education and to this study in particular.

3.2.2 Processes of teacher learning

A key concern in teacher education is the extent to which formal learning may be transformed into effective pedagogical practice. Teacher learning involves a change in ways of thinking and teaching, which is usually a gradual process. Teacher education aims to encourage this process of change, in order that teachers' cognitions and behaviours lead to better student learning, yet this process is still seen as problematic and even intangible today (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner 2006; Cochran-Smith & Demers 2008; Korthagen 2001a; Tedick 2005). I now consider four key aspects of belief change which I believe are crucial to an understanding of the processes of teacher learning before looking in the following section at research into the effects of teacher education on teachers' beliefs and practices.

Firstly, research highlights a distinction between cognitive and behavioural change in teachers' beliefs. Kennedy (1996) argues that effective change in teachers' practices requires a prior change in their beliefs, yet as Richardson notes: 'it cannot be assumed that all changes in beliefs translate into changes in practices, certainly not practices that may be considered worthwhile' (1996a:114). Thus, cognitive change does not guarantee behavioural change, and behavioural change does not necessarily imply cognitive change (Borg 2006; Richards, Gallo & Renandya 2001). I illustrate this with two examples from language teacher education. In a pre-service context, Almarza (1996), in a study of four teachers doing a PGCE (Post-Graduate Certificate of Education) in the UK, found that some trainees' behaviour during teaching practice changed without a significant change to their beliefs. It was suggested that this may happen when teachers are concerned about passing teaching practice, and pay 'lip service' to the input given, before subsequently reverting to their old habits after the completion of the course. In an in-service context, Freeman (1992, 1993), in a study of four teachers of French and Spanish, found that some aspects of teachers' belief changes were reflected in changes in their practices whereas others were not. I further explore the concept of 'tensions' between teachers' beliefs and practices which Freeman's study highlights, in section 3.2.5 below.

Secondly, studies focusing on the development in the structure of teachers' beliefs have shown that belief changes may often be very subtle in nature, as the

relationship between different beliefs may change without there appearing to be a change in the content of their beliefs. Both Sendan and Roberts (1998), in a study of a Turkish pre-service teacher, and Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000), in a study of 20 PGCE students in the UK, for example, used repertory grid analysis to monitor changes in teachers' beliefs and found significant evidence of reordering or reorganisation of their beliefs. This suggests that teacher education may induce more change to the structure than to the content of teachers' beliefs, as Roberts (1999) found. It also suggests that one belief may not change even in the face of overwhelming evidence if it is part of a deeper stable belief (see also Borg 1998a; Burns 2003; Pajares 1992).

Thirdly, research on conceptual change suggests that certain conditions are required for teachers' beliefs and practices to change: reflecting on concrete teaching experiences, helping teachers explore the beliefs underlying their practice, helping create dissatisfaction with existing beliefs, offering alternative theories which are intelligible and plausible, considering the advantages of new practice, seeing examples of this new practice, experiencing the new practice as learners, and providing support and guidance to integrate new practice into their own teaching (see, for example, Feiman-Nemser & Remillard 1996; Gregoire 2003; Korthagen 2004; Murphy & Mason 2006; Posner, Strike, Hewson & Gertzog 1982; Strike & Posner 1985).

Fourthly, studies of novice and expert teachers suggest that the development of expertise in language teaching involves the development of schemata or routines based on extensive experience of classrooms and learners which expert teachers rely on unconsciously for much of their instructional decisions (Mok 1994; Nunan 1992; Richards, Li & Tang 1998; Tsui 2003). This suggests that the process of learning to teach is not a linear accrual of various aspects of teaching, but rather a gradual process of proceduralising aspects of formal and experiential knowledge gained from teacher education and classroom experience mediated by beliefs and contextual constraints.

To conclude this section, the key points I have addressed here are as follows:

- Cognitive change does not necessarily imply behavioural change;
- Changes may occur to the structure rather than the content of beliefs;
- Conceptual change is facilitated by reflecting on beliefs and practices;
- The development of expertise in teaching involves the development of routines.

I now look at research on teacher education to consider its effects on teachers' beliefs and practices, firstly in mainstream, secondly in language teacher education.

3.2.3 Effects of mainstream teacher education

Most teacher cognition research in mainstream teacher education has been conducted on pre-service, or initial, programmes. Although early findings seemed to show teacher education to be a weak intervention (Kagan 1992; Richardson 1996a), later studies have been more optimistic. There is evidence to suggest that programmes which explicitly address teachers' beliefs tend to be more successful in changing these beliefs (Kettle & Sellars 1996; Kennedy 1991; Richardson 1996b; Weinstein 1990). Pajares (1992) offers an explanation:

Beliefs are unlikely to be replaced unless they prove unsatisfactory, and they are unlikely to prove unsatisfactory unless they are challenged and one is able to assimilate them into existing conceptions. (1992:321)

Various other researchers emphasise the importance of confronting teachers' existing beliefs (Calderhead & Robson 1991; Foss & Kleinsasser 2001; Korthagen 2001b; Richardson 1997) and helping to make them explicit (Feiman-Nemser & Remillard 1996; LaBoskey 1993; Moon & Lopez-Bouillon 1997).

Nevertheless, some studies still show beliefs to be highly impervious to change from teacher education programmes (Block & Hazelip 1995; Korthagen 2004; Wideen, Mayer-Smith & Moon 1998), while others show evidence of belief change (Grossman 1990; McDiarmid 1993; Russell 2005). It would seem that changes in beliefs are dependent on a multitude of factors, and that change is highly complex (Calderhead & Shorrock 1997). Zeichner and his colleagues (1987), for example, in a study of four pre-service teachers, show that teachers respond in different ways to encountering a mismatch with their existing beliefs. They may maintain their beliefs and continue their existing practice, or maintain their beliefs but pay lip-service to the 'expected' methodology; alternatively they may rethink their beliefs and change their existing practice and conform to that espoused by the teacher education programme.

I now look at findings from language teacher education, which I analyse in greater depth, in order to explore its impact on teachers' beliefs and practices.

3.2.4 Effects of language teacher education

In this section I consider research which sheds light on the ways in which language teacher education impinges on teachers' beliefs and practices. Most language teacher education research from a teacher cognition perspective has been carried out on pre-service programmes (see Borg 2006 for a summary), and there have been very few

studies of the impact of teacher education on the beliefs of experienced teachers, as various writers have pointed out (Breen et al. 2001; Farrell & Lim 2005; MacDonald, Badger & White 2001; Pennington 1996b), so here I will focus mostly on pre-service language teacher education programmes.

One way of looking at impact has been to compare pre- and post-course questionnaire data. Two longitudinal studies of undergraduate trainee teachers in Hong Kong found little change in teachers' reported beliefs (Peacock 2001; Urmston 2003), whereas MacDonald and his colleagues (2001), investigating two groups of teachers on two SLA courses (BA and MA) in the UK, found evidence of certain changes in key beliefs. However, these studies suggest that there are limitations of relying solely on questionnaire data to measure belief change.

Studies of the impact of the CELTA (Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults), an internationally-recognised initial training programme, using interview data, however, do seem to show the powerful effect that teacher education can have on teachers' beliefs. Richards et al. (1996), in a study of five teachers in Hong Kong, found significant changes to their beliefs during the CELTA course, although these changes were not homogeneous, thus adding support to the concept of 'individual development pathways' which several writers have alluded to (Borg 2003a; Freeman & Richards 1996). M. Borg (2005), however, in a study of one CELTA teacher in the UK, found little change in the teacher's beliefs. One reason suggested for this is that the teacher's beliefs were already well aligned with those promoted during the course, and that the course confirmed and reinforced her beliefs. For example, the teacher already preferred a learner-centred to a didactic approach, which is a key feature of the CELTA course.

Belief changes, then, may occur as confirmation and/or reinforcement of existing beliefs (Richards et al. 2001), or alternatively as changes to the structure rather than the content of beliefs, as Cabaroğlu and Roberts' (2000) study of 20 PGCE teachers showed (see 3.2.3 above). Both of these possibilities are unlikely to be measurable by questionnaires, so this has important methodological implications which I address in Chapter 4 below.

Various studies have shown the powerful effect that teaching practice during teacher education can have on teachers' beliefs. Borg (1998a), in a study of a teacher who had previously taken the CELTA course found it had strongly influenced the teacher's beliefs, and suggested that the practical orientation of the course and teaching practice had played an important role. This is reflected by Johnson (1996) and Farrell

(2001), who both found evidence that the practicum impacted on the beliefs of each of the pre-service teachers they studied as well as on their teaching, especially by helping them develop strategies to cope with their teaching context.

While the studies I have mentioned so far in this section have focused primarily on the effect of language teacher education on teachers' beliefs, others have also been concerned with its effect on teachers' classroom practices. I have already mentioned Almarza's (1996) study of four PGCE teachers in the UK (see 3.2.2 above) which seemed to show that teachers' classroom practices changed as a result of their teacher education. However, discussion of their beliefs revealed that these did not seem to have changed, and it was suggested that the pressure to meet expectations and pass assessment may have caused teachers to modify their teaching behaviour. These findings are supported by a study of three undergraduate student-teachers in Brazil (da Silva 2005), and highlight the need for caution in interpreting change during assessed teaching practice.

In terms of research into the effects of in-service language teacher education, there is limited evidence due to the dearth of studies conducted to date. To my knowledge, there are only four such studies. Scott and Rodgers (1995) studied the beliefs of seven practising teachers of Spanish and French taking a nine-week course on writing instruction using pre- and post-course questionnaires and found significant changes in teachers' beliefs. Again the limitations of relying solely on such data need to be borne in mind. Freeman (1993) conducted an 18-month longitudinal study using interview and observation data of four teachers of Spanish and French taking an MA course, and found that the course impacted on their beliefs, although the study was inconclusive about its effect on their teaching practices. While some aspects of their practices changed, others did not. Lamb (1995) studied the impact of a two-week intensive course on reading instruction on the practices of 16 experienced Indonesian EFL teachers using interviews and observations, and found little uptake in the way tutors intended, mainly due to teachers' concerns with classroom management. Kurihara and Samimy (2007), in a study, using questionnaires and interviews, of the effects of a four-month methodology course on eight experienced Japanese EFL teachers' beliefs and practices, found that the course impacted on their beliefs, but that practical and institutional constraints, such as learner expectations and the need to prepare learners for exams, largely prevented them from changing their practices.

Two further studies carried out with teachers on MA programmes in Australia and the USA respectively (Burns & Knox 2005; Popko 2005), while not specifically focusing on the impact of teacher education, also highlight the difficulties of transferring learning from in-service language teacher education into practice due to teachers' contextual constraints. I return to these two studies later in section 3.3 where I discuss research on grammar teaching.

Overall, then, while the available evidence does suggest that language teacher education may influence teachers' beliefs and practices, more research is clearly required, especially on in-service programmes.

3.2.5 Congruence between beliefs and classroom practice

Research has shown the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices to be highly complex. Much evidence exists to suggest that language teachers do not always teach in line with their stated beliefs (Karavas-Doukas 1996; Richards et al. 2001), as I mentioned in 3.1.5 above. Here I explore four possible reasons for incongruence between teachers' beliefs and practices.

Firstly, teachers' beliefs may differ depending on the manner in which they are elicited. Teachers may be drawing on their 'technical knowledge' when asked to talk about their beliefs, but on their 'practical knowledge' (Eraut 1994) in their actual practice. This is in line with the distinction between teachers' 'espoused theories' and their 'theories in action' (Argyris & Schön 1974). Alternatively teachers may be referring to their perception of ideal practice when talking about their beliefs, as opposed to their actual practices (Borg 2006).

Secondly, beliefs seem to interact within a complex network, such that one belief may not change despite the presence of overwhelming evidence, perhaps because the particular belief is part of a deeper core belief which is much harder to change (Borg 1998a; Burns 2003; Pajares 1992; Richards et al. 2001; Sendan & Roberts 1998). There is evidence of pre-service and in-service teachers' core beliefs appearing to outweigh other beliefs, so that, for example, a concern with maintaining class control and order, flow of the lesson and student involvement may prevent teachers from experimenting with new practices (Johnson 1992a, 1994; Richards 1996; Richards & Pennington 1998). Teachers may then, for example, teach lock-step despite believing that pair-work is desirable.

Thirdly, beliefs may change without having an effect on classroom practice. Numerous studies have shown that contextual factors, such as a rigid curriculum, large classes, preparing students for exams, a heavy workload or low levels of student discipline, may discourage experimentation and encourage a safe strategy of sticking to conventional teaching methods and materials (Andrews 2003; Burns 1996; Borg 1999b; Richards 1998; Richards & Pennington 1998). Such contextual factors may lead teachers to change their beliefs, or to change their teaching without affecting their beliefs.

Fourthly, routines may be hard to change. Research suggests that experienced teachers make few decisions in the classroom, instead relying on established routines which are resistant to change even in the face of evidence that they are not working (Calderhead 1996; Clark & Yinger 1975). Routines confirmed over time by experience may be less likely to change, and it may be hard for experienced teachers to change their practices during teacher education.

The first two (of the above four) reasons are important from a methodological perspective as they imply that research into teachers' beliefs and practices requires sensitivity of data instruments to capture the complexity of beliefs and to minimise doubts about whether teachers are referring to actual rather than idealised practice. The last two reasons, however, are important for teacher education as they imply that the transfer of changes in beliefs into changes in practices is far from straightforward and that ways need to be found to help teachers deal with contextual constraints and to develop the confidence to experiment with their existing teaching routines.

I shall further explore the issue of congruence specifically with regard to grammar teaching in section 3.3.5 below.

3.2.6 Summary

Here are the main conclusions which I draw from this section, 3.2:

- Contemporary teacher education acknowledges the importance of teacher beliefs.
- Belief change is highly complex; cognitive change does not imply behavioural change; belief change may occur as confirmation or restructuring of existing belief systems.
- Caution should be exercised in considering what counts as evidence of belief change; questionnaire data alone may be insufficient in capturing their complexity; care

should be taken in interpreting data from assessed teaching practice as evidence of change.

- Mainstream teacher education is today seen less as a weak intervention, and evidence suggests that programmes which acknowledge and explicitly focus on teachers' beliefs are more successful in facilitating change in beliefs.
- There is much evidence from language teacher education of the potentially powerful role of practice teaching and practically-oriented pre-service programmes such as CELTA in influencing teachers' beliefs and practices.
- There has been little research on the effects of in-service language teacher education.
- Teachers do not always teach according to their stated beliefs and the reasons for this are highly complex.

I now look at teacher cognition research on the specific domain of grammar teaching in order to highlight key issues related to teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices and the ways teacher education influences these.

3.3 Grammar Teaching Beliefs and Practices

The way teachers approach the teaching of grammar is, arguably, the best indication of their beliefs about language teaching and learning. Ellis (2006) suggests that there is no evidence of a best way of teaching grammar, but that there are different instructional options available to teachers; for example, grammar work may be segregated or integrated, deductive or inductive, proactive or incidental, and it may focus on form or forms. Borg (1999a) found that teachers make decisions about whether to conduct formal instruction, which language points to focus on, how to present or analyse grammar, how much metalanguage to use, what kind of practice activities to use, and how to deal with students' errors. We can gain an insight into teachers' underlying beliefs by examining the way they approach the above options, both during planning and in class, in order to shed light on 'how teachers arrive at decisions about what grammar to teach and when and how to teach it' (Ellis 1998:57).

Although a substantial amount of research has been carried out on grammar teaching, early research contributed little to our understanding of teachers' beliefs and classroom teaching, as Brumfit, Mitchell and Hooper (1996) noted, and it is only in the last ten years that researchers have begun to investigate how teachers teach grammar

and why (see Borg 2006 for a summary). In the following section I outline the main points to emerge from this research which is relevant to this study.

3.3.1 Reasons for teaching grammar

Various studies of teachers' beliefs conducted in Colombia, Hong Kong, Puerto Rico, Singapore, USA and the UK have shown that teachers tend to value grammar teaching (Andrews 2003; Burgess & Etherington 2002; Chia 2003; Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers 1997; Schulz 2001), but there is also much evidence from studies which explore teachers' actual practices to suggest that the reasons why teachers choose to teach grammar are highly complex. I illustrate this with three examples from a series of papers by Borg from research conducted in Malta.

The teacher in Borg (1998a), for example, decided to teach grammar explicitly not because of a belief that it would enhance language learning, but that it would meet learners' expectations and thereby increase their involvement and motivation. Similarly both the teachers in Borg (1999c) cited students' expectations as reasons for teaching grammar. The five teachers studied in Borg (2003d) seemed to teach grammar for various reasons: because they believed it to be a necessary aspect of language learning, because they thought students expected it, and that they would therefore respond positively, in order to change the pace of the lesson, or for diagnostic purposes.

These findings suggest that grammar teaching is influenced by a complex interaction of acquisitional, diagnostic, contextual and psychological factors, and that the underlying reasons behind particular aspects of teachers' grammar practices may not be immediately obvious. While not wishing to downplay the value of studies which rely on questionnaire data to study beliefs, I would argue that studies which go beyond this and explore beliefs through classroom practice are more likely to reveal the complexities of teacher thinking. This is one of the premises of this study as I demonstrate in the following chapter.

3.3.2 The importance of beliefs in grammar teaching

A second important finding from teacher cognition research on grammar teaching is that beliefs have a powerful influence on the ways teachers teach grammar. Various studies have made use of classroom observations to show that teachers' grammar teaching is influenced to a large extent by their existing beliefs (Baştürkmen, Loewen & Ellis 2004; Borg 1998a, 1998b, 1999a, 1999b, 2001; Farrell & Lim 2005; Ng

& Farrell 2003). This clearly supports more general findings from mainstream and language teacher education which I explored in previous sections of this chapter.

Of importance to in-service education is the confirmation of general research findings that experience of teaching influences teachers' grammar teaching beliefs. Andrews (2003), for example, in a study of mostly experienced teachers in Hong Kong, found that experience of the teaching context greatly influenced teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching. Although there were individual differences, these findings, which support those of Breen et al. (2001), suggest an underlying and consistent pattern to teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. Johnston and Goettsch (2000) found that experienced teachers focus less on explaining grammar rules, tending instead to give lots of examples and encourage learner involvement. Richards (1998) showed that more experienced teachers tend to improvise their grammar teaching more, while both Johnson (1992a) and Nunan (1992) found that they tend to focus more on language issues as they are less concerned with classroom management issues than novice teachers. It is important to bear in mind, however, that experience does not always imply expertise (Andrews 2006). Another important point to make here is that teachers may become expert in one or more aspects of teaching without necessarily becoming expert in others, as both Borg (2001) and Tsui (2003) have shown.

3.3.3 Teachers' educational biographies as learners

Numerous studies have highlighted different ways in which teachers' educational biographies as learners impact on teachers' beliefs. Firstly, teachers may unconsciously adopt aspects of practices inherent to their particular educational system. Thus, teachers in Puerto Rico and Hong Kong, who themselves had learnt English through more traditional instruction, tended to believe in the value of formal instruction and an expository approach (Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers 1997; Richards & Pennington 1998).

Secondly, teachers may avoid certain practices because of negative experiences they themselves had. Both Golombek (1998) and Numrich (1996), in studies of pre-service teachers in the USA, found that teachers tended to avoid explicit error correction because their own experiences of being corrected during language learning had been negative.

Thirdly, teachers' beliefs may be influenced by their own perception of factors which help or hinder their own learning. Farrell (1999), for example, in a study of pre-

service teachers in Singapore, found that some teachers rejected a deductive approach to teaching grammar as they felt it had not worked for them, while others adopted such an approach as it had worked for them. Similarly, Borg, in a study of experienced teachers in Malta and Hungary, also found that teachers' own language learning experience greatly influenced their teaching of grammar, and suggests that 'teacher educators might benefit from an awareness of teachers' prior experience of language study' (2005:338).

Again these findings support those from general research (see 3.1.3 above), but they do seem to suggest that classroom L2 learning has a particularly important impact on teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices.

3.3.4 Teachers' perceptions of their own grammatical knowledge

A fourth important finding from teacher cognition research on grammar teaching is that teachers' self-perceptions of their grammatical knowledge seem to play an important role in the way they teach grammar (Andrews 2001, 2003; Andrews & McNeil 2005; Borg 1999b, 1999c, 2001, 2005; Brumfit et al. 1996). I now illustrate this with reference to four of these studies which I have already referred to in this section.

Andrews (2003), comparing observation and test data, found that teachers with higher levels of explicit grammatical knowledge were more inclined to adopt an inductive approach to grammar teaching than a deductive one. Borg (2001) found a link between teachers' confidence in their grammatical knowledge and their willingness to conduct unplanned grammar work and to deal with unexpected student questions about grammar, while Borg (1999c) found that teachers' previous teaching experience can affect this confidence, and may cause them to avoid grammar work in class. Similarly, teachers' knowledge of grammatical terminology also seems to influence teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the use of grammatical terminology in class, although a lack of confidence may be reflected in either avoidance of or greater use of terminology (Borg 1999b).

These findings emphasise the importance of teacher education explicitly focusing on enhancing teachers' language awareness, as called for by various writers (Andrews 2007; Andrews & McNeil 2005; Borg 2003c; Celce-Murcia 2003; Larsen-Freeman 2003; Wright & Bolitho 1993).

3.3.5 Congruence between grammar teaching beliefs and practices

A fifth important point is that teachers' stated beliefs are not always reflected in their practices, and that the reasons for this are complex. These findings add support to those from general research which I discussed in section 3.2.5 above, but they also reveal issues which are specific to grammar teaching. I now consider these in turn.

Firstly, various studies confirm the powerful effect of contextual factors on teachers' grammar practices (Borg 1998b; Burns 2003; Burns & Knox 2005; Farrell & Lim 2005; Ng & Farrell 2003; Richards & Pennington 1998). Ng and Farrell (2003), in a study of four novice teachers in Singapore, for example, found differences between teachers' beliefs about error correction and their actual practices, and suggest that contextual factors have a powerful influence on these practices. Interestingly, time was cited as an important influence, as teachers preferred a deductive approach as they perceived it to be less time-consuming than an inductive one. Farrell and Lim (2005), in a study of experienced teachers in Singapore, also cited contextual factors for a lack of congruence between teachers' grammar beliefs and practices. Burns and Knox's (2005) study of two in-service teachers in Australia shows that a range of factors, such as teachers' own beliefs, their perception of student needs and curricular constraints, influence the way teachers teach grammar and that the process of decision-making before and during class is dynamic and highly complex. These factors may lead teachers to teach in ways that reflect their stated beliefs, but this is clearly not always the case.

Secondly, teachers' beliefs may differ depending on the manner in which they are elicited. Baştürkmen and her colleagues (2004), in a study of three teachers in New Zealand, two of them experienced, identified 'mismatches' between the teachers' grammar teaching practices and beliefs, and found that teachers' planned actions seem to be more congruent with their stated beliefs than their unplanned actions. This may be related to the difference between their 'technical' and 'practical' knowledge which I discussed in 3.2.5 above. This has important methodological implications for research and suggests that researchers who are examining actual classroom practices would do well to explore ways to ensure that teachers are talking about their actual, rather than idealised, practices, as Borg (2006) recommends.

Thirdly, teachers may hold conflicting beliefs which are then sometimes reflected in apparently inconsistent classroom practices. One of the teachers in Borg (1999c), for example, used both deductive and inductive approaches in her grammar teaching due to a range of beliefs related to the difficulty of the grammar point, the

amount of time available, learners' expectations and her own learning preferences. She believed that discovery was more effective than expository grammar work, but she also felt that not all grammar lends itself to discovery and that learners' expectations (e.g., for expository grammar work) should be met, and this led her to vary her practices.

The final two reasons for lack of congruence between beliefs and practice relate specifically to grammar teaching, and have both already been discussed in the section on grammar teaching beliefs and practices. The first of these concerns the different reasons underlying teachers' grammar teaching practices. As I mentioned in 3.3.1 above, teachers may teach grammar for various reasons; because they believe it to be a necessary aspect of language learning, because they think students expect it, and that they will therefore respond positively, in order to change the pace of the lesson, or for diagnostic purposes. This implies that teachers' beliefs in the acquisitional value of particular aspects of grammar teaching are only one factor they consider when deciding what and how to teach grammar, as Burns and Knox's (2005) study clearly shows.

The second specifically grammar-related reason for potential incongruences relates to teachers' own grammatical knowledge that I discussed in 3.3.4 above. Thus, teachers may, for example, avoid impromptu grammar work, elicitation, and grammatical terminology because of their own lack of confidence in their grammatical knowledge even though they believe in their value in promoting learning. Similarly, they may prefer to employ a deductive approach because it gives them more control and safety as it reduces the risk of having to deal with unexpected student questions and the potential loss of face that this brings, despite believing in the value of inductive learning, as both Andrews (2003) and Borg (2001) found.

The above discussion shows that the reasons for differences between teachers' stated beliefs and their grammar teaching are complex and should not be dismissed simply as inconsistencies or as a negative phenomenon.

3.3.6 Teacher education and grammar teaching

The final area of research on grammar teaching concerns the impact of teacher education on teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. Recent research on teacher cognition in grammar teaching is well documented by Borg (2003b, 2006), but very little has been carried out on language teacher education programmes, let alone in-service ones as both M. Borg (2005) and Farrell and Lim (2005) have noted. Indeed, of the 38 studies of language teacher cognition related to grammar teaching reviewed by

Borg (2006), only eight studies relate to teacher education, six of which were pre-service (e.g. Andrews 1994, 1997; Farrell 1999), and only two (Burns & Knox 2005; Popko 2005) were conducted on in-service education.

There is, however, evidence that course input in teacher education does not automatically transfer to teachers' grammar practices. Popko (2005), in a study of four teachers, three in-service and one pre-service, on an MA in the USA, found that teachers had difficulty transferring such knowledge learnt into pedagogical materials. This is similar to Bigelow and Ranney's (2005) findings in a pre-service context. Burns and Knox (2005), in a study of two in-service teachers in Australia explored the impact of an MA linguistics course and found that some aspects of the course were observed in the teachers' practices while others were not. These two studies show that transfer of grammatical and pedagogical knowledge does not always take place, and that it may happen in different ways for different teachers taking the same in-service course.

Findings from studies not directly exploring the impact of teacher education suggest different ways in which teacher education influences grammar teaching beliefs and practices of in-service, or practising, teachers. Borg (2003c), in a study of experienced teachers, found that in-service teacher education which focuses explicitly on developing teachers' knowledge of grammar through a series of exploratory tasks had a positive effect on their awareness of grammar. Both Borg (2001) and Wright and Bolitho (1993) suggest that teacher education should include regular opportunities for teachers to focus explicitly on their knowledge about grammar, although Andrews and McNeil (2005) suggest that it is important for teachers to want to improve their knowledge. However, as Andrews (1997) cautions, simply increasing explicit knowledge about grammar will not necessarily lead to better teaching.

Studies of CELTA courses (Borg 1998a, 2005; Richards et al. 1996) have shown the powerful effect initial teacher education can have, and have suggested (as I discussed in 3.2.4 above) that its practical nature and emphasis on teaching practice play an important role. It may be that in-service teachers who have previously taken a practical initial-training course such as the CELTA develop grammar teaching beliefs and routines in a different way to those who have not, although more research is required. Grossman (1989) also suggests that the cognitions of teachers who have had formal teacher education may be different from those who have not.

Clearly more research is required on the specific effects of in-service teacher education on teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices, and I hope this study will contribute to our understanding of this complex area.

3.3.7 Summary

The above findings from specific research on grammar teaching support findings from more general teacher cognition research, but they also outline particular issues which concern the relationship between teacher education and grammar teaching beliefs and practices. To conclude this section, I summarise the key points which I have highlighted here:

- Teachers value grammar teaching, but there are different reasons for what and how they teach grammar;
- Beliefs exert an important influence on the ways teachers teach grammar;
- Beliefs are influenced by teachers' teaching experience and their teaching context;
- Beliefs are strongly shaped by teachers' own language learning experiences;
- Teachers' perceptions of their own grammatical knowledge influence their practices;
- Teachers do not always teach grammar according to their beliefs and the reasons for this are complex;
- Very little research has been conducted on the effects of in-service teacher education on teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices, but evidence suggests that many factors mediate the transfer from teacher education to classroom practice.

I now conclude this chapter by outlining the rationale for this study in relation to our current understandings of the relationship between in-service teacher education and teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices.

3.4 Rationale for this study

The above review of the literature has shown that despite being a relatively new domain of research, teacher cognition has already provided valuable insights into teaching and teacher education. Here I summarise the key points I have made in this chapter:

- Studying teacher beliefs is crucial to an understanding of teaching and teacher learning;
- Beliefs are important in that they greatly influence the way teachers teach, yet the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices is dynamic;

- Beliefs are also important because they filter what and how teachers learn from experience and teacher education;
- Beliefs are personal, practical, systematic, dynamic and often unconscious, and are influenced by a range of factors, such as teachers' learning and teaching experiences and teacher education;
- Belief change is an extremely complex phenomenon; cognitive change does not necessarily imply behavioural change and vice versa; belief change may involve restructuring or confirmation of beliefs;
- This has implications for how belief change is measured and the choice of data instruments for researching beliefs and belief change;
- Language teacher education may powerfully influence teachers' beliefs and practices, especially if it is practically-oriented and focuses explicitly on beliefs;
- To date, little research has been done specifically on in-service language teacher education, either generally or in relation to grammar teaching;
- Teachers teach grammar for different reasons, their practices may not always reflect their stated beliefs, and the reasons for this are highly complex.

Nevertheless, this chapter highlights several areas where more research is required. Recent publications in teacher cognition have included numerous recommendations for further research to be conducted, and I summarise these here in relation to my study in order to justify the need for this particular study. Both Borg (2003a, 2006) and Woods (1996) have called for more research in typical language learning contexts, namely monolingual classes taught by non-native speakers of English. Others request further research into the relationship between beliefs and classroom practices (Cabaroğlu & Roberts 2000; MacDonald et al. 2001; Peacock 2001) and into the complex nature of belief change (Freeman & Richards 1996; Verloop et al. 2001). In this regard Borg (2006) also sees the need for more longitudinal studies of teacher cognition in order to follow the change process over time, while Feiman-Nemser (2008) calls for further longitudinal research which traces teacher learning over time. Various writers have called for further research to be carried out on teacher education (Almarza 1996; Borg 2003a; Richards 1998; Tarone & Allwright 2005), and specifically in-service teacher education contexts (Borg 2006).

This study can be placed within a framework for research into language teacher education (see Figure 3.3 below, from Borg 2006:282). Substantively, teacher cognition

research may be seen in terms of whether it focuses on teaching in general, or a specific domain of teaching, such as grammar or reading, and also whether it focuses on pre-service or in-service teacher education. This study, therefore, is clearly positioned in the bottom right-hand quadrant of Figure 3.3.

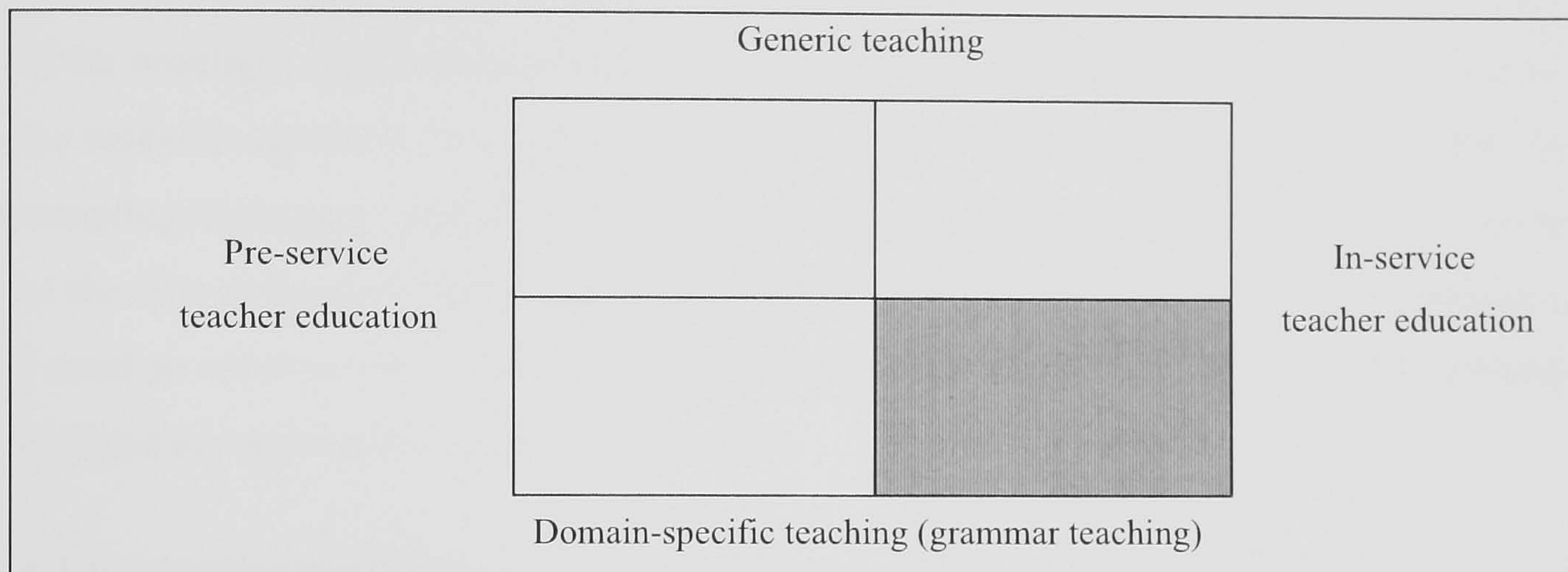


Figure 3.3: A framework for language teacher education research

Distinctive features of this study are that it is a *longitudinal* study in an *in-service teacher education* context of *grammar teaching* with *monolingual* classes, so it clearly addresses the needs for such research which have been identified above. It aims to contribute further to our understanding of the complex relationship between teacher education, teacher beliefs and classroom practice by investigating the effect of an in-service language teacher education programme (in-house MA programme for experienced English language teachers) on three teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices, over an 20-month period. I am confident that it will shed light on areas where little research has been conducted and about which little is known, and that it will contribute to the building up of a research base for language teacher education which various writers have called for (Borg 2003a, 2006; Freeman & Richards 1996; Freeman & Johnson 2005; Richards & Nunan 1990).

4. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to give a detailed account of the research design of this study and to outline the principles behind the choice of research methodology employed. The first section presents the research questions which the study attempted to address. The second section looks at the research tradition underlying the study in terms of its ontology, epistemology and methodology. The third and fourth sections discuss the research approach, the relationship between the researcher and participants, and the sampling strategies I used to choose participants. The fifth section provides an overview of the data collection tools and the approach to data analysis, and outlines the strategies I used to enhance the quality of the study and its ethical integrity. The final section outlines my approach to presenting the data.

4.1 Research Questions

I have demonstrated in the above literature review that teacher beliefs are a crucial element in teacher learning and teacher education, and I have argued that there is a need for further study of the relationship between teacher education, teacher beliefs and classroom practice. I have shown that there has been very little research on the effects of in-service teacher education on teacher beliefs, and almost none in language teacher education, and that there is, therefore, a definite need for more research into the ways language teacher education programmes impinge on teachers' beliefs and practices, specifically in relation to grammar teaching.

This study aimed to contribute to a better understanding of the relationship between teacher education, teacher beliefs and classroom practice by investigating the effect of an in-service language teacher education programme, in a private English-medium university in Turkey, on three experienced English language teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning grammar, over a period of 20 months. In particular it attempted to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What are teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar at the start of the MA?

RQ2: Do these beliefs change during the MA? If so, in what ways do they change?

RQ3: How do teachers teach grammar? Does this change and, if so, in what ways?

RQ4: What is the relationship, if any, between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and their classroom practices?

RQ5: What are the implications of the findings for language teacher education?

4.2 Research Tradition

All research is to some extent ‘guided by a set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied’ (Denzin & Lincoln 2003b:33). Any research tradition or paradigm may be described in terms of ontology (the nature of reality), epistemology (how we know the world), and methodology (how we gain knowledge) (Guba & Lincoln 1994). This study was designed within a constructivist-interpretive framework. In this section I give an overview of the main features of this tradition by looking in turn at ontology, epistemology and methodology.

4.2.1 Ontology

Ontology is concerned with the very nature of the phenomenon being investigated. Constructivist-interpretive research is based on the premise that social phenomena are different from physical or natural phenomena and hence that all human action is inherently meaningful (Hammersley 1992; Schwandt 2003). This study takes an ontological stance, which is constructivist, relativist and subjectivist, based on the following assumptions:

- *Constructivist*. Constructivism stresses that reality is a personal and social construct, and that human action is purposeful and meaningful (Williams & Burden 1997). This study is concerned with exploring how participants themselves construct and perceive their experiences and actions.
- *Relativist*. Relativism considers that reality is constructed by each individual as they experience the world, that there are multiple conceptions of reality, and that different individuals perceive and interpret the same social phenomenon in different ways (Bassegy 1999; Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2000; Guba & Lincoln 1994; Schwandt 2003). This study is concerned with exploring participants’ perceptions of their beliefs and practices.
- *Subjectivist*. This study is subjectivist in that it assumes and acknowledges that all observations and perceptions of social phenomena are subjective, and that researchers have their own values and perspectives which are inevitably and necessarily subjective (Jansen & Peshkin 1992; Scott & Usher 1999; Stake 1995).

4.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemology is concerned with the nature and scope of knowledge, its presuppositions and basis, and the general reliability of claims about the status of

knowledge (Schwandt 2003). The basic tenets of the constructivist-interpretive epistemology underlying this study are as follows:

- *Constructivist-Interpretive*. Constructivist-interpretive epistemology reflects the view that knowledge is an individual and social construct of the human mind, and that individuals' perceptions of the world can be understood and interpreted in different ways. This study is concerned with exploring participants' interpretations of social phenomena rather than trying to discover any objective independent reality.
- *Monistic*. Constructivist-interpretive research is monistic in that it stresses that knowledge is created through the research process itself as a result of the interaction between the researcher and participants (Guba & Lincoln 1989; Hammersley & Atkinson 1995). This implies an element of subjectivity, so in this study I acknowledge this explicitly and take a reflexive approach (see section 4.5.3 for the specific procedures followed).
- *Fallibilist*. Constructivist-interpretive research is fallibilist in that epistemological claims to knowledge are inherently tentative and uncertain (Lincoln & Guba 1985; Schwandt 2003). Findings from this study will then be taken as provisional rather than as definitive conclusions about the social phenomena being investigated.

4.2.3 Methodology

Methodology refers to the methods, techniques and strategies used to gain and justify knowledge (Ernest 1994). The ontological and epistemological elements of the constructivist-interpretive research tradition which I have just highlighted have important methodological implications. I now summarise these below as they inform this study:

- *Interpretive*. As the social world is immensely complex and all individuals interpret events differently, an interpretive methodology enables researchers to explore the personal meanings individuals attach to their experiences and actions (Richards 2003).
- *Abductive*. This study explores participants' perspectives abductively by making use of existing conceptual frameworks without, however, imposing prior categories of analysis or prematurely forming such categories (Patton 1990; Silverman 2000). I describe this approach to data analysis in detail in section 4.5.2 below.
- *Idiographic*. This study is idiographic as it focuses on the particular and unique ways in which individuals create, modify and interpret the world (Cohen et al. 2000). This

reflects the notion that contexts are unique and that all human action is context-bound.

- *Naturalistic*. An important feature of this study is that it involved studying participants and phenomena in their natural contexts rather than in artificial settings (Denzin & Lincoln 1994). This reflects the idea that knowledge is situated and acknowledges the important role that context plays in individuals' construction of knowledge.

4.3 Research Approach

This study adopted a case study approach. In this section I examine the main features of this approach and outline the specific type of case study used in this research.

4.3.1 Main features of case studies

The case study is an excellent method for obtaining a thick description of a complex social issue embedded within a cultural context. It offers rich and in-depth insights that no other method can yield, allowing researchers to examine how an intricate set of circumstances come together and interact in shaping the social world around us. (Dörnyei 2007:155)

Case studies are a common form of research in education and language teaching, and various writers have attempted to define them (Adelman, Jenkins & Kemmis 1977; Bassey 1999; Cohen et al. 2000; Dörnyei 2007; Duff 2008; Gall, Gall & Borg 2007; Hitchcock & Hughes 1995; Merriam 1988; Nisbet & Watt 1980; Punch 2005; Stake 1994, 1995; van Lier 2005; Verschuren 2003; Yin 2003). From the literature five main features of case study research can be identified:

- *Particularity*. Case studies explore the 'particularity' of the case (Stake 1995), and usually involve a small number of participants who are studied intensively in order to gain understanding of complex social phenomena. The case is selected precisely in order to understand the particular in depth, rather than to find out what is generally true of the many (Cohen et al. 2000; Merriam 1998). An important feature is that cases provide access to participants' own perspectives.
- *Complexity*. Case studies generate a 'thick description' (Geertz 1973) of the case, which provides rich, in-depth insights and holistic understanding of complex phenomena. This requires that sufficient data be collected to enable researchers to

discover systematic connections among experiences, behaviours and relationships, and to explore changes in these over time (Duff 2008; van Lier 2005).

- *Contextualisation.* Case studies are ‘strong in reality’ (Adelman et al. 1977; Nisbet & Watt 1980) as they involve the study of phenomena in their natural contexts, which are unique, dynamic and information-rich (Cohen et al. 2000; Gall et al. 2007; Yin 2003).
- *Multiple perspectives.* Case studies typically make use of multiple sources of data, combining interviews and observations with questionnaires and/or documents, for example, in order to provide different perspectives on the phenomena being studied (Denzin & Lincoln 2003a; Duff 2008; Merriam 1998; Verschuren 2003; Yin 2003).
- *Flexible design.* Case studies tend to employ a flexible design which allows the inclusion of an ‘emergent strategy’ (Anderson & Arsenault 1998) as the study unfolds. Such flexibility, however, requires a rigorous, disciplined and systematic approach to the research design (Richards 2003; Yin 2003).

This case study adopted all five features discussed above, as I outline in detail in section 4.5 below.

4.3.2 Types of case study

Several types of case study exist, and again the literature contains various dichotomies and categories. Here I outline the specific characteristics of case study research I employed in this study with reference to these typologies.

- *Exploratory.* An ‘exploratory’ case study (Yin 2003) is one which aims to identify questions and propositions which can be explored through subsequent study. This study was an exploratory case study which examined participants’ own perspectives on experiences related to teacher learning with a view to developing models and theories based on the findings (Bassegy 1999; Duff 2008).
- *Instrumental.* An ‘instrumental’ case study (Stake 1995) is one in which the case is explored to help generate understanding of wider issues beyond the case itself. This case study was instrumental in that it aimed to provide insights into wider issues regarding teacher learning and teacher education, and facilitate understanding of the relationship between participants’ beliefs and actions, rather than studying the cases because of their intrinsically interesting nature.
- *Multiple case.* This was a ‘multiple case study’ (Yin 2003), sometimes referred to as a ‘collective case study’ (Stake 1995) or ‘set of cases’ (Robson 2000), where each of

the three participants formed an individual case. Thus, three separate but similar cases were explored within the same context, and subsequent cross-case analysis enabled me to explore similarities and differences among the three individual cases.

- *Longitudinal.* An important feature of this study is that it was longitudinal. Multiple data sets were collected at regular intervals over a 20-month period which enabled me to build up a complex vivid picture of each of the participants, to identify turning points and defining moments in the development of their beliefs and teaching, and to explore changes and developments in depth over time (Dörnyei 2007; Duff 2008).
- *Analytic generalisation.* This study made use of ‘analytic generalisation’ (Yin 2003), whereby findings are generalisable to theoretical propositions rather than to wider populations (I discuss generalisability in greater depth in section 4.5.3 below). Thus, my findings report that something has happened somewhere, posit that it *might* happen somewhere else, albeit perhaps differently, and invite other researchers to try and find out (Bassegy 1999). The thick description generated by the case study approach also helps readers determine the generalisability of the findings to other contexts (Gall et al. 2007; Richards 2003).

4.4 Setting and Participants

In Chapter 2 above, I outlined the context of the study in some detail. My aims in this section are two-fold: (1) to discuss further my own role as researcher vis-a-vis the participants in order to justify my preference for an insider perspective; (2) to outline the sampling strategy I used to select participants.

4.4.1 My role as researcher

As this exploratory case study research aimed to generate a rich description of a particular setting and its participants, as a researcher I needed to have access to as much local knowledge as possible. This was crucial given the context-bound nature of constructivist-interpretive methodology and the importance of context in teachers’ beliefs and practices (as I stressed in sections 4.2.3 and 3.2.5 above respectively). Insiders often understand the significance of what is happening as they are very familiar with the context (Campbell, McNamara & Gilroy 2004; Robson 2002). This study benefitted from my insider knowledge of what had been taught on the MA programme and how this had been taught, as well as of the teaching context of the participants and the constraints this imposed on them.

Practitioner research, insider research done by practitioners using their own site for study, provided a useful frame of reference for this study, as it gives special insight into knowledge that outsiders do not have, is concerned with the relationship between the investigated and the investigator, and gives the researcher easy access to the sample (Allwright 2005; Anderson, Herr & Nihlen 1994; Campbell et al. 2004; Cohen et al. 2000; Zeichner & Noffke 2001). A frequent criticism of practitioner research is that it lacks objectivity, and that familiarity with the setting makes it hard for researchers to see something new. In this study a reflexive approach to data collection and analysis accorded me a role as an active participant in the research process, thereby acknowledging both potential bias and subjectivity, and enabling me to explore the influences of such active participation. I outline the specific steps I took to acknowledge and address concerns of subjectivity in section 4.5.3 below.

It was also important to establish a clear difference of procedure between the study and the procedures of professional practice (Robson 2002). For the purposes of this study I, therefore, chose to only use data gained from tools designed specifically for the study, and not to use data, such as documentation, which was part of participants' MA work and which had been produced for assessment purposes.

4.4.2 Sampling strategy

Case study researchers typically use a small sample, and more than one subject was required in this study in order to build up a thick description and explore different perspectives and experiences. I initially used a sample of four participants from a group of ten MA students, although attrition eventually brought this number down to three. 'The persons to be included within the group must be distinguished from those who are outside it' (Yin 2003:24), and this was done by means of a sampling strategy. The sampling strategy greatly influences the quality of research, and a distinction is made in the literature between 'random' and 'purposive' sampling (Cohen et al. 2000; Morse 1991; Patton 1990). Purposive sampling enables researchers to select 'individuals who can provide rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation so as to maximize what we can learn' (Dörnyei 2007:126).

In this study I used purposive sampling to deliberately select participants who I felt would be able and willing to provide such insights. I also tried to ensure variety within my sample in terms of gender, nationality and types of experience, as I felt this would provide a richer overall picture. Thus, I initially approached four students from

the MA group - Mark, Daphne, Steve and Rosemary - to see if they would be willing before formally requesting their participation. There was a balance of nationality and gender, two of them had a CELTA qualification, and they all had at least two year's experience and had worked in two different countries. Two of them had experience of working in Turkey, although Daphne was the only one not new to the institution.

There was inevitably some element of 'convenience sampling' (Morse 1991; Miles & Huberman 1994) in that I relied on the four participants I approached to volunteer to take part in the study. They all signed an informed consent form (see Appendix 4.1), and official permission was also obtained from the institution to conduct the study. During the first six months of the study, however, Rosemary decided to leave the institution and drop out of the MA programme. This presented me with a dilemma of whether or not to continue with three participants and run the risk of further attrition (as it transpired, this was a good decision, as Steve dropped out of the study before its completion). It was too late to involve a new participant from the same MA group as they had already completed a number of MA courses, and I would have been unable to explore their beliefs prior to the MA, so I decided to wait until the start of the following year and approach someone from the new group. This time I approached Anne, who had already expressed a desire to get involved in research, and who was Turkish (she particularly requested an English pseudonym), had a CELTA qualification, and had experience of working in the UK and Turkey. As she was not in line with the other three participants in terms of MA courses, I decided to collect data from her within a period of 12 months, so that data collection from all participants would finish at the same time. Table 4.1 below provides an overview of the three participants and their backgrounds.

Table 4.1 Details of participants

Name	Nationality	Years of experience	Countries worked in previously	New to institution	Formal teaching qualifications
Daphne*	British	6	Turkey/Europe**	No, 6 months	CELTA
Mark*	N.American	2	Europe/N.America	Yes	
Anne*	Turkish	2.5	Turkey/UK	No, 6 months	CELTA

*pseudonyms **concerns of anonymity prevent me from disclosing more specific information

4.5 Research Methods

This section outlines my approach to data collection and analysis in this study, and the steps I took to enhance the quality of the research and the validity of my findings. An essential feature of the study was its iterative process of data collection and analysis, whereby analysis of data from each stage informed the next stage of data

collection (Constas 1992; Dörnyei 2007; Hopkins 2002; Stake 1995; Verschuren 2003). I now outline this iterative process in detail, but in order to enable readers to make sense of this process I have separated my account into two separate sections: data collection and data analysis.

4.5.1 Data collection

I have already stated that the case study approach I took involved multiple sources of data. The choice of data instruments was a principled decision reflecting current thinking in teacher cognition research (as mentioned in Chapter 3 above) and the specific research questions which the study aimed to address. This enabled me to create an overall framework for the study which I summarise in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2: Stages of data collection

<p><u>1. Initial Questionnaire</u> Base-line data, prelude to first interview; initial beliefs about grammar teaching.</p> <p><u>2. Interview 1</u> Explore questionnaire results; origin of teachers' beliefs (own language learning experience, previous teaching experience).</p> <p><u>3. Observation 1 (+ post-interview 1) (after 3 months)</u> Explore rationale for pedagogical decisions (stimulated recall); links between belief statements and practice.</p> <p><u>4. Interview 2 (6 months)</u> Explore development of beliefs over previous 6 months.</p> <p><u>5. Observation 2 (+ post-interview 2) (6 months)</u> Stimulated recall; links between belief statements and practice; developments in teaching over previous 6 months.</p> <p><u>6. Interview 3 (12 months)</u> Explore development of beliefs over previous 6 months.</p> <p><u>7. Observation 3 (+ post-interview 3) (15 months)</u> Stimulated recall; links between belief statements and practice; developments in teaching over previous 6 months.</p> <p><u>8. Final questionnaire (18 months)</u> Prelude to final interview; compare with initial questionnaire.</p> <p><u>9. Interview 4 (18 months)</u> Explore development of beliefs over previous 6 months, explore questionnaire results in interview.</p>

My intention was to carry out four interviews and three observations, each followed by a post-observation interview, with each of the participants over a period of 18 months (this later became 20), at intervals of approximately three months. I considered this a reasonable amount of time between stages in that it would allow me to explore developments in participants' beliefs and practices at regular intervals without imposing too much on their already busy lives as full-time teachers and part-time MA

students. I now detail each of the data collection instruments in turn in order to outline my approach and justify their use in this study.

4.5.1.1 Questionnaires

In order to establish a profile of each participant and their initial beliefs, I collected base-line data by means of a questionnaire and follow-up interview, which served as a point of reference for the rest of the study. I gave a Likert-scale questionnaire (see Appendix 4.2), using 20 statements about grammar teaching and learning to all participants near the start of the MA. I asked them to respond to the statements by indicating the extent to which they agreed/disagreed, encouraged them to express their real opinions, and pointed out that there are no *correct* answers. I first piloted it with another MA student which led me to make the following changes (in *italics* in the following examples); (1) remove words such as ‘always’ (Q6. Grammar teaching should *always* be integrated with skills work); (2) remove ambiguities in the wording of some of the statements (Q1. *There is no need to focus on form*, learners will learn grammar if they get lots of exposure); (3) remove specific terminology (Q16. Teachers should correct learners’ grammatical errors otherwise they will *become fossilised*).

However, my purpose in using this questionnaire was not to ascertain quantitative data which would then simply be compared with teachers’ responses at the end of the study. When used in isolation, such questionnaires have important drawbacks; they can only provide a ‘thin description’ of the target phenomenon and cannot, then, capture the complexity of teachers’ lives; and, as they may only reflect teachers’ ideals, they may not provide insights into teachers’ real practices (Borg 2006; Dörnyei 2003). Therefore, I used the questionnaire in combination with a follow-up interview, in order to probe the views expressed in the questionnaire. This one-hour interview was held in my office within a week of distributing the questionnaire, and consisted of three stages (see Appendix 4.3 for more details): (1) participants’ own language learning experiences; (2) the rationale behind their responses to the questionnaire (I asked them to talk through their responses to each of the 20 statements, probing where necessary to explore their thinking behind their responses); (3) their approach to teaching grammar. In order to make the third stage more concrete, I asked them to talk about a particular lesson they had recently taught. I discuss my approach to this and other interviews in more depth in the next section below.

The same questionnaire was given again at the end of the study, a few days before the final interview. Participants were again asked to talk through their responses and to comment on any changes to their responses in the initial questionnaire, which they had available during the interview. This enabled me to probe any changes, and to link this to other issues which had emerged during the study.

4.5.1.2 Interviews

Interviews, which are traditionally one of the most important means of eliciting introspective data in case study research (Yin 2003), constituted a key element in this study. I aimed to conduct a total of four interviews per participant (including the follow-up to the questionnaire mentioned above) at six-month intervals during the study to explore developments in participants' beliefs, and probe issues that arose during the study. Due to emerging constraints I was able to hold five interviews with Anne (at roughly three-month intervals), four with Daphne and three with Mark (see Table 4.3 below). I discuss post-observation interviews separately in the following sub-section.

The interviews lasted approximately one hour each, at times convenient to participants. I used a semi-structured approach to the interviews for the following reasons (Dörnyei 2003; Fontana & Frey 2003; Kvale 1996; Patton 1990; Robson 2002):

- The open-ended format allows issues to be explored as they arise;
- The interview can proceed more like a conversation than a formalised exchange;
- It enables issues to be explored in depth, and from participants' perspectives;
- Participants are able to discuss issues they are interested in;
- Greater rapport can be established with participants.

This semi-structured approach involved using an interview guide, organised around a series of headings (see Appendix 4.4), with set questions, probes and follow-up questions depending on particular individual responses. I took care to prepare well for the interviews by familiarising myself with the interview guide so as to enable the interview to flow like a conversation, and with previous data collected so I could pick up on specific statements made previously. In order to maintain a balance between formality and informality interviews were held in my office, I redirected my phone to my secretary and posted a notice on my door to avoid any interruptions.

The interviews were also progressively focused (Silverman 2000; Verschuren 2003), both within and across cases, such that each stage of interviews informed the next. Whereas the first interview was less focused with more open-ended questions, the

final interview was more focused and structured. Each interview aimed to encourage participants to reflect on any changes in their beliefs, and to probe possible factors which might have influenced such changes. Later interviews were even more structured in order to allow me to explore particular categories of analysis. Interview questions were initially similar across cases, but these became progressively more individually focused. As issues emerged from analysis, I probed these in subsequent interviews within and across cases as appropriate. So, for example, in my third interview with Anne, I probed her language learning, training and teaching experiences in the UK in greater depth than I had done in the first interview.

I audio-recorded and transcribed all interviews, thus allowing me to concentrate on ensuring the flow of the dialogue rather than having to take notes. Participants were sent a copy of the transcription for formative respondent validation (I refer to summative respondent validation separately in 4.5.3 below), and invited to comment and/or respond to particular queries I had. Only Anne responded on a regular basis, sometimes clarifying comments she had made and responding to my questions. This then enabled me to email follow-up questions to probe particular issues and statements from the interview. I piloted the initial interview with another MA student, which proved useful in terms of learning to use the digital recorder I had purchased for the study.

4.5.1.3 Observations and post-observation interviews

Observations of actual classroom practice were crucial in that I was interested in teachers' real grammar teaching practices and how they related to their stated beliefs. I aimed to carry out three observations with each participant at six-month intervals, at times convenient to them. In actual fact I was able to observe Anne five times (at intervals of roughly three months), and Daphne and Mark three times each during the study.

The observations were of 50-minute lessons, as part of participants' normal teaching which included some grammar work. No special preparation was required on their part and I emphasised to them that they should teach as normally and naturally as possible, that I was not looking for any particular behaviours and that I would not be judging their performance in any way. I made every effort to reduce the fear and intrusion inevitably caused by any observation. The observed lessons were not video-recorded for fear of causing unnecessary stress to participants, so I audio-recorded and

transcribed them in order to gather a rich picture of events, and took field notes to capture events missed by the tape.

My approach to the observations can be defined as follows (Borg 2006; Cohen et al. 2000; Duff 2008; Patton 1990; Richards 2003; Robson 2002; Silverman 2001):

- *Realistic*. Observing live lessons rather than talking about them in isolation provided insight into real classroom events and teaching behaviours.
- *Non-participant*. This allowed me to concentrate on taking field notes and generating specific questions which I subsequently explored in post-observation interviews.
- *Non-structured*. This permitted categories to emerge from the data, and enabled me to attend holistically to the complexity of classroom events.

The non-structured nature of the observations led me to sit at the back of the class taking notes without a preconceived list of points to watch out for, and it was only during subsequent analysis of the recording and my notes that I would look at categories which had begun to emerge during the study.

Observations alone, however, provide insufficient insight into teachers' beliefs, hence my use of post-observation interviews after each observation. Each one-hour post-lesson interview was conducted at a time convenient to participants, in order to seek their views of the lesson, the activities they used and the rationale for decisions taken before and during the lesson. They took place a few days later so as to give participants time to reflect on the lesson, but not too long afterwards that participants' ability to recall might be impaired.

My approach to the post-observation interviews was one of 'stimulated recall' (Brown & Rodgers 2002; Gass & Mackey 2000; Lyle 2003), whereby participants were encouraged to recall their 'practical reasoning' (Fenstermacher 1994). For this purpose I gave participants a copy of the transcription of the lesson to help them remember particular events and, where necessary, I allocated time during the interview for them to refer to the relevant section of the transcription. I then used guided questions to explore their thinking and encouraged them to *reflect* on events rather than simply *recall* them. The post-observation interviews were also semi-structured (see above for rationale). In addition to stimulated recall, I also used the post-observation interviews to probe general issues emerging from analysis of previous data (see Appendix 4.5 for an example). The interview questions became progressively more focused over time as the study developed.

I sent participants a copy of the transcription afterwards for formative respondent validation purposes and invited them to respond (I discuss this further in 4.5.3 below), although again only Anne actually did so. I also sent them a digital copy of the recording of the lessons for their own reference. The first observation and post-observation interview were piloted with one MA student. An important learning point concerned the difficulty of capturing students' utterances during group-work and elicitation, so I tried to use field notes to note down student utterances in order to improve the subsequent transcribing process.

4.5.1.4 Practical constraints which emerged

Qualitative research is a dynamic and flexible process whereby researchers respond to the study and practical constraints which emerge. Here I outline some of the issues which arose during the study which necessitated adaptations to the original research design.

Throughout the study there were times for all of the participants which were particularly stressful (assignment deadlines and exams during the MA, personal and health issues) and I tried to respect this by not scheduling observations or interviews at such times. This made it impossible to arrange the first observation and second interviews as I had originally intended with Daphne, Mark and Steve, hence the large gap in the first half of 2006 (see Table 4.3 below which includes details from all original participants in order to demonstrate my attempts to work with a larger sample).

Both Daphne and Mark had serious health problems during the second year of the study, and their participation was put on hold for three months. During this time Anne kindly offered to do two extra observations and one additional interview to compensate. Fortunately, both Daphne and Mark were able to return to the study, and all data was collected as planned from Daphne, but one interview remained outstanding for Mark. Steve proved difficult to contact at times, and some of his scheduled observations and interviews were cancelled for various reasons during the study. It proved impossible to reschedule these, so data from him remains incomplete. In the end the study lasted 20 months rather than 18.

Table 4.3: Overview of fieldwork

	Anne	Daphne	Mark	Rosemary	Steve
Nov 05		Qaire* Int 1	Qaire* Int 1	Qaire* Int 1	Qaire* Int 1
June 06			Obs 1 Post 1		
July 06		Int 2			
Aug 06	Qaire* Int 1				
Sept 06	Obs 1 Post 1	Obs 1	Int 2		
Oct 06		Post 1			Int 2
Nov 06	Int 2				
Dec 06	Obs 2 Post 2	Obs 2 Post 2	Obs 2 Post 2		Obs 1 Post 1
Feb 07	Int 3				
Mar 07	Obs 3 Post 3 Obs 4				
Apr 07	Post 4 Int 4				
May 07	Obs 5 Post 5	Int 3 Obs 3	Obs 3		Obs 2 (no post)
June 07		Post 3	Post 3		
July 07	Qaire Int 5	Qaire Int 4	Qaire Int 3		

* Qaire = questionnaire, Int = interview, Obs = observation, Post = post-observation interview

4.5.2 Data analysis

This exploratory case study aimed to *generate* theory rather than to *test* existing theory, and as such the analytical approach I took was essentially iterative and abductive (Blaikie 1993; Coffey & Atkinson 1996; Conostas 1992; Morse 1994; Scott & Usher 1999). Whereas deductive approaches begin with, and inductive approaches begin without, a set of a priori categories, abduction is a strategy which implies a dialogic relationship between analysis and theory and a cyclical rather than a linear logic.

Thus, I began with tentative categories of analysis (derived from existing theory and previous research findings), so I could distinguish new insights from the data from those which confirmed existing knowledge. I constantly checked and revised these until new categories emerged, taking care to avoid either imposing prior categories of analysis or prematurely forming such categories as both may have contaminated the data or influenced my perspective (Morse 1994; Patton 1990; Silverman 2000). I devised each set of interview questions after analysing previously-collected data. At three distinct points during the study I carried out systematic cross-case analysis of data

collected (see Table 4.4 below) and this enabled me to subsequently explore issues arising from this analysis in the next phase of data collection.

Table 4.4: Phases of data collection and cross-case analysis

Phase 1 (interview 1) – November 2005*
Phase 2 (observation 1, interview 2) – June/November 2006
Cross-case analysis – November 2006
Phase 3 (observation 2) – December 2006
Cross-case analysis – January 2007
Phase 4 (interview 3, observation 3) – February/June 2007
Cross-case analysis – June 2007
Phase 5 (final interview) – July 2007
Cross-case analysis – September 2007
Respondent validation – June 2008

*this was August 2006 for Anne

The explicitness of research procedures enhances the credibility of research (Lincoln & Guba 1985), and the following sections outline the different stages I followed in my analysis, which was a cyclical rather than a linear process of data collection, analysis and interpretation. I divide this account into three overlapping stages which I categorise as pre-coding, coding and theorising (see Figure 4.1 below).

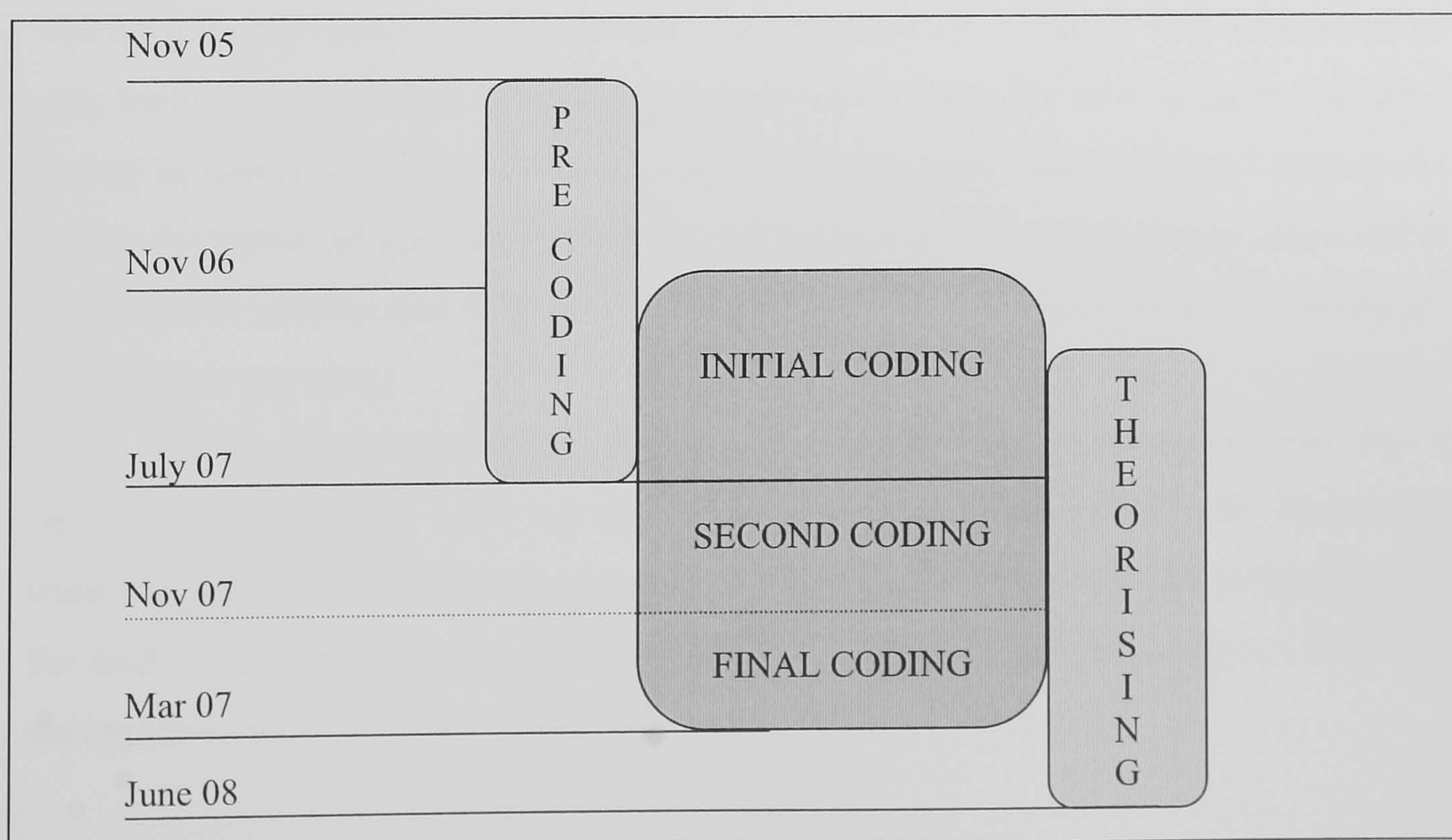


Figure 4.1: Process of data analysis

4.5.2.1 Pre-coding

The first stage of data analysis, pre-coding, was an on-going process corresponding to the 20-month period of data collection, which preceded and informed subsequent coding (see Figure 4.1 above). This consisted of three elements; (1) transcription of data, (2) writing of analytic memos, and (3) initial development of categories. I now describe these in turn.

I first transcribed, using *VoiceWalker*, all the interviews, observations and post-observation interviews which had been digitally recorded and transferred to computer. I developed my own system for transcribing (as recommended by Dörnyei 2007; Duff 2008; Lapadat 2000; Roberts 1997) (see Appendix 4.6 for an example), and corrected minor linguistic errors so as to create a more natural and readable discourse (although Anne specifically requested an unedited version and an audio copy of each recording in order to check her own grammatical, lexical and phonological errors), while taking care not to alter the original meaning.

I then read, re-read and reflected on each transcription and wrote analytic memos for each (see Appendix 4.7 for an example). These served as summary sheets for each set of data collected (Duff 2008), which I then used to help me start developing categories and as a reference when preparing questions for the next stage of data collection. In addition I started keeping a research journal.

The third step in pre-coding was to begin developing categories of analysis, which I did after reflecting on each transcription and analytic memo. This enabled me to start building up a profile of each participant and to develop new questions which I probed in subsequent data collection. The systematic cross-case analyses I carried out during the period of pre-coding enabled me to compare categories across cases and it soon became evident that there were both similarities and differences in the categories which were emerging.

An important element of this pre-coding stage of data analysis was that I developed a systematic data storage system (see Appendix 4.8) for all recordings, transcriptions, analytic memos, interview questions, and other relevant documentation for each participant, and a detailed record of all methodological procedures I followed during the study.

4.5.2.2 Coding

The second stage of data analysis involved ‘reducing the data’ in order to highlight key concepts and categories and to start linking these to broader concepts (Hammersley & Atkinson 1995; Morse 1994; Silverman 2000; Tesch 1990). This process of coding consisted of three chronologically distinct phases, which I termed initial, secondary and final coding.

I began initial coding in November 2006 (see Table 4.4 and Figure 4.1 above) by manually highlighting all extracts of the transcriptions that appeared interesting, relevant and insightful in relation to my research questions, then by revisiting these highlighted extracts in order to categorise and label them. I did this again in January and June 2007 as I gathered more data, and compared categories between and across cases (these were the times that I carried out cross-case analysis, see Table 4.4).

This served as a prelude to secondary coding which I did from August to November 2007, after I had finished collecting all data. This coding involved synthesising the data, looking for recurring themes and patterns and separating the significant from the insignificant. I decided on categories I would use to code all the relevant data before separately coding data for each of the three cases using *Nvivo*. Various writers have stressed the value of using computer-aided qualitative data analysis software (Dörnyei 2007; Duff 2008; Hammersley & Atkinson 1995; Richards 2005; Seale 2000; Tesch 1990), and I found *Nvivo* indispensable in organising and archiving my data (see Appendices 4.9 and 4.10). I then organised the category codes into a hierarchy of nodes. At this stage I had far more categories than I would eventually use, and the categories were similar yet different for each of the three cases. The coded data contained roughly 60% of the raw data (although some extracts were coded more than once under different categories).

Having coded all my data into *Nvivo*, I returned to the original data to double-check that I had not missed any important extracts, and then carried out my final coding. This process continued from December 2007 to March 2008 and involved printing out hard copies of all the data coded under each of the categories, which I then re-read one by one highlighting the most striking and insightful data. This enabled me to further refine the categories, combining some, creating new ones and eliminating others, before assigning all data I had highlighted to specific categories (some data had initially been assigned to multiple categories). I did this separately for each of the three cases (Anne in December; Daphne in February; Mark in March), and I then printed out hard copies

of the data under each new category, which I termed 'selected evidence', for further analysis. This data now contained approximately 15-20% of the original raw data.

4.5.2.3 Theorising

The final stage of data analysis involves interpreting, theorising and drawing conclusions (Coffey & Atkinson 1996; Dörnyei 2007; Hammersley 1992; Miles & Huberman 1994; Morse 1994; Richards 2005; Silverman 2001). I took a dual process and product approach to this part of the analysis, as I now explain.

Due to the iterative and abductive nature of this study, theorising became an on-going cyclical process which began with the initial analysis of my first data and continued until the final coding had been completed. This involved starting with an open mind so as to allow unexpected themes to emerge, and interacting with the data until I was satisfied that there was sufficient congruence between the data and the conclusions. Some of the techniques I used included brainstorming, creating visual mind-maps, listing issues and matching them with evidence, writing interim profiles for each case, and comparing themes across cases. During this time I was able to make links to reading I had done previously, and to read more about specific issues which began to emerge, such as conceptual change and innovation theory (I discuss these in Chapter 9).

Of course, such theorising could conceivably continue ad infinitum, but at some point research needs to produce a product in the form of final conclusions. This, for me, consisted of two distinct phases. Firstly, writing drafts of my results chapters from December 2007 to May 2008 enabled me to formalise and systematise my interpretations and to develop these theoretically. Final coding of my data went hand-in-hand with, and subsequently informed, the development of my conclusions. Thus, I was able to develop separate conclusions for each of the three cases, related to, for example, different stages in the development of their beliefs and practices, tensions between their beliefs and practices, and the ways in which the MA programme seemed to impact on these developments and tensions.

The second phase involved finalising my conclusions, linking them theoretically and presenting them systematically. Having written my third drafts of each of the three results chapters (one for each case), I then revisited each of the results chapters in turn, firstly to identify key similarities and differences between the three cases, and secondly to further refine the theories and conclusions I had developed and merge them into

theoretical frameworks. At this point I returned to the literature in order to ensure that my conclusions were related to existing frameworks and to double-check that I had not overlooked any perspectives that might provide greater insight into my conclusions. Thus, by the end of June 2008 I had finalised my conclusions and drafted my 'cross-case' and 'discussion' chapters (Chapters 8 and 9 respectively).

Before describing the approach I took to presenting my data, I first outline some of the procedures I followed to enhance the research quality of the study.

4.5.3 Enhancing quality

There is much debate in the research literature about ways in which qualitative research can enhance the validity of its findings and conclusions (Denzin & Lincoln 2003a; Dörnyei 2007; Duff 2008; Gall et al. 2007; Maxwell 1996; Morse 1999; Robson 2002; Seale 1999, 2002). Much of this debate centres on whether to replace traditionally accepted concepts - validity, generalisability, reliability and objectivity - with Lincoln and Guba's (1985) alternative concept of 'trustworthiness' - credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. This philosophical debate shows little sign of being resolved in the near future, yet researchers need to convince readers of the reliability of their methods and the validity of their conclusions. In this study, therefore, I refer to the above traditional concepts in outlining the specific procedures I used to counter threats to the study's validity and reliability.

- *Audit trail.* The above account of my research methods enables readers to follow the rationale behind my research design and specific procedures for collecting and analysing data. A systematic, thorough and transparent approach to data collection and analysis also generated a clear audit trail (Lincoln & Guba 1985; Maxwell 1996; Miles & Huberman 1994; Robson 2002), which, I believe, will enhance readers' confidence in the integrity of the research and reliability of the methods used.
- *Thick description.* The longitudinal nature of this study facilitated prolonged engagement with participants and enabled me to generate thick descriptions of each case, which helps readers determine the potential generalisability of the findings to other contexts (Dörnyei 2007; Duff 2008; Gall et al. 2007; Maxwell 1996; Richards 2003; Robson 2002). Prolonged engagement, however, increases the risk of greater research bias, which I deal with in the next point below.
- *Reflexivity.* As I mentioned in section 4.4.1 above, reflexivity is an important approach to overcoming researcher bias and subjectivity, and involves explicit

acknowledgement of the effect of the researcher (Hammersley & Atkinson 1995; Jansen & Peshkin 1992; Morse 1991; Scott & Usher 1999). I approached this in three main ways during the study. Firstly, I tried to keep an open mind, and not to expect particular findings. At times this meant consciously trying to refute initial conclusions and seeking data which might falsify them in some way. It also required ‘thinking outside the box’ (Duff 2008). Secondly, I consciously tried to identify potential biases I might have. So, for example, I suspected that my teacher educator background might encourage me, albeit subconsciously, to expect to see evidence of change in participants’ beliefs and teaching. This actually helped raise my awareness and enabled me to develop fresh insights into how beliefs may be strengthened and confirmed. Thirdly, I tried to overcome respondent bias by consciously trying to avoid leading questions during interviews, and also by reiterating to participants before all interviews that I was not expecting any particular answers and that I was interested in their real opinions (Campbell et al. 2004; Robson 2002).

- *Negative cases.* Another strategy I followed to increase the validity of my conclusions was to deliberately seek negative cases which might disconfirm my previous interpretations and lead to alternative explanations (Dörnyei 2007; Hopkins 2002; Patton 1990; Silverman 2001; Yin 2003). So, for example, analysis of Mark’s data showed marked differences in the ways the MA impacted on his teaching compared to Daphne and Anne. I also highlighted at least one aspect of each participant’s grammar teaching (from a total of six for Anne and Daphne, and five for Mark; see Chapters 5-7 below) which seemed to show different processes of learning from the others.
- *Respondent validation.* A frequently used technique to ensure the ‘interpretive validity’ (Maxwell 1996) of research findings is ‘respondent validation’, sometimes also called ‘member checks’ (Bryman 2004; Guba & Lincoln 1989; Silverman 2001). I have already outlined formative respondent validation in 4.5.1 above, so the following describes summative validation. As well as returning all transcriptions to participants for them to comment on and respond to (see 4.5.1), I contacted all three participants in June 2008 inviting them to read the relevant results chapter I had written using their data. I gave them three options: (1) read the chapter and answer specific questions specially written for their account; (2) simply read the chapter, outline their general agreements and/or disagreements and add any comments they wished to add; (3) meet me individually, so that I could summarise the main points

from their chapter, seek their general agreement and ask some specific questions. Although the third option was my least preferred, I was aware that at the end of the academic year teachers are tired and I felt it unfair to impose on their time by expecting them to read in detail more than 20 pages of text. Nevertheless, they all chose the first option and responded to the chapter and my questions within a couple of weeks. They all seemed satisfied with their respective accounts and stated that there was nothing they objected to or that they felt misrepresented their development (see Appendix 6.8 for an example of one teacher's written response).

- *Multiple sources of data.* My use of multiple sources of data, in particular observations and interviews, counters the limitations of any one data collection instrument in capturing the complexity of the target phenomenon (Borg 2006; Dörnyei 2007; Fielding & Fielding 1986; Maxwell 1996). Questionnaires, for example, which do not provide in-depth insight into the complexity of teachers' lives, were used essentially as stimuli for subsequent interviews, while interviews and observations complemented one another by compensating for each others' limitations (as discussed in 4.5.1 above).
- *Analytic generalization.* I mentioned in 4.3.2 that analytic generalisation enables readers to generalise findings to their own contexts (Bassegy 1999; Gall et al. 2007; Richards 2003; Yin 2003). As I outlined in 4.5.2, I followed a systematic 'chain of reasoning' (Maxwell 1996) in developing theories from the data, and the longitudinal nature of the study and its use of multiple sources of data increase the validity of inferences which can be drawn about participants' developments (Duff 2008).

Although none of the above procedures on its own guarantees the reliability or validity of the study, together they enhance the quality of my findings and conclusions.

4.5.4 Ethical issues

Many writers have emphasised the importance of addressing ethical concerns to protect the rights and interests of participants (Cohen et al. 2000; Denscombe 2002; Denzin & Lincoln 2005; Dörnyei 2007; Duff 2008; Gall et al. 2007; Mackey & Gass 2005; Merriam 1998; Punch 2005). I now outline the steps I took to ensure the ethical integrity of the study.

- *Obtrusiveness.* Participants, full-time teachers and part-time MA students at the same time, were all working professionals with busy lives, yet case study research necessitates intensive involvement. I thus tried to be sensitive about the likely impact

of their involvement in the study on their work and lives by scheduling all interviews and observations at times which were convenient to them, in particular not requesting their involvement at times which I knew would be highly stressful because of assessment deadlines on the MA. Interviews and observations were scheduled at intervals of approximately three months so as not to impinge on their already heavy workload. Observations were also conducted as sensitively as possible so as not to cause unnecessary distress.

- *Anonymity.* Participants' right to anonymity was respected. This was an awkward issue as mere use of pseudonyms will not automatically protect the identity of participants, as Denscombe (2002), Dörnyei (2007) and Duff (2008), among others, have noted. Rich descriptions of individual participants were necessary for the purposes of the study, but identities would then have been obvious to any reader from the same institution, particularly given the small size of the MA groups. This issue was discussed with the participants in order to arrive at a mutually acceptable solution, and as a result I simplified some of the details concerning their backgrounds (see Table 4.1 in section 4.4.2). All data, including recordings and transcriptions, were labelled according to pseudonyms in my data-base and kept securely to avoid any outside access.
- *Confidentiality.* Confidentiality is an important concern in case study research, especially when participants' behaviour and beliefs are studied intensively. All data gathered during the study was kept and will remain confidential, such that it cannot be traced back to any individual by a reader, and data and findings from each participant were not shared with the other participants. I reiterated before each interview that data would be confidential, as trust was vital to the validity of the findings.
- *Informed consent.* Written consent was requested and obtained from each participant before the study. No pressure was applied and I made it clear that they had the right to decline involvement without fear of any recriminations, and that they could withdraw at any time (this was repeated to both Daphne and Mark when they were ill, but they both declined the offer and continued with the study when they were ready). It was important to gain informed consent from participants (Cohen et al. 2000; Creswell 2003), so a written document was prepared for this purpose (see Appendix 4.1), which outlined clearly what would be involved in the study and what

would be expected from them, and served as a kind of contract for both parties, with the aim of safeguarding participants' rights.

4.5.5 Personal challenges and constraints

This case study presented me with certain personal challenges. Despite having previously done over 250 hours of semi-structured interviews and over 600 hours of non-participant classroom observations, these were not carried out for research purposes, and I had had no experience of recording and transcribing interviews, or of using either *Voice Walker* or *Nvivo*. These and other challenges were addressed with rigour and enthusiasm.

A tension existed throughout the study between the desire to respect participants' own time and not to intrude on their already busy lives, and the need to be assertive in requesting data from them. Participants' health, work and study constraints made it impossible to collect all data at the times intended. There was also a tension between my respect for participants' time and my desire to ask more questions and probe further. Not wanting to abuse my position (as Director of the MA; see Chapter 2) and trust, I tried not to exceed 60 minutes for all interviews unless participants themselves offered to devote more time (which only happened once).

A further tension existed between giving transcriptions of observed lessons before the post-observation interviews for participants to reflect on, and my ability to produce the transcription quickly so that the interview was not held too long afterwards. On occasions when I did manage to give participants the transcription before the post-observation interview, they were unable to find time to read them beforehand anyway.

In terms of my own learning, as the study progressed I became aware of issues that had not been explored sufficiently in the initial interview, and had to explore these later in the study. Participants became more fluent and better able to engage in discussion after time, perhaps partly due to an increased awareness of issues because of their research involvement, or possibly due to their learning from MA. This meant that later stages of data collection were more productive than the earlier ones. My own interview skills improved over time, as did my ability to see observed lessons as a researcher rather than as a teacher educator.

4.6 Presentation of the data

One of the main challenges of presenting qualitative data is to enable readers to function as co-analysts of the data (Erickson 1986), in order for them to be able to vicariously experience the *participants'* experiences (Johnson & Christensen 2004), and to assess the interpretive validity of the findings and conclusions (Maxwell 1996). This necessitates the use of extensive extracts of primary data as evidence to support all claims made, yet there is little agreement in the field as to how this is best achieved (although various writers provide useful practical guidance; see, for example, Borg 1997; Dörnyei 2007; Duff 2008; Merriam 1998; Morrow 2005; Morse & Richards 2002; Silverman 2000). Here I outline the key issues which influenced my choice of content, structure and style.

Initially I struggled to find a workable format which would enable me to impose a linear order on the cyclical iterative process of collecting and analysing data. I considered whether to organise the data around common themes emerging from the data, but this proved unworkable, so I decided instead to present it in the form of one chapter for each of the three cases. This enabled me to present the chronology of developments in each participant's beliefs and practices in a more effective manner.

My next challenge was to find an appropriate way of capturing specific aspects of grammar teaching without ignoring the holistic processes and influences which impinged on participants' developments. Working through three drafts for each case chapter enabled me to experiment with different structures until I finally decided to organise each of the three chapters into three main sections; (1) salient facets of grammar teaching, where I focused on developments in beliefs and practices in relation to each facet; (2) common processes, where I highlighted different stages which characterised these developments; (3) contributions of the MA to these developments and processes. I felt this created an effective balance between the depth of each case and the need to consider emerging themes, as Duff (2008) recommends.

Probably the most difficult aspect of presenting the data was to find an appropriate style which balanced creativity with systematicity, which several writers have called for (for example, Borg 1997; Gall et al. 2007; Miles & Huberman 1994). This meant trying to create a rich tapestry which combined the voice of the participants with my own commentary. Such 'juxtaposition', as Chenail (1995) calls it, also requires a balance between variety, which maintains readers' interest, and similarity of format, which creates rhythm in the account. Working through the drafting process for each of

the chapters enabled me to find an effective balance of juxtaposition and rhythm. Thus, the structure of the three data chapters is fairly similar, and I use headings and sub-headings within each chapter to help signpost for the reader, in line with Dörnyei's (2007) suggestions.

While presenting primary data I needed to edit the original texts at times. Shorter extracts of data are often more powerful (Morse & Richards 2002), but it is important to ensure that any paraphrasing or editing maintains the meaning of the original (Dörnyei 2007), so I edited accordingly, taking care to indicate any omissions (with three dots). I also edited any linguistic inaccuracies which I had overlooked while transcribing (see 4.5.2 above), and made minor changes in order to ensure anonymity of participants (see 4.5.4). My initial drafts were also far too long - over 18,000 words each - so I had to take some painful decisions to omit data which I had become extremely familiar and intimate with. Longer illustrative extracts of data are presented in the appendices where relevant.

Thus, the following three chapters (Chapters 5-7) contain my presentation of data for each of the three cases organised according to the format outlined above. A short cross-case chapter (Chapter 8) then provides an overview of the main similarities and differences between the three cases, while the subsequent discussion chapter (Chapter 9) pulls the main threads together and offers big-picture explanations of the findings.

4.7 Conclusion

I have given a detailed account of the research design of this study and outlined the principles behind the research methodology used. This exploratory case study followed the constructivist-interpretive tradition, and employed a qualitative methodology. I collected data using multiple instruments and an iterative progressive focusing approach, analysed it abductively, and took concrete steps to enhance the quality and ethical integrity of the research. The following three chapters present the findings from the three participants, each as a separate case.

5. ANNE

In this chapter I present the findings from the study of the development of beliefs and practices of the first teacher, Anne. Firstly, I provide a brief profile of her with background information relevant to the study. Secondly, I give a detailed account of developments in her grammar teaching beliefs and classroom practice by looking at six salient facets of her work and by highlighting processes and influences regarding these developments. Finally, I summarise the key issues which emerge from this case.

5.1 Profile of Anne

In this section I present background information about the teacher which predates the period of the study but was gleaned from interviews during the study.

Language learning experience

As a non-native speaker, Anne learnt English at secondary school in a very traditional grammar-translation manner, which she disliked and found insufficient: ‘it wasn’t communicative, there wasn’t enough student talking...I had difficulty processing, I didn’t understand’ (A11:15-23) (see Table 5.1 below for an explanation of the codes I use in such quotations). She continued to learn English at university, but although I knew the grammar rules, I couldn’t use the language as well as I wanted, I couldn’t even use the things I knew very well as I hadn’t used them before in context. (A11:75-6)

After university she went to Britain to further improve her language and ‘preferred the more communicative teaching [on the language course she took] there...as it was more enjoyable and meaningful’ (A11:88).

Teacher education background

Her 4-year ‘BA in ELT gave [her] a basic grounding in grammar teaching’ (A11:105), but her initial teaching routines seem to have been influenced more by the initial teacher training courses she took after her BA early in her teaching career: ‘after CELTA things started to change and make sense and I started enjoying teaching, it really filled in my gaps’ (A14:41-5). There she learnt how to make her teaching more communicative and was exposed to a presentation-practice methodology which ‘[she] found enjoyable and gave [her] a framework to follow in lesson planning and teaching’ (A14:58-9).

Grammar teaching biography

Before the study, she worked as an EFL teacher for approximately two and a half years in Turkey and Britain. Her initial grammar teaching consisted mainly of rule-based presentations and fill-in-the-blank exercises: 'I had a very traditional approach, just gap-fills and maybe writing a couple of sentences, but I wouldn't be able to elicit rules or concept check' (AI4:27-9), but this changed after her CELTA course and she started to follow the presentation-practice methodology she had learnt:

I was doing PPP [presentation, practice, production], I didn't know why, but I probably thought it was communicative, contextualised and more meaningful...I'd have controlled practice after presentation, then something freer, speaking or writing mostly. (AI4:219-267)

Teaching in Britain, she 'learnt a lot from teachers' books and had the chance to prepare [her] own materials...which was more fun and effective' (AI4:286-7). At the start of the study, she had already been in the institution for seven months, and had had time to get used to the new context.

5.2 Developments in Anne's beliefs and classroom practice

I now provide an account of Anne's grammar teaching beliefs and practices as they unfolded during the study by first considering specific facets of her practices, then by outlining processes and influences on these developments. In order to help readers follow the chronology of events, Table 5.1 below summarises the various data sources used. For each extract of data the relevant line numbers are used given the codes below.

Table 5.1: Dates of Anne's observations and interviews

	Code	Date	Months into the study
Interview 1	AI1	24.08.06	0
Observation 1	AO1	26.09.06	1
Post-observation 1	AP1	28.09.06	
Interview 2	AI2	27.11.06	3
Observation 2	AO2	19.12.06	4
Post-observation 2	AP2	21.12.06	
Interview 3	AI3	25.02.07	6
Observation 3	AO3	09.03.07	7
Post-observation 3	AP3	14.03.07	
Observation 4	AO4	27.03.07	7
Post-observation 4	AP4	01.04.07	
Interview 4	AI4	27.04.07	8
Observation 5	AO5	08.05.07	9
Post-observation 5	AP5	31.05.07	
Interview 5	AI5	26.07.07	11

5.2.1 Salient facets of grammar teaching

In this section I look at specific developments in Anne's grammar teaching beliefs and practices in relation to six facets of grammar teaching which detailed and thorough analysis of the data revealed to be the most salient: explicit focus-on-form, presentation and practice, teacher control during grammar presentations, group-work for oral practice, oral correction of grammatical errors, and pronunciation of new grammar.

Although the specific focus of this study was on grammar teaching, this does, of course, represent only one aspect of Anne's teaching, and it is likely that other aspects of her teaching, such as skills work, will have impacted on her grammar teaching as well, but this was beyond the scope of the study. Other influences on her grammar teaching, such as the role of teaching partners in her lesson planning, for example, are also likely to have influenced her teaching, but were not particularly salient in the data. These two points are valid for the following two data chapters (Chapters 6-7) as well.

It is also worth recalling at this stage that I examined her developments within the context of the MA, so the developments did not take place independently of any support or guidance. Table 5.2 below summarises key stages of the MA and how they relate chronologically to stages of data collection during the study.

Table 5.2: Key events in the MA

MA		Study	
		Interview 1	Aug 06
Linguistics course, input/assignment*	Sept-Nov 05	Observation 1	Sept 06
Grammar teaching input*/assignment, unassessed/assessed teaching practice, peer observations, language analysis	Nov 05-Jan 06	Interview 2	Nov 06
		Observation 2	Dec 06
Skills (Reading/listening) teaching input/assignment, unassessed/assessed teaching practice, peer observations, language analysis	Feb-Apr 06	Interview 3	Feb 07
		Observation 3	Mar 07
		Observation 4	Mar 07
		Interview 4	Apr 07
Teaching input, course planning assignment, assessed teaching practice, peer observations, language analysis	May-June 07	Observation 5	May 07
		Interview 5	July 07

*see Chapter 2 and Appendix 2.1 for further details

5.2.1.1 Explicit focus on form

The first defining feature of Anne's grammar teaching is explicit focus on form (to her this meant explicitly teaching grammar as opposed to *not* focusing on form). The following account highlights developments in her beliefs and practices.

Before the MA, Anne expressed a belief in the importance of focusing on form and meaning: 'If it's isolated from context it's meaningless...if it's meaningful, learners

get lots of benefit from it, so they need to focus on form, but just form isn't enough, meaning is important, too' (AI1:122-4). This meant teaching grammar explicitly in separate lessons:

I wouldn't want every lesson to focus on grammar...but it's useful for some lessons to have a grammar focus...other lessons should support it, so if I teach past perfect today, tomorrow I'll do a communicative activity. (AI1:153-160)

She later recalled how her initial teacher education influenced her beliefs:

Training courses...helped me to say, 'we need to underline the form, because students need to see it'. That's the input I had, that's all I knew...I accepted it because, 'it's a training course, they said that, it must be correct', so I was doing it but...I didn't know why. (AI3:234-44)

During the next three months of the MA she received input on language learning theories, SLA and grammar teaching and learning (see Table 5.2 above), and prepared assessed grammar lessons and assignments (see section 2.2 above for further details). Despite not questioning her beliefs about explicit isolated grammar teaching before the MA, after three months this started to change:

Before what I'd call 'common sense', it changed...now I can see why I was thinking that way, why we need to focus on form, but I learnt that the characteristics of L2 learners are different from L1 learners and this is necessary. A lot of things found their meaning, so it made a big difference. I'm more conscious. (AI2:47-53).

Three months later (six months into the study) there was further deepening of her awareness:

Reading about form-focus, noticing...and the difference between L2 and L1 learning, these were really important issues which made my ideas clear...I can see things more deeply...if students asked lots of questions, I'd say 'why don't they understand?', but now I can see they need it...I can better respond to those needs now, and I don't have as many questions as before. (AI3:243-256)

Although her 'ideas haven't changed since the start of the MA...they still need focus-on-form' (AI4:12-14), she developed her understanding of how explicit grammar teaching can help student learning:

Before as far as I can remember...I knew that form-focus is very important for L2 learners to learn grammar, but I wasn't exactly clear why. When I learnt how students learn grammar...I started to agree...that there's always a need to focus on form for L2 learners. (AI5:10-13)

Her teaching reflected her belief in form-focused instruction in all five observed lessons during the study (see Table 5.3 below). Each lesson followed a similar format, starting with a grammar presentation (derived from a reading text or story), followed by controlled and less controlled practice activities (CP/LCP) where students were expected to manipulate the target language, and a freer practice (FP) speaking or writing activity. She frequently used grammatical terminology to talk about the target language (see Appendix 5.1 for an example). In each observed lesson all activities were linked to a main theme.

Table 5.3: Overview of Anne's observations

	Level	Grammar	Theme	Presentation	Practice
Obs 1	Pre-Int	Simple past	Holidays	Reading	CP - LCP -(FP next lesson)*
Obs 2	Int	2 nd conditional	Relationships	Story + reading	CP - LCP - FP
Obs 3	Upp-Int	Future continuous	Arrangements	Story	CP - LCP - FP
Obs 4	Upp-Int	Wish clauses	Love story	Story + reading	CP - LCP/ FP
Obs 5	Upp-Int	Relative clauses	da Vinci	Reading	CP - (LCP next lesson)

*these were Anne's terms to describe the various stages and activities used in her lessons

In conclusion, the development of Anne's beliefs and practices regarding explicit focus on form seemed to go through the following processes:

- Initially tacit and unquestioned beliefs (0-1 months);
- Questioning these beliefs (1-4 months), stimulated by the MA;
- Developing a greater awareness and understanding (6-11 months).

I indicate (in brackets) the approximate time-frame in terms of the study. Although these processes appear to follow a linear pattern here, they in fact form part of more complex overall processes of development, as I discuss later in Chapters 8-9. I also return to these processes in section 5.2.2 below, where I compare and summarise the various processes for all six facets of Anne's grammar teaching.

The following five sections highlight developments in her beliefs and practices in relation to specific aspects of explicit grammar teaching.

5.2.1.2 Presentation, practice and production

The first of these areas is presentation, practice and production (PPP). All five lessons I observed followed a PPP shape (see Table 5.3 above). Before the MA Anne had developed a routine for teaching grammar which she characterised, without my prompting, as PPP, and which followed a fairly rigid template:

Usually I do PPP...I try to find authentic materials for contexts...then concept check questions to clarify the language point...then I ask the form...underline it on the board,

students write it down...I try to follow this order of controlled and less controlled practice...if it's very clear at the beginning, students don't have any difficulty producing the language after that. (AI1:320-344)

It was, as she reflected later a 'teaching habit' or routine she had learnt unquestioningly:

I got it from CELTA, I didn't question it...and it became a way of teaching...a teaching habit and common sense...I started learning about PPP, things started to really make sense, and I started to enjoy teaching. PPP was the only way I knew...communicative language teaching was promoted so much...if teaching is communicative, it should be contextualised, so contextualised meant at that time PPP...I didn't understand the rationale then...I could see something was working for me, because the steps of the lesson were much clearer than before. (AI4:41-57)

This approach 'seemed to work for [her] as long as the context is meaningful' (AP1:123-4), but she had some questions in her mind, and a desire to learn more about different lesson shapes: 'I haven't used TTT [test-teach-test] yet, but I want to learn that too.' (AI1:321-2). On the CELTA she had seen demo PPP lessons, but not TTT, something she lamented, as she felt 'modelling different approaches is necessary for learning' (AI4:196-7).

During the first three months of the MA Anne received input about grammar teaching (see Table 5.2 above), in particular PPP and TTT which she reported using for her unassessed and assessed teaching practice (although the MA did not require that she use PPP or TTT for assessed teaching practice, it is possible that she felt this was expected). This helped her question her beliefs about PPP and explore its theoretical basis and effect on learners. Initially PPP had given her security and guidance:

I didn't know different ways of teaching grammar. I'd have these exercises and just take them, but I wouldn't know how to order them. When I saw PPP...it helped me plan lessons in an organised way and gave me the courage to teach. (AI2:143-6)

However, she began seeing PPP as a constraint: 'PPP is highly structured, it expects students to learn what we teach them, these are some of the constraints of PPP' (AI2:26-62). She began to compare PPP with TTT and consider their relative value for remedial grammar teaching:

It's good when you give a language point for the first time, but for revision PPP is useless...I can see it'll work for some lessons, but for others I need something else. (AI2:106-113)

This led her to conceptualise: 'for presentation I'd use PPP, for revision I'd use TTT' (AI2:192-3). Although all lessons I observed followed a PPP shape (I didn't observe her

using TTT at all), this awareness seemed to enter her thinking during planning of her second and third observations: ‘as they’re repeat students, TTT could’ve been better’ (AP2:31-2); ‘because it’s presentation, I thought PPP is a good model for this. I wish I could do task-based, but I wasn’t feeling that competent’ (AP3:30-1). It is, of course, possible that she may have been trying to demonstrate her knowledge of lesson shapes from the MA and say what she thought she should say.

Learning about alternative lesson shapes, PPP, TTT and task-based learning (TBL), and teaching ideas on the MA helped clarify her thinking. Voluntarily seeking an opportunity to peer-observe a TBL lesson motivated her to want to ‘start experimenting with task-based and give more work to learners rather than me’ (AI2:185). Seeing real examples of alternative practice seems to be important for her learning: ‘I wish I could see different types of grammar production and practice’ (AP1:366-7). Having to plan lessons in detail for assessed teaching practice (see section 2.2 above) also helped her see grammar lessons in terms of three ‘P’ stages of a PPP lesson, which was something she hadn’t realised before:

When I looked up my [CELTA] notes I realised that the PPP input was given as a lesson model but I was confused, I couldn’t practically use it, I saw it as a model’s name rather than stages of a lesson...so I had problems with timing when planning. (AI2:14-46)

This suggests that she was still confused about PPP at the start of the MA and that she had not considered each ‘P’ as a separate stage of her PPP lessons. She then started to consider different options for each ‘P’ stage: ‘I’m more flexible now with my planning of PPP lessons and more spontaneous...I can change plans easily’ (AI4:437-40). This gave her greater flexibility in planning and teaching and subsequently greater confidence: ‘I feel more comfortable than before when planning PPP, I can take more risks’ (AP3:435-7).

This gave her confidence and enthusiasm to experiment with aspects of PPP:

Before I’d try to finish things in 50 minutes [one lesson], now I spread things out more. Maybe it’s...something fossilised in our minds that every lesson should be 50 minutes. Sometimes without questioning you accept something as a habit...in time I started questioning things, it was useful to break such teaching habits. (AI5:441-7)

This ‘experimentation’ was not necessarily planned and systematic (as action research would be, for example), but represented an awareness of trying things out gradually (through small incremental steps) to see if they would work for her. No longer feeling

constrained by time, she could experiment in three ways; (1) by devoting more time for elicitation; (2) by teaching more inductively; (3) by increasing student interaction:

The presentation stage takes much longer than before...I ask more questions...I do more elicitation if I have time...I try to get them to analyse and work things out for themselves...rather than spoon-feeding...I have more student interaction. (AI4:430-6)

I return to these three specific issues in more detail in the next two sections.

By the end of the study Anne felt a better understanding of PPP:

Now I'm more aware of what [PPP] is exactly...I don't think practice is just gap-fills...or production is only writing, I have more variety considering the stages of the lesson. (AP5:809-29)

Her understanding of different lesson shapes and their effect on student learning also increased:

I don't just jump into PPP now...I look at their writing to see what grammar they can use...before I wouldn't pay attention to this...I'm more aware which tenses they're able to produce...that's really good. (AI4:417-423)

This suggests that she still saw PPP as a default model for planning her grammar lessons, even though the MA equally promoted PPP, TTT and TBL. Although she often followed a PPP approach, this seemed to now be more principled, rather than being done out of necessity, as our discussion after the fifth observation illustrates:

SP: What made you decide to use PPP for this lesson?

A: I didn't know what to test. I felt Test-Teach-Test...wouldn't be appropriate for this lesson. If it was a repeat class, then I'd do it certainly. (AP5:246-60)

She was able to consciously choose a PPP approach according to student needs. She started using TTT (but not TBL), and had a strong will to experiment further:

I use TTT now more than I used to, but...I need to experiment more...if I have time next month I'd love to...use different types of activities...at different levels. If I can use it for other levels as well, it'll make me more confident. (AI5:690-704)

In conclusion, the development of Anne's beliefs and practices concerning PPP highlighted the following processes at different times during the study:

- Initially tacit and unquestioned beliefs and practices (0-1 months);
- Questioning these beliefs and practices (3-6 months), stimulated by the MA;
- Experimentation with aspects of PPP (7-9 months), and with TTT;
- Greater awareness and understanding (11 months).

I am not suggesting that these processes represent a linear transition from stage to stage, but that they seemed more salient at the above times during the study.

5.2.1.3 Teacher control

The next two facets of Anne's grammar work (teacher control and group-work for oral practice) concern releasing teacher control and increasing student involvement. The first of these focuses on her use of control through elicitation and dealing with unexpected student questions when presenting grammar, whereas the second (which I consider in 5.2.1.4 below) focuses on her use of group-work for oral grammar practice.

Before the MA Anne expressed a desire to learn more about eliciting different kinds of questions when presenting...I'm going to develop better, but it'll take time, asking questions at the right place is very important to guide learners to think. (AI1:388-393)

Observing colleagues successfully releasing control during grammar presentations seemed to be an important learning point for her, as she reflected later in the study:

When observing other teachers presenting grammar...I could see they were more genuine in class, I always felt more like an actress than a teacher...I don't want to be in control all the time. (AI5:551-4)

She was dissatisfied with her tendency to be in control, yet it was hard to change, as she reflected in one of our discussions:

I wasn't feeling confident about issues which can arise during the presentation stage...you just plan according to your own control, you can't release control...if students ask too many questions about the grammar, I'd maybe lose control...maybe I'd answer them if time was enough, or I felt relaxed, but...losing face is a big issue when you start a new institution or class. This made me uncomfortable; being in control was the easiest escape. (AI3:370-83)

The MA also emphasised the value of learner-centred teaching. After three months she started eliciting more, yet she only realised this during our discussion: 'hmm, that's interesting...it wasn't conscious, I just thought eliciting would be useful...but it worked really well' (AP2:208-10). She later elaborated:

Before I'd be more controlled in getting students' answers while presenting grammar...now I'm open to more...wide-ranging answers. I can easily guide them to the conclusions...awareness made me feel more comfortable. (AI2:74-85)

She started to 'feel more principled when to have control and release control during presentations...I haven't experimented yet, I need to see different practices, then if I can experiment...in my class and see how it works, I'll see' (AI3:401-18). Again 'experimentation' for her meant trying something out and seeing how it works. She showed awareness of how to start eliciting more in grammar lessons, but she recognised

a need to experiment and see the benefits for her own situation, and started eliciting more (more in observations 4-5 than in observations 1-3). Similarly she developed confidence in dealing with difficult or unexpected questions:

Before I wouldn't have the courage to let students ask so many questions...so I'd try to find some way to avoid them, but this time I was very open. I said, 'I know future forms are very confusing, we'll do detailed analysis in the next hour', I was extremely comfortable...but before I wasn't that comfortable. One of the girls said, 'can I use going to?', in the past I'd probably just skip it or ignore it. (AP3:227-35)

Nevertheless, she was not always confident enough to release control:

If I asked questions, I'm sure they'd have asked more questions about going to, will, etc., and...I wouldn't be able to finish the rest of the lesson. That's why I put [an analysis activity] in the second hour, otherwise I'd have done it somewhere here. (AP3:468-71)

During the fourth observed lesson, she asked students to work in pairs and analyse 'wish-clauses' in a text they had read and to try to discover the difference between the use of 'could, would and simple past' (see Appendix 5.2, questions 3-5). While monitoring them during the activity she noticed that students were getting confused, and this led her to spend time at the board explaining the differences:

I didn't plan to write the formula on the board...it was according to learner needs that came up...releasing control gave me the flexibility to make changes to my lesson plan. (AP4:667-81)

Thus, experimenting with her teaching helped her realise that relinquishing control could actually give her greater flexibility to make changes during the lesson:

I'm trying to release control more when presenting grammar...generally it leads to better learning and teaching, and gives me quality time to think if something comes up, I have enough time to reflect...I can monitor more effectively and react to the situation. (AP4:268-72)

This was an important learning point for her. This increased confidence to release control can be linked to a crucial shift in her orientation away from a concern with herself towards more concern with student learning:

It's very important to be able to monitor students effectively, because when you're in control and monitor effectively, you're able to spot what's going on, take immediate action if necessary and respond to students...sometimes you can't really achieve what you want...if you're not in control. If the teacher is always in control...learners don't learn so well...now I'm more concerned about students. (AI4:766-83)

After eight months she felt that releasing control had been incorporated into her teaching routine and become automatic:

I can elicit much better...I don't even need to plan that now...a couple of weeks or maybe a month ago I can't remember, I was trying to elicit more deliberately. but I think it's...more automatic now. (AP5:578-82)

She felt she had developed 'a better idea of the sort of questions they might ask during the presentation stage, and can guide them better' (AP4:546-8). The final three observed lessons contained increasingly more examples of elicitation and releasing control, and she displayed greater confidence in dealing with student questions and responses, as the following extracts from two lessons which focused on 'future continuous' and 'wish-clauses' show (see Appendix 5.3 for fuller extracts):

Extract 1

(Anne is trying to elicit a future continuous sentence)

S2: May I ask a question? Can we use going to?

A: Yes, but the functions are different. We'll compare them next lesson. (AO3:91-2)

Extract 2

(Anne is eliciting whether wish clauses have past or future meaning)

A: What about the next one?

S: 'I wish you would take my call this time and we could talk'. Future.

A: This is future, isn't it? Have a look and compare this example and no 4 'Do you also wish we could come together?' Can you see the difference? Which one's happening in the future? (AO4:166-8)

Extract 3 (from the same lesson on wish clauses as extract 2 above)

A: What's this?

Sts: Wish clause.

A: Why and when do we use wish clauses?

S1: We want something, we wish something.

A: Is it about the past? (AO4:230-6)

In conclusion, the development of Anne's beliefs and practices concerning teacher control seemed to highlight the following processes at specific times during the study, although this is not meant to imply a linear transition between stages:

- Dissatisfaction with aspects of her practices (0-1 months);
- Experimentation with releasing control and seeing the benefits (3-7 months);
- Developing a more confident routine (8-9 months), although she continued to experiment.

5.2.1.4 Group-work for oral practice

The next salient facet of Anne's grammar teaching is her use of group-work for oral grammar practice. As I mentioned at the start of the previous section (see 5.2.1.3 above), this is also related to her use of teacher control and student involvement.

At the start of the MA Anne expressed the belief that group-work was useful for oral practice but she seemed unsure of the reasons for this:

Oral practice is very important for most learners. I try getting them to produce on their own or in groups depending on the language point, if it's very challenging I do group-work. (A11:337-40)

However, she tended to do oral grammar practice in a controlled teacher-fronted style, as the following extract (from a 'freer practice' activity intended to practise 'simple past', see Appendix 5.4 for a fuller extract) from the first observed lesson illustrates:

A: Selin, where did you go?

S1: Mersin.

A: Who did you go with, Oytun?

S2: I go with my parents.

A: You went...

S2: I went with my parents.

A: Where did you stay, Kerim?

S3: I stayed in hotel.

A: In a hotel. Was it nice?

S3: Yes, it was cool.

A: What did you eat, Kadir?

S4: I ate... (inaudible)

A: Did you do any housework?

S5: No. (A01:346-59)

Her explanation for using a whole-class dialogue (with each question being answered by a different learner), rather than pair or group-work, to practise the target language was that the latter might cause classroom management problems, or make it difficult to monitor students' learning and give feedback on their grammatical errors:

Having them working in pairs or groups, asking each other, I wouldn't be able to monitor them...I'd be worried about not monitoring...if they produce something incorrectly it could become fossilised...so I tend to be quite controlled. (AP1:592-600)

The MA emphasised the value of pair and group-work for oral grammar practice, and of encouraging learners to use grammar. After three months she had

started questioning her practices and this encouraged her to peer observe a colleague who used group-work for oral grammar practice:

I realised they can really support each other and fill in each other's gaps...even if they speak in Turkish mostly, there's this reasoning going on...we can't stop them speaking in Turkish...it's something I came to terms with in this observation. (AI2:396-9)

An important learning point was seeing that group-work helped students learn without causing classroom management problems for her colleague: 'I was impressed that in groups they could exploit the material and really challenge each other' (AI2:158-60).

This helped her reflect on how to 'experiment' with group-work in her own teaching:

If that activity was done [in groups], it could've been much more effective...I didn't feel ready, now I do...I haven't tried it yet, but I will...I should do learner training and give some structured tasks for groups. I'll get used to it, I guess...I need to see different practices, then if I can experiment in my classes and see how it works. (AI2:424-46)

Reflecting on the second observed lesson, she seemed to notice the tension between her beliefs and practices:

SP: If you did a speaking activity where you couldn't monitor everything they say, would that serve a purpose for you?

A: For them, yes, but I wanted to be in control...I couldn't monitor very well, and being able to monitor at this stage helps me to approach their learning better.

SP: What would happen if you didn't monitor them?

A: Now I can see...they can produce something, but...I could've done it better...of course they'd benefit, but being in control was the point for me. (AP2:367-83)

She wanted to 'feel less like an orchestra conductor who's always in control...and give learners more opportunities to use language' (AP2:557-8). This may be related to her fear of relinquishing control during grammar presentations described in the previous section (see 5.2.1.3 above), although here she cites a desire to monitor learner language as a reason for being in control. Awareness of this tension - between her belief in the value of group-work and her tendency to avoid it in her actual practices - seemed to motivate her to want to address it in some way:

Giving them more chances to use question forms...could've been good...I realised it just recently to be honest...normally I'd think it's just the meaning of the passage rather than the language...it's a very useful point I learnt...I'll work on this more. (AP2:252-60)

Over the next few months she developed the confidence to start 'experimenting' with group-work for oral grammar practice, as I observed in the freer practice stage of her third lesson, where learners were expected to use 'future continuous':

This time it's group-work. I want you to talk about these points. What will these areas be like in 20 years' time? You don't need to write. Just talk. (AO3:214-6)

Even though she didn't 'plan to use group-work every day' (AP3:770), she 'consciously decided to include group-work in this lesson, to increase [learners'] confidence to use the target grammar...and create more meaning' (AP3:272-4).

An important learning point was that group-work gave her time to monitor students and adapt the lesson accordingly, thus giving her more flexibility, and making her feel more, rather than less, in control as she had previously feared:

When monitoring I felt I was in control...I was just watching, letting them work on their own, but if things went wrong or something unexpected happened, I intervened...I felt comfortable. I'm not worried about controlling them anymore...I've got rid of that. I have this flexibility now. (AP3:722-34)

A crucial factor in enabling her to change her practices was that the personal benefits of this new practice seemed to outweigh any potential disadvantages. She seemed to be more confident using group-work for oral practice, which gave her a feeling of control:

Learners need lots of opportunities to use the language to remember what they've studied before, so it's really necessary for the brain...it's obvious to me now thanks to the MA and the discussions that we've had together for this research. (AI5:219-23)

By the end of the study, Anne felt greater understanding of the purpose of group-work for oral practice, and greater congruence between her beliefs and practices:

Before...as I had to think about...different aspects of grammar teaching...I couldn't give control to my students...when I sorted out things in my mind about grammar teaching, I could focus on more group-work and more student interaction...such things started to be much clearer in my mind and my practice. (AI5:432-8)

Nevertheless, she still felt unable to use as much oral practice as she wished:

Learners won't learn grammar without plentiful opportunities to use the language, but I can't always give them plentiful opportunities...it's time constraints. (AI5:820-1)

In conclusion, the development of Anne's beliefs and practices concerning group-work for oral grammar practice highlighted the following processes which were salient at specific times during the study:

- Being made aware of existing practices (0-1 months);
- Awareness of tension between beliefs and practices (3-4 months);
- Experimentation with group-work and seeing the benefits (5-7 months);
- Greater congruence between beliefs and practices (11 months), continued experimentation.

5.2.1.5 Oral error correction

The fifth salient facet of Anne's grammar teaching is her use of oral correction of learners' grammatical errors. At the start of the MA Anne expressed a belief in the value of explicit oral error correction:

When to correct them is important...when you try to develop accuracy...in controlled practice you need to correct them so they don't fail in production. (AI1:273-5)

She used a variety of correction techniques (see Appendix 5.5), but was not always aware why she was using them, and did not feel entirely confident when correcting, 'if I don't know the theory behind why I'm doing things, everything becomes 'common sense' and I feel shaky in class' (AP2:553-4). As she reflected later in the study: 'I didn't use to feel that comfortable, I knew the techniques, but I didn't know when or how to do it, or if I should do it all the time' (AI4:30-2). A major concern for her was how learners would react to particular error correction techniques, something which had always made her feel 'uncomfortable' while correcting:

I'd easily resent being corrected when I was young, when I empathised with students sometimes...I'd think, 'they could get me wrong if I correct them too much and this can disappoint them'. (AI5:419-21)

This lack of confidence dissatisfied her and motivated her to 'learn more about error correction', although 'this was not something which [had] ever come up in observation feedback before' (AP4:308-10).

Learning more about error correction on the MA over the next few months helped give her theoretical justification and rationalise the dilemma in her mind:

Before the course I'd be hesitant, but now I'm very straight-forward, because I tell them learning is a process of making mistakes...before I felt uncomfortable...I'd always think about affective factors, but now I'm more comfortable correcting...L2 learners certainly need to be corrected, because they need some negative evidence. (AI2:371-84)

Understanding why this was useful for students helped her to overcome this tension:

I can empathise with their learning, I have a broader view of L2 learning now...I try to observe the whole process within the systematic errors and try to...see what's going on really at deeper levels, and try to get some input for myself to help them. (AI2:353-9)

During the next three months, she started to consciously think about error correction during her lesson planning:

SP: You said you're starting to feel more comfortable correcting.

A: Yes, certainly they need it at this stage.

SP: Did you decide before the lesson to try and correct more?

A: My decision after studying theories and learning was to...correct, but how to correct was the important point for me. (AP2:296-301)

She now started to develop a routine: 'my usual trend is just to do peer-correction first...because it's important, the sooner the better for correction at the presentation stage' (AP2:284-6). In the second observation, she had a consciously principled approach for different stages of the lesson: 'I didn't interrupt students in this activity at all, because it aimed at boosting their self-confidence, producing easily, and it served that purpose' (AP2:334-5).

However, by the third and fourth observations three months later, this no longer seemed to be a conscious issue, 'it's more comfortable probably, I can't remember how I was before...I have that awareness and confidence to approach students, I don't even need to plan it now' (AP3:578-82). Despite not developing a clear strategy, she seemed more confident to think on her feet, and to decide whether and how to correct students' oral errors as they arose:

A: ...if they made a mistake, I'd probably peer-correct.

SP: Is that something you thought about before the lesson?

A: Not really...whenever there's something, you just find the best way of doing it...if the student's OK, then you just nominate somebody and that person corrects or helps. It depends on the stage, but I haven't particularly planned any way...as I didn't expect that much production at this stage, I didn't think about it. (AP3:526-35)

Her practices seemed to change little during the study, as the following extracts show:

Extract 1

A: Who did you go with?

S3: I go to...

A: ...I...

S3: I went to with...

A: ...I went...

S3: I went with my parents.

A: Very good. (AO1:278-86)

Extract 2

S: When class is over, it will be probably raining.

A: It will...

Sts: Probably be

A: Where does the adverb come?

S: After will

A: Be careful about it. (AO3:155-60)

Yet she certainly felt more principled and confident in her correction of students' oral errors:

Error correction was an issue, but feeling confident, knowing the logic behind it, I explain to students, 'when I correct you it doesn't mean I'm criticising you personally, it's something you need to improve yourselves'. So, this confidence really helped me...I correct more now than I used to...I feel more confident doing it...I can explain why, and it works. (AI5:423-30)

She clearly felt she corrected more than she used to, even though this was not evident in my observations, as Table 5.4 below shows (see Appendix 5.5 for a more detailed summary of the different types of error correction used). It may be that feeling more confident gave her the sense that her actual error correction practices had changed.

Table 5.4 Types of error correction observed in Anne's lessons

Observation	Teacher correction (direct or recast)	Student correction (self or peer)	No correction (deliberate or not)
1	2*	6	1
2	3	2	3
3	1	6	4
4	2	4	2
5		1	1
TOTAL	8	19	11

* numbers of times each type of correction was observed in each lesson

In conclusion, the development of Anne's beliefs and practices concerning oral correction of learners' grammatical errors highlight the following processes:

- Unprincipled initial practice and lack of teacher confidence (0-1 months);
- Developing a better theoretical understanding of error correction (2-3 months), stimulated by the MA;
- Developing a more confident routine (3-7 months), despite little change in observed practices.

5.2.1.6 Pronunciation

I now focus on Anne's integration of pronunciation work in her grammar teaching (explicitly teaching the pronunciation of target grammar in a presentation or revision lesson), as this highlights important issues in teacher learning.

Deciding where to do what is very important...if there's a contracted form you might need drills or jazz chants to show the intonation of the grammatical structure. It's important to show a model before learners produce it, but this shouldn't be mechanical...just 'repeat after me', maybe presenting it in context then showing

pronunciation and checking whether...students heard it correctly would be best.
(AI1:303-10)

At the start of the study Anne expressed a belief in the importance of focusing on pronunciation in grammar teaching, yet this was not initially evident in her practice. She seemed aware of this tension and felt ready to learn more from the MA:

I remember my first [university] course learning about phonetics. I felt so insufficient ...it wasn't meaningful for me. I wanted to love it, but I couldn't. Then I went to Britain, I saw teachers using it so efficiently, and I said 'it's really working, but I can't use it'. There was a huge gap. At the time this enthusiasm piled up, I always wanted to fix it. (AP1:666-71)

In the first observed lesson, she consciously 'skipped pronunciation' (AP1:406) during the presentation stage, only focusing on it during error correction (see Table 5.5 below).

Table 5.5: Examples of pronunciation teaching observed in Anne's lessons

Observation	Pronunciation teaching	Planned or incidental	Stage of lesson
1	Correction of 'wear' Correction of 'August'	Incidental Incidental	Controlled practice Further practice
2	Drill pronunciation of 'would' Correction of 'happy'	Planned -target structure Incidental	Controlled practice Controlled practice
3	Drill contracted form 'she'll' Correction of 'she'll'	Planned -target structure Incidental	Presentation/elicitation Presentation/elicitation
4	Correction of 'heart'	Incidental	Controlled practice
5	None	n/a	n/a

Learning more about phonology and pronunciation teaching during the first five months of the MA helped her develop a theoretical understanding of why and how to incorporate it into her grammar teaching (despite not being required to do pronunciation teaching for assessed teaching practice):

I gained awareness of pronunciation [during the MA]. Questioning things was important ...before the course I thought pronunciation was an isolated issue...I knew it's necessary, but why, where, how? I couldn't put it into practice, whereas now when I'm presenting a language point, I know it should come at the beginning...before I'd teach pron when something went wrong in class, but not while teaching a grammar point.
(AI3:201-20)

Although she had previously felt dissatisfied at not being able to integrate pronunciation into her grammar teaching, the MA helped her to overcome this. Indeed, in the second observed lesson she did focus on pronunciation, drilling 'would' as part of the target language structure (2nd conditional):

S: If I had the chance, I would go to England this summer.

A: If I had a chance, OK. Repeat after me. Would

Sts: Would. (AO2:230-4)

Despite not focusing on the contracted form 'I'd', she was trying to incorporate aspects of pronunciation into her teaching. In the third observation three months later she again drilled the target language (future continuous) during the presentation stage, this time focusing on the contracted form 'she'll' (see Table 5.5 above).

Despite her increased desire to incorporate pronunciation into her grammar lessons, overcoming the tension between her beliefs and teaching proved challenging:

A: The MA pron lessons weren't very classroom-like...I haven't seen many examples of pron teaching, but my CELTA tutor's lessons were more classroom-like and you felt like students. I remember my CELTA tutor did a nice intonation lesson. That was good. Seeing them as activities sometimes you can't link it, maybe it should be a whole grammar lesson demo rather than...

SP: ...have you seen any grammar lessons where pronunciation is built into the lesson?

A: Once in London...but not here or on the MA. (AI5:270-7)

This comment at the end of the study suggests she wished she had seen more practical examples of pronunciation teaching in the MA, and this may have made it hard for her to develop a routine.

In the fourth observation, which focused on 'wish clauses', there was no planned focus on pronunciation. She seemed to consciously avoid it as she didn't anticipate any learner problems with pronunciation of the target structure, as she explained afterwards:

I tried to diagnose learner weaknesses about the pronunciation of wish...but when I checked there wasn't anything...so I skipped it this time...maybe having taught this before, I knew they weren't going to have any problems. I checked it with pronunciation books. (AP4:456-71)

Lack of knowledge and lack of a developed routine may have hindered her ability to transfer her beliefs into practice, as was evident in the last observation when she again consciously avoided pronunciation:

I'm not that familiar with the weak forms of relative clauses in spoken language. I knew I needed to do something, but...I didn't know anything about it. I haven't had any particular input on this...I didn't feel confident to go for it. (AP5:597-604)

This shows a lack of knowledge about pronunciation which seems to have played an important role in her confidence, and also suggests that she was not used to analysing grammar points in terms of their phonological features. This lack of confidence suggests

that developing routines and seeing practical examples may be extremely important. I shall return to this issue in 5.3 below.

A few months later, however, she seemed to have gained more confidence:

SP: You said you feel more confident in pron. Where has that confidence come from?

A: Learning more about pronunciation, the phonemic alphabet, and more activities, knowing the importance of building it into the presentation stage of a grammar lesson. All these played a huge role. (AI5:656-9)

This confidence encouraged her to read more, strengthened her belief in integrating pronunciation into her grammar teaching, and encouraged her to try to incorporate more pronunciation work into her grammar presentations:

Before I had some knowledge, but I wouldn't push myself to do it. Now I do, I say 'come on, you can't just skip it...you need to do it'...because it needs to be taught at the very beginning. If we introduce it later...when students get used to using 'I will do it', they can't change it. It's like a fossilised mistake...I know it from myself, that's why. (AI5:280-6)

Trying this out seemed to bring her positive results:

Recently I started using the phonemic chart and teaching contracted forms, it makes a big difference, their awareness changes, they like it, it's more effective. (AI5:252-4)

and seeing the benefits motivated her to want to continue working on this:

Pronunciation is one of my targets to improve...I'm going to work on it this summer.

I've talked to my [MA] tutor about it. I'm looking forward to this. (AI5:298-300)

She seemed to have developed the confidence to try doing more pronunciation work in her grammar lessons.

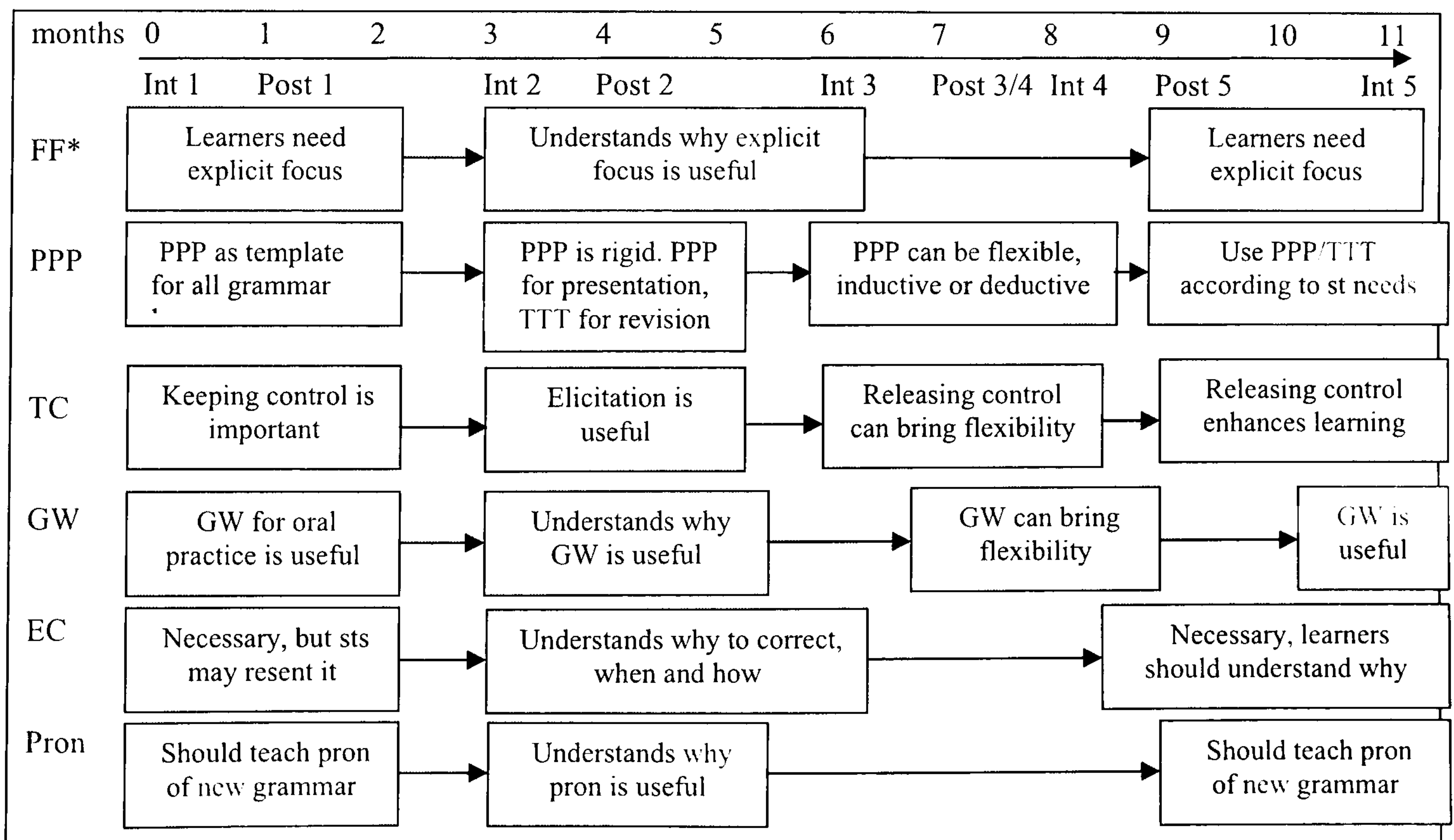
In conclusion, the development of Anne's work regarding the integration of pronunciation into grammar teaching seemed to undergo the following processes:

- Initial dissatisfaction with her perceived inability to incorporate pronunciation into her grammar teaching (0-1 months);
- Developing a theoretical understanding (3-5 months), stimulated by the MA;
- Continued tension between beliefs and practices; lack of knowledge and teacher confidence preventing her from teaching in line with her beliefs (6-9 months);
- Developing confidence to start experimenting in the future (10-11 months).

5.2.1.7 Summary of facets

I now summarise the above developments in Anne's beliefs and practices. Firstly, the data shows the importance of Anne being dissatisfied with her beliefs and

practices as a starting point for her learning. In three of the facets (form focus, PPP, group-work) she began with initial beliefs and practices which had not been questioned and were not explicitly linked in her mind to a theoretical justification, whereas with the remaining three areas (teacher control, error correction, pronunciation) she was already dissatisfied with some aspect of her practices. Secondly, the MA helped her question her initial beliefs and practices (form focus, PPP, group-work) and provided a theoretical underpinning to others (teacher control, error correction, pronunciation). Recognising tensions between her beliefs and practices motivated her to devote time and energy to work on these areas, and seeing practical examples of alternative practice helped guide her development. Thirdly, a crucial role in this development was played by ‘experimenting’ (her term) with new practices and seeing the benefits both to herself, whether greater flexibility while monitoring, or lack of classroom management problems, and in terms of student learning. Fourthly, this development process led to a change in practices regarding teacher control and group-work, greater confidence in terms of error correction, and greater awareness and theoretical understanding in form focus, PPP and pronunciation (see Figure 5.1 and Table 5.6 below). Finally, Anne’s development has clear implications for the way teacher education can help teachers explore their beliefs and practices. I explore this issue further in 5.3 below.



*FF = focus on form, TC = teacher control, GW = group-work, EC = error correction, Pron = pronunciation

Figure 5.1: Summary of developments in Anne’s beliefs

Table 5.6: Overview of Anne's grammar teaching practices

	PPP	Teacher control	Group-work	Error correction	Pronunciation
Obs 1*	Inductive presentation, Gap-fill, class speaking	Tight control	Whole-class oral practice	Little confidence Peer correction	Incidental in CP and FP
Obs 2	Inductive presentation, Gap-fill practice, chain drill, individual writing	More elicitation	No oral practice	More confidence to directly correct Planned to correct	Planned drilling of 'would', and Incidental in CP
Obs 3	Inductive presentation, Gap-fill practice Group oral practice	Less control Deals with unexpected Qs	Group-work for freer oral practice	Thinking-on-feet Peer correction	Planned drilling of 'she'll', Incidental in Presentation
Obs 4	Inductive presentation, Discovery + Gap-fill practice, writing	More elicitation Less control More pair work	Pair-work for CP + writing, no oral practice	More confidence Peer correction	Incidental in CP
Obs 5	Inductive presentation, Sentence transforming, Speaking (next lesson)	More elicitation Quite controlled Some pair-work	Pair-work CP, Group oral practice (next lesson)	Little direct correction	None

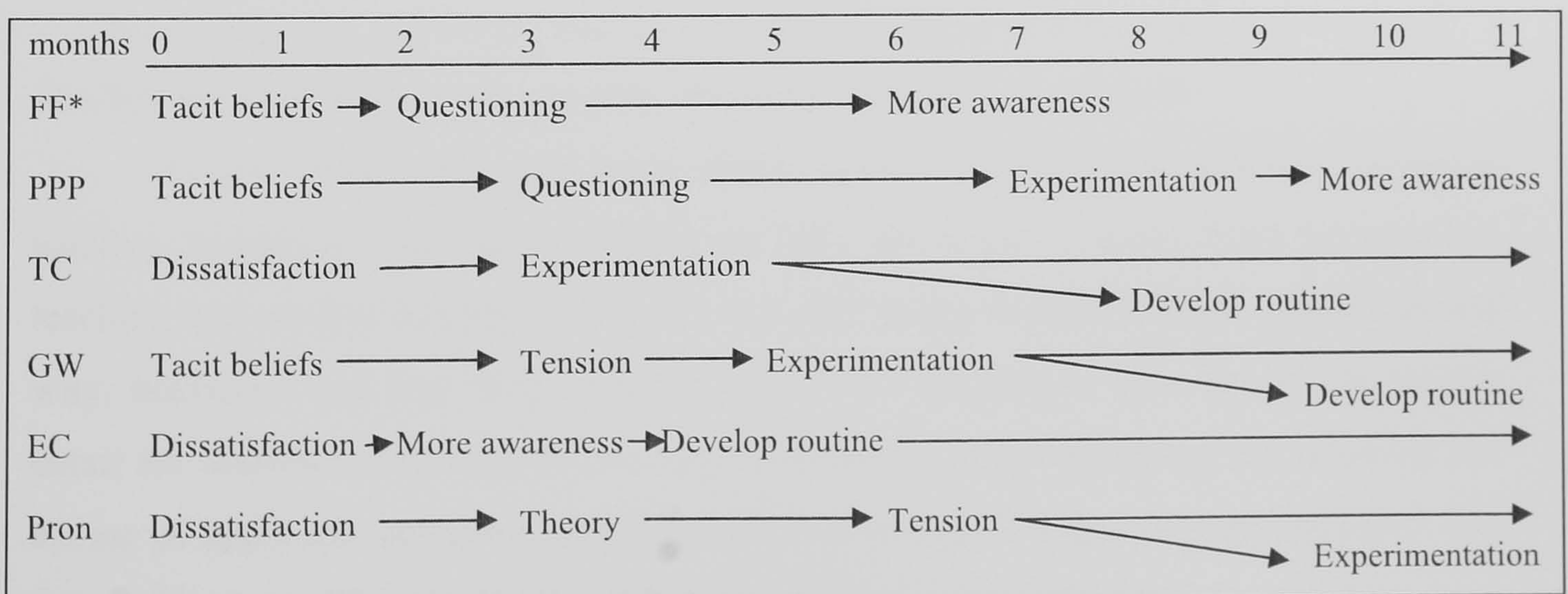
* Obs = observation, Qs = questions, CP = controlled practice, FP = freer practice

5.2.2 Processes and influences

The previous section highlighted six specific features of Anne's grammar teaching. However, it is likely that developments in specific aspects of teaching do not occur independently from each other and that they are part of an overall process. In the following section, therefore, I outline key processes and influences related to these developments which the data revealed.

5.2.2.1 Common processes in these developments

I have already identified separate processes for each facet which were salient at different times during the study, yet common processes seemed to transcend these individual processes, as I summarise in Figure 5.2 below. I now explore these processes collectively in greater depth in order to map out more general stages of development.



*FF = focus on form, TC = teacher control, GW = group-work, EC = error correction, Pron = pronunciation

Figure 5.2: Summary of processes in the development of Anne's beliefs and practices

Initially Anne felt a lack of confidence, was undecided about what and how to teach, and felt her previous grammar teaching routines would not work in her teaching context. This caused her to teach in ways that resembled her early teaching experiences, and this dissatisfied her: ‘they’ll take the test, I feel responsibility to learners... otherwise my lessons would be more fun, but I feel this concern...I don’t enjoy that’ (A11:384-7). It also meant using teaching materials she had been given ‘without adapting them...just doing them mechanically’ (A14:313-4), thus causing her to compromise her beliefs at times, as she reflected later: ‘it’s safer to do what’s been given to you by others, even if you don’t personally agree’ (A14:578-9). One strategy she used to deal with these tensions was to be more controlling and deductive than she would have liked (see 5.2.1.3 above).

Her grammar teaching experience had not provided her with a developed routine for much of her grammar teaching, so she needed to devote more time than was always possible to plan lessons as she wished: ‘we could have more time to think and share ideas, but there’s no time, we’re just rushing from one place to another’ (A14:628-9). Similarly she felt that she didn’t ‘have enough thinking time to link grammar topics with each other’ (A14:307-9).

In order to overcome this dilemma she went through a period of exploration, trying to develop the confidence to overcome her perceived contextual constraints, and adapt her teaching accordingly. There were still times when lack of an established routine prevented her from teaching as she would have liked, as was apparent in her fourth observed lesson:

it’d be so difficult and time-consuming for me to find another theme or context...I’d need more time...and I don’t have enough materials, so that’s a constraint. (AP4:565-72)

She felt she needed more time to plan lessons according to her beliefs.

As she learnt and read more about student learning and different grammar teaching techniques and approaches on the MA, she began to make links between her teaching and student learning: ‘before I was just doing things by heart, now I can see why, because I can feel their...needs’ (A15:56-8). Having to plan lessons in greater detail for assessed teaching practice and write lesson plans justifying her rationale for choice of approach, activities and materials (see section 2.2 above) also increased this link and improved her awareness of different options while planning:

Reflection on my practice helped me a lot...having to prepare observed lessons in such a staged way, because it was such a meticulous way of thinking...helped me a lot. (AI4:747-50)

Knowing why she was doing what she was doing, rather than teaching according to her developed routines, also gave her the confidence that she was meeting student needs. This was particularly evident in the development of her beliefs and practices concerning explicit form-focus, PPP and error correction. Greater confidence helped her focus more on students than her own weaknesses: 'I analyse student needs, not my lesson or myself first, that's the main difference...I know which materials and lesson shapes give me what, so that's very important' (AI4:404-6). This helped her to release control more, and include more elicitation, discovery learning and group-work.

This period of exploration seemed to help her develop new routines for her still relatively new context, and greater awareness of what would be 'confusing for students':

SP: Does this production have to be in the same lesson?

A: Not really, there are some language points that need more time, some maybe less.

It's anticipating...how much difficulty they'll have...knowing about students and their processing skills...you need to decide how long it'll take. Wish clauses, for example, compared to others...takes longer, so I wouldn't do the production in the same lesson. It depends on the language point really. (AP4:203-12)

An important learning point from this exploration and experimentation was that she could extend her grammar lessons beyond one 50-minute lesson (see 5.2.1.2). Another important aspect of developing new routines was being able to redo lessons she had taught before, considering the approach, stages, materials and activities in greater detail and in a more principled manner, as this example from the third observed lesson shows:

SP: You mentioned teaching future continuous before.

A: Yes. It was the same context, but...elicitation was much longer than before, and there was a writing section in my first lesson because as I didn't elicit much, I had more time for student production. This time I understood the difference between WH- and yes/no questions...contracted forms, pronunciation and the speaking activity were new. I wasn't concerned whether they'd get everything in 50 minutes or not, so I was more flexible and less stressed because it'd go into the next lesson. (AP3:132-44)

Finally, she now used more elicitation, student questions, inductive teaching, group-work and less control in her grammar teaching.

In conclusion, as Anne's confidence grew and she developed her grammar teaching routines, she could better adapt her teaching in line with her beliefs about student learning despite her perceived contextual constraints. By the end of the study her planning and teaching of grammar had generally developed in the following ways: greater awareness of student needs and difficulties in terms of grammar; greater awareness of different grammar teaching options and their rationales; more detailed thinking about grammar lessons, stages and activities; less concern with own 'face' and more confidence to teach in line with own beliefs. Overall, Anne seemed to undergo three main developmental, and roughly chronological, phases which were influenced by the MA; (1) a period of dissatisfaction with aspects of her practices and becoming aware of her beliefs and practices (0-3 months); (2) a period of questioning her beliefs, and exploring and experimenting with aspects of her practices (4-7 months); (3) a period of developing new routines (8-11 months). I revisit these processes in Chapter 8 below.

Having looked at the development of Anne's grammar teaching beliefs and practices specifically in relation to six salient facets of grammar teaching, and having considered some common processes involved, I now look at ways in which the MA contributed to these developments.

5.2.2.2 Contribution of MA to these developments

The MA seems to have contributed to the developments in Anne's beliefs and practices in a number of ways. The main impacts of the MA evident in the data relate to her beliefs, confidence and awareness, lesson planning and teaching.

Strengthening and deepening of beliefs

The study showed that many of Anne's existing beliefs were confirmed, deepened and strengthened, while others were restructured. She was initially unaware of many of them, had not questioned them critically, and was unsure how they related to theory. The MA seems to have helped her make them explicit, begin questioning them, and realise certain tensions she was previously unaware of:

I started to see what I had in my mind. The MA created circumstances to question more, and supporting these questions through readings and input helped reshape my beliefs, and feel more confident about those beliefs and teaching. (A13:472-5)

The first five months, during which she took MA courses on language learning theories and grammar teaching, provided a framework for exploring her beliefs and linking them with her practice. She reflected six months into the study that

written assignments helped me become clearer about grammar teaching...what I'm thinking, believing, and why...and helped me think more deeply about my beliefs and how they relate to language learning theory. (AI3:240-8)

Most importantly, the MA helped provide her with a theoretical justification for her beliefs, as she noted near the end of the study:

The input is so linked with the practical input...it's logically sequenced...so it really made my learning more meaningful. I could relate things and understand why I believed such things. Before I'd say, 'form-focus is important', but I really didn't know why. (AI5:364-8)

Greater confidence and awareness

This theoretical justification increased her confidence in three ways. Firstly, when planning lessons she had a better grasp of where to start, how to choose a lesson shape, and how to structure stages of the lesson and activities:

Now I'm very clear about my beliefs, before planning a lesson I can see learners' needs better and find answers to my classroom management questions...so I feel much more confident...when planning and in class...as I can see why I should pre-plan in a particular way. I have my justifications now because of the readings and all we did in the MA. (AI3:48-61)

Secondly, she was better able to respond to students, think on her feet, and deal with unexpected questions. Thirdly, she developed the confidence to 'experiment' with different aspects of her grammar teaching and take more risks, as I showed in 5.2.2 above:

MA training helps obviously, while doing written assignments the 'learner problems' [the assignments required teachers to identify learners' difficulties with the grammar point being taught, see section 2.2 above] section raised my awareness quite a lot...as time passed I could analyse learner needs better. (AP4:221-3)

She also improved her critical awareness of her beliefs, her teaching and the reasons for certain classroom behaviours, developed a better understanding of student needs and problems, and increased her depth of understanding of ELT terminology.

More detailed and principled lesson planning

Another way the MA supported her development was 'helping [her] planning become more principled and meaningful' (AI3:71); she was more aware of available options, planned in greater detail, and had a better grasp of the principles behind her decisions. She also became more able to link her planning, teaching and students'

learning, identify students' needs and predict problems that might arise during the lesson:

Getting prepared for the TP [teaching practice] was very useful...planning in detail, thinking of the theoretical basis and practical issues which can arise in class, anticipating problems and what can be done in a certain time, putting all these in a perfect lesson shape...and reasoning on all these improved me a lot, so it was very useful. (AI3:148-53)

Assessed teaching practice required her to plan in greater detail than normal, justify choices in terms of both theory and learner needs (the assignment accompanying the lesson plan requires teachers to outline their rationale for the lesson and specific activities and materials with reference to learner needs, see section 2.2 above), and critically question her teaching:

I'm more like an inspector when planning, I question things more...I can predict potential problems which can come up...and you have different back-up plans...it's very good to feel confident in class...it makes you feel good about your teaching. (AI3:191-7)

Tutor guidance, support and feedback helped raise awareness and stimulate questions. Written assignments helped her 'link theoretical input to practice...notice gaps in [her] knowledge and understanding...and raise questions which [she] needed answers to' (AI3:115-7).

More principled teaching

The MA did not lead to major changes in her grammar teaching, but after six months she felt it to be more principled and in line with her beliefs: 'I'm more aware of things going on in my class and student needs, and now I know if a need arises...I have this confidence that I can cater for it' (AI4:372-5). This increased awareness and confidence meant she could analyse classroom events better and react accordingly, and this helped her explore tensions between her previous 'teaching habits' and beliefs, which had been strengthened early in the study. She found the assessed teaching practice (often referred to as a TP cycle consisting of a pre-observation meeting with the course tutor, the observation, and post-observation feedback meeting again with the tutor) useful to explore and develop her teaching:

The TP cycles were a complete link between theory and practice...I learnt particular points about lesson preparation, classroom management...thinking in a more detailed way...the observation cycle, discussing issues was good to reflect on...getting answers

to my questions and reacting to them quickly makes learning more effective. The MA assignments...linked to the...TP cycle, seeing grammar teaching theory, and being able to practise this in detail, and having this formality in the assignment...detailed research about the language point, then linking this theoretical input to teaching was good. (AI4:471-510)

Demo-lessons, activities, and peer-observations of experienced colleagues enabled her to see real-life examples of alternative practice: ‘people can’t see themselves objectively unless they see somebody else teaching’ (AI2:491-2). Observing the impact on teachers and learners helped give her confidence to experiment (especially with elicitation, error correction, group-work, see 5.2.2 above). This confidence enabled her to try out new ideas in her own class.

In conclusion, Anne felt the MA influenced the development of her grammar teaching beliefs and practices in terms of strengthening and deepening her beliefs, increased confidence and awareness, more principled planning and in-depth thinking, and more principled teaching in line with beliefs. Key aspects of the MA which seemed to contribute to these development are:

- Explicitly focusing on teacher beliefs;
- Encouraging critical engagement with input, beliefs and teaching;
- Writing assignments and lesson plans for assessed teaching practice; planning in detail, justifying choices in terms of theory and learner needs;
- Seeing examples of alternative practice, and its effect on the teacher and learners;
- Encouraging experimentation, and seeing how this works for herself and learners.

However, being involved in this research also seems to have contributed to the above developments, as she herself remarked at the end of the study:

SP: What role if any has the MA played in these changes?

A: Lesson planning, questioning student communication and such things were quite useful and cognitive aspects of learning really made more sense in the class. And with my work with you [for this study], I could really get the things I needed to improve my expertise as a teacher, and fill in my missing gaps...more so than the MA, I’d say. (AI5:485-93)

Specifically, discussing issues with me on a regular basis seemed to help raise her awareness of aspects of her practices, such as her greater use of elicitation which I referred to in section 5.2.1.3 above (see quote AP2:208-10). I return to this important final point in the following section.

5.3 Summary of key issues

In this section I review key issues which emerged from the analysis of the development of Anne's beliefs and practices outlined in this chapter.

- *Questioning existing beliefs and practices.* A crucial prerequisite for Anne's learning seemed to be a critical questioning of her existing beliefs and teaching routines. At the start of the study these were mostly unconscious and had been accepted uncritically during her initial teacher education, although she was already dissatisfied with some aspects of her practices as they conflicted with her own learning experiences and preferences. Exposure to learning theories and new teaching ideas early in the MA enabled her to question her unconscious beliefs and routines, and gave them a theoretical underpinning. Input, reflections, readings and discussions helped give her greater confidence in her beliefs and practices, and stimulated dilemmas in her mind which she herself wanted to explore and overcome.
- *Practical examples of alternative practice.* Another important influence on her learning was observing colleagues teach differently to her. This enabled her to see, for example, that releasing control during grammar presentations and using group-work for oral practice could improve student learning without causing classroom management problems, something which had hitherto prevented her experimenting. She frequently mentioned needing to see practical examples of alternative practice, and lamented the lack of practical demos on the MA. Demo-lessons during her initial teacher education had helped aspects of practice being incorporated into her initial grammar teaching routines.
- *Confidence to take risks and experiment.* Routines provided security early in her career, and were reinforced when deemed to 'be working', so she found it difficult to take risks before developing sufficient confidence. Her confidence was enhanced by deeper understanding of the theory underpinning alternative practices, and by seeing practical examples, especially where she saw students benefitting without the teacher suffering in any way. Having developed the confidence to take risks, she could 'experiment' with aspects of her grammar teaching, and see the benefits in terms of student learning and lack of the classroom management problems she feared. Over time each small step encouraged her to experiment further, and to see that releasing control, eliciting more, getting students to analyse grammar, using group-work, and experimenting with aspects of PPP all gave her greater flexibility during planning

and in class. Paradoxically this seemed to give her a greater sense of control over her teaching.

- *Catalysts for learning.* The MA seems to have helped Anne question her beliefs and teaching, given her a theoretical basis upon which to evaluate both, and provided a framework for experimenting and developing alternative teaching routines. Discussions with tutors of alternative practices seem to have contributed to her learning, although she felt she would have benefitted from more opportunity to observe other teachers and to experience more demos. Having to plan lessons in detail for assessed teaching practice and write detailed lesson plans and assignments also helped her explore her ideas and link theory and practice. The process of participating in this study, however, also helped facilitate the development of her beliefs and teaching. Inevitably, discussing issues with me on a regular basis caused these to develop in ways they might not have done otherwise. Furthermore, her own desire to learn and improve herself may have also played a crucial role in this development, as she herself mentioned on numerous occasions.

6. DAPHNE

In this chapter I present the findings from the study of the data from the second teacher, Daphne. Firstly, I provide a brief profile of her with background information relevant to the study. Secondly, I give a detailed account of developments in her grammar teaching beliefs and practices by looking at six salient facets of her grammar teaching, and by highlighting processes and influences regarding these developments. Finally, I summarise the key issues which emerge from this case.

6.1 Profile

In this section I present background information about Daphne which I obtained from interviews during the study.

Language learning experience

As a native-speaker of English, Daphne was taught German at secondary school using a mixture of grammar-based and communicative approaches, both of which she found useful:

I enjoyed the grammar, knowing what a verb was, etc, but I remember the communicative stuff more. I remember in German how to do things more than the grammar. (D11:53-5)

See Table 6.1 below for the codes used in quotations. Later she experienced trying to learn languages while working abroad:

I felt as if I was equipped to analyse grammar, I can do it on my own now. I hate having grammar lessons, as I can do it myself. I want to learn all the things that I can't do. (D11:68-9)

Here she feels that she could learn grammar on her own and that her language lessons should be more communicative.

Teacher education background

Her initial teacher education was provided by the CELTA course she took before starting teaching, where she seemed to learn how to read up on and analyse grammar:

It was a case of, 'here's a grammar point, go away look at it 'cos tomorrow you're going to do your TP lesson on it'. I think my grammar TPs were 3rd conditional and infinitives of purpose. Until then I didn't even realise we had more than one conditional in English. So, I liked that approach, 'it's your responsibility, if you don't know it then go and find out'. I didn't know any English grammar until I started teaching. (D11:21-7)

An important implication is that for her knowing grammar seems to be a prerequisite for teaching it. She also seemed to remember ‘a strong emphasis on discovery learning in CELTA...although the course didn’t have explicit noticing or awareness-raising of grammar’ (DI3:37-41).

Grammar teaching biography

Before the study, she worked for 6 years in Turkey and Europe (the exact country is concealed to enhance anonymity). Her initial grammar teaching, in a private language school in Turkey, consisted mainly of

having a context, pulling out the target language, analysing it, checking the meaning and form...then controlled and freer practice...I started using the discovery worksheets [see Appendix 6.7 for an example] I’d used on CELTA...but I learnt very quickly that I needed to extend my repertoire...as they didn’t work...I found the teaching context challenging, learners put a lot of pressure on you...and made you feel bad if you didn’t know the grammar. (DI3:44-71)

In Europe, she had ‘a variety of teaching situations’ (DI3:132), so she developed a more flexible approach to her grammar teaching:

If I had a class that didn’t like grammar, I’d teach in a more communicative way and focus more on error correction, ‘you’re making this mistake when you speak, so here’s another way to say it’, without getting them bogged down in rules. (DI3:114-7)

Here she developed a routine of ‘materials-less lessons’ and flexibility: ‘being caught out many times in class means I’m able to think on my feet now with grammar...I’m comfortable with that...I can give answers students seem satisfied with’ (DI2:233-42).

At the start of the study, she had already been teaching in the institution for seven months, and had had time to get used to the new context.

6.2 Developments in Daphne’s beliefs and classroom practice

I now provide an account of Daphne’s grammar teaching beliefs and practices as they emerged during the study by first considering six salient facets of her grammar teaching, then outlining key processes and influences on these developments. In order to help readers follow the chronology of events, Table 6.1 below summarises the various data sources used. For each extract of data quoted in this chapter the relevant line numbers are given using the codes below.

Table 6.1: Dates of Daphne's observations and interviews

	Code	Date	Months into the study
Interview 1	DI1	23.11.05	0
Interview 2	DI2	03.07.06	8
Observation 1	DO1	28.09.06	10
Post-observation 1	DP1	02.10.06	
Observation 2	DO2	05.12.06	13
Post-observation 2	DP2	12.12.06	
Interview 3	DI3	02.05.07	17
Observation 3	DO3	22.05.07	18
Post-observation 3	DP3	30.05.07	
Interview 4	DI4	03.07.07	20

Three important issues impacted on Daphne's teaching during the study: (1) she taught mostly higher levels (upper-intermediate) throughout the study; (2) from the second year of the study (September 2006 onwards) she only taught five hours per week (due to her extra duties); (3) she was away from work for health reasons, and hence not teaching, for two months during the second year of the study (February-April 2007).

6.2.1 Salient facets of grammar teaching

In this section I look at specific developments in Daphne's beliefs and practices by examining six aspects of her grammar teaching which were salient in the data: explicit focus-on-form, presenting grammar, grammar for communication, discovering and analysing grammar, controlled practice, and grammatical terminology. In each case I refer to a number of defining features of her beliefs and practices. These developments took place within the context of the MA, and were not, therefore, independent of any support or guidance, so Table 6.2 below summarises key stages of the MA.

Table 6.2: Key events in the MA

MA	Study		
Linguistics course, input/assignment*	Nov-Dec 05	Interview 1	Nov 05
Grammar teaching input/assignment*, unassessed/assessed teaching practice, peer observations, language analysis	Dec 05-Feb 06		
Skills (reading/listening) input/assignment, (un)assessed teaching practice, peer observations, language analysis	Mar-June 06		
Curriculum course, input/assignment	July 06	Interview 2	July 06
Vocabulary teaching input/assignment, unassessed/assessed teaching practice, peer observations, language analysis	Sept-Nov 06	Observation 1	Sept 06
Skills (speaking/writing) teaching input/assignment, assessed teaching practice, peer observations, language analysis	Dec 06-Jan 07	Observation 2	Dec 06
Language analysis, experimental practice assignment, peer observations	Feb-May 07	Interview 3	May 07
		Observation 3	May 07
Testing course, input/assignment	July 07	Interview 4	July 07

*see Chapter 2 and Appendix 2.1 for further details

6.2.1.1 Explicit focus on form

The first salient feature of Daphne's grammar teaching is explicit focus on form (to her this meant explicitly teaching grammar as opposed to *not* focusing on form). Before the MA she expressed a belief in the value of explicit grammar teaching, and seemed to have developed a routine for this:

I've always seen myself as a grammar teacher...I don't think learners learn grammar just from exposure, they need to focus on form...they learn to say things in certain situations but are unable to manipulate it in other situations...without studying grammar you're limited in what you can do with language...most learners need knowledge of grammar rules. (DI1:94-107)

This meant teaching grammar explicitly in separate lessons: 'I'd say in every lesson there should still be attention to form or forms...grammar should be presented in context wherever possible' (DI1:130-61). This seems to have been influenced by her own language learning as she 'quite enjoyed learning the grammar' (DI1:52).

During the first three months of the MA she received input about grammar teaching and learning (see Table 6.2 above) and prepared assessed grammar lessons and assignments (see Chapter 2, section 2.2 above for more specific details). After eight months she seemed to be questioning the value of explicit grammar teaching:

I think if there's a focus on form, really raising awareness and directing attention to it, it gives them the tools to study outside class. I think that's important...whether it's overt focus on form or not, I don't know if that's important. (DI2:23-6)

Although she still focused on form - 'I try to raise awareness of form by asking concept questions and encouraging them to notice' (DI2:33-4) - she lamented only teaching higher levels: 'I do miss teaching lower levels where grammar is more meaty, you can get your teeth into something and really go for it' (DI2:138-9). If she were 'teaching lower levels [she]'d still do presentations...and try to get them in pairs as soon as possible' (DP2:498-9).

By the end of the study she still believed in explicit form focus, but she seemed to have developed a greater understanding of the complexities involved:

Before I said there's a need to focus on form...but now I'm not so sure...I don't know if I'm less resolved about it, but now I understand it's a far more complex thing...I'm sort of now less sure, that's possibly the outcome of my understanding being more complex. (DI4:16-22)

This complexity of understanding can be seen in two ways: firstly she now felt that 'grammar needs to be recycled from time to time, having done it once is not enough'

(DP3:345-7); secondly she also saw the value of implicitly approaching grammar, as she commented after the third observed lesson when learners revised and practised passive structures: 'I didn't dwell on the mechanics of the form. I assumed they'd know it, so I didn't make it explicit' (DP3:64-5). Nevertheless, she was still teaching only higher levels and she felt this was an influence on her views about the value of separate grammar lessons: 'You don't have to present grammar rules one at a time, but at elementary I'd still build up their knowledge bit by bit' (DI4:52-3).

In terms of her practices, Daphne initially lacked confidence, was undecided about what and how to teach, and felt her previous grammar teaching routines would not work in her new context. This caused her to teach in ways that dissatisfied her, as she reflected later in the study:

I think probably the reason I struggled when I first came here was that I was trying to use my previous style and expecting it to work. It took me a while to come to terms with this...I was trying to teach grammar in the same way but it wasn't working, so I had to find new ways. (DI3:171-5)

Nevertheless, the beginnings of her subsequent experimentation were already evident in our discussion eight months into the study:

I don't remember any grammar lessons this semester, but I did have nice feedback from students when I taught 3rd conditional, I felt that was more like I used to teach early in my career. (DI2:199-204)

During the following five months greater confidence enabled her to start using aspects of her previous routines:

Before in my previous job my grammar teaching was a kind of repertoire of 'oh, conditionals, I'll use this scenario', whereas I found here with different students that repertoire doesn't always work, and I have to think of other contexts...it's just nice sometimes to use things that I used to use a lot. I'll just slip them in. (DP2:241-6)

Although she found it hard to use routines she had developed in her previous work contexts, she began to use aspects of these routines. By the end of the study she felt more confident in her grammar teaching: 'I'm more relaxed in class now, if something doesn't go the way I'd anticipated, I'll try something else or maybe just ditch it' (DI3:191-2). She now made occasional use of aspects of her previous routines:

I still have this tool-box or repertoire of lessons in the back of my head, but I don't wheel them out very often. I know they're there if I want them...I might pick half a lesson or something like that. I feel confident...but I don't wheel them out very often. (DI3:260-77)

Her teaching reflected her belief in explicit form-focused instruction in all observed lessons (see Table 6.3 below). Each lesson followed a similar format of grammar presentation (P), followed by controlled practice (CP), and less controlled/freer practice (LCP/FP) through speaking or writing. She frequently used grammatical terminology to talk about the target language (see examples in Appendix 6.1), and corrected grammatical errors as they arose (see Appendix 6.2). In each observed lesson all her activities were linked to a main theme.

Table 6.3: Overview of Daphne's observations

	Level	Grammar	Theme	Stages
Obs1	Upp-Int	Past simple/continuous	Biography of famous people	P-CP-LCP-(FP next lesson)*
Obs2	Upp-Int	Conditionals	University education	P-CP-P-LCP
Obs3	Upp-Int	Passives	Origin of names	P-CP-FP

*these were Daphne's terms to describe the various stages and activities used in her lessons

In conclusion, the development of Daphne's explicit focus on form seemed to go through the following processes:

- Being made aware of her existing beliefs and practices (0-1 months);
- Questioning these beliefs and practices (8-10 months);
- Exploring elements of previous routines and developing teacher confidence (10-13 months);
- Developing a greater awareness of complexities (18-20 months).

I indicate (in brackets) the approximate time-frame in terms of the study. As I mentioned in Chapter 5, these processes do not imply a linear transition from stage to stage, but represent processes which seemed salient at particular times during the study. I return to these processes more holistically in section 6.2.2 below. The following five sections highlight developments in her beliefs and practices in relation to specific aspects of her explicit grammar teaching.

6.2.1.2 Presenting grammar

The first of these five specific areas is presenting grammar. All three lessons I observed contained a grammar presentation of some sort (see Table 6.3 above). The following account highlights developments in Daphne's beliefs and practices in relation to her use of grammar presentation.

Here I haven't found many grammar presentations. Most grammar things I've done here have been revision...so I haven't had much chance to exploit different grammar

presentations...I don't spend so much time leading in and creating interest, all those nice things. (DI1:277-83)

At the start of the MA she had been in her new teaching post for just over six months and had mainly taught higher levels. This had, she felt, affected her grammar teaching, and was something she was clearly dissatisfied with:

I don't exploit grammar as much as I used to. Before I used to view grammar as 'this is a tool, we use 2nd conditional to talk about hypothetical things, we use it in this situation'. Now, unfortunately, it's more traditional grammar teaching, 'this is the form, this is how we use it, learn it because there's going to be a test'. It's a real shame that. (DI1:313-7)

There seemed to be a distinct tension between her ideal way of presenting grammar, which was inductive and meaning-focused, and the reality of her current practices, which tended to be deductive and form-focused:

For me, the ideal scenario would be doing a communicative activity, having a conversation or role play, then being able to pull out the language from that...and doing discovery. That would be my ideal, but I've found it doesn't always work like that here. (DI1:270-3)

So, it seemed that at the start of the MA both her new teaching context and the level she was teaching caused her to be dissatisfied with her grammar teaching.

During the next three months of the MA she received input about grammar teaching (see Table 6.2 above), in particular PPP, TTT (test-teach-test) and TBL (task-based learning). After eight months she seemed to be still trying to come to terms with the tension in her mind between her actual teaching and her ideal:

I do miss teaching lower levels...I'd probably spend more time at the board presenting, a real proper presentation lesson...I'd feel more inclined to present grammar through a context because they're the basic building blocks you need to manipulate all the functions and skills. (DI2:138-42)

She still saw grammar as playing a central role in language learning. Nevertheless she seemed to have questioned her approach and adapted it for the grammar teaching she was doing at higher levels, which she felt to be 'mostly remedial':

With the level I'm teaching at the moment grammar isn't usually the starting point for the lesson, but something I work towards depending how the lesson goes, so whenever there's a chance and it comes up naturally in a reading or a listening, 'Oh it's come up now, this is a good time to bring it up'...but if I were teaching a lower level, then the

grammar would be the starting point...I'd try to create a context where it is used and build the lesson around that. (DI2:337-42)

Her ideal view of presenting grammar in context at lower levels contrasts with the form-based approach she mentioned using at higher levels at the start of the MA. Another important change was that she felt more confident in her grammar teaching and had become more flexible in her approach:

I don't often plan to focus on something, I prefer to see what comes up. I have the confidence to deal with whatever comes up...I prefer just pulling out the language in some way through a discussion and modelling it, 'how did I describe that, what word did I use?' I don't really have a set way to be honest, it really depends how I feel. (DI2:163-89)

She also started focusing incidentally on form:

One student had done a presentation about Ancient Egypt, I asked, 'how were the Pyramids built, we don't know, etc.' I said, 'let's imagine, if they didn't have the tools, what could they have done?' I just managed to pull conditionals out of that. It was just a fluke. (DI2:208-12)

This does not seem to have been conscious or systematic experimentation, but she seemed to be gradually trying out different aspects of her previous routines to see if they would work.

Ten months into the study she had begun using aspects of grammar lessons she had done previously, which she felt she could now 'wheel out from time to time' (DP1:208). This was evident in the first lesson I observed (see Appendix 6.3 for the full extract):

(Pictures on board of teacher, TV, etc.)

D: Last night, this is me. We have 2 actions. What do we call this when the electricity...

S1: Electricity is go out, go away.

D: Who can make this sentence?

S2: Last night while I was watching TV, the electricity went out. (D writes sentence)

D: Or you can say there was a power cut. (DO1:60-72)

She explained her rationale in our discussion afterwards:

I automatically went into presentation stage, I always do that if I can...I was focusing more on the writing they'd be doing later. I wanted to pull out some good structures from what they were using and fit it into the context of biographies, so although it wasn't a presentation, I did want it to be very clear...I wanted to show them, or remind them let's say, that when we're doing writing, it's quite natural to switch and slide

between the different tenses, and the decision to do so depends on the meaning.
(DP1:55-90)

However, in the second observation three months later she used an inductive presentation (see Appendix 6.4), using the following four conditional sentences which she had dictated, then put on the board and asked students to discuss in groups:

1. If you took the university entrance exam again, would you get better or worse points?
2. If you had got the best points in Turkey, would you have made different choices?
3. If a student gets good points, will he definitely go to his preferred university?
4. If you hadn't taken the university exam, where would you be now? (DO2:21-6)

Her rationale for this was that 'if they start off thinking about the grammar, they won't think about the actual meanings of the questions, so I wanted them to talk about the questions personally' (DP2:82-4). An incident towards the end of this lesson, as she was trying to clarify the concept of mixed conditionals from the fourth question (see extract above), also nicely illustrates her confidence in 'thinking-on-her-feet':

D: When I came in this morning, you asked me 'how are you?' What did I tell you?

Sts: Sore throat.

D: Sore throat, not very well. I think the reason was because I waited for the bus in the cold weather last night. Now I feel ill. It was very cold. Can you make a sentence? If Daphne...

S1: If Daphne hadn't wait for bus last night, she wouldn't feel ill today. (DO2:289-301)

By the end of the study, Daphne seemed to have developed a framework for teaching grammar at higher levels which distinguished between initial presentation and revision or remedial work:

Looking at their writings, I'm able to assess whether they need presentation or remedial or practice, consolidation...if something is a general problem, I allow time for that in the course, I decide whether it'll be a presentation lesson or consolidation. (DI3:519-25)

This meant that she would 'tend to be more structured in planning initial presentation lessons than revision lessons' (DI4:113-4). In terms of actual grammar presentations, she highlighted two possible approaches she might use:

I might start off with a text, where the language is there already...draw it out, focus on it, highlight it in some way, do a bit of practice and get students to use it...an alternative is have students do something with the language, maybe in the previous lesson...then draw out some sentences...again focusing, maybe some practice, and get them to produce in some way...I certainly do move between the two [approaches]...depending on my aims. (DP3:272-94)

Although she didn't 'have a hard-and-fast-rule' (DI4:184) in her lessons, she saw benefits to both of the above-mentioned approaches, as she stated in the final interview of the study:

The benefit of doing communicative tasks first is you're engaging the learner, raising their interest before you introduce the grammar point, but on the other hand, if you present the grammar point first they might see the point of doing the activity more. (DI4:185-7)

Thus, for her presentation of grammar seemed to mean creating a context through which to focus explicitly on grammatical form and meaning either deductively or inductively.

Nevertheless, she still distinguished in her mind between how she taught grammar at higher levels and how she would now, or possibly how she used to, teach at lower levels:

Teaching at high levels it's rare for me to present new grammatical structures...at low-levels I'd factor more time for presentations, before looking at their writing...I'd have more actual grammar lessons. (DI4:123-8)

It is, of course, hard to speculate how she would actually have taught grammar at lower levels, and whether her practices would have reflected her beliefs.

In conclusion, the development of Daphne's beliefs and practices concerning presenting grammar seemed to highlight the following processes:

- Dissatisfaction with aspects of her practices (0-1 months);
- Awareness of tension between own beliefs and practices (0-1 months);
- Exploring elements of previous routines and developing teacher confidence (8-13 months);
- Establishing new routines (17-20 months).

Again these were processes which appeared salient at specific times during the study and do not imply a smooth linear transition.

6.2.1.3 Grammar for communication

Another important feature of Daphne's work which emerged from the data is her use of grammar for communication. There was a consistent link between communication and grammar in her beliefs and practices throughout the study.

For me the role of the language teacher is to provide as many different opportunities as possible to expose learners to language, to give feedback on their progress, and

basically guide them in the right direction...grammar is more a tool than an end in itself.
(DI1:246-9)

At the start of the MA, Daphne expressed a strong belief in communicative teaching. She justified this in terms of language learning theory - 'I think some people can learn the grammar, but what use is it if they're not using the language?' (DI1:226-7) - but it was also influenced by her own language learning experiences: 'in terms of success or what I got out of it, the communicative stuff was what I remember more' (DI1:53-4). She felt her teaching reflected this:

I try to approach grammar communicatively, 'today we're going to communicate feelings, order something, buy something, complain', and then look at the grammar later. (DI1:82-4)

The MA also emphasised the importance of communication in grammar teaching. She still felt the same at the end of the study. When I asked her how her beliefs about grammar teaching related to her belief in the importance of communication, she replied:

They definitely link...I used to think [before the MA] that you can't speak without knowing grammar, but now I realise that's not actually the case...I feel that grammar is used to enable students to speak, and that's the link for me. (DI3:420-6)

In each of the observed lessons during the study Daphne consistently linked her grammar teaching to the concept of communication (see Table 6.3 above). In the first lesson she used the concept of biographies 'as a way into grammar':

Today we're going to write a biography of a famous dead person...we're talking about a dead person's life. So what kind of language is very important? (DO1:13-23)

Her aim was 'to do a whole past tenses review, and at the same time link it in with how to write about people's lives' (DP1:382-3). She felt this was

fairly typical of my approach to grammar at this level, I just think of the natural way it's used, so the grammar's coming from the theme, more than the other way around.
(DP1:418-21)

The second lesson (see Appendix 6.5), three months later, similarly combined grammar with communication:

The main class teacher [who has the main responsibility for a class which is taught by two or more teachers] said, 'could you do conditionals?'...so, I thought 'how can I tie all this in nicely?' So I just used the theme from the listening which was education, and thought, 'university entrance exams are something students always talk about, there's a lot of mileage in terms of...things that have happened or might happen in the future'. so I just basically wanted to see what language I can pull out from them. (DP2:21-31)

The concept of communication seemed to play a central role in her planning process. In this case she saw this as ‘a way to get at the grammar’:

Obviously I was interested in what they were saying, but having the question on the board [conditional sentences about the university entrance exam, see previous section], I hoped it’d guide them to use the forms when they were giving the answers. (DP2:124-7)

Similarly in the third lesson, five months later (see Appendix 6.6):

My starting point was, I had the concept of names...and I thought, ‘that’d be fun, but not as interesting as comparing it all around the world’. I know there are really interesting naming traditions, so I looked on the internet, pulled out information I thought was interesting and tried to also add a personal element, so when they talked about Ethiopian women, I could then say, ‘well, if I were Ethiopian this would be my name’, kind of thing. (DP3:465-72)

Another important aspect of her grammar teaching was a desire to incorporate ‘natural dialogue’ as much as possible, as she explained in our discussion after the second lesson:

I try and have a kind of natural dialogue wherever possible in grammar lessons...it’s just very natural. If someone’s telling me about something, I want to know about it, it reinforces the fact that they’re using grammar for a purpose other than just get the formula right. (DP2:153-7)

An example of this can be seen in the following extract from the third lesson when she is giving feedback on a gapped reading text:

[Women (expect) to give up their maiden name]

S1: Are expected.

D: Why did you make it passive then?

S1: Because other people expect.

D: Well done! Society expects them to do it. We talked about this before. In Turkey are women expected to give up their surnames?

S2: Yes, but there’s a new law, they don’t have to change their surnames. (DO3:213-9)

Despite only teaching higher levels, she felt ‘this wouldn’t change at low levels...at elementary I’d always have some speaking or communication and pull out the grammar that way’ (DI4:72-3).

In conclusion, communication seemed to be fundamental to Daphne’s grammar teaching. Her beliefs and practices remained consistent throughout the study, and her beliefs were congruent with her practices.

6.2.1.4 Discovering and analysing grammar

I now focus on discovering and analysing grammar, which highlights interesting aspects of teacher learning. At the start of the MA Daphne was already aware of a tension between her beliefs about discovery learning and her perception of learners' preferences:

This is interesting, I immediately want to say 'yes...grammar learning is more effective when learners work out the rules for themselves'...but I'm not so sure from what I've seen of learners here, I've just assumed that everyone works in the same way as me that they want to work things out for themselves, and the reading I've done recently [on the MA] suggests the same thing. However, I'm not so sure it applies here. I don't know why. (DI1:167-70)

Her beliefs may have been influenced by her own language learning experiences - 'I enjoyed discovering and analysing the grammar' (DI1:62-3) - and reinforced by her initial training:

SP: Did CELTA recommend any particular way of teaching grammar?

D: For some reason I want to say discovery learning, because I remember in my first TP I took it upon myself to do a self-discovery sort of worksheet [see Appendix 6.7]...that seemed to work quite well, then I did a similar thing for the next TP. I'm sure I got that from the input sessions. I'm just trying to think. Yeah, I suppose they must've talked about discovery teaching. (DI3:31-7)

This tension between her beliefs and her perception of learners' expectations seemed to influence her teaching:

I try to visualise how my learners will respond to the grammar point...whether I think they'll get anything out of discovery learning or whether I should spoon-feed them. (DI1:267-70)

She seemed to feel this was partly due to her perception of Turkish learners, that if you ask them to analyse and think about grammar, they'll give you the set rule rather than why it's like that...I should remember not everyone likes analysing grammar as much as me...maybe I analyse too much for them, rather than let them find out for themselves. (DI1:75-86)

Interestingly, she wondered whether her own enthusiasm for analysing grammar might be hindering learners' ability to discover.

Eight months into the MA she was still trying to come to terms with this tension:

Focus-on-form means actually analysing the language, not opening a copy of Murphy's English Grammar in Use and filling in the blanks...whether that's too heavy for our learners, I don't know. (DI2:55-8)

The MA also highlighted the benefits of discovery learning. Despite wanting learners to discover and analyse grammar, she was still unsure whether it would work with her learners:

I think my teaching reflects my belief...I'd like to think I don't spoon-feed them in terms of 'this is the form, it works like this', I do try and encourage them to think about it. (DI2:33-6)

Despite her perception that learners were reluctant to embrace discovery, she was determined to 'persevere and find ways to get students to do the work' (DI2:157):

I'd like students to be able to discover...and analyse more on their own...I feel I'm doing my best to provide opportunities for that. Whether they do it or not is a separate issue. (DI2:46-7)

All observed lessons contained an element of discovery. In the first lesson she got students to 'create a mind-map of past tenses' and asked them to 'brainstorm what [they] know about each' (DO1:30): 'I wanted to get them thinking about the grammar ...although I feel they're not so comfortable with that' (DP1:240-1). In the second lesson, she asked students to discuss their answers to four questions about the university entrance exam in Turkey, which used different conditionals (see Appendix 6.5 for the full extract with the questions). Having discussed their own answers communicatively, students were guided to discover the grammar:

D: What do you notice about all these sentences?

S: Conditional type 3.

D: Are they all conditional? All of them?

S: Mixed conditional.

D: OK, number 1, tell us about this one, Ayşegül? What is the first one?

S1: Mixed.

S2: First sentence type 3.

D: Is it?

S: 2nd, type 2.

D: Type 2 or 2nd conditional. So, for this one, are we talking about real or unreal?

S: Unreal.

D: OK, we're talking about present and unreal situations.

(D writes unreal present, imagined result on board.) (DO2:123-38)

Similarly, in the third lesson, having read a text which contained active and passive structures, she asked students to ‘analyse why passive was used’ (DO3:129). Her rationale for this was to ‘encourage them to be more analytical rather than just diving in and saying something without thinking about it’ (DP3:505-7).

By the end of the study she seemed to have partially overcome the tension between her beliefs and practices, and seemed reconciled to the disparities between her learners’ learning preferences and her own beliefs:

Although I know discovery won’t always work...I want to encourage it as much as possible...I agree that learners learn better if they work rules out for themselves. We’ve talked about it all year. Sometimes in a particular context students don’t seem to want to work things out for themselves, but as a learner I feel that way, and I think a lot of learners do, too. (DI4:82-7)

In conclusion, the development of her beliefs and practice concerning discovery teaching seemed to go through the following roughly chronological stages:

- Awareness of tension between her own beliefs and learners’ preferences (0-1 months), stimulated by the MA;
- Consistent use of discovery in her practice (10-17 months), but trying to come to terms with the disparity between learners’ preferences and her own;
- Greater acceptance of the disparity between her own beliefs and learners’ preferences (18-20 months).

6.2.1.5 Controlled grammar practice

The next aspect of Daphne’s work I focus on is controlled grammar practice. At the start of the MA Daphne felt that ‘controlled practice helps learners make fewer mistakes and see what’s right and wrong...but mechanical drills aren’t necessary to learn grammar’ (DI1:175-9). Her initial practice reflected this, as she later explained: ‘normally I used to use controlled practice, manipulating sentences...then I’d create scenarios for freer practice’ (DI3:68-9). During the first three months of the MA she received input about grammar practice (see Table 6.2 above), and after eight months she noticed a tension between her beliefs and practices:

We have a prescribed textbook, I still feel a bit limited and traditional, you know. controlled practice and freer practice...that’s possibly why they like cloze tests or fill-in-the-blanks, just ‘cos it’s mechanical, they’re just focused on is it right or wrong. (DI2:200-52)

She seemed to feel this was partly because students liked mechanical gap-fill exercises.

Ten months into the study this tension was evident in our discussion after the first observed lesson in which she used a gap-fill exercise from the prescribed course-book to practise past tenses. This was, she felt, 'a very mechanical exercise' (DP1:167), but interestingly she seemed to be using it as a classroom management tool to 'keep students quiet when they get a bit unruly' (DP1:390), and also because of students' expectations:

We spend a lot of class time doing these and using it more as a control mechanism. 'OK, sit down and do it!'...I think students to a certain point do expect it, and they often say 'what's the point of buying this book if we don't do it in class.' So, I think it's more to do with classroom management, 'bring it to school students, look we're using it.' (DP1:194-216)

She felt such exercises would be more useful if they were used differently in the classroom:

If you prepare beforehand, there's always something to pull out, 'did you notice this, what's different about this?' I think they're useful, but not just when giving it cold. There should be a reason, not purely a self-check, 'how many did you get right or wrong?' (DP1:198-203)

Again this seemed to be influenced by her experiences of learning languages. She found such controlled practice exercises 'frustrating if you don't have someone to give feedback...but useful when the teacher checked them and...gave [her] feedback' (DP1:231-5).

Her awareness of a tension between her belief in meaningful practice and her use of mechanical gap-fill exercises seemed to help encourage her to explore ways of making controlled grammar practice more meaningful. In the second observed lesson she 'chose not to do the exercises from the book' (DP2:280), instead having students create their own examples using the target language: 'Try to write one or two sentences about you, try to write answers using conditionals' (DO2:175-6). She felt this was 'more useful than going through the book...I don't feel comfortable giving them turn-the-page exercises, because I'm always worried if I've got the wrong answer or is this number six, is it the right page' (DP2:259-81), as she explained in our discussion afterwards. This suggests a lack of confidence in her ability to address students' queries. Although she felt good that she was 'able to use activities similar to those [she] used to

use a lot' (DP2:244-5) earlier in her career (in previous institutions), she didn't always feel able to use aspects of her previous routines because of contextual constraints:

I'll let myself be guided by what the grammar point is, what other things I've got at hand that day. I don't want to stitch up the main class teacher by never using the book so I'll mix it up and wherever possible go for that 'cos that's how I feel comfortable. (DP2:461-5)

By the end of the study she seemed to have overcome this tension in her mind. Even though '[she]'d normally use controlled practice, where students manipulate sentences' (DI3:68-9), she found ways of using them in a more meaningful way as a 'learning tool'. This was evident in the third lesson where she used a gapped reading text (see Appendix 6.6) related to the theme of the lesson, checked comprehension and discussed some of the ideas in the text before asking students to 'quickly put the verbs into the sentences, and decide if they should be active or passive' (DO3:160). However, as she explained in our discussion afterwards:

It wasn't a mechanical transforming-active-to-passive activity...I didn't think it necessary...I always try to do controlled practice in such a way. With something like that, of course I focus on the meaning first. Particularly with passives, meaning is central to whether they can form it or not. So I'm using it as a learning tool. Actually I'm also checking if they know the form. If not, it would've been a springboard to do something different. (DP3:496-524)

In the final interview, while discussing her responses to the questionnaire (see 4.5.1 above), she reiterated her initial belief that 'controlled practice is useful...but mechanical exercises aren't necessary' (DI4:96-7).

Overall, although her beliefs and teaching did not change radically during the study, her awareness increased and she began using controlled practice more for acquisitional than classroom management purposes. In conclusion, the development of her beliefs and practices concerning controlled grammar practice highlight the following overlapping processes which were salient at particular times during the study:

- Becoming aware of tension between own beliefs and practice (0-10 months);
- Exploring ways of making practice more meaningful (13-18 months);
- Overcoming tension in her mind between her beliefs and her perception of learners' expectations (18-20 months).

As I have reiterated before, these processes should not be seen in terms of a linear transition from one stage to the next.

6.2.1.6 Grammatical terminology

The final area I present highlights important issues in teacher learning. Daphne consistently used grammatical terminology in her teaching throughout the study, but interestingly the reasons she cites for this seemed to develop as the study progressed. At the start of the MA she felt that grammatical terminology was ‘not necessary, but if it helps the learners, then fine’ (DI1:210). She later recalled how she had initially used it as a classroom management tool, as a way of saving face in class:

When I first started teaching I thought it was really important, but I think that was the context I was in, it was almost like a way of self-defence. If the student asked you a difficult question, maybe you can bamboozle them with terminology. (DI3:295-8)

During the MA she received many sessions on language awareness which ‘helped her think about terminology’ (DP3:122). She used grammatical terminology in all three observed lessons to talk about the target language, as the following extract from the first lesson shows (see Appendix 6.1 extract 1 for the full extract):

D: You said, ‘While Turkey...conquered he escaped.’ So did someone conquer Turkey?

S6: Yes.

D: So, we have to be careful and make it passive.

Sts: Was being.

S6: I was trying to use just past simple.

D: OK, it’s true but this is past continuous and we can make it...passive, ‘while Turkey was being conquered, while Turkey was being invaded’. So, other people were coming and doing it. OK? Then continue, so past simple. (DO1:214-23)

However, the reasons she gave in our discussions afterwards tended to vary. After the first lesson she felt it benefitted *her*: ‘I think to be honest it helps me, it’s...just a basic short-hand...and I now know the magic phrases that will switch the light bulb on’ (DP1:101-6). However, after the second lesson three months later she was ‘using terminology because it would’ve been expected from the students’ (DP2:170). In the third lesson, five months after the second, in which she used an inductive grammar presentation, she avoided explicit use of terminology until students themselves came up with it (see Appendix 6.1 extract 2 for the full extract):

D: So you can tell me, what do all these sentences have in common?

S: Passive.

D: An easy one, but why are they passives?

S1: Because we don’t choose.

D: Excellent. (DO3:129-133)

This was because she felt they ‘don’t need fancy terminology’ (DP3:408).

By the end of the study she reflected how her views had developed:

Before I thought it was really important...then I suppose I chilled out a bit and realised it’s not so important provided the meaning is there. And I felt that actually it’s not so important. Now I’m kind of oscillating between the two. (DI3:295-300)

Despite consistently using grammatical terminology throughout the study - the main exception being that she used it in the third lesson after the inductive presentation - Daphne’s thinking clearly underwent development, considering it first to be important, then thinking the opposite and finally being unsure, as she stated near the end of the study:

Before I said terminology isn’t important, now I’m not so sure...it can be a term of reference or...just a peg to hang things on, if they know it, shorthand, it cuts out a lot. (DI4:141-8)

In conclusion, the following chronological stages seemed to characterise the development of her beliefs and practices regarding grammatical terminology:

- Initially tacit and unquestioned beliefs and practices (0-1 months);
- Questioning her beliefs and practices (8-13 months), stimulated by the MA;
- Greater awareness and understanding (17-20 months), stimulated by the MA;
- Consistent use of grammatical terminology in her teaching throughout.

6.2.1.7 Summary of facets

I now summarise the above developments in Daphne’s beliefs and practices. Firstly, the data shows that being dissatisfied with her beliefs and practices was an important starting point for Daphne’s own learning. In three of the facets of her work (presenting grammar, discovery, controlled practice) she was already dissatisfied with some aspect of her practices, whereas with the other three (form-focus, communication, terminology) her initial beliefs and practices had not been questioned in great detail.

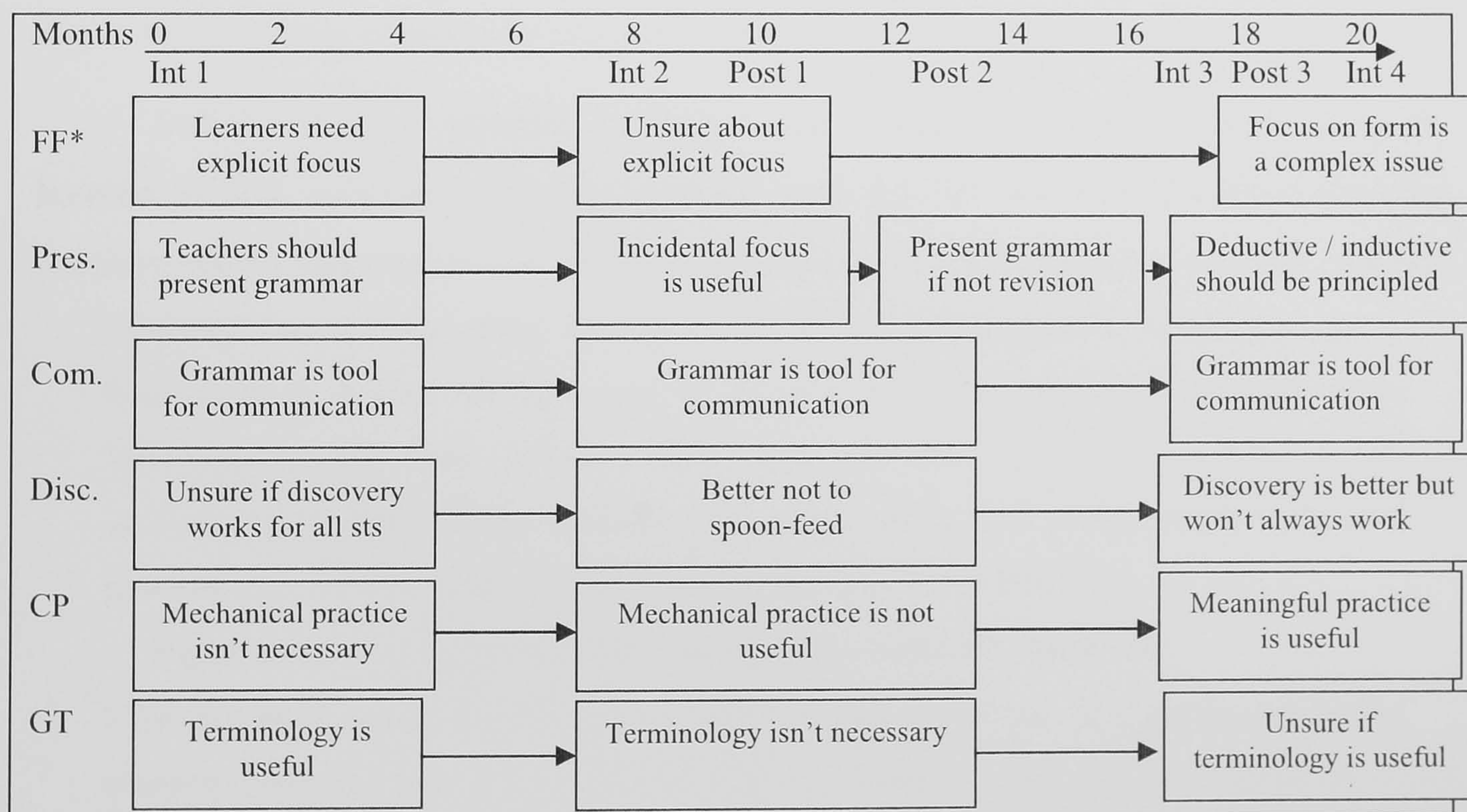
Secondly, the MA helped enable her to question her initial beliefs and practices (form-focus, presenting grammar, terminology) and provided greater theoretical underpinning. Thirdly, recognising tensions between her previous and current practices motivated her to experiment with different practices (in relation to form-focus, presenting grammar, discovery and controlled practice), and thus to develop new routines which built on and made use of aspects of her previous routines.

Fourthly, this development process caused her to adapt her practices in terms of presenting grammar, discovery, controlled practice, and increased her awareness and theoretical understanding in terms of form-focus and terminology. Table 6.4 and Figure 6.1 below summarise developments in her beliefs and practices.

Finally, her beliefs and practices were clearly influenced by her own language learning experiences, initial teacher education and previous grammar teaching experiences.

Table 6.4: Overview of Daphne's grammar teaching practices

	Presenting grammar	Grammar for communication	Discovering grammar	Controlled practice	Grammatical terminology
Obs1	Deductive presentation	Grammar extracted from theme	Sts analyse past tenses	Used mechanical gap-fill	Used as class management tool
Obs2	Inductive presentation	Grammar extracted from theme	Sts discover 2 nd conditional	Sts create own examples	Used due to sts expectations
Obs3	Inductive presentation	Grammar extracted from theme	Sts analyse passive use	Meaningful gap-fill	Avoided until sts used it



*FF = focus on form, Pres = presenting grammar, Com = grammar for communication, Disc = discovery, CP = controlled practice, GT = grammatical terminology

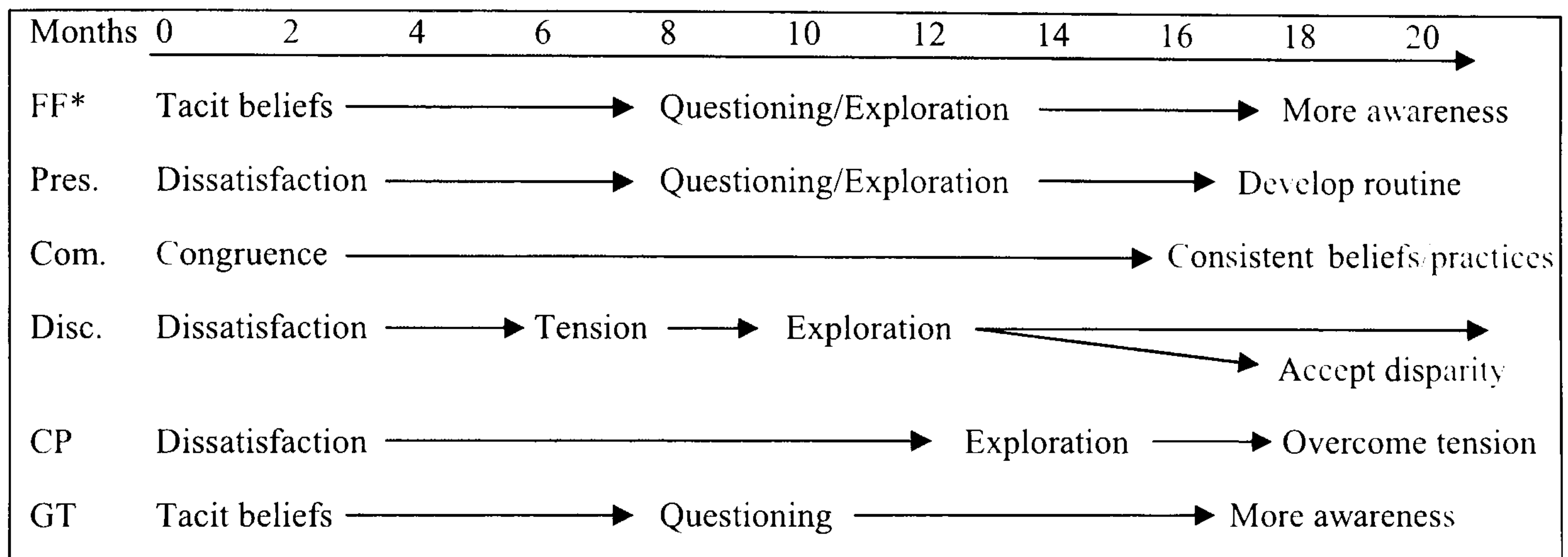
Figure 6.1: Summary of developments in Daphne's beliefs

6.2.2 Processes and influences

The following section outlines key processes and influences related to the overall development of Daphne's grammar teaching beliefs and practices which emerged from analysis of the data.

6.2.2.1 Common processes in these developments

The previous section highlighted six salient individual facets of Daphne's work. There seem to be common processes throughout which underpin the individual features of her grammar teaching (see Figure 6.2 below) which I now explore collectively in greater depth in order to outline more general stages of her development.



*FF = focus on form, Pres = presenting grammar, Com = grammar for communication, Disc = discovery, CP = controlled practice, GT = grammatical terminology

Figure 6.2: Summary of processes in the development of Daphne's beliefs and practices

Initially Daphne (similar to Anne) was undecided what and how to teach, seemed to lack confidence in her teaching, and felt her previous grammar teaching routines, which had worked for her before, would not work in her new teaching context:

I haven't done team-teaching, sharing a class before...I feel pressure to use the course-book even if it isn't the best way to present grammar...so I tend to teach more according to the book...when I first came [to this institution], I tried to be communicative but I soon realised that didn't work...I'm doing more traditional grammar teaching now, which makes me feel terrible. (DI1:296-315)

Eight months later she was still 'struggling' with this dilemma:

I haven't been satisfied with my grammar teaching this year...it's partly due to the students...they're less interested, they don't actually want to ask questions to understand, they're more focused on whether it's right or wrong. (DI2:276-92)

She also found teaching higher levels challenging: 'the grammar objectives are very nit-picky, like prepositions...it's hard to devote a whole lesson to that' (DI2:111-3).

In order to overcome this dilemma she went through a period of exploration, trying to develop the confidence to overcome her perceived contextual constraints, and adapt her teaching accordingly. A starting point seems to be developing a new way of seeing grammar:

Not having specific grammar lessons was a problem for me at first, I thought I should be having more but I didn't have the time, but now I've realised it *is* possible not to have devoted grammar lessons. (DI2:426-9)

This enabled her to start becoming less dependent on the prescribed course-book:

I don't use the course-book. Each week I highlight the nit-picky things, I don't purposefully cover them and I keep them in my class file, what I haven't covered is highlighted, so when it comes up naturally in a reading or listening, 'this is a good time to bring it up'. (DI2:319-24)

This gave her confidence to 'be more flexible and see where lessons go' (DP1:402), which seems to have been influenced by her previous teaching 'where there wasn't really a book, we just had to get on with it' (DP1:404). Knowing why she was doing what she was doing also gave her the confidence that she was meeting student needs.

This confidence may have then enabled her to begin using aspects of her previous grammar teaching routines during the following three months: 'it's nice sometimes to use things that I used to use a lot' (DP2:246). During this period she started using more grammar presentation lessons, doing more discovery activities, and making her controlled practice activities more meaningful. This made her feel 'more comfortable with [her] grammar teaching' (DP2:259). Admittedly she was now only teaching five hours a week (I outlined the reasons for this in section 6.2 above), which may have made it easier for her to adapt her teaching, as she acknowledged:

Because I'm now only teaching 5 hours a week, I don't...worry about whether I cover the book or not. I just think 'they need this, so I'll go and teach it'. (DP2:269-72)

By the end of the study she seemed to have developed aspects of her grammar teaching and to a large extent overcome the dilemmas she was previously aware of:

I can approach grammar in lots of different ways as it comes up. Even if I want to have a dedicated grammar lesson, I'll still use something that's come from the students or a previous text as the way in, to make it meaningful for them. (DI3:253-5)

Again it is hard to surmise how her grammar teaching might have differed if she taught full-time:

I'm thinking a lot more about what'll work. I may use what I have from before. I'm spending more rather than less time thinking and planning now, but it feels necessary. (DI3:221-3)

Rather than adopting her previous grammar teaching routines per se, she felt she had developed her awareness of student needs and a more principled approach to aspects of

these routines (form-focus, terminology), and that she had developed new routines building on the previous ones (presenting grammar, discovery, controlled practice):

It'd be very interesting to go back, fly-on-the-wall-like, and see my old lessons and how I've progressed, but I'd say there are elements of my previous grammar teaching that I've augmented and built on, rather than gone back to. (DP3:687-90)

In conclusion, as Daphne's confidence grew and she was able to explore aspects of her grammar teaching, she became able to overcome the contextual constraints she was working with, and to build on and adapt her previous grammar teaching routines. By the end of the study her planning and teaching of grammar had generally developed in the following ways: greater awareness of student needs and difficulties in terms of grammar, greater awareness of different grammar teaching options and their rationales, and more confidence to use aspects of her previous grammar teaching routines.

Overall, it would seem that Daphne's developments went through three main developmental, and roughly chronological, phases (see Figure 6.2 above): firstly a period of dissatisfaction and confronting various dilemmas (0-8 months), secondly a period of exploration and questioning her beliefs and practices (8-13 months), thirdly a period of developing new routines and overcoming tensions between her beliefs and practices, and among different beliefs (18-20 months). I return to these processes in Chapter 8 below.

6.2.2.2 Contribution of the MA to these developments

Having looked at the development of Daphne's beliefs and practices specifically and generally, I now look at ways in which the MA contributed to these developments. The main effects which emerged from the data were on her beliefs, awareness, and teaching.

Strengthening and deepening of beliefs

Despite having an open mind to new ideas, Daphne's existing grammar teaching beliefs seem to have been largely confirmed, deepened and strengthened, even though there were some changes, for example those regarding her use of grammatical terminology (see 5.2.1.6 above):

I can't say the MA sessions or readings have helped me change my beliefs...it's been interesting to read other views as well...it's very rare for me to read something and reject it totally out of hand. (DI4:197-201)

She felt the MA had not ‘taught [her] anything new about grammar teaching’ (DI2:388), perhaps because her level of knowledge and awareness was already high, as she alluded:

It was frustrating when we were doing things in MA sessions...like focus-on-form, concept checking, and every student’s different, I felt ‘well, this is common sense, why wouldn’t you do this?...they all seemed so obvious...but maybe they weren’t common sense, maybe I just already believed that. (DI4:558-77)

She may have been learning things she already believed in, and the MA gave her a theoretical basis for some of her previous beliefs about learner problems with grammar:

They seem really quite common sense things, but before if you don’t see it articulated anywhere, it’s quite difficult to pinpoint something. But when you see it in an MA course, you realise, ‘yes, this is what my students have difficulty with’...being aware of something that I didn’t have a name for, a flash-bulb was sort of going on. (DI3:391-7)

Greater awareness of learning and learner needs

Although her beliefs do not seem to have been radically altered, the MA seems to have increased her awareness of grammar and difficulties learners have learning it:

The MA language analysis sessions have helped me think about grammar points...to realise things are not open and closed, and to understand learner problems. (DP3:123-5)

One example of her greater depth of understanding was related to her perception of passives:

I thought passives were quite cut and dried before, but when you really get into things like ‘the door opened’, you start to understand why students have problems with them. (DI3:305-7)

The MA had ‘definitely had an impact on [her] thinking about learner problems’ (DI3:370):

Some of the MA courses made me think more about...why students don’t get it. ‘It’s easy, why don’t you get it, we’ve been over it 20 times?’ So, I’m a lot more patient with learners now, I’m more aware of the fact that they do need recycled input. (DI2:401-5)

The MA also helped her become critically aware: ‘the more knowledge I’ve built up, the more I start to question things, so I don’t know if I can say anything has changed, but I’m just questioning more’ (DI4:175-6). This process of questioning seems to have played an important role in the development of her beliefs and practices, as she herself observed:

I seem to have found a way to teach grammar that works fairly well...it’d be interesting how much the MA has put into that. Had I not had the chance to question things such as

learning and language itself, how long that process would've taken me, would it have been this satisfying, would the end results have been the same? (DI4:418-21)

More principled teaching

The MA did not lead to major changes in her grammar teaching, as I showed in section 6.2.1 above, yet she did feel 'sessions helped me recognise more about my grammar teaching' (DI4:198), and perhaps indirectly improve it in some ways:

The MA has made me more aware that students need recycled input, so that's helped me give more detailed feedback and help learners. (DI2:405-7)

Having already had six years' teaching experience before the MA and developed routines for grammar teaching from her initial CELTA course, it may be unreasonable to expect her grammar teaching to change radically. She saw herself as being unlikely to change her teaching even in the face of alternative ideas from readings, MA sessions or feedback on her classroom observations:

I'm quite set in my ways...when I read something, I think 'oh, that sounds nice, I agree with that', but then I go and still teach the same way...and if somebody came and said 'that's a rubbish lesson', I'd say, 'well, thanks for that feedback, I'm not really going to change', unless I feel in myself it's not working and I have evidence from the learners. (DI4:448-56)

An example of this is her consistent linking of grammar with communication (see 6.2.1.3). However, she did 'find peer observations useful, particularly if it's something radical you need to see somebody else doing it' (DI4:534):

When I observe a lesson I think, 'wow, excellent', and I can totally see the benefits of this...there are parts I could use...I can't then say 'oh, it'd never work in my class', but I can say 'I wouldn't feel comfortable delivering such a lesson'. (DI4:283-6)

She also benefitted from being 'encouraged to teach something differently' (DI4:214-5):

The experimental practice assignment, portfolio tasks, and peer observations are quite useful...not only are you reading it, but you're really forced to put it into practice, and also you have that stage in-between where you're questioning, but instead of just questioning...actually applying it...and then you have a chance to reflect on it as well. (DI4:217-24)

Observing the impact on teachers and learners helped give her confidence to experiment and try out new ideas in her own class:

Basically if I read something and think 'how much effort or how much will I have to change my own teaching?' it's more 'does this technique or method require me to change my teacher role or persona a lot, or will it make me feel uncomfortable?' And if

I think 'no, it won't', or 'it might, but I'd like to try it anyway', then I feel confident to give it a go. (DI4:270-5)

This confidence helped her develop new routines for presenting grammar, discovery learning and controlled practice, and to make these aspects of her grammar teaching more principled.

In conclusion, Daphne felt the MA influenced the development of her beliefs and practices in terms of strengthened and deepened beliefs, increased awareness of language, learning and learner needs, and more principled teaching. Aspects of the MA which seem to have contributed to these development can be summarised as follows:

- Explicitly focusing on teacher beliefs, questioning beliefs, input and teaching;
- Analysing language in terms of complexity and learner difficulty;
- Having to complete written assignments for assessed teaching practice;
- Seeing examples of alternative practice, and its effect on the teacher and learners;
- Experimental practice, trying out new practices and seeing how they work for herself and learners.

6.3 Summary of key issues

In this section I review key issues which emerged from the analysis of the development of Daphne's beliefs and practices outlined in this chapter.

- *Questioning existing beliefs and practices.* Critically questioning her existing beliefs and teaching routines seems to have been an important precondition for Daphne's learning. At the start of the study she was already dissatisfied with aspects of her practices, partly because they conflicted with her own learning experiences and preferences, but also because she felt unable to teach according to her established and previously successful routines. Exposure to learning theories and new teaching ideas on the MA enabled her to become aware of and question some of her more unconscious beliefs and routines, especially regarding form-focus and grammatical terminology, and provided her with a theoretical underpinning for these. Awareness of tensions between her beliefs and practices encouraged her to explore these further and to start experimenting with her teaching in order to overcome these tensions.
- *Confidence to adapt existing routines.* Routines developed during her initial teacher education provided structure to her early grammar teaching, and were reinforced when they were felt to be working. Despite having been refined for different teaching

situations, they seemed not to be working in this context. Having been reinforced through practice these routines were strong, and she needed to find ways to adapt them. In time she developed the confidence to adapt aspects of her grammar teaching, and see the benefits in terms of student learning without leading to classroom management problems. This gave her greater flexibility during planning and in class, as aspects of her previous routines were now available to her as options in her grammar teaching.

- *Core beliefs and established routines.* Another key issue was the resistance to change of many of her core beliefs and established routines, regarding, for example, meeting learners' expectations, and emphasising communication. Having been reinforced by six years of classroom experience, these established routines mainly prevailed despite initial difficulties she encountered, and were slightly adapted to form the backbone of her new routines. It seems that for her core beliefs and established routines to change, she needed first to see evidence from her learners that they were not working, which then caused her to recognise a tension between her ideal way of teaching grammar and the perceived realities of her teaching context. Seeing practical examples of alternative practice also seemed necessary for her to develop the confidence to try out new ideas, yet reading does not seem to have greatly affected her beliefs (as she acknowledged, see Appendix 6.8).
- *Catalysts for learning.* The MA seems to have helped her question her beliefs and teaching, and given her a theoretical underpinning for both. Dissatisfaction with aspects of her teaching encouraged her to explore and adapt her existing routines once she saw evidence that they were positively affecting student learning. Although she felt the MA had not specifically taught her anything new about grammar teaching, it seems to have provided a framework for developing her existing routines, and increased her awareness of student learning. Teaching mainly higher levels (and part-time during the second year of the study) may, however, have affected the development of her beliefs and teaching. It is also likely that participating in this study helped facilitate this development, even though she did not herself mention this. Discussing the issues with me from time to time may have caused her to develop in ways she might not have done otherwise.

7. MARK

In this chapter I present the findings from the third teacher, Mark. Firstly, I provide a brief profile of him with background information relevant to the study. Secondly, I give a detailed account of developments in his beliefs and practices by looking at five salient facets of his grammar teaching and by highlighting processes and influences relevant to these developments. Finally, I summarise the key issues which emerge from this case.

7.1 Profile

Here I present background information about Mark which predates the period of the study but which I obtained from interviews during the study.

Language learning experience

A native-speaker of English, Mark was taught Latin at secondary school ‘through Grammar-Translation; I remember zero Latin’ (MI1:10) (see Table 7.1 below for an explanation of the codes used in quotes). At university he learnt French through a mixture of ‘traditional grammar teaching, which was boring, and the so-called communicative method, which was fun and engaging’ (MI1:59-60). The university ‘had a policy that you weren’t allowed to speak English in class’ (MI1:35). However, he recalled that when living in France later

I was able to communicate but I was making lots of mistakes, so I don’t know if it was from the grammar lessons...or the post-office type of situations, I don’t know which one I really learnt from. It’s really hard to say. (MI1:65-8)

Later he experienced trying to learn another European language in a natural environment while working (the exact country is concealed for anonymity purposes):

In [this European country] it took me 2 years before I could finally have a conversation, the grammar was really difficult...I never studied the grammar; I only used it to communicate. (MI1:142-3)

Teacher education background

His initial teacher education, a TESL course in North America, promoted a version of the communicative approach in which explicit grammar teaching is seen as hindering or interfering with the learning process in line with Krashen’s (1985) ‘Natural Approach’:

I was taught that you shouldn't teach grammar explicitly as it's not part of the communicative method, you should let learners discover for themselves, you should never write the pattern on the board or anything like that. (MI1:150-2)

In his subsequent in-service teacher education, a series of in-house workshops, seminars and short courses in Europe, however, 'we were encouraged to do explicit grammar teaching through presentation, practice and a focus on production' (MI2:421-2).

Grammar teaching biography

Before the study, he taught for two years in a European country (see previous comment about anonymity). Initially he 'didn't teach grammar explicitly, as that was what [he] had been taught...but later [he] started teaching stand-alone grammar lessons' (MI2:369-74), in line with his in-house training (see above), albeit not very often:

We did grammar [in this European country], but minimally, foreigners couldn't be trusted to teach grammar, local teachers did that...I did some, usually for observations or if I wanted to teach a certain grammar point...we'd present and give them five or six worksheets for practice...that's what we felt we were supposed to do, as that was what the local teachers did. We'd maybe present 'present perfect', do some practice and production, then assign the worksheets for homework. (MI2:377-96)

At the start of the study, he had been in Turkey for two months, 'initially not teaching grammar explicitly...then using lots of different things to present the form, meaning and use of grammar' (MI1:158-63). He felt 'happy with [his] grammar teaching as students seem to be learning' (MI1:491).

7.2 Developments in beliefs and practices

I now provide an account of Mark's grammar teaching beliefs and practices as they emerged during the study, firstly by looking at five salient facets of his grammar teaching, then by outlining key processes and influences on these developments. In order to help readers follow the chronology of events, Table 7.1 below summarises the various data sources used. As in the previous data chapters, for each extract of data the relevant line numbers are given using the codes below.

Three important issues impacted on Mark's teaching during the study. Firstly, he started the MA soon after arriving in Turkey, in what was a new teaching context for him. Secondly, in the second year of the study (from September 2006 onwards), his extra duties enabled him to teach only five hours per week. Thirdly, health problems

meant he was away from work for two months during the second year of the study (February-April 2007).

Table 7.1: Dates of Mark's observations and interviews

	Code	Date	Months into the study
Interview 1	MI1	29.11.05	0
Observation 1	MO1	02.06.06	7
Post-observation 1	MP1	13.06.06	
Interview 2	MI2	26.09.06	10
Observation 2	MO2	12.12.06	13
Post-observation 2	MP2	19.12.06	
Observation 3	MO3	29.05.07	18
Post-observation 3	MP3	06.06.07	
Interview 3	MI3	03.07.07	20

7.2.1 Salient facets of practice

In this section I look at specific developments in Mark's work by examining five facets of his grammar teaching which were salient in the data: explicit grammar teaching, presenting grammar, controlled practice, freer practice and error correction. In discussing each of these below I refer to a number of defining features of his beliefs and practices which emerged from the study. As I mentioned at the start of Chapter 5, other aspects of teaching, such as skills work, will likely have impacted on his grammar teaching, although this was beyond the scope of this study. The developments outlined in this section took place within the context of the MA, so I summarise key stages of this programme in Table 7.2 below.

Table 7.2: Key events in the MA for Mark

MA		Study	
Linguistics course*, input/assignment	Nov- Dec 05	Interview 1	Nov 05
Grammar teaching input/assignment*, unassessed/assessed teaching practice, peer observations, language analysis	Dec 05- Feb 06		
Skills (Reading/listening) input/assignment, unassessed/assessed teaching practice, peer observations, language analysis	Mar- June 06	Observation 1	June 06
Curriculum course, input/assignment	July 06		
Vocabulary teaching input/assignment, unassessed/assessed teaching practice, peer observations, language analysis	Sept- Nov 06	Interview 2	Sept 06
Skills (Speaking/writing) input/assignment, assessed teaching practice, peer observations, language analysis	Dec 06- Jan 07	Observation 2	Dec 06
Language analysis, experimental practice assignment, peer observations	Feb- May 07	Observation 3	May 07
Testing course, input/assignment	July 07	Interview 3	July 07

*see Chapter 2 and Appendix 2.1 for further details

7.2.1.1 Explicit grammar teaching

The first salient feature of Mark's work is explicit grammar teaching. The following account highlights developments in his beliefs and practices related to this issue. At the start of the study, in our discussion of his responses to the initial questionnaire (see section 4.5.1 above and/or Appendix 4.2), Mark expressed a belief in explicit grammar teaching which seemed to equate with Long's (1991) 'focus on forms':

Teachers should present grammar rules one at a time...learners benefit from lessons where grammar is the primary focus...learners need knowledge of grammar rules to use language effectively...focus-on-form speeds up the learning process. (MI1:213-471)

He felt this belief, which was at odds with the approach promoted in his initial teacher education (see 7.1.2 above), had 'completely changed since doing...pre-reading for the [MA] Linguistics course' (MI1:152-3), and his approach also seemed to help his learners:

Students have started to pick things up a lot quicker...it's something I've never seen before, as I never really focused on form before, so I like it a lot more. (MI1:493-4)

This is important as explicit grammar teaching had only recently become a feature of his teaching during the two months before the start of the MA (see 7.1.3 above). This belief seemed to reflect his own formal language learning experiences, 'I'd never have passed my university studies without focusing on the grammar' (MI1:206).

During the next three months he received input about grammar teaching and learning from the MA (see Table 7.2 above and/or Appendix 2.1) and prepared assessed grammar lessons and assignments (see section 2.2 in Chapter 2 above). In the first observed lesson four months later, however, the only instance of explicit grammar teaching was a gap-fill exercise he used to practise gerunds and infinitives, and there was no focus on grammar before or after a fluency-based speaking activity (see Table 7.3 below). Ten months into the study, we once again discussed his earlier beliefs about the value of explicit grammar teaching and his comment was that 'I don't think that's changed at all' (MI2:13). However, he had started questioning how much grammar to focus on at any one time, particularly in the light of learners' expectations:

SP: Would you say any of your views about grammar have developed in any way?

M: I used to believe that you could, for example, give them more than one present perfect rule...now I think it should be much more isolated, just to make it easier for students...I know students in Turkey love grammar...but that doesn't mean you

should give it to them all at once, because they're still only going to grasp a piece of it at a time. (MI2:45-62)

By the end of the study he still believed in the value of explicit grammar teaching, although he felt that some learners might benefit more than others, and that too much explicit grammar teaching might restrict their learning, as he explained in our final discussion:

Students expect us to teach grammar...they have to study some of the grammar rules. I used to think differently, but that's changed...learners benefit from specific grammar lessons, but it depends on learners. If they like learning grammar rules, they'll benefit because they're engaged in the lesson, so affect is important, but it can damage their learning if they only focus on grammar. (MI3:16-55)

Importantly, he cites two potentially conflicting reasons for explicitly teaching grammar: meeting learner expectations, and enhancing learning. He felt he had developed his awareness of grammar and learners difficulties with it and become more familiar with different approaches:

I've been teaching a lot of grammar all year...I know if I want it to be a PPP or TTT lesson before I go into class...I now have a lot of ideas about what lesson shapes will and won't work, because I'm working with the same points and the same student body... usually I know if they've already done something about it recently, that'll dictate if it's PPP or TTT. (MI3:478-505)

He felt able to choose his approach to each lesson according to the grammar point and how difficult learners would find it.

His teaching reflected his belief in explicit grammar teaching in the last two observed lessons (see Table 7.3 below). Both lessons followed a similar pattern of grammar presentation (P), followed by a controlled practice activity (CP), where students manipulated the target language, and a less controlled and/or freer practice speaking or writing activity (LCP/FP). In all three observed lessons he used grammatical terminology to talk about the target language (see Appendix 7.1 for an example), and the lessons followed a theme.

Table 7.3: Overview of Mark's observations

	Level	Grammar	Theme	Stages
Obs1	Intermediate	Gerund/(2 nd Conditional)	Poverty/lottery	CP-listening-free speaking*
Obs2	Pre-Int	Present perfect (experiences)	Holidays	P-CP-LCP-(FP/next lesson)
Obs3	Pre-Int	Articles/(un)countable nouns	Home towns	(P/previous lesson)-CP-FP

*these were Mark's terms to describe the various stages and activities used in his lessons

In conclusion, the development of Mark's beliefs about explicit grammar teaching can be summarised as follows:

- Radical change to his previous beliefs immediately prior to the study stimulated by pre-reading for the MA;
- Gradual deepening of understanding of complexities, stimulated by the MA;
- Questioning aspects of his grammar teaching;
- Greater awareness of student learning;
- Emergence of tension between his perceptions of student needs and expectations.

The above order is not intended to imply a linear progression between stages, but instead that each of the points were prevalent at different times during the study.

The following four sections explore particular features of his explicit grammar work: presenting grammar, controlled practice, freer practice and correction of grammatical errors.

7.2.1.2 Presenting grammar

The first of these four aspects of his explicit grammar work is presenting grammar. Despite having been in Turkey for only two months at the start of the study, he felt that both his beliefs and teaching had started to change during this time, as he commented in our discussion of his responses to the initial questionnaire:

'Before learners can use grammar it needs to be presented to them'...I agree, I'd say that's changed since teaching here...before coming to Turkey I'd spend the bulk of my lesson trying to get students to discover the grammar on their own...but now I present, practise and use it as much as possible, then at the end give feedback. (MI1:268-74)

Despite being initially taught a 'discovery approach' in his pre-service teacher education (see 7.2 above), he explained that he had not felt entirely convinced at the time:

I was taught that grammar should be after speaking tasks, but I've changed that belief...I never understood then why you'd tell them afterwards. Why not tell them before, let them try it then show them their errors. It's like '1 step forward, 2 steps backwards'. (MI1:359-64)

During the next three months of the MA he received input about grammar teaching and learning (see Table 7.2 above), especially PPP, TTT and TBL. As I mentioned in the previous section, the first lesson I observed contained no grammar presentation.

Ten months into the study he started questioning his beliefs, comparing the relative benefits of context-based and rule-based grammar presentations:

SP: You said before students need some sort of focus on form. How do you feel now?

M: I'd agree...but I'm thinking more now that it needs to be grammar in context as opposed to isolated grammar...presenting grammar through target sentences where there is a context...I've changed my views on that...because of reading on the MA.

SP: To what extent would you say your teaching reflects that?

M: Not yet, but it will. The lesson today was stand-alone, it wasn't in context...I just put up some simple past sentences, elicited the rule then gave them some practice.

(MI2:19-28)

He seemed to be aware of a tension between his beliefs and current practices. One reason he cited for wanting to do more context-based presentations (which the MA promoted over expository work) was to see how it impacted on student learning:

I've started a lot more grammar in context. I didn't really believe in it before [the MA], I thought it should be more stand-alone, but now I see the benefits...I want to see how students learn grammar in context as opposed to stand-alone. (MI2:368-70)

However, he felt that contextual constraints such as student expectations were preventing this:

M: I'd like to move away from isolated grammar altogether.

SP: Is that what you tend to do at the moment?

M: Isolated grammar lessons, yes...today I just went right to the grammar. I did it for two reasons. First I was running out of time...second I knew it'd grab students' attention after working on a reading for 3 hours...they were asking, 'why aren't we doing any grammar today?'...They didn't see the grammar work we were doing with the reading because it was in context...when we did a follow up in the last lesson, completely out of context, 'here's the rules, fill in the gaps', everybody paid attention then. (MI2:310-36)

Students' perceived expectations seemed to be overriding his perception of their language learning needs.

After 13 months he was still exploring this tension between his beliefs and practices, and cited various reasons for continuing to prefer rule-based presentations (which he often referred to as 'stand alone' or 'isolated grammar', in which grammar is presented at sentence level out of context):

I try to start off with a text...then work on the grammar, sometimes, for example comparatives and superlatives last week, I just did 'this is how it's used' then some practice without any context...sometimes I start with the rule, sometimes with the

context...depending on the grammar point. I think something like present perfect should be in context, it makes it easier to understand, whereas 'as...as' doesn't need a context...at high levels, I'd be more inclined to just do 'this is the grammar point, this is the rule, here's the practice...as they're already familiar with it'...sometimes I just say 'here's the rule, here's the grammar sheet, here's the practice activity' when students are unruly...it calms them down. (MP2:361-465)

Thus, the grammar point, level and concerns with class control seemed to outweigh his beliefs about the value of grammar in context despite his view that the latter enhanced learning. This meant that he saw himself faced with competing options: student learning, control and meeting students' expectations.

He was also experimenting with his grammar presentations. In the second observation he used a dictogloss activity (students recreated a dictated dialogue between a customer and travel agent containing examples of present perfect, see Appendix 7.2 for the dialogue and a fuller extract of what happened after the dictation), to extract and write the following sentences on the board and elicit the name of the tense and form:

I've been to Italy

Have you ever been to Italy?

I've never been to Italy (MO2:78-82)

He chose to 'teach grammar in context...since they're a repeat class...as it'd be more useful than a rule-based presentation for remedial teaching' (MP2:8).

In the third observation five months later, he used a rule-based presentation (using isolated sentences) to revise articles and (un)countable nouns:

We did some exercises from the grammar book to see what problems they were having, and if they knew the rules for using articles and countable and uncountable nouns. (MP3:57-9)

He then used gapped sentences to recap the rules (the gapped sentence under discussion in the extract below was: 'My friend is...waiter. He works at...Italian restaurant').

M: Where's the article?

S1: My friend is a waiter. He works at the Italian restaurant.

M: Why do we use 'a'?

S2: First mention.

M: What about waiter? Countable or uncountable?

S3: Countable.

M: And the Italian restaurant?

S3: Countable. (M writes '1st mention' next to 'a'/'countable' next to 'the')

M: Why 'the'?

S4: We know the restaurant. (MO3:21-32)

In our discussion afterwards the tension between his conflicting beliefs was again clear:

If you try to impose context-based, sometimes they don't see the benefit, as it's not what they're used to. So, breaking that habit is difficult. I think it needs to be context-based, but most students won't respond to finding it in context and discovering it on their own...the most important thing is how responsive and motivated they are. (MP3:465-72)

Thus, his general belief in the need to motivate and engage learners outweighed his particular belief in context-based presentations. Although he believed in context-based work, he also believed that students might not respond positively to it.

By the end of the study two months later, he seemed to have come to terms with this tension between his belief in the value of context-based grammar and his tendency to use rule-based presentations in his teaching:

My students really respond to stand-alone grammar...I didn't think this before, but I have to go with what they respond to. If they think they learn from me saying 'subject-plus-verb-3', etc, then...I should do some of that but plus some in-context as well. There should be a nice mixture...if students get what they want...they're more likely to learn. (MI3:67-76)

He felt that students' expectations were having the greatest influence on his practices:

M: Most students like rule-based presentations. I've started teaching that way in recent weeks.

SP: Do you feel they dislike having the context?

M: It's just harder for them to grasp...I don't think they've learnt grammar in context before, and they're not used to trying to work out the rule...just 'this is the rule, this is how it's used'...so it's a hard transition. (MI3:119-23)

He had also gained greater understanding of learners' preferences and how they learn:

Turkish students...see grammar as...what makes you a language teacher...as I've got to know their preferences and styles more...I want to do more...what they're used to, and what will benefit them...giving them rule-based presentations sometimes is OK if they think they're learning that way...or use it to my advantage to regain their attention. (MI3:158-74)

Interestingly, he again mentions classroom management as a reason for his explicit grammar work. The above extract reflects a balance between his belief in context-based grammar teaching and his belief that meeting learners' preferences enhances learning. A

final point, which shows his increased awareness, is that his choice of approach depended on the perceived difficulty of the target grammar:

I'd go for more rule-based presentation if something was more difficult, because they'll be more engaged...like present perfect which isn't in L1 [Turkish has no perfect aspect], I'd use rule-based...especially tenses should be rule-based...but things like articles are easier to learn in context. (MI3:286-93)

In conclusion, the development of his beliefs and practices about presenting grammar outline the following overlapping processes:

- Initially tacit and unquestioned beliefs (0-1 months);
- Becoming aware of tension between beliefs and practices, and among conflicting beliefs (7-10 months), stimulated by the MA;
- Exploring these tensions and experimenting with practices (13-18 months);
- Developing awareness of the complexities of presenting grammar (13-20 months);
- Accepting tensions among conflicting beliefs and disparity between beliefs and students' preferences (18-20 months).

I indicate (in brackets) the approximate time-frame in terms of the study. It is again important to note that these processes do not imply a neat linear progression. I return to these processes in section 7.2.2 below where I consider them more holistically.

7.2.1.3 Controlled grammar practice

The next specific aspect of Mark's work I focus on is his use of controlled grammar practice. At the start of the study, Mark expressed a belief that mechanical grammar practice might be beneficial, but he also displayed a dislike for it:

My thinking's changed from before the MA...I think after you present a new grammar point...particularly a hard one...you should always follow up with something mechanical...but I don't really like mechanical exercises. (MI1:251-6)

However, he seemed somewhat unsure about the purpose of controlled practice:

Sometimes I wonder why they'd need controlled practice...I know it should be there, because that's what I was taught to do, but I don't know that it's really 100% effective...I only do it because that's how I was taught...I haven't been shown any other way...once I see something that makes more sense. I'll probably adapt my teaching. (MI1:340-8)

Seemingly he had unquestioningly accepted this from his previous teacher education, but he was looking forward to learning more. This implies that, in the absence of alternatives, teachers are likely to rely on models they are exposed to as trainees.

During the first three months of the MA he received input about grammar practice (meaningful practice was promoted). In the first lesson I observed after seven months, he used a sentence-level gap-fill exercise to revise gerunds. He explained his rationale afterwards:

I wanted them to complete the gaps, then look at the indicators, if it's a gerund or continuous form, because they were having problems with that earlier...but I don't think they benefitted much...I wasn't able to exploit it effectively...I wanted them to think about the meaning of the sentences, but they didn't...they just filled in the gaps. (MP1:66-111)

He regretted not having been able to focus learners' attention on the meaning.

Ten months into the study changes in his views on controlled practice were evident. He now felt that text-level practice would be more meaningful than sentence-level:

I don't think controlled practice is helpful anymore. In fill-in-the-gap exercises they only see the word they need to use and the gap, they don't look at the rest of the sentence, so I don't think it's at all useful...rather than isolated sentences, putting it into...a whole story...if you didn't give them the verb, just told them every gap was present perfect, they'd have to look at the meaning to get the right verb...so controlled practice can be helpful if it focuses on meaning. (MI2:249-61)

Despite stating that he was 'trying to move away from gap-fill exercises...they're not at all beneficial' (MI2:190-1), three months later in the second observed lesson he again used a sentence-level gap-fill (see Appendix 7.3 for the complete activity) to practise the difference between 'been' and 'gone', which contained sentences such as:

Q1. She's (been/gone) out for lunch, she'll be back at two o'clock.

Q2. Have you ever (been/gone) to Prague? (MO2:211)

In our discussion afterwards he explained the rationale for this apparent tension between his stated beliefs and his actual practices:

I chose these questions [from the gap-fill] because they were the only ones I could find on 'been' and 'gone'. There was nothing in our grammar book, course-book, or the library. (MP2:53-5)

Having not taught much explicit grammar previously, he used what he had at hand although it contradicted his stated beliefs. This is an example of how a lack of available

alternatives can make it difficult for teachers to teach in line with their stated beliefs. However, he also seemed to be influenced by a belief in the importance of meeting learners' expectations:

I don't really like controlled practice...but I think they need it with a tense like this. especially with 'been' and 'gone' where the distinction is so minute...in this case I think they need it, most of the time I think they expect it. (MP2:272-7)

Further discussion of this issue revealed an interesting, and seemingly unconscious, reason for using mechanical gap-fills:

Controlled practice gap-fills just sort of calm them down...actually that's interesting, I never noticed before that that's why I was doing it...maybe students were getting on my nerves...if they can do the worksheet, they'll just sit and do it. I've seen that's what a lot of teachers do, and students just do it automatically, I think they've become classroom management tools because of that. (MP2:465-79)

Again his concern with maintaining order and engaging students outweighed his belief that gap-fills do not usefully promote learning. His discussion clearly shows that tensions among competing beliefs can cause teachers' practices to be congruent with more dominant or core beliefs, while at the same time being incongruent with more peripheral beliefs. This highlights the complex relationship among beliefs as well as between beliefs and practices.

Five months later he seemed to still be exploring controlled practice and trying to find ways of making it more meaningful and less mechanical. In the third observation he used an error correction activity to practise articles and (un)countable nouns, using sentences such as:

1. My friend is ... waiter. He works at ... Italian restaurant.
2. He doesn't earn many money.
3. I've got a problem with my car. I think it's a battery.
4. The soup needs a few salt. (MO3:21-92)

He explained afterwards why he saw this as being a form of controlled practice:

I'd done the presentation in the previous lesson...my original idea was to use a gap-fill, but I changed my mind...their writing's so bad, I wanted them to be able to correct on their own ...so for me it was a kind of controlled practice. (MP3:244-8).

By the end of the study he seemed to have developed greater awareness of student learning and their preferences, and thereby accepted the disparity between his perceptions of learners' needs and their preferences:

If you give them controlled practice...they're able to do it perfectly. but they can't use it in freer production because they're so exam-oriented...I really try to be against it, but...you just can't go against what they're used to...so why not give them so much controlled practice that it becomes internalised, then move to freer practice. It makes some sense, I dunno. I also think they like doing it, so why not do it. (MI3:225-31)

However, he seemed to consider catering to learners' expectations more important than helping learners to proceduralise their knowledge, and indeed his discourse rarely focused on acquisitional reasons for controlled practice. Despite accepting and trying to meet learners' expectations, he still felt meaningful practice was more beneficial for their learning:

I don't do it as well as I should, but when I do controlled practice, I ask 'what does it mean, what would it mean if it was in this sentence?', etc...students only see it as 'OK, I've put the correct verb, it's got -ed/-s, so it's correct and I'm finished'...I still have some kind of controlled practice, but it's more pared down, maybe 3-4 items, then move on. (MI3:254-70)

Overall, although Mark's beliefs changed during the study, his practices generally did not reflect his stated beliefs. In part this can be attributed to his lack of experience, developed routines, and access to alternative materials and activities, but it is also clear that certain core beliefs, such as the need to engage learners by meeting their expectations and maintain control, outweighed his dislike of mechanical exercises and his belief that they do not enhance learning.

In conclusion, the development of Mark's beliefs and practices regarding controlled practice seemed to undergo the following overlapping processes, which appeared to be salient at specific times during the study:

- Initially tacit and unquestioned beliefs and practices (0-1 months);
- Becoming aware of tension between beliefs and practices (7-10 months), stimulated by the MA and this study;
- Tension among conflicting beliefs, and between beliefs and practices (7-20 months);
- Questioning beliefs and exploring practices (10-18 months), stimulated by the MA;
- Starting to accept disparity between beliefs and learners' preferences (18-20 months).

The overlapping nature of these processes in chronological terms again suggests a need for caution in interpreting them as a linear transition between stages.

7.2.1.4 Freer grammar practice

The next aspect of Mark's work which the data revealed to be salient is his use of freer grammar practice. At the start of the study he expressed a belief in the value of freer grammar practice, which he saw as an essential element of his explicit grammar teaching:

I like to present the grammar point, practise it, give as much freer practice as possible, then at the end give feedback...knowing the grammar rules doesn't necessarily mean they'll use them correctly...if they don't have the chance to practise grammar together they won't be able to use it...I think freer practice is much more effective if they have the chance to really use the language then get some feedback at the end. (MI1:334-71)

He seemed to see freer practice mainly as a springboard for subsequent feedback and correction.

During the first three months of the MA he received input about grammar practice (see Table 7.2 above) which emphasised the importance of meaningful practice and opportunities for learners to use the language. In the first lesson I observed, however, seven months into the study, he used a freer activity where students discussed: 'if you had \$150,000, what would you do and why?' (MO1:135). Reading the transcription of the lesson afterwards caused him to reflect that he might have focused explicitly on 2nd conditional (if I had..., I would...) either before or after the activity, as he mentioned in our post-lesson discussion:

After production normally I'd focus more on form and correct them...I try to get them to notice what they're saying wrong...but I didn't even notice [2nd conditional] was there...I wish I could do it again, I'd start with the conditional form to see if they could then use it...in freer speaking I rarely focus on the language 'cos I want them to build up confidence...a lesson I taught last week...freer practice was about the judge killings [some top judges had recently been assassinated]...I asked groups to discuss how this will affect Turkey in the future. I wanted them to use future tenses, but I didn't focus on it until the end. (MP1:395-447)

He stated that his normal routine was to focus on grammar after a freer practice activity, yet this was not evident in the lesson I observed. One possible explanation for this could be that he had little experience of explicit grammar teaching, and had not developed routines for designing freer practice activities and considering which grammar learners would need to be able to complete the activity.

Ten months into the study he felt the MA had taught him more about freer practice:

SP: Is there anything you've learnt from observation feedback during the MA?

M: Minimal presentation, minimal practice, more focus on freer practice, that's been the most beneficial...and that freer practice should happen in class rather than be left for homework, which I agree with. (MI2:417-26)

However, he makes no reference to background theory in relation to freer practice. In the second observation three months later, having presented 'present perfect for experience', and practised the difference between 'been' and 'gone', he planned a freer practice activity where 'students created their own similar dialogues...but time constraints meant this happened next lesson' (MP2:314-5), so I was unable to observe it. He explained his thinking in our discussion afterwards:

I wanted to move onto freer practice to see what they could produce rather than what they could do with [the gap-fill]...it was important to get to the freer practice. (MP2:302-3)

Thus, he saw freer practice essentially as an opportunity to check learning. This also raised an interesting point that he did not feel constrained by a 50-minute lesson (all lessons in the institution were of 50-minute length), and that he felt it important to allocate sufficient time for learners to do freer practice:

SP: How important is it for you to get to the freer practice within a 50-minute lesson?

M: Not very...usually I do freer practice in the second lesson and give time for it. (MP2:342-7)

In the third observation five months later, he used the following group writing activity to practise articles and countable and uncountable nouns, which he himself characterised as a kind of freer practice (see quote MP3:364-6 below):

I want you in groups to write 10 good/bad things about your city. Use a/an/one/a few/some/many/little/much/a lot, and the following words; jobs/schools/museums/hospitals/parks/universities/restaurants/sports halls/crime/poverty/pollution/traffic. (MO3:177-81)

This led to group correction (see Appendix 7.4 for a full account), then a writing activity:

I want you to write a short advertisement for your city using this. (MO3:374-5)

Our discussion afterwards revealed two main reasons for his using this activity, yet he seemed unclear as to which took precedence in his mind:

It was more for them to use the language, and then to see if they'd learnt to spot errors...so it's more free practice for them rather than checking of learning for me. (MP3:364-6)

Nevertheless, feedback after the activity remained for him a central element of freer practice:

Learning to correct is important...it's hard to look at your own writing and correct it...so freer practice is a kind of stepping-stone for correction...because if they're just producing, they're only producing what they know, and they're only going to a certain level. But once they start to learn how to correct it, they can move baby steps beyond that. (MP3:401-13)

He seemed unsure how freer practice might enhance learning, and unclear whether learners can or should self-correct after freer practice or whether the teacher should correct. By the end of the study he still seemed unsure of the value of freer practice:

If you just give controlled practice they're not able to use the language, so they need freer practice...in freer practice sooner or later students sort of figure it out on their own, or internalise it a little bit better. I dunno...if they know the rules eventually they'll develop the ability to use it naturally. (MI3:225-30)

Overall, Mark consistently expressed a belief in the value of freer practice, justifying this alternately in terms of providing opportunities for learners to use the language, and for teachers to check learning and give feedback, although he did not refer to underlying background theory, such as 'proceduralisation' (Anderson 1993), 'noticing the gap' (Schmidt 2001), 'output hypothesis' (Swain 1985), for example. His practices did not always reflect his beliefs, and this seemed to be due to lack of experience and developed routines, rather than tensions among conflicting beliefs.

In conclusion, the development of Mark's beliefs and practices regarding freer practice highlights the following processes which were salient at particular times during the study:

- Initially tacit and unquestioned beliefs and practices (0-1 months);
- Raising awareness of tension between beliefs and practices (7-13 months), stimulated by the study;
- Questioning beliefs and exploring his practices (10-20 months);
- Limited development of understanding, awareness and routines throughout the study (0-20 months).

7.2.1.5 Error correction

The last aspect of Mark's grammar teaching I focus on is his correction of learners' grammatical errors. At the start of the study Mark seemed to have questions in his mind:

Teachers should correct grammar errors, but how long do you let the mistake go on before you realise it's an error?...I really started to think about how you correct them to make them notice their mistakes. I think it'll help them eventually change how they speak. (MI1:442-53)

He seemed unsure how error correction might actually contribute to learning. During the next six months of the MA he received theoretical input and practical ideas about why, when and how to correct learners' grammatical errors. However, the first lesson I observed seven months into the study revealed tensions between his stated beliefs and his practices. When learners fed-back ideas they had discussed in groups about 'how they would spend \$150,000' they used 'will' instead of 'would', yet no correction took place, as the following extract shows (see Appendix 7.6 for the full extract):

S1: We think that one part will be sent to people who need money.

M: OK, so what's your solution?

S2: Our solution is we send one half to people who need it...

S3: ...to poor people...maybe 140,000 we give

M: Where would you do this?

S4: We want to buy sports car, but after we will help to solve world peace.

M: Very good. (MO1:152-71)

Reading the transcription of the lesson afterwards seemed to raise his awareness of the language learners had used and the opportunity to correct learners' errors:

I see several chances here to correct what they said, I didn't correct or help them notice what was wrong, like the first response, 'we think that one part we will give', I could've corrected that...if I'd done it early enough, it could've continued throughout the lesson. (MP1:300-3)

He 'hadn't thought about whether they'd use 2nd conditional' (MP1:234) when planning, so this may have influenced his thinking here, as he further explained:

It wasn't a conscious decision to not correct them...it's me being really self aware right now 'cos, it must be like the habit I used to have. I never really looked at a transcript of a lesson like this before. (MP1:481-5)

This seems to indicate that he had not yet developed the 'habit' of predicting the grammar learners need for activities and of monitoring their use of language during

activities. This may be another example of his lack of experience of explicit grammar teaching preventing his beliefs from being reflected in his practices. Clearly involvement in this study helped raise his awareness of the tension between his beliefs and practices; namely that he failed to correct students despite believing that he should.

Three months later (ten months into the study) he seemed to be still questioning his beliefs and practices (although it is, of course, unclear to what extent such questioning continued during the intervening period between data collection):

I've been thinking about it, but I dunno exactly what to do...if I focus on all their errors...I'm afraid they'll get frustrated...if you correct too much they won't fix any of the problems...too little and they'll over-generalise that little part. It's finding the right balance. (MI2:272-85)

Firstly he was concerned with learners' affect; secondly that too much unfocused correction would not necessarily lead to any learning; and thirdly that too little correction would lead to inaccurate use of language. In the second observation three months later (13 months into the study), he used a mixture of teacher- and self-correction when eliciting present perfect sentences, as the following three extracts show (see Appendix 7.6 for fuller extracts):

Extract 1

S1: Have you ever been to French?

M: to...?

S1: France. (MO2:114-6)

Extract 2

S2: I have never been to abroad yet.

M: I have never been abroad. What does it mean? (MO2:148-9)

Extract 3

S3: I have gone to somewhere.

M: Where?

S3: Outside, out the door.

M: I've gone outdoors. (MO2:190-3)

In our discussion afterwards he seemed to be more conscious of his error correction:

They didn't make many incorrect sentences...it was on my mind...so if I'd noticed some glaring error there, I'd have corrected it...it's something I'm working on. (MP2:134-47)

In the third observation, five months later (18 months into the study), he used a whole-class peer-correction activity where students corrected sentences they had written on the board (see Appendix 7.4 for the full extracts):

S1: Istanbul has got a lot of university and hospital.

S2: Teacher, universities and hospitals.

M: Very good. Why do we use 's'?

S2: Because a lot of. (MO3:233-6)

S3: Denizli hasn't got much university.

Sts: Any universities

M: Is there a university?

S3: Pamukkale University.

M: One?

Sts: One. (MO3:253-8)

S4: Denizli isn't any parking area.

M: Hasn't got...Denizli hasn't got...

S4: Many parking areas. (MO3:265-7)

Again he used a mixture of teacher- and student-correction despite his stated preference for the latter (see Appendix 7.5 for an overview of the instances and types used in all lessons), as he explained in our discussion afterwards:

I always try to lead them to the correct answer, not just point it out...I don't think teacher correction helps, they just look at it, they don't really take the feedback in...so it's important to force them to focus and engage with the errors. (MP3:371-429)

So there still seemed to be a tension between his tendency to directly correct learners at times and his belief, influenced by his own observations of learners, that it may not actually be helping their learning. His view that explicit correction does not promote learning is noticeably different from what he stated at the start of the study.

By the end of the study he was continuing to question explicit teacher correction: I don't know if you should correct mistakes or...just leave them alone and wait 'til they learn it. I'd probably say if they make a mistake in something they haven't learnt, I'd be more apt to correct it than something...they've learnt recently. (MI3:340-4)

He seemed unsure as to which type of errors should be corrected or ignored, but he clearly saw the value of encouraging learners to correct themselves, as he did in the final observed lesson, and felt this was the most useful approach to correcting errors:

I'm not too convinced that correcting students' errors means they'll go away and do anything with it. So having a focused class slot and focusing their attention on errors, getting them to correct themselves is very useful...so that's something I try and do more often. (MI3:353-7)

Overall, Mark's beliefs seemed to change during the study, in part due to his observation of learners, improved awareness of issues and questioning of his beliefs. However, he seemed unclear as to how error correction might promote learning, and he rarely referred to underlying learning and language learning theory. His practices did not always reflect his stated beliefs, and changes to his practices did not keep pace with changes to his beliefs. This may again be due to his lack of experience, such that his practices were influenced by routines which had been reinforced by his own educational biography. He may not have received enough practical guidance from the MA to enable him to develop his error correction techniques.

In conclusion, the development of Mark's beliefs and practices about error correction seemed to go through the following overlapping stages during the study:

- Belief in the value of error correction (0-7 months);
- Awareness of tension between beliefs and practices in correcting errors; awareness of unresolved questions about how and when to correct (7-10 months), stimulated by the study;
- Continued awareness of uncertainties about error correction (10-18 months);
- Continuing to question his belief and practices; less certain belief in the value of error correction (13-20 months).

7.2.1.6 Summary of facets

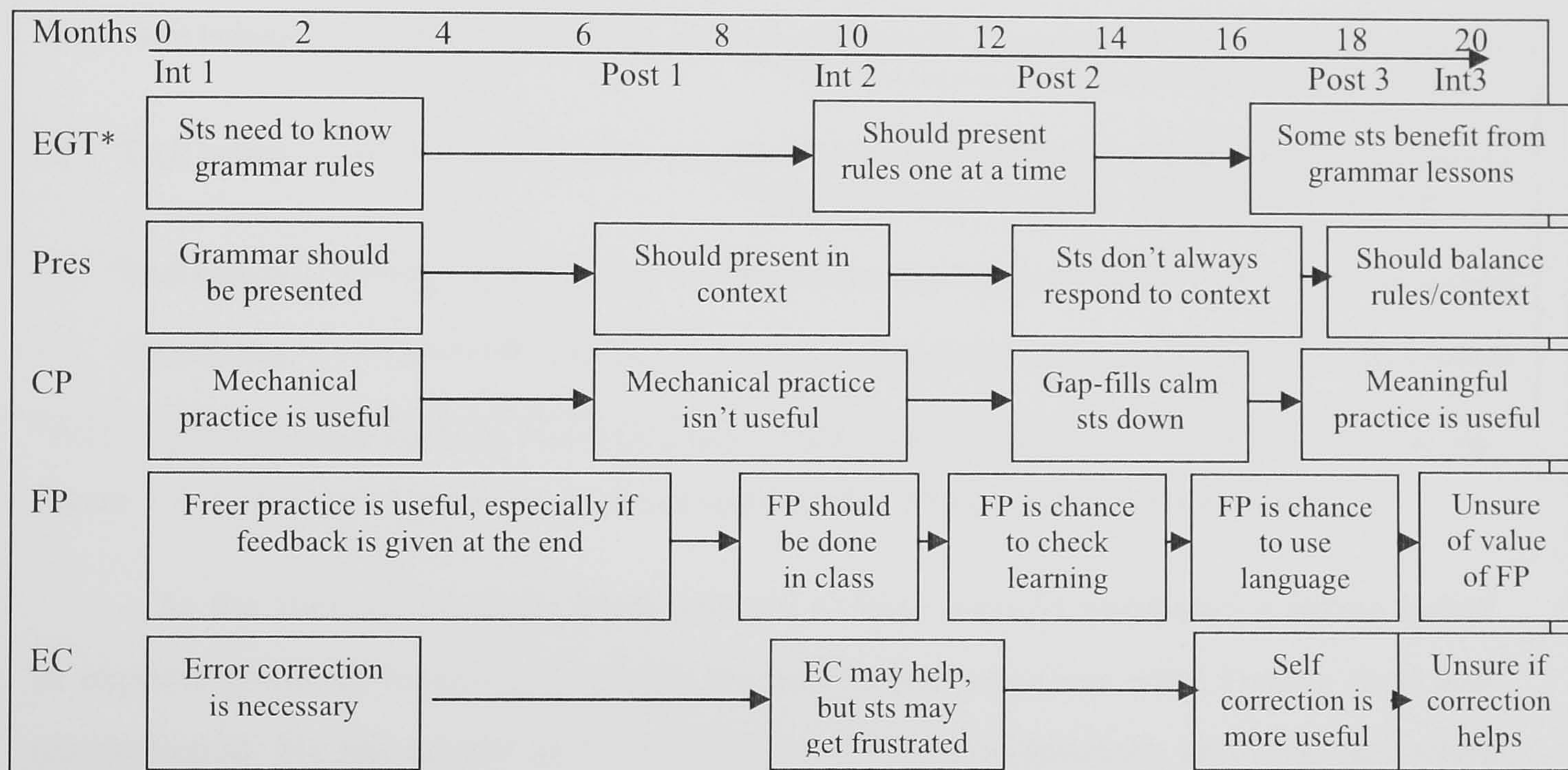
I now briefly summarise key aspects of Mark's learning which characterise the above developments. Firstly, the data shows that prior to the study he had little experience of teaching grammar and that he had not yet developed routines for presenting and practising grammar and correcting grammatical errors. As such his beliefs and practices were largely unquestioned.

Secondly, the MA, and our discussions during the study, helped him question his beliefs and practices and raised awareness that his beliefs were not always reflected in his practices. He then seemed to explore alternative practices, such as context-based presentations, meaningful controlled practice, allowing more time for freer practice and student self-correction.

Thirdly, although his beliefs started to change during the study as he increased his awareness of the complexities involved, changes in his practices did not keep pace (see Table 7.4 and Figure 7.1 below), possibly because the MA failed to provide sufficient practical guidance, or because his grasp of the background theory remained

somewhat shaky at times. This meant that his practices frequently did not reflect his stated beliefs.

Finally, his practices seem to be strongly influenced by conflicting and at times competing beliefs. Thus, his belief in the need to engage learners, meet their expectations and retain control over the flow of the lesson caused him to use rule-based presentations and mechanical practice despite his belief that they are not effective in promoting learning. I summarise these developments in Figure 7.1 and Table 7.4 below.



*EGT=explicit grammar teaching, Pres=presenting, CP/FP=controlled/freer practice, EC=error correction

Figure 7.1: Summary of developments in Mark's beliefs

Table 7.4: Overview of Mark's grammar teaching practices

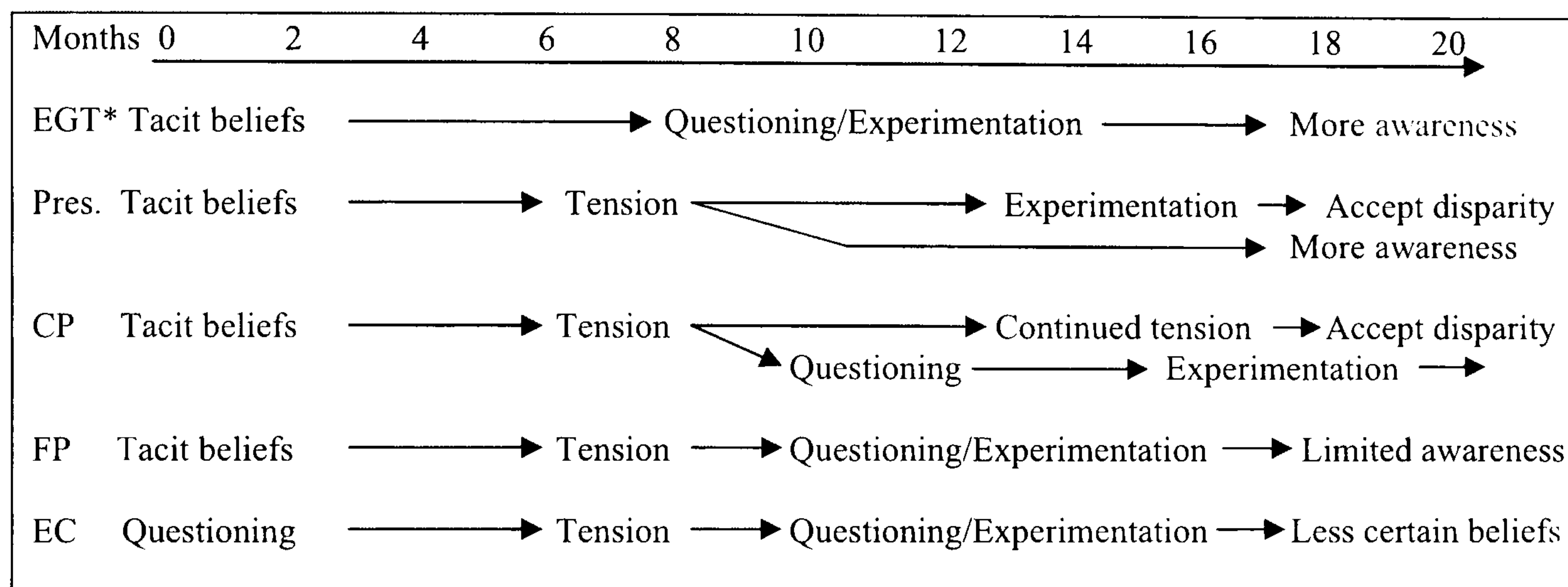
	Presenting grammar	Controlled practice	Freer-practice	Error-correction
Obs1	No presentation	Mechanical gap-fill	Free speaking not linked to grammar	No correction
Obs2	Context-based presentation	Mechanical gap-fill	Sts make dialogue (next lesson)	Teacher/self/peer correction
Obs3	Rule-based presentation	Error correction task (sentence-level)	Freer practice of target grammar	Teacher /self/peer correction Correction activity

7.2.2 Processes and influences

The previous section highlighted five features of Mark's work. Developments in specific aspects of his teaching are unlikely to have occurred in isolation from each other and may have been part of an overall process, so in the following section I outline the key processes and influences related to developments in his work which were salient in the data.

7.2.2.1 Common processes

Analysis of the individual processes related to developments in specific aspects of Mark's work (see Figure 7.2 for a summary of these individual processes) revealed common processes which influenced these specific developments. I now explore these in greater depth collectively so as to highlight more holistic stages of development.



*EGT=explicit grammar teaching, Pres=presenting, CP/FP=controlled/freer practice, EC=error correction

Figure 7.2: Summary of processes in the development of Mark's beliefs and practices

At the start of the study Mark seemed to have already embraced a strong belief in explicit grammar teaching, yet both his beliefs and practices were largely tacit and unquestioned. He felt unsure how to present and practise grammar, and how and when to correct learners' grammatical errors, as he had not yet developed routines for these:

I need to change the way I teach...the MA will teach me a lot about controlled and freer practice...I really started to think about how you correct grammatical errors. (MI1:451-510)

During the next ten months, both the MA and at times this study helped him gradually become aware of tensions between his grammar teaching beliefs and practices:

SP: To what extent do you feel your teaching reflects your beliefs?

M: That's a hard question. I'd like to think so, but I'm not sure that it does. (MI2:295)

He felt the MA had not provided him with sufficient practical guidance in terms of 'specific teaching ideas for how to teach certain grammar points' (MI2:349) to help him change aspects of his teaching in line with changes in his beliefs. Moreover, he was struggling with conflicting and competing beliefs, such as trying to balance his belief that engaging and motivating learners was fundamental to learning with his specific beliefs that grammar should be presented in context and that grammar practice should be meaningful.

He then seemed to go through a period of questioning and exploration, trying to understand student learning, come to terms with student expectations, and find ways of teaching according to his beliefs. As he learnt more about student learning and different grammar teaching techniques and approaches on the MA, he began to explore aspects of explicit grammar teaching. In particular he started presenting more grammar in context, trying to make controlled practice more meaningful, allowing more time for freer practice by extending his grammar lessons beyond 50 minutes, and working on error correction by consciously thinking about it during planning. During this time he also began trying out different approaches to grammar lessons, ‘sometimes using PPP, sometimes TTT’ (MP2:440). Admittedly he was now only teaching five hours a week, as I mentioned above, and this meant he had less time to explore his teaching than if he had been teaching 20 hours a week.

Nevertheless, these tensions among his competing beliefs and between his beliefs and practices persisted, and he still used rule-based presentations and mechanical gap-fills for controlled practice because of student expectations. Moreover, his relative lack of established grammar teaching routines at times made it hard for him to teach in line with his beliefs. By the end of the study he was still questioning his beliefs and exploring his practices, trying to make controlled practice more meaningful, give learners more feedback after freer practice and encourage learners to self-correct. He was also trying to come to terms with the disparity between learners’ preferences and expectations and his own beliefs:

If you try to do it your way, they won’t respond. Maybe a few will, but the majority won’t, unless your way is similar to theirs...there has to be a balance, but I don’t know the correct balance. (MI3:532-7)

Overall, Mark’s developments seemed to undergo three main developmental and roughly chronological, yet overlapping, phases:

- Being made aware of tensions between his beliefs and practices (0-10 months), stimulated by this study and the MA;
- Questioning his beliefs and exploring aspects of his practices (7-18 months), again to some extent stimulated by the MA and this study;
- Continued exploration and questioning, developing awareness and coming to terms with disparities between learners’ expectations and his beliefs (18-20 months).

Analytically these processes may appear linear, but I am not suggesting that they represent a distinct transition between stages. I shall return to these processes in Chapter 8 below where I represent them in more complex ways.

Having looked at the development of Mark's beliefs and practices specifically in relation to five salient facets of his grammar teaching, and having considered some common processes involved, I now look at ways in which the MA contributed to these developments.

7.2.2.2 Contribution of the MA to these developments

The MA seems to have contributed to the developments in Mark's beliefs and practices in a number of ways. The main impacts of the MA evident in the data relate to his beliefs, awareness and teaching.

Questioning of beliefs

The [MA] Linguistics course really has changed a lot about how I view teaching. It's changed things dramatically...now I can see they need to study the grammar rules...one thing I got out of the course was that focus-on-form really speeds up the learning process...which I agree with. (MI1:271-81)

As the above extract from the first interview illustrates, Mark had not questioned many of his existing, mostly tacit, beliefs, and was unsure how they related to theory. Input, assignments and assessed teaching practice on the MA seem to have helped him make these beliefs explicit and to begin questioning them, as he commented ten months into the study:

Learning about different approaches...having to plan assessed lessons [for assessed teaching practice on the MA] justifying my choice of approach helped me question my beliefs and deepen my understanding. (MI2:415-8)

It also helped raise awareness of tensions he was previously unaware of between his beliefs and practices and among conflicting beliefs concerning context- and rule-based presentations, and mechanical and meaningful controlled practice. This influence of the MA is hardly surprising given the substantial input, guidance and readings about SLA, grammar teaching and learning, and language analysis provided in the first four months (see Table 7.2 above).

Awareness of learning and learner needs

We've had very few MA grammar sessions analysing learner difficulties...I'd have preferred...more specific teaching ideas for certain grammar points earlier. (MI2:348-9)

Ten months into the study, reflecting on the contribution of the MA, he wished he had had more practical grammar teaching input to help him think about and overcome learner problems with grammar. He also lamented the lack of language analysis sessions early in the MA (these tended to come mostly in the second year of the MA):

I wish the language analysis sessions had been earlier...it wasn't learning a particular point per se that was useful, but learning how to look at the point in depth...from students' point of view as well, and thinking what they'll find difficult. (MI3:445-55)

Nevertheless, he clearly felt the MA had increased his awareness of learners and their difficulties with grammar:

I'm more aware of learners, their preferences and styles, what they're used to, what they feel will be useful...now I can look at a point in depth...from students' point of view, and think what they'll find difficult. (MI3:164-75)

It also increased his grammatical awareness, which gave him more confidence:

I'm more aware of many things about grammar since the MA...before when teaching grammar I'd only look at that particular grammar point...but now I go into class much more aware, 'if they ask this, I can relate it to something else', so it's widened my awareness...and MA has helped me go into class prepared more for those type of questions I didn't know what to do about before...it's given me the ability to answer them a bit more quickly...I'm more prepared for questions that might come out of left-field. (MI3:410-39)

He thus felt better able to plan for and respond to unexpected student questions.

Exploring teaching

The MA has helped me prepare for teaching grammar...I know when I teach a grammar point what I need to prepare. I need to prepare the rule for what they need...a little bit of context for those interested in context...the appropriate amount of practice, but not so much that it takes over the lesson, and move right into something productive that'll grab and keep their attention, then contingency plans for all of these things. (MI3:459-65)

Having had little experience of explicit grammar teaching before the study meant that he was not always able to teach in line with the above statement, but the MA helped him explore his practices, and he felt he had a better understanding of how to prepare and teach grammar lessons. Ten months into the study he particularly felt he had learnt more about PPP and that this served as a template for his lessons: 'the MA

has taught me how to plan and teach PPP...I think it's becoming instinctive...it works for me actually' (MP2:393-6). Although the MA did not specifically promote PPP, it was focused on and discussed along with TTT and TBL (see Appendix 2.1).

By the end of the study he felt that learning about PPP and TTT (although he never mentioned TBL at all during the study) had enabled him to then be more principled in choosing which approach to follow in any one lesson:

SP: How has the MA influenced the way you teach grammar?

M: My lessons are forming more of a shape than I think they used to before...I have a better idea whether the lesson's going to be PPP or TTT before I go in. (MI3:470-4)

He also felt the MA had helped improve his understanding of grammar teaching so he could choose when and why to use rule- or context-based presentations. It also seems to have encouraged him to try using more meaningful controlled practice, giving more time for freer practice and using specific error correction activities. Perhaps most importantly the MA helped him find his own style of grammar teaching: 'now I've found where the comfort zone is...so I think the MA has made me a more solid grammar teacher, whereas before I was kind of everywhere' (MI3:598-601). This was important given that he had not previously developed routines for grammar teaching.

However, the MA does not seem to have provided enough practical support and guidance for him to develop routines for freer practice and error correction to enable his practices to reflect his beliefs. It is unclear whether this is related to his relative lack of grammar teaching experience, but this nevertheless has clear implications for teacher education. I discuss this issue further in Chapter 9 below.

In conclusion, Mark felt the MA had influenced the development of his grammar teaching beliefs and practices by encouraging him to question his beliefs, increasing his awareness of learners and their needs, and providing a framework within which he could explore his teaching and begin to develop routines. Aspects of the MA which seemed to contribute to these development are as follows:

- Explicitly focusing on teacher beliefs, questioning beliefs and teaching;
- Input about different approaches, although lack of practical support and guidance seems to have hindered the development of his practices;
- Analysing language in terms of complexity and learner difficulty, although he wished this had taken place earlier during the MA;
- Writing assignments and planning lessons in detail for assessed teaching practice, justifying choices and relating these to theory and learner needs.

7.2.2.3 Influence of the study

A final point to make is that this study seemed to influence the development of Mark's beliefs and practices in three ways. Firstly, looking at the first lesson transcription helped him see his teaching in a new light: 'I never looked at a lesson like this before, it fascinates me' (MP1:474). Discussing this lesson with me then helped him notice how he might have got students to use '2nd conditional' in a speaking activity - 'I didn't notice what they were using...until I read the transcription' (MP1:376-7) - and how he might have corrected them afterwards - 'that's very interesting...I could've corrected them here' (MP1:294). This may have helped stimulate his awareness of grammar when planning freer practice activities and when monitoring them in class.

Secondly, discussing the second lesson with me seems to have helped him realise that he might be using controlled practice as a classroom management tool: 'that's interesting, I never noticed before that that's why I was doing it' (MP2:466). Thirdly, reflecting on his confusion of 'been/gone' in the second lesson (during elicitation of the difference between the two, he felt he had confused learners with his explanations, see Appendix 7.7) seemed to help raise his awareness of the importance of his own grammatical knowledge, as he himself pointed out later towards the end of the study:

The 'have been/have gone' lesson I did with you, I think something changed there with being more attentive to things. I was so focused on have been/have gone that I became very confused in the lesson...so that's definitely a time when something changed.
(MP3:652-6)

Participation in the study, then, afforded Mark several opportunities to develop his understandings and practices in relation to grammar teaching.

7.3 Summary of key issues

In the final section of this chapter I summarise the key issues which emerged from the above analysis of the development of Mark's beliefs and practices.

- *Becoming aware of existing beliefs and practices.* An important starting point for his learning seems to have been raising awareness of his existing beliefs and practices, stimulated by the MA and involvement in this study. As explicit grammar teaching was new to him his beliefs and practices were unquestioned. Exposure to learning theories and approaches to grammar on the MA enabled him to become aware of and question his beliefs and routines, and gave him some theoretical underpinning for these, although his grasp of the theory remained at times unclear.

- *Developing new routines.* Lack of established routines made this a challenging process as he had to develop new routines, and he felt the MA did not always provide sufficient practical guidance. In particular he began using PPP and TTT, context-based presentations, meaningful practice, longer freer practice and specific error correction activities to see if they would work. It seems that he needed to see that such alternative practices could enhance student learning without reducing their involvement and engagement, and without causing classroom management problems.
- *Conflicting beliefs.* Another key issue to emerge from this case is the importance of his beliefs in engaging and motivating learners and meeting their expectations. These beliefs seemed to be core to his view of teaching and learning, and conflicted with his specific beliefs that grammar should be presented in context and that controlled practice should be meaningful. Such tensions among beliefs can cause teachers to teach in ways which appear to conflict with some of their stated beliefs.
- *Catalysts for learning.* The MA seemed to help Mark become aware of and question his beliefs and practices, give him a theoretical basis upon which to reflect, and provide a framework for exploring aspects of his teaching and developing routines. Planning lessons in detail for assessed teaching practice also helped him explore and justify his practices. It also seems clear, however, that the process of participating in this study, in particular discussing issues with me from time to time and having the opportunity to read and analyse transcriptions of his lessons, helped him reflect on his teaching and notice aspects of it that might not have happened otherwise.

8. SUMMARY OF THE THREE CASES

Before discussing the results of this study (in Chapter 9 below), I briefly summarise the three cases discussed in the previous three chapters here in order to identify commonalities and differences in the development of teachers' beliefs and practices. I do this in three ways; (1) by looking at the key characteristics of their grammar teaching; (2) by comparing the respective tensions between their beliefs and practices and among conflicting beliefs; and (3) by highlighting the main similarities and differences in the development of their beliefs and practices during the study, and the processes and influences related to these developments.

8.1 Grammar teaching practices and beliefs

I analysed salient facets of the three teachers' grammar teaching in detail in Chapters 5-7 above. Here I attempt to bring these together to show common features of their practices and the beliefs underlying these, as well as to highlight individual differences. Rather than focusing on all aspects of their grammar teaching, I have selected six areas which seem to best characterise their practices; form-focused instruction, presentation of grammar, grammar practice, grammar and communication, error correction and grammatical terminology.

8.1.1 Focus on form

A central element of all three teachers' work was their formal attention to grammar, which they termed 'focus on form' and contrasted with '*not* focusing on form'. Their practices, however, tended to reflect what is more commonly defined as 'focus on forms' (Ellis 2001; Long 1991) where grammar is taught explicitly in specific grammar lessons rather than being dealt with in the context of communicative work.

The three teachers defined their approach and lesson structure in terms of PPP, and their observed practices tended to reflect a so-called 'weak form of PPP' (Ellis 2006) in which grammar is presented in context with a focus on form and meaning and integrated with fluency work (see Hedge 2000; Ur 1991). They all mentioned TTT as an alternative approach, and both Anne and Mark stated that they alternated between PPP and TTT in their regular teaching. Although both Anne and Daphne talked about TBL, there was no evidence that they used this approach in the study. Daphne's discussions, however, revealed that she occasionally followed an approach which seemed to reflect

Ellis's (2006) 'incidental focus on form', whereby grammar is focused on as it arises from a communicative activity.

All three teachers already seemed to strongly believe in the value of formal instruction both before and throughout the study. They cited acquisitional reasons as the main influence on this belief, which is not surprising given that the MA covered issues related to SLA and grammar learning. They also felt that learners expected formal instruction, and had been influenced in different ways by their own language learning experiences. Thus, Anne's own language learning had been heavily form-focused, yet this had not been sufficient for her to be able to use the language to communicate; Daphne had enjoyed learning grammar, but had found communicative teaching more pleasurable and memorable; whereas Mark had found grammar teaching boring and had also preferred communicative teaching.

Initial teacher education seems to have influenced the three teachers in different ways. Anne seemed to have unquestioningly accepted the belief in formal instruction promoted on her CELTA course without understanding why, unlike Daphne who seemed able to justify her beliefs, whereas Mark's initial teacher education had encouraged him not to focus explicitly on form. His beliefs, however, seemed to have begun to change at the start of the study due to pre-reading done prior to the MA.

There were similarities and differences between the ways each teacher conducted formal instruction in the lessons I observed. These are summarised in Table 8.1 below, and discussed in greater detail in the following sections.

Table 8.1 Aspects of grammar teaching

	Anne	Daphne	Mark
Lesson structure	PPP	PPP	PPP
Presentation	Context-based Inductive Discovery Elicitation Form and meaning	Context-based Deductive/inductive Discovery Elicitation Form and meaning	Rule/context-based Deductive/inductive No discovery Little elicitation Form (and meaning)
Practice	Sentence-level gap-fills Text-level gap-fills Freer speaking/writing	Sentence-level gap-fills Text-level gap-fills Freer speaking/writing	Sentence-level gap-fills Freer speaking/writing
Grammar and communication	Overall theme Link to skills work Natural communication	Overall theme Link to skills work Natural communication	Overall theme Link to skills work
Error correction	Range of techniques	Range of techniques	Initial avoidance Range of techniques
Terminology	Explicit use	Explicit use	Explicit use

8.1.2 Presenting grammar

All the lessons I observed (except Mark's first lesson) began with a grammar presentation. All three teachers showed an awareness of different types of presentation, which they categorised as rule-based (where target sentences are presented in isolation) and context-based (where target sentences are drawn from a text which learners have already worked with). Whereas all Anne and Daphne's lessons were context-based, Mark used both approaches. Their presentations can also be categorised as deductive (where learners focus on the form before using it) or inductive (where learners use the language before focusing on the form), although the teachers themselves rarely used the terms. All Anne's presentations, two of Daphne's and one of Mark's were inductive, while Daphne and Mark both used one deductive presentation.

Teachers' explanations show they chose their approaches for acquisitional reasons, because of learners' preferences and because of possibly unquestioned routines they had developed (see Table 8.2 below). Thus, Anne felt she had developed a routine for presenting grammar (which involved setting a context, eliciting a model sentence and checking concept) which she had learnt on her CELTA course. Daphne also made use of elicitation and concept checking, but seemed to have developed a more flexible stance and could move between approaches. Mark, however, had not previously developed routines for presenting grammar. Instead he developed his own conceptualisation of teaching new grammar deductively and remedial grammar inductively, as he felt students responded better.

Table 8.2 Grammar presentations

Types of reasons	Explanations given
Acquisitional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • seeing the grammar in a text makes it more meaningful and helps them learn better (Anne) • a story shows them how the grammar point is used and this makes the learning more meaningful (Anne) • context-based presentations lead to better learning (Anne) • if they start thinking about the grammar they'll ignore meaning (Daphne) • I present grammar because they're the basic building blocks you need to manipulate all the functions and skills (Daphne) • because it's a revision lesson I used a context-based presentation as it helps students learn better (Mark)
Student expectations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • if you present the grammar point first, they see the point of doing the activity as it's what they expect (Daphne) • students respond better to rule-based presentations (Mark)
Previous routines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • it's a kind of fossilised habit maybe, I always do it this way (Anne) • I automatically went into presentation-mode (Daphne)

Experience may be an important factor as Daphne (with six years' experience) seemed to have automatised more routines and could create a grammar presentation without a need for materials, whereas Anne (two and a half years) tended to rely more on materials and lessons she had used before, and Mark (two years) had to use materials at hand or create his own, which he found difficult at times.

8.1.3 Grammar practice

All three teachers used grammar practice activities which they categorised as controlled and freer practice. Both Anne and Daphne had learnt to use such activities in their initial teacher education, and seemed to have already developed routines, whereas Mark had not had much experience of doing grammar practice before the start of the study. They all justified their decision to use grammar practice in acquisitional terms, although their rationale was at times somewhat superficial (see Table 8.3 below), and rarely mentioned background theory such as restructuring or proceduralisation (see McLaughlin 1990; Skehan 1998), for example.

Table 8.3 Grammar practice

Types of reasons	Explanations given
Acquisitional	<u>Controlled practice</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • practice without any risks helps them learn (Anne) • practice helps them to understand the meaning (Anne) • it's more meaningful than mechanical gap fills (Daphne) • focusing on meaning first helps them learn better (Daphne) • students learn better if they are encouraged to think (Mark) <u>Freer practice</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • using the language helps them learn (Anne, Daphne, Mark) • to produce something personal and meaningful (Daphne)
Diagnostic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to check their learning (Anne, Mark) • to see what they could produce (Mark)
Student expectations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • students like rules a lot, they feel secure in that (Anne) • students respond well to mechanical exercises (Daphne, Mark)
Classroom management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • gap-fills calm students down if they're unruly (Daphne, Mark)
Lack of alternatives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • it was the only exercise I had at hand (Anne, Mark)

Despite expressing dissatisfaction with sentence-level gap-fill exercises, which tend to practise form at the expense of meaning, they all used them, albeit for different reasons:

- Students' expectations (Anne/Daphne);
- Classroom management (Daphne/Mark);
- Lack of alternatives at hand (Anne/Mark).

I discuss the relationship between beliefs and practices in detail in section 8.2 below. As the study progressed, both Anne and Daphne began using text-level practice activities which were linked to the overall theme of the lesson, as they felt this enabled them to focus learners' attention on meaning better than sentence-level practice which they felt was 'mechanical'.

8.1.4 Communication and grammar

An important aspect of the teachers' work was the way grammar was integrated with communication. They all stated that the underlying purpose of teaching grammar was to enable learners to communicate, and saw communication as fundamental to language learning (see Table 8.4 below). This was reflected in their practices in four ways:

- they integrated grammar lessons with skills lessons in their regular teaching, such that any one grammar lesson might be preceded and/or followed by a skills lesson;
- all the lessons I observed were linked to an overall communicative theme;
- grammar was often extracted from a text which learners had focused on during skills work, while grammar work led to productive skills work with a communicative focus;
- Anne and Daphne attempted to foster natural communication as much as possible.

Table 8.4 Grammar and communication

Teacher	Explanations
Anne	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When the class is communicative I feel it's more constructive • I try to have as much genuine interaction as possible as it's natural communication • Good communication helps their language processing
Daphne	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You need grammar to be able to communicate • I want to create a natural dialogue in order to really engage students • It's important to find something they are interested in and want to talk about
Mark	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students need grammar so they can express ideas • Grammar should be linked to skills work wherever possible

8.1.5 Error correction

Although Anne expressed an initial lack of confidence in error correction, and Mark initially avoided it, all three teachers explicitly corrected learners' errors using a range of teacher-, peer-, and self-correction techniques during accuracy-based activities, and tended to deliberately not correct during fluency activities. They all seemed to have developed routines for correction which were unconscious and had likely been

influenced by their own learning and language learning experiences. While they all emphasised the acquisitional value of explicit error correction, their practices were also influenced by a perception that students expected them to correct their errors (see Table 8.5 below). Indeed, Mark tended to directly correct learners' errors despite expressing a preference for self-correction because he felt this met their expectations even though he felt this was not pedagogically sound practice. Both Anne and Mark tried to find ways to engage learners with their errors, while Daphne expressed a preference for a specific error correction stage after fluency-based activities.

Table 8.5 Error correction

Teacher	Type of correction	Explanations
Anne	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher/peer correction • Self correction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners need to be corrected during accuracy focus • I want to encourage learner correction more
Daphne	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Error correction stage • Teacher/self correction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I always focus on errors to tie things up at the end • Students sometimes need help to get it right
Mark	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No correction • T/self/peer correction • Error correction activity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I didn't notice that they were making errors • Correction is helpful for learning • It's important to get students to engage with errors

8.1.6 Grammatical terminology

All three teachers made explicit use of grammatical terminology in all their lessons, essentially for two main reasons (see Table 8.6 below): (1) because of students' expectations, with both Daphne and Mark mentioning the importance of being seen to know terminology so as to gain students' respect and confidence; and (2) because it enhances learning by serving as a common reference point for teachers and students in class and helps students study on their own using reference books.

Table 8.6 Reasons for using terminology

Teacher	Type of reason	Explanations
Anne	Acquisitional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It helps them learn outside class • It scaffolds the rule in a way, it helps their learning
	Student expectations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students expect it, some learners find it useful
Daphne	Acquisitional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It's a basic shorthand for students and me • They don't always need fancy terminology
	Student expectations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students expect it
Mark	Acquisitional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It helps them to recognise and acquire the pattern • It's a point of reference which helps them learn
	Student expectations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students expect it

8.2 Congruence and tensions

In this section I briefly consider the extent to which teachers practices were congruent with their stated beliefs. In doing so, I summarise and categorise the main tensions between their beliefs and practices, and also among different competing beliefs. Although teachers' grammar teaching was largely congruent with their beliefs (see 8.1 above), the study also revealed practices which appeared not to reflect their stated beliefs, as I showed in Chapters 5-7 above. These are summarised in Table 8.7 below.

Table 8.7: Tensions and reasons

Teacher	Stated beliefs	Conflicting practices	Explanations given
Anne	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • T should release control • group-work is beneficial • sentence-level practice is not beneficial • T should correct errors • pronunciation of new grammar should be taught 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • teacher-centred • lockstep oral practice • sentence-level gap-fill • avoided direct correction • avoided pronunciation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fear of losing control • fear of losing control • student expectations/ lack of practical ideas • concern with student affect • lack of practical ideas
Daphne	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • grammar should be presented in context • learners learn better if they discover the rules • sentence-level practice is not beneficial 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • rule-based presentation • deductive presentation • sentence-level gap-fill 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fear of losing control/ student expectations • student expectations • classroom management/ student expectations
Mark	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • grammar should be presented in context • learners learn better if they discover the rules • sentence-level practice is not beneficial • T should correct errors • self-correction is better 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • rule-based presentation • deductive presentation • sentence-level gap-fill • avoided direct correction • direct correction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • student expectations • student expectations • classroom management/ lack of practical ideas • concern with student affect • n/a

Despite the differences between the three cases, Table 8.7 shows that there are similar patterns evident in the reasons teachers gave for apparent tensions between their stated beliefs and the practices I observed. These can be categorised as follows:

- *Fear of losing control.* All three teachers were concerned about maintaining control over the class, and not losing face if unable to deal with unexpected questions, which led them to avoid group-work (Anne/Daphne) and elicitation (Anne/Mark).

- *Learner expectations.* Teachers' concern with meeting learners' expectations caused them to present grammar deductively (Daphne/Mark) and use mechanical sentence-level practice (Anne/Daphne/Mark) despite doubting their acquisitional value.
- *Classroom management.* Both Daphne and Mark used 'fill-in-the-blanks' gap-fill exercises at times to calm learners down as they felt learners would respond well.
- *Learner affect.* Concern with learners' affect, partly influenced by their own language learning experiences, caused Anne and Mark to feel reticent about, and at times to avoid, explicit correction of their grammatical errors during accuracy work.
- *Lack of practical ideas.* The absence of well-developed routines and access to suitable materials prevented Anne from integrating pronunciation into her grammar teaching and Mark from conducting grammar practice in line with his beliefs.

These tensions, however, can also be seen in terms of conflicting beliefs competing for influence over teachers' practices. Thus, 'fear of losing control' suggests a fundamental belief that learning is enhanced when the teacher is in control over the flow of classroom events and is able to effectively manage the learning environment, while 'learner expectations' and 'classroom management' hint at an underlying belief that learning is improved when learners are engaged and motivated and when teaching is in line with learners' own learning preferences. Similarly, 'learner affect' implies a belief in the importance of respecting learners' psychological well-being, and that unwarranted stress and frustration may block learning.

The study shows that these beliefs (that learning is enhanced when learners are engaged cognitively and affectively, when their expectations are met, and when order, control and flow of the lesson are maintained) were strongly rooted in all three teachers, and that they tended to outweigh specific beliefs about grammar teaching, which had been formed by teachers' own language learning experiences and influenced by underlying theory learnt on the MA. This indicates that their core beliefs (about learning generally) consistently or temporarily caused them to teach in ways which seemed to contradict particular beliefs (about grammar teaching), such as, for example, how to present and practise grammar, and whether, when and how to correct grammatical errors.

8.3 Developments, processes and influences

In the previous two sections of this chapter I outlined the main characteristics of teachers' grammar teaching, and highlighted tensions between their beliefs and practices, and among conflicting beliefs. In this section I now consider the ways in which their beliefs and practices developed holistically, and the processes and influences related to these developments.

Analysis of the development of the teachers' beliefs and practices and the processes and influences regarding their development revealed commonalities, but also highlighted the unique nature of each teacher. Before looking at these similarities and differences, I should briefly remind readers of three important individual differences in the teachers' backgrounds (see Table 8.8 below); Daphne had much greater experience than the others, Mark had had far less time to adapt to a new culture and teaching context, while both Daphne and Mark only taught five hours per week during the second year of the study.

Table 8.8 Differences in teacher profiles

	Anne	Daphne	Mark
Previous experience (years)	2.5	6	2
Time in context prior to study (months)	7	7	2
Teaching hours per week	20	5	5

8.3.1 Developments in beliefs and practices

Despite individual differences in the ways teachers' beliefs and practices developed during the study, there are noticeable similarities which I summarise below in terms of beliefs, awareness and teaching. It should be remembered, though, that these developments were influenced by both the MA and the intervention of this study, as I discuss in 8.3.3 below.

Strengthened and deepened beliefs

The findings did not reveal radical substantive changes to any of the teachers' beliefs during the study. Instead, many of their beliefs seem to have been strengthened, deepened and/or restructured. Their own reflections and observations of learners, facilitated by the MA and the study, helped teachers question their initial beliefs in the light of their practices and to try to relate them to background theory, and on the whole this led them to confirm or slightly modify the structure of their initial beliefs. Changes to the structure of teachers' beliefs were evident in four ways:

- *Understanding of complexities.* All three teachers developed their understanding of the complex nature of, for example, explicit focus on form (Anne/Daphne/Mark), PPP (Anne) presentations (Anne/Daphne/Mark), and terminology (Daphne).
- *Theoretical underpinning.* Anne and Daphne were able to justify their beliefs about the value of, for example, explicit focus on form, error correction and pronunciation (Anne), discovery learning and meaningful grammar practice (Daphne), in terms of underlying theory provided by the MA. This was less evident in Mark's case.
- *Competing beliefs.* The relationships within teachers' network of beliefs were structured such that core beliefs in the importance of maintaining control and meeting learners' expectations outweighed more specific beliefs. Teachers' awareness of their tacit beliefs enabled them to notice tensions among competing beliefs, as outlined previously. This led Daphne and Mark, for example, to accept disparities between their beliefs and learners' preferences about discovery learning and meaningful practice, thus causing a restructuring of their belief systems.
- *Slight modifications.* Some beliefs did undergo slight modifications. Both Anne and Mark, for example, no longer saw PPP as their sole option for teaching grammar, and developed their own rationale for using PPP or TTT.

Increased awareness of grammar and learners' difficulties

A comparison of the findings of the three cases also shows that each teacher felt a marked increase in their awareness of grammar, how learners learn and the type of problems they have learning different aspects of grammar, and that this had made them more tolerant of learners' difficulties. The MA seems to have stimulated this through theoretical input about grammar learning, language analysis, discussion of particular grammar points in terms of learners' difficulties and teaching ideas, and assessed teaching practice and assignments which forced them to consider alternatives and justify their choices.

This increased awareness gave both Anne and Mark more confidence in terms of how to structure and stage lessons and choose activities, when and how to correct learners' grammatical errors and to be able to deal with unexpected questions. Anne also felt more confident that she could think on her feet and respond to unexpected situations in class, while Mark felt more confident in his own grammatical knowledge. Mark and Anne seemed to develop their levels of awareness more during the study than

Daphne, which may be related to the latter's greater experience, as she may already have been highly aware.

More principled teaching

There were clear individual differences in the ways teachers' grammar teaching developed during the study. So, for example, Anne released control by using more elicitation and pair- and group-work, became more flexible with her use of PPP, and started integrating pronunciation work; Daphne and Mark both used more text-level grammar practice activities, and tried to alternate between rule-based and context-based presentations according to frameworks they had developed; and Mark started developing new routines for aspects of his grammar teaching such as explicitly correcting errors and designing freer practice activities.

However, all three cases showed similarities in that each teacher seemed to develop a more principled approach to the planning and delivery of their lessons, albeit to different degrees. This is not surprising given that one of the key aims of the MA was to develop teachers' practical teaching skills and encourage them to justify their pedagogical choices (see Chapter 2). Teachers also felt better equipped to choose between various options when planning and teaching, identify learner needs and predict problems and plan in greater detail.

8.3.2 Processes

Although teachers' beliefs and practices developed in unique individual ways, clear similarities emerged in terms of the processes each teacher seemed to undergo. I summarise these in terms of dissatisfaction, questioning, experimenting and developing new routines.

Dissatisfaction with existing beliefs and practices

Teachers' learning seemed to be stimulated to a large extent by dissatisfaction with aspects of their grammar teaching. Both Anne and Daphne had spent seven months prior to the study trying to adapt their existing grammar teaching routines to their new teaching context. Sharing their classes with other teachers and following a prescribed curriculum were relatively new to both of them, and coupled with students' expectations and learning habits, this tended to cause them both to teach more 'traditionally' (deductive and controlling) than they wished. Mark, however, had limited experience

and previous routines to draw upon, and had only had two months to get used to a new teaching context. Moreover, he felt the MA did not provide enough initial guidance in designing grammar lessons, especially for presenting and practising grammar. Both Daphne and Mark struggled with a dilemma of how to balance their core beliefs in engaging and motivating learners and meeting their expectations with beliefs in discovery and the importance of meaning and context.

The teachers were already aware of some tensions between their current and previous practices, between their beliefs and practices, and among conflicting beliefs at the start of the study, whereas others emerged in the course of the study, in part influenced by the MA and involvement in this study (I explore this further in the next section). Nevertheless, awareness of such tensions seems to have been a prerequisite for all three teachers' learning.

Questioning and experimenting

In order to address these dilemmas and tensions, all three teachers went through periods of questioning and exploration of varying lengths depending on each particular tension (see Figures 5.1, 6.1, 7.1 above). While it is difficult to be sure about teachers' thinking and behaviour during the times between interviews and observations when I had no contact with them, their comments indicated that they had been questioning and exploring during these periods, something which is likely to have been facilitated by MA work, such as assessed teaching practice. This enabled them to adapt their existing routines and to some extent develop relatively new ones. Daphne, for example, began trying out aspects of her previous routines, especially regarding discovery learning and meaningful controlled practice, which she felt brought positive results. Both Mark and Anne experimented with error correction, freer practice and extending their lessons beyond 50 minutes. Anne tried releasing control and using group-work, and found that the benefits of both outweighed the risks in terms of classroom management. Daphne and Mark's exploration of grammar presentations seemed to involve a dialectic process of alternating between deductive and inductive presentations before creating their own flexible framework of when to use which approach.

Developing new routines

Exploring alternative practices seems to have helped all three teachers to develop new routines and to adapt existing ones (see Table 8.9 below). Daphne was

able to adapt her previous routines and to come to terms with tensions between her beliefs and learners' expectations and learning preferences. Anne managed to extend her previous routines and develop more confidence in these routines, thus enabling her to focus more on student learning and less on her own face. Mark, however, gradually began to establish new routines and started to see himself as a grammar teacher for the first time. There is no evidence, however, of him extending previous routines.

Table 8.9 Development of new routines

Teacher	Extend previous routines	Develop new routines	Continue experimenting
Anne	PPP Controlled practice	Elicitation Group-work in oral practice	Freer practice Pronunciation
Daphne	Presentation Controlled practice	n/a	Discovery learning
Mark	n/a	Presentation Controlled practice Freer practice	Error correction Controlled practice Freer practice

Again experience may have played an important role. Whereas Daphne (who had the most experience) seemed content with her teaching by the end of the study, Anne was still exploring freer practice and pronunciation, and Mark (who had the least experience) was still questioning controlled practice, freer practice and error correction. Both Daphne and Anne had learnt initial routines from their respective CELTA courses which seem to have given them a solid basis which the MA then built on, something which Mark, whose initial teacher education had discouraged formal instruction, lacked.

8.3.3 Influences

Although developments in teachers' beliefs and practices were influenced by individual factors (e.g., willingness to learn and openness to new ideas) the MA and involvement in the study both powerfully influenced these developments as I now show.

The MA

The MA clearly influenced each of the three teachers differently. Daphne had significantly more experience of grammar teaching than the others, and felt it had not taught her much in terms of practical ideas, although it made her more aware. Anne had less experience but had established a template for grammar teaching she had learnt from the CELTA, and was already aware of many aspects of her practices that she wished to develop. She felt she had learnt a lot from the MA, even though I worked with her for a shorter period of time than the others. Mark, on the other hand, had only recently started

explicitly teaching grammar and had little access to established routines. Although he felt he had developed greater awareness and confidence, he often lamented the lack of practical guidance he felt the MA had provided.

In general teachers felt that the following aspects of the MA positively influenced the development of their beliefs and practices, as shown in Chapters 5-7:

- Explicitly focusing on teacher beliefs (Anne/Daphne/Mark);
- Encouraging critical engagement with input, beliefs, teaching (Anne/Daphne/Mark);
- Detailed lesson planning as part of assessed teaching practice, justifying choices related to theory and learners (Anne/Mark);
- Writing assignments relating practice to theory/learner needs (Anne/Daphne/Mark);
- Seeing examples of alternative practice, effects on teacher/learners (Anne/Daphne);
- Experimenting, and seeing how this works for self and learners (Anne/Daphne).

Research involvement

Involvement in this study provided teachers with the opportunity to discuss aspects of their real practices, and this is likely to have impacted, consciously or unconsciously, on their beliefs and practices. Both Mark and Anne mentioned this more than once without my prompting, as I showed in Chapters 5 and 7 above. Discussing the rationale for aspects of his practices with me and reading lesson transcriptions helped Mark reflect and notice aspects of his practices regarding error correction and freer practice which he may otherwise not have noticed. For Anne, involvement in the study seemed to have a significant influence on all aspects of her development, and to complement her learning from the MA. Although Daphne did not mention this, it cannot be assumed that this was not the case.

9. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the importance of the findings of the three case studies in relation to existing knowledge about grammar teaching, teacher beliefs, teacher learning and teacher education. In particular I argue that this study builds on and further advances our understanding of teachers' conceptualisations of their practices, tensions between teachers' beliefs and practices and among competing beliefs, and the ways in which teacher education influences developments in teachers' beliefs and practices. I will first summarise the answers to my research questions, then look in detail at the main contributions of this study, and finally outline its main limitations.

9.1 Research questions revisited

At this stage I wish to reiterate the research questions this study explored:

RQ1: What are teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar at the start of the MA?

RQ2: Do these beliefs change during the MA? If so, in what ways do they change?

RQ3: How do teachers teach grammar? Does this change and, if so, in what ways?

RQ4: What is the relationship, if any, between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and their classroom practices?

RQ5: What are the implications of the findings for language teacher education?

In the following summary I briefly outline what the study has revealed in relation to my research questions. This summary is organised into four sections as follows:

- Section 9.1.1 considers how teachers teach grammar (RQ3).
- Section 9.1.2 summarises teachers' grammar teaching beliefs (RQ1, RQ2).
- Section 9.1.3 outlines changes in teachers' beliefs and practices (RQ2, RQ3).
- Section 9.1.4 addresses the relationship between beliefs and practices (RQ4).

The fifth research question (RQ5) is considered separately in section 9.2.2 below and in the following implications chapter (Chapter 10).

9.1.1 Characteristics of grammar teaching

The first of these four sections considers the ways the teachers taught grammar (RQ3). Although there is still no conclusive evidence from SLA research that there is any best way to teach grammar (Ellis 2006), it is now widely accepted that explicit grammar teaching is beneficial for classroom L2 learners, and that learning is enhanced by pedagogical practices such as a focus on both form and meaning, inductive grammar

work, meaningful grammar practice, communicative activities and focused yet sensitive error correction (see, for example, Bygate, Skehan & Swain 2001; DeKeyser 2007; Doughty & Williams 1998; Ellis 1994, 2003, 2006; Lightbown 2000; Robinson 2001; Spada & Lightbown 2008).

This study showed teachers' grammar teaching practices to contain many aspects of such pedagogical practices. However, their work generally reflected a PPP approach, and there was no evidence that teachers had adopted principles of task-based learning (TBL). This can partly be explained by the teachers' initial teacher education, which in Anne and Daphne's case had promoted PPP (the MA drew attention to PPP, TTT and TBL as alternative approaches). Despite criticisms of PPP in recent years, studies have shown that its popularity with practising teachers still endures (see, for example, Andrews 2003; Borg & Burns 2008). The approach followed by teachers in this study can perhaps best be described as a weak form of PPP (Ellis 2006), which involved varying degrees of attention to context, meaning, discovery and fluency. Daphne did, however, occasionally conduct 'incidental focus on form' (Ellis 2006), spontaneous grammar work, which seemed to relate to her confidence in her own grammatical knowledge. A teacher in Borg (2001) also used impromptu grammar work when he felt confident in his knowledge and avoided it when he did not.

The teachers' approach to oral error correction seemed to reflect that promoted in methodology books (see, for example, Hedge 2000; Ur 1996) whereby learners are corrected during accuracy work but not during fluency work. In line with Farrell and Lim's (2005) findings, all three teachers in this study used explicit error correction despite stating a preference for encouraging learners to notice errors themselves. They all used a mixture of explicit and implicit oral error correction techniques, although they seemed unsure as to which approach was more effective. Recent studies into the effectiveness of different approaches to error correction have been similarly inconclusive (Long 2007; Lyster 2004).

An important feature of teachers' grammar work was their integration of grammar and communication. Many studies of teachers' stated beliefs have shown that teachers value the integration of grammar with communicative skills work (Andrews 2003; Borg & Burns 2008; Burgess & Etherington 2002; Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers 1997; Schulz 1996, 2001). This study showed teachers' work to be mainly 'isolated form-focused instruction' (Spada & Lightbown 2008) where grammar is focused on separately from communicative activities, but within a programme that

includes communicative activities. Integration of grammar and communication tended to be more sequential than contextual (Borg & Burns 2008; Doughty & Williams 1998; Spada & Lightbown 2008) in that grammar was often derived from a text, and grammar work led into subsequent fluency work.

Teachers' grammar work contained frequent use of explicit grammatical terminology. At times Mark did avoid using terminology when he lacked confidence and was concerned about unexpected questions. Brumfit et al. (1996) also found that teachers with limited confidence in their grammatical knowledge tended to avoid explicitly using terminology.

9.1.2 Beliefs underpinning practices

This section considers the nature of teachers' grammar teaching beliefs (RQ1, RQ2). Teachers in this study valued formal instruction and, in stark contrast with previous studies in both general education (Crawley & Salyer 1995; Kagan 1992) and in ELT (Borg & Burns 2008; Burgess & Etherington 2002; Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers 1997), two of the teachers made frequent reference to language learning theory (related to, for example, noticing, cognitive processing, discovery learning, affect and motivation, learner engagement, fossilisation of errors, etc.) in justifying their instructional decisions, which is not surprising given the context of the MA. Teachers' beliefs had been influenced, among other things, by their initial teacher education and previous teaching experiences, were influenced throughout the study by the MA and their observations of learners, and tended on the whole to be in line with contemporary thinking about grammar teaching (see 9.1.1 above). I now highlight specific aspects of these beliefs.

All three teachers believed in the value of presenting grammar in context, encouraging learners to discover grammar rules and patterns, meaningful grammar practice, error correction, integration of grammar and communication and use of grammatical terminology. Their stated preference for inductive work reflected those of teachers in previous studies (Andrews 2003; Borg & Burns 2008; Burgess & Etherington 2002), and their rejection of traditional grammar teaching (isolated deductive work based on mechanical drills) contrasted with findings from Chia (2003). The three teachers also expressed a belief in the value of explicit correction of learners' grammatical errors, unlike the majority of teachers in Schulz (1996, 2001) and McCargar (1993).

The data also showed that teachers held conflicting beliefs about grammar teaching and learning. Thus, they all held a fundamental belief in the importance of meeting learners' expectations and of teaching, at least some of the time, in line with their learning preferences. This led to internal conflicts when learners' expectations were perceived to be at odds with their own language learning beliefs. They all, for example, used sentence-level gap-fills for grammar practice despite doubting their acquisitional value because it was felt that learners expected them. This is similar to mismatches found by Burgess and Etherington (2002) whose teachers expressed a preference for integrated form-focused instruction followed by reactive feedback, but felt that their learners preferred explicit grammar presentations. I explore such tensions further in 9.1.4 below.

9.1.3 Developments in beliefs and practices

This section considers ways in which teachers' beliefs and practices developed during the study (RQ2, RQ3). At one level teachers' beliefs might not appear to have changed much substantively during the study. This may be in part because their existing beliefs at the start of the study were mostly in line with SLA research findings and may not then have conflicted greatly with input and readings during the MA. Daphne certainly felt this was so, and her case reflects that reported in M. Borg (2005), where a pre-service teacher's prior beliefs remained largely unchanged by a CELTA course seemingly because they were mainly in line with the ideas promoted on the course.

The absence of major substantive changes may at first sight appear to add weight to studies which found little evidence of changes in beliefs (see, for example, M. Borg 2005; Peacock 2001; Urmston 2003), yet, as I mentioned in the previous chapter (see 8.3.1 above), detailed analysis of teachers' beliefs revealed significant changes in the depth and structure of these beliefs, and the way they relate to other beliefs. This was evident in four ways. Firstly, Anne and Mark both developed greater understanding of the complexities related to their beliefs about, for example, explicit form focus and presenting grammar, where they had had vague notions at the start of the study. Thus their understanding of their beliefs deepened. Secondly, Anne and Daphne developed theoretical underpinning for some of their beliefs which deepened their understanding and strengthened these beliefs. Thirdly, there were slight modifications to specific beliefs, such as Anne and Mark's thinking about the respective advantages and disadvantages of PPP and TTT. Finally, there were changes to the structure of their

belief systems, as in Daphne and Mark accepting disparities between their own beliefs and learners' expectations. The above examples confirm findings from previous studies (Borg 2005; Cabaroğlu & Roberts 2000; Richards et al. 2001) which showed that beliefs may be confirmed, strengthened or restructured, and highlights once again the necessity of using interview and observation instruments to capture such complexities, rather than relying solely on questionnaire data, as I stressed in Chapters 3 and 4 above.

In terms of teachers' actual classroom practices, the study revealed important changes, unlike Burns and Knox (2005) and Popko (2005), which is again not unexpected considering that one of the aims of the MA was to improve teachers' classroom teaching skills (see Chapter 2). Nevertheless, teachers developed their grammar teaching practices in unique individual ways which suggests they were not changing their practices mainly in order to pass the course, as teachers in Almarza (1996) seemed to be doing. For Anne and Daphne, this meant making use of aspects of their previous teaching routines and adapting them to their new teaching context, while for Mark it involved starting to develop new routines as he had previously taught little explicit grammar. They all seemed to develop a more conscious and principled approach to their grammar teaching and to be able to choose between different approaches and options.

In terms of teacher learning, it seems to have been important for all three teachers to develop the confidence to experiment and take risks, and it is unlikely that meaningful long-lasting changes would have taken place in their practices without them first questioning their beliefs and practices and subsequently experimenting with alternative practices. I explore these issues in greater depth in 9.2.2.1 below.

It is important to bear in mind, however, that these developments in teachers' beliefs and practices were powerfully influenced by the MA and by the intervention of this study, as I outlined in the previous chapter (see 8.3.3 below). While it is likely that some of these developments may have taken place independently of these two interventions, it is extremely unlikely that all developments would have proceeded in the manner they did.

9.1.4 Relationship between beliefs and practices

This section considers the relationship between teachers' stated beliefs and observed practices (RQ 4), which was shown to be highly complex. As I demonstrated in the previous chapter (see section 8.2 above), many of the teachers' grammar teaching

practices reflected their beliefs. Thus, they taught grammar explicitly, drew learners' attention to form and meaning through presentations which were largely inductive, practised grammar through specific activities, corrected grammatical errors during accuracy-based activities, and used explicit grammatical terminology.

However, the study revealed significant tensions between teachers' beliefs and practices, as well as between competing beliefs, as I summarised in 8.2 above. Again there were individual differences, but a number of factors seemed to lead teachers to teach in ways contrary to their beliefs about grammar teaching and learning: (1) fear of losing control and loss of face; (2) learner expectations; (3) classroom management; (4) learner affect; (5) lack of access to practical ideas (I gave specific details of how these were manifested in each teachers' practices in Table 8.7 above so I shall not repeat these here). This confirms previous studies which showed how teachers' concern with order and maintaining control (Andrews 2003; Borg 2001), classroom management (Richards & Pennington 1998) and learner expectations (Borg 1999c; Burns & Knox 2005) can cause such tensions. It also stresses the multi-functional nature of grammar teaching identified by Borg (2003d), who found that teachers may teach grammar for a range of different, often mutually *inclusive*, reasons.

Importantly, teachers' specific beliefs about grammar teaching and learning seemed to be outweighed by more fundamental, or core, beliefs: namely that learning is enhanced when learners are engaged cognitively and affectively, when their expectations are met, and when order, control and flow of the lesson are maintained. Various studies have suggested that beliefs exist within a complex network (Borg 1998a; Burns 2003; Richards et al. 2001; Sendan & Roberts 1998) and that core beliefs are hard to change (Pajares 1992). Thus, many of the apparent tensions between beliefs and practices can better be understood as conflicting beliefs competing for influence on teachers' practices. I expand on this issue at length in 9.2.1.4 below.

A final point I wish to make in this section is that changes in teachers' practices did not always keep pace with changes in their beliefs. Mark found it difficult to transfer his belief in the value of explicit grammar teaching, which had changed prior to the study, into his practices, as did Anne who struggled to put into practice her belief that pronunciation should be integrated into her grammar lessons. This suggests that without access to developed routines and/or appropriate practical ideas and materials, teachers find it hard to incorporate new ideas into their teaching.

9.2 Main contributions of the study

In this section I outline the main contributions this study makes to our understanding of the relationship between teacher education and teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices, focusing in turn on grammar teaching, teacher education and research. As I emphasised in Chapters 3-4 above, the key features of this study are that it is a *longitudinal* study of *grammar teaching* beliefs and practices of *in-service teachers* within an *MA context*. In this regard, the findings particularly enhance our understanding in two areas: (1) cognitions underlying teachers' planning and in-class decision-making which often surface in the form of tensions between beliefs and practices; (2) the process of teacher learning over time in which teacher education can act as a catalyst for dynamic interactive changes in beliefs and practices.

9.2.1 Grammar teaching

This study enhances our understanding of grammar teaching from a teacher cognition perspective, particularly in regard to in-service teachers. It confirms and extends findings from previous studies that teachers teach grammar for a range of reasons, that beliefs are not always reflected in practice, and that grammar teaching is influenced by a complex interaction between beliefs, contextual and affective factors, and among competing beliefs. Most importantly, it sheds important new light on the reasons for tensions between beliefs and practices and among competing beliefs. I now address each of these in turn.

9.2.1.1 Teachers teach grammar for various reasons

Teachers gave a range of reasons for instructional decisions, which I summarise in Table 9.1 below. These show that decisions about, for example, how to present grammar focusing on form and/or meaning, what sort of practice activities to use, when and how to correct grammatical errors, if and how to use grammatical terminology, how much control to release, and how to integrate grammar with communication, were made through a dynamic interactive relationship between various factors. Such decisions may change from lesson to lesson, as in Daphne's decision to use meaningful practice to promote better learning, and mechanical practice to help the flow of the lesson and engage learners better at that particular moment. This suggests that teachers' reasoning is flexibly adjusted in response to practical classroom circumstances. The findings confirm those of studies which show that teachers teach grammar for a range of reasons

(Borg 1998, 1999, 2003d; Farrell 1999), and enable us to see the complex cognitions behind decisions regarding specific aspects of teachers' grammar teaching.

Table 9.1 Range of reasons for teaching grammar

Reason	Aspect of grammar teaching
Acquisitional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus-on-form • Inductive presentation • Meaningful practice • Freer practice • Error correction • Grammatical terminology • Communication
Diagnostic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Freer practice
Student expectations (‘Psychological’- Borg 1998a)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deductive presentation • Mechanical practice • Grammatical terminology
Classroom management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mechanical practice • Teacher control • Whole-class practice
Unquestioned routine	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PPP • Deductive presentation • Error correction

Although teachers were generally able to articulate reasons for their grammar teaching practices, there were occasions when they were not, which suggests that these practices reflected ‘unquestioned routines’. Another point to make regarding Table 9.1 above is that there may be more than one reason underlying a particular aspect of a teacher’s practices. So, for example, all teachers used grammatical terminology both because they believed in its acquisitional value and because of learner expectations. In this case both reasons complemented one another. However, Anne and Mark both seemed to use implicit error correction techniques (such as student self-correction) for acquisitional reasons, but they employed explicit teacher-correction strategies because they had developed such a habit and it had become part of their routine. This suggests that the two reasons competed with one another.

Teachers made frequent reference to language learning theory in justifying their instructional decisions (although Mark did so to a lesser extent), as I showed in 9.1.2 above. Although perhaps not surprising given the MA context in which the study was conducted, it does suggest that teacher education may successfully help teachers to make sense of their work by providing theoretical underpinning to aspects of their practices, and also by developing their metalanguage of teaching (Richards et al. 1996). Although there is a possibility that teachers were trying, either consciously or unconsciously, to impress me with their awareness of SLA theory, the frequency and consistency with which they (especially Anne and Daphne) referred to theory to justify some, if not all, aspects of their practices suggests that this had in fact become an integral part of their thinking. I explore this issue further in 9.2.2.2 below.

The study also shows that while practising teachers may be aware of pedagogical models and often dichotomous theoretical debates between, for example, inductive and deductive approaches or between PPP and TBL, the internal models which they themselves create and use are far more complex. Such theoretical models, which are prevalent in the literature about grammar teaching, have value but are not able perhaps to capture the full complexity of teachers' cognitions. Teacher education would, then, do well to go beyond such dichotomies in helping practising teachers to make sense of and improve their grammar teaching practices, as suggested by Borg (1999d).

9.2.1.2 Beliefs are not always reflected in practice

Although there is clearly a relationship between beliefs and practice, this study confirms that this is not a linear or causal relationship (Fang 1996; Richardson 1996), and that practice does not always reflect stated beliefs (Karavas-Doukas 1996; Richards et al. 2001; Farrell & Kun 2008).

In particular it showed that teachers may cite different reasons for similar grammar teaching practices. Thus, mechanical sentence-level gap-fills were used for controlled grammar practice by the three teachers for different reasons at different times; Anne and Daphne used them to enhance learning, but also to meet learner expectations, while Mark and Daphne both used them for classroom management purposes. Similarly Daphne used grammatical terminology as a common reference point at times, and because of student expectations at other times. We also see that a similar belief may be realised by different classroom practices by different teachers. For

example, a belief in the importance of learners engaging with their grammatical errors prompted Anne to encourage student self-correction, and Mark to design an error-correction activity.

Table 9.2 below shows how teachers' beliefs about maintaining control, engaging learners, meeting their expectations, losing face, affective factors regarding error correction, discovery learning and specific beliefs about grammar teaching and learning were manifested in teachers' practices. The three rows in the top half of the table contain practices which are at odds with those in the two rows in the bottom half, and represent pedagogical options for teachers, such as whether to teach deductively or inductively, or whether to employ implicit or explicit error correction techniques. This shows how the beliefs underlying these practices compete with each other and manifest themselves in often diametrically opposed forms of practices.

Table 9.2 Relationships between beliefs and practices

Beliefs	Practices informed by beliefs
Learning is enhanced when: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • teachers control learners and flow of the lesson • learners are engaged and motivated • learners' expectations are met 	Rule-based, deductive presentation Sentence-level, mechanical gap-fills Lockstep oral practice Use of grammatical terminology
The teacher loses face if she is unable to answer learners questions about grammar	Avoidance of grammatical terminology Avoidance of elicitation
Learners may get frustrated and demotivated if their errors are corrected explicitly in front of their peers	Avoidance of explicit error correction Implicit error correction
Beliefs	Practices informed by beliefs
Learning is enhanced when learners are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • cognitively challenged to discover rules • engaged in using language to express real personal meanings 	Inductive presentation, discovery learning Explicit error correction Fluency work which is less controlled Avoidance of lockstep work
Grammar learning is enhanced when form is linked to meaning, when learners discover for themselves, and when grammar is used to express real meanings	Context-based, inductive presentation Discovery learning, elicitation Meaningful practice, real-life fluency work

The teacher cognition focus of this study shows that tensions between teachers' beliefs and practices and among competing beliefs are a normal feature of teaching, and

in this respect the study makes a significant contribution to our understanding of the relationship between beliefs and practices. The more we explore apparent tensions, the more the reasons behind them become clear and we can see the logic behind them from the perspective of the teacher (Phipps & Borg 2007). This is in contrast with early studies which tended to see such tensions as ‘lack of congruence’, ‘inconsistencies’ or ‘mismatches’; in other words as something undesirable and to be avoided. I explore this in greater detail in the next section.

The teacher education perspective of the study shows that teachers may be unable to put their ideas into practice because they have not yet developed routines, and/or because they have insufficient access to practical ideas and materials. These explanations for practices not matching beliefs were particularly poignant in the case of Anne’s inability to integrate pronunciation into her grammar teaching despite wanting to do so, and Mark’s inability to find or design meaningful text-level practice activities despite doubting the acquisitional value of the activities he had at hand. This confirms findings of previous studies in general education (Richardson 1996), ELT (Almarza 1996), and specifically regarding grammar teaching (Burns & Knox 2005; Popko 2005), which show that cognitive change will not necessarily result in behavioural change.

9.2.1.3 Reasons for tensions are complex

This study has deepened our understanding of the dialogic, dialectic interplay between teachers’ existing beliefs, previous routines, context and practices. Although various studies have shed light on the complex factors mediating grammar teaching practices which can cause tensions (Baştürkmen et al. 2004; Burns & Knox 2005; Farrell & Lim 2005; Ng & Farrell 2003), the longitudinal focus of this study provides deeper insight into this complexity and enhances our understanding of the dynamic nature of tensions as they develop and change over time. I now outline some key aspects of tensions which this study has shed light on.

Firstly, tensions may exist where teachers have not previously explored or consciously considered their beliefs and routines. Routines are hard to change, as Daphne acknowledged by stating that she is unlikely to change her teaching without compelling evidence that it was ‘not working’. If teachers’ beliefs and/or routines are not conscious, teachers may not be aware that tensions exist. This was evident with Anne’s use of lock-step oral practice, and Mark and Daphne’s use of mechanical controlled practice. In the MA, specific tasks and assignments encouraged teachers to

make explicit their unconscious beliefs, and to explore them in the light of theory and their teaching practices, which helped tensions to surface.

Secondly, teachers were influenced by contextual factors, which is not surprising since the teaching context prepared students for exams through an institutional curriculum. This created dilemmas for both Anne and Daphne initially, as routines which previously served them well suddenly seemed not to 'work', and they at times felt pressure to use prescribed course-books and materials which they thought might not meet always learners' immediate needs. Teachers' perceptions of students' expectations may also have led them to teach differently from their beliefs; either temporarily, such as Daphne and Mark's use of mechanical drills to calm students down, or more consistently, as in Daphne and Mark's use of deductive presentation and Anne's avoidance of elicitation and group-work. This is a key point which the longitudinal nature of this study provides insight into, confirming the powerful effect of curricular constraints and students' expectations on teachers' work in the context of language teaching research (Borg 1998b; Burns 2003; Burns & Knox 2005; Ng & Farrell 2003; Farrell & Lim 2005; Richards & Pennington 1998).

Thirdly, affective factors, such as teachers' self-esteem, self-efficacy in terms of grammatical knowledge and fear of losing face, also exert a powerful influence on teachers' practices and can cause them to teach differently from their beliefs. Lack of confidence caused Anne and Mark to be wary of elicitation for fear of being unable to answer unexpected student questions and therefore of losing face. Similarly, Anne and Mark avoided elicitation during grammar presentation when they lacked confidence in their own grammatical knowledge. This confirms that teachers' perception of their own grammatical knowledge influences their practices and may lead to tensions (Andrews 2001, 2003; Borg 2001). Although affect is still a relatively unexplored area in teacher cognition research, studies by Andrews (2003) and Golombek and Johnson (2004) suggest that affective factors play an important role in the development of teachers' beliefs. The longitudinal focus of the study further enhances our understanding of the relationship between affect, cognitions and behaviour by showing that, as teachers' confidence improves, such tensions may then be resolved. This is evident with Anne, and to a lesser extent Mark, who began releasing control and using more elicitation as confidence improved. This suggests that teacher education programmes which focus on teachers' affect may be effective in helping teachers teach in line with their beliefs.

Fourthly, contextual and affective factors which cause teachers to teach differently from their stated beliefs may also be seen as fundamental or core beliefs about learning and the role of the teacher, as I posited in 8.2 above. The desire to meet learners' expectations reflects a belief that learning is enhanced when learners are motivated and when teaching matches learners' learning preferences, while fear of losing control of the class or of losing face suggests a fundamental belief that learning is enhanced when teachers are in control over the flow of events and can effectively manage the learning environment. This study makes an important contribution here by demonstrating that tensions are caused when classroom behaviours manifested by these core beliefs conflict with those manifested by specific beliefs about grammar teaching and learning. This can be seen in Table 9.3 below. So, for example, teachers' belief in meeting learners' expectations necessitated using rule-based, deductive grammar presentations and sentence-level mechanical practice, whereas their specific language learning beliefs necessitated using context-based, inductive presentations and meaningful practice.

Table 9.3 Tensions among competing beliefs

Core belief	Manifestation	Specific belief
Learners learn better if their expectations are met	Deductive/rule-based presentation Inductive/context-based presentation	Discovery learning is more effective
Teachers shouldn't lose face	Avoidance of elicitation Use of elicitation	Learners learn better when they are engaged
Learners learn better if their expectations are met	Mechanical/sentence-level practice Meaningful/text-level practice	Meaning is important
It's important to maintain control over the class	Lock-step oral practice Group-work for oral practice	Learner involvement should be maximised
Learning suffers if learners are upset or frustrated	No error correction Implicit error correction	Fluency is important Learning is enhanced
Learners learn better if their expectations are met	Explicit error correction	Accuracy is enhanced
Teachers shouldn't lose face	Avoidance of terminology	
Learners learn better if their expectations are met	Use of terminology	Terminology helps learners learn grammar

Finally, the longitudinal nature of this study also gives insights into the dynamic relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices by showing ways in which tensions may develop over time. To my knowledge, no studies to date have focused on this issue. Again, we should be wary of seeing tensions as something wrong which needs to be resolved. The study shows that tensions may indeed be resolved, but that this may happen in different ways. Thus, both Mark and Daphne resolved some of the tensions in their minds between their own and learners' beliefs (for Mark, for example, in terms of presenting grammar and controlled practice, and for Daphne, discovery learning) not so much by changing their beliefs or their practices, but to some extent by accepting this disparity and attempting to deal with it in their practices by compromising, teaching inductively sometimes, and deductively at others, for example. This process was facilitated by a greater awareness of learners and their difficulties with learning specific aspects of grammar which the MA provided. Both Anne and Mark started releasing control as their language awareness improved, while Daphne and Anne began using more group-work when their confidence improved. This again shows how interrelated affect, cognition and behaviour are. It is evident that raising awareness of, and engaging with, these tensions was an important factor in helping the three teachers to come to terms with and attempt to resolve the tensions, as some writers have suggested (Freeman 1993; Phipps & Borg 2007; Tsui 2003). I return to this point later in 9.2.2.3 below.

Tensions are, therefore, a normal part of teachers' practices and explorations of the underlying reasons for tensions show the complexity of the decision-making processes which teachers undergo at any stage of their planning and teaching. The reasons for them are highly logical and should not be dismissed as inconsistency or be judged as something negative.

9.2.1.4 Grammar teaching is influenced by core beliefs

The study showed that teachers' grammar teaching practices were strongly driven throughout the study by their beliefs, adding further support to the now substantial body of findings which show the powerful influence of teachers' beliefs on their teaching in general (Burns 1996; Kagan 1992; Pajares 1992; Woods 1996), and grammar teaching in particular (Borg 1998b, 2003d; Farrell & Lim 2005; Ng & Farrell 2003). Importantly, however, the study demonstrates the way different beliefs interact and compete with each other for influence over teachers' classroom practices. Teachers'

core beliefs tended to outweigh other competing beliefs which at times caused them to teach in ways which appeared to conflict with their non-core specific beliefs.

Teachers' beliefs exist within a complex network in which, as Clark and Peterson (1986) observed, some beliefs may appear to conflict with other beliefs, and in which certain core beliefs may exert a strong influence over and even override more specific beliefs (Borg 1998a; Cabaroğlu & Roberts 2000; Farrell & Kun 2008; Pajares 1992). Teachers in this study held core beliefs about the importance of engaging learners, respecting their affect, meeting their expectations, and maintaining control, order and flow of the lesson, adding support to previous studies (Johnson 1992a, 1994; Richards 1996; Richards & Pennington 1998). They all noticed tensions between their own beliefs about learners' needs and their desire to meet learners' expectations. As core beliefs are unlikely to change, they are likely to conflict with other beliefs at times. Thus, Daphne and Mark's use of deductive presentations and mechanical grammar practice, Anne and Daphne's avoidance of group-work, and Mark and Anne's wariness of explicit error correction should be seen more as tensions between competing beliefs, rather than as tensions between beliefs and practices.

Figure 9.1 below outlines the way core and specific beliefs competed for influence over teachers' practices mediated by contextual and affective factors at any one time. Core beliefs, then, seemed to dominate more when teacher confidence was low or when contextual factors, such as institutional expectations, examinations, colleagues, etc., were prominent in teachers' minds. Core beliefs were fundamental to the teachers' views about learning, teaching and their own role as teachers, and tended to be more generally related to teaching than the more specific beliefs related to grammar teaching.

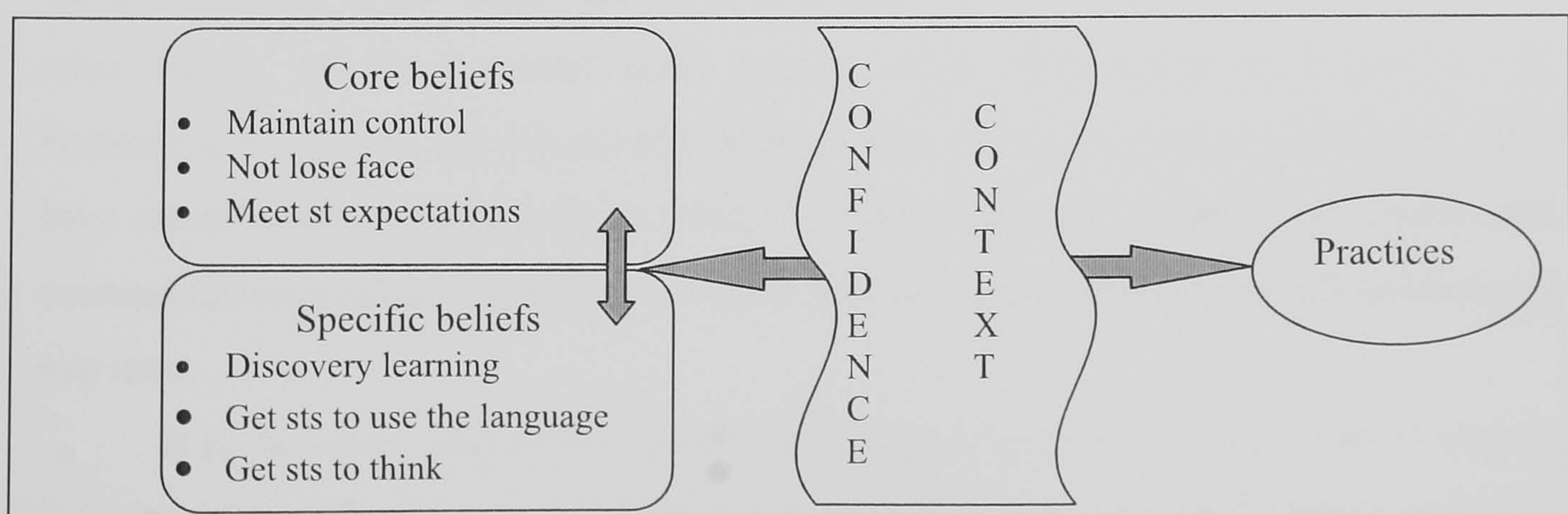


Figure 9.1 Competition among beliefs

The way teachers' beliefs influence their grammar teaching practices constantly changes over time and from lesson to lesson (Burns & Knox 2005; Woods 1996), which implies that there are both stable and shifting aspects of teachers' practices. This can be seen in the way Anne and Daphne initially struggled to adapt their previous teaching routines to their new teaching context. The longitudinal nature of this study enables us to see that the way grammar teaching is influenced by these different factors is highly dynamic and changes over time. This change is not linear and may at times be cyclical or dialectic in nature, as in Mark's thinking regarding rule-based and context-based grammar presentations. Over time he was able to reconcile his conflicting beliefs (that learners respond better to rule-based, but that they would learn better if they responded to context-based presentations).

In the following section I attempt to conceptualise grammar teaching into a framework to highlight the main factors which influence teachers' practices.

9.2.1.5 Conceptualisation of grammar teaching

I conclude this section with a conceptualisation of grammar teaching from a teacher perspective which attempts to take account of the interplay between the competing factors which influence the way teachers teach grammar.

This study has reinforced the perception of teaching as an active, thoughtful and dynamic decision-making process, and has shown the process of grammar teaching to be multi-faceted, involving a dynamic interplay between various factors (Burns & Knox 2005; Richards 1998, 2008; Ulichny 1996; Woods 1996). This can be seen in Figure 9.2 below, which highlights the cognitive, affective, experiential and contextual influences on teachers' choices and decisions, and acknowledges that the relationship between these influences is not static and may vary from lesson to lesson depending, among other things, on the grammar point being taught. This builds on Figure 9.1 by attempting to capture the interaction between the various competing influences. As I have stated before, core beliefs are likely to override specific beliefs, and internal and external factors mediate the extent to which specific beliefs may gain prominence at any one time.

It is, however, important to bear in mind that Figure 9.2 is an attempt to outline the competing influences on teachers' work, and does not necessarily imply such neat distinctions in teachers' minds.

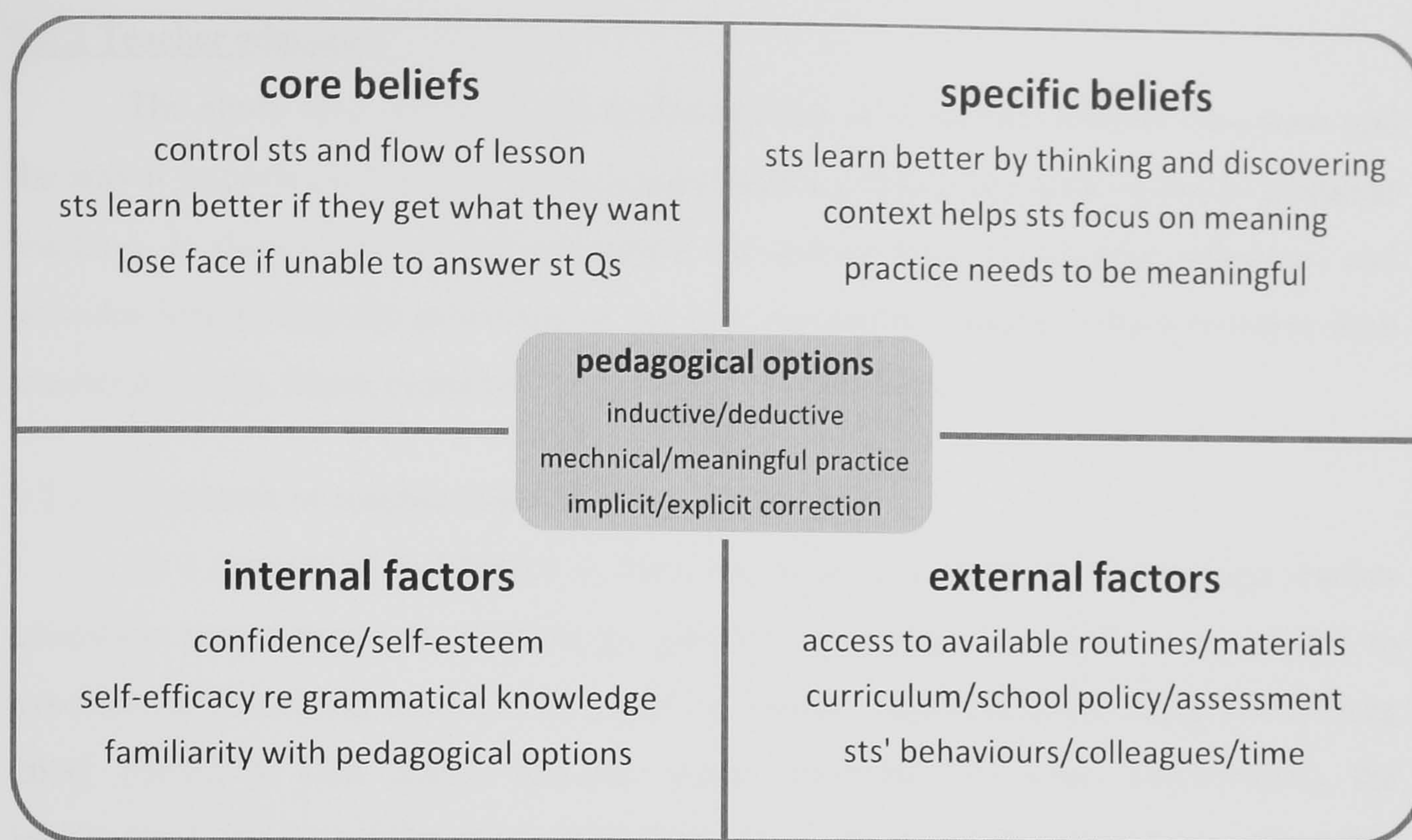


Figure 9.2 Conceptualisation of grammar teaching

This holistic conceptualisation grounded in teachers' actual classroom practices also stresses that grammar teaching, when seen from a teacher perspective, is a far more complex process than adherence to any particular theoretical model or choice between conflicting dichotomies (such as between inductive and deductive learning, or PPP, TTT and TBL). Although the teachers demonstrated awareness of such models and dichotomies in their discussion of their pedagogical choices, their thinking and planning processes went beyond these. Tensions between teachers' beliefs and practices are often caused by the conflicting factors which mediate teachers' practices. Thus a teacher's belief that discovery learning enhances learning may be based on her own language learning experiences and/or initial teacher education, and may have been reinforced by early teaching experiences. However, this teacher may choose to teach deductively instead for a number of possible reasons: (1) a concern that learners will not respond well, and/or that this may lead to classroom management problems; (2) not having previously taught the particular grammar point inductively; (3) a lack of access to suitable materials, and/or lack of time to develop her own materials; (4) a lack of confidence in her own grammatical knowledge of the particular grammar point.

This section has demonstrated ways in which this study has contributed to and enhanced our understanding of the complex process of grammar teaching, particularly in terms of competing beliefs and affective factors. I now focus on its contribution to what we know about teacher learning and teacher education.

9.2.2 Teacher education

The study also enhances our understanding of in-service teacher education and the way it impacts on teachers' beliefs and practices, especially with regard to grammar teaching. It shows that teacher education can indeed have a powerful influence, and provides insight into the processes of teacher learning and factors which promote such teacher learning. I now consider each of these points in turn.

9.2.2.1 Processes of teacher learning

As I mentioned in Chapter 3, there has been little research on language teacher education programmes in relation to grammar teaching, especially with regard to experienced practising teachers, as noted by various researchers (M. Borg 2005; Borg 2006; Farrell & Lim 2005), and this study addresses this issue. Furthermore, the longitudinal nature of the study highlights key aspects of the processes of teacher learning over time which such teacher education facilitates.

The findings of this study indicate that the transfer of course input in in-service teacher education to teachers' classroom practices does not take place automatically, that it may not take place at all, and that transfer, where it does occur, is likely to be different for each teacher. Thus, although the MA emphasised the value of meaningful grammar practice, each of the three teachers' practices were markedly different and unique. This differs from findings from other studies of in-service teachers taking an MA (Burns & Knox 2005; Popko 2005) and short intensive courses (Kurihara & Samimy 2007; Lamb 1995), which showed relatively little uptake as teachers tended to maintain their previous practices. The findings also confirm those from pre-service teacher education that cognitive change and behavioural change are distinct processes, and that one does not necessarily imply the other (see Almarza 1996). Mark, for example, found it hard to put new teaching ideas into practice, as I outlined in Chapter 7 above.

The study also demonstrates that teacher learning is a non-linear process made up of different stages, which are highly complex and unique to each individual teacher. Many factors mitigate against teachers' ability to change their classroom practices, and teachers may require time to work on and improve aspects of their teaching, not least because their working lives are extremely complex, as Farrell (2003) shows. Although in-service teachers learn from in-service teacher education in unique individual ways,

there are certain common preconditions which seem to facilitate this learning. I now consider these one by one.

Firstly, dilemmas played an important role in causing teachers to be dissatisfied with some aspect(s) of their existing beliefs and/or practices. For both Anne and Daphne, feeling unable to use their previous grammar teaching routines because of perceived curricular constraints and student expectations presented them with a dilemma, forcing them to re-evaluate their beliefs and practices and to consider alternatives, helped by the MA. In this regard they were already aware of the dilemma, but this is not always the case. This confirms results of studies from general education and ELT which highlight the importance of dilemmas. Korthagen (2004), for example, suggests that teachers need help in creating dissatisfaction with their current beliefs, while Feiman-Nemser and Remillard (1996) propose that they need to recognise discrepancies between their beliefs and background theory. Woods (1996) found that language teachers' beliefs evolved through the resolution of conflicts between their beliefs, theory and their practical classroom experiences.

All three teachers mentioned that they benefitted from explicitly focusing on their beliefs early in the study as part of the MA. This helped Anne, for example, to begin questioning PPP as a suitable model for her grammar teaching, and Mark his error correction and use of freer practice. Therefore, an important role of teacher education is to stimulate awareness of teachers' existing beliefs and practices through specific tasks and activities, as recent research suggests (Cochran-Smith 2005; Darling-Hammond 2006a, 2006b). Critical reflection on existing beliefs and practices seemed to be necessary for teachers to be able to move beyond their current beliefs and practices, as previous studies have found (Calderhead & Gates 1993; Johnson 1994; Korthagen 2004; Richards 1998; Roberts 1998; Tsui 2003).

Secondly, exposure to alternative ideas and practices helped teachers question their own beliefs and practices and subsequently notice tensions and/or create dissatisfaction. The MA provided a theoretical underpinning for teachers' existing beliefs and practices, thus giving more confidence to Anne in her error correction and Daphne in her use of grammatical terminology. It also provided a deeper understanding of student learning and difficulties learners face with learning grammar, and greater awareness of pedagogical options, as evidenced by teachers' development of their own principled approach to using PPP/TTT and inductive/deductive work. The study also highlights the value of seeing practical examples of alternative practices, through peer

observations or demo-lessons and activities. Anne and Daphne, for example, both mentioned how peer-observing different practices gave them confidence to start experimenting, and Anne explained how this helped her start relinquishing control and using more group-work. Mark and Anne felt they would have benefitted from more demos. Different studies have emphasised the value of teachers' questioning their beliefs, noticing tensions between their beliefs and practices, and seeing examples of alternative practices (e.g., Gregoire 2003; Korthagen 2004; Murphy & Mason 2006).

Thirdly, the study highlights the need for teachers to explore their beliefs and practices and experiment with aspects of their practices with which they are to some extent dissatisfied. Routines provide security early in teachers' careers, and tend to be reinforced when they are felt to be working, so it is difficult for teachers to alter or adapt these routines (Clark & Yinger 1977; Calderhead 1996). Dissatisfaction with aspects of these routines and exposure to examples of alternative practices may not be sufficient for teachers to change their existing routines. Although teacher education may encourage experimentation through specific teaching assignments, it is likely to be more effective and long-lasting when teachers are themselves motivated to carry out such experimentation because of tensions and/or dilemmas they have become aware of. Thus, Anne's experimentation with aspects of PPP, releasing control, elicitation and group-work, and Daphne and Mark's exploration of discovery and meaningful practice, for example, were all self-motivated and involved small incremental steps. Tsui (2003) found that the development of expertise requires teachers to experiment with new practices. It is likely to be more challenging for teachers with less experience and established routines to draw on as it involves creation, rather than minor adaptations, of routines, which may explain why Mark was still experimenting at the end of the study.

Fourthly, the study advances our understanding of the affective nature of teacher learning by showing the importance of teachers' confidence to take risks in the process of experimentation. Anne and Mark, for example, frequently mentioned confidence as an important factor in their learning process. As their confidence grew, due to greater theoretical understanding, awareness of learners and their problems, and self-perception of their grammatical knowledge, they felt more able to elicit, get students to analyse, and release control. Thus, confidence and experimentation exist in a mutual relationship. Support for this comes from recent conceptual change research which indicates that affective factors mediate the appraisal of new ideas and practices. Gregoire (2003), for example, found that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs determine the

extent to which they interpret alternative practice positively as a challenge, or negatively as a threat, while Hoy, Davis and Pape (2006) suggest that teachers are more likely to appraise alternative practices positively if they see them as being relevant to their concept of self.

Experimentation with new practices, whether conscious or not, involves an element of risk-taking, and cost-benefit analysis. Thus, experimenting with group-work, releasing control and elicitation enabled Anne to see not only that nothing bad happened in terms of classroom management but that learning was enhanced and, most importantly perhaps, that it gave her greater flexibility in the lesson and time to reflect and make minor changes to the following activities where necessary. Similarly, gradually experimenting with aspects of her previous grammar teaching routines enabled Daphne to see that the benefits in terms of student learning and engagement outweighed the risks in terms of classroom management. Here the study builds on ideas from innovation theory (Fullan 2001; Markee 1997) and conceptual change theory (Nussbaum & Novick 1982; Strike & Posner 1985), which suggest that teachers are more likely to change their practices if they perceive new ideas to be intelligible, plausible and fruitful and that the benefits will outweigh risks to them personally. Roberts (1998), drawing on Kolb's (1984) concept of 'experiential learning', emphasises the crucial role of active experimentation in the learning process, Keiny (2008) suggests that conceptual change is essentially experiential in nature, while Feiman-Nemser and Remillard (1996) recommend that teachers experience new practices first hand as learners.

Finally, the study shows that the development of new routines is a dynamic, cyclical and dialectic process which involves much hard work on the part of teachers, on-going interaction between affective, cognitive, contextual and experiential factors, and incremental steps whereby the respective benefits of each small adaptation are evaluated against the risks. This is evident in Anne's gradual development of a more systematic and flexible form of PPP teaching, and Mark's attempts to create a framework for deductive and inductive teaching. Simply engaging with an aspect of one's teaching and trying to improve it, however, is no guarantee that new routines will be easily developed, as Anne's experience with pronunciation demonstrates. Despite appearing to be making progress and slowly incorporating aspects of pronunciation teaching into her grammar lessons, lack of confidence in the target language point and lack of access to materials caused her to avoid using it in the last observation. Feiman-

Nemser and Remillard (1996) showed that teachers need support and guidance to help them integrate new practices into their own teaching.

To conclude this section, this study suggests that teachers' beliefs and practices will only change if teachers already are, or become, dissatisfied with aspects of their existing beliefs and practices and if they then accept alternatives as being intelligible, plausible and fruitful. Thus, the presence of the following elements in in-service teacher education is likely to facilitate teacher learning:

- Dissatisfaction with aspects of existing beliefs and practices, helped by raising awareness and critical reflection;
- Exposure to alternative ideas and practical examples of alternative practices, linking these to underlying theory;
- Willingness and motivation to engage with new ideas, opportunities to experiment and personally experience that benefits outweigh risks;
- Gradually developing new routines, which in time can become automatic.

I return to these issues in 9.2.2.5 below, but I now consider the three main catalysts for teacher learning which this study highlighted: teacher education, tensions and this research.

9.2.2.2 Teacher education as catalyst for learning

One of the key points to emerge from this study is that teacher education can indeed have a powerful yet complex influence on the development of teachers' beliefs and practices. Although more recent studies (Borg 1998a; Cabaroğlu & Roberts 2000; MacDonald et al. 2001) tend to refute early views of pre-service teacher education as being a 'weak intervention' (Richardson 1996a), there is still very little evidence from in-service teacher education. Freeman (1993) found evidence of a change in beliefs, but was inconclusive about the effect on practice, and regarding grammar teaching both Popko (2005) and Burns and Knox (2005) found little change in teachers' practices. This study, therefore, not only provides evidence of the 'strong intervention' of in-service teacher education, but also sheds light on the ways it impacts on teachers' existing beliefs and practices, particularly with regard to grammar teaching.

The longitudinal focus of this study is uncommon in in-service language teacher education research, and reveals ways in which teacher education interacts with teachers' cognitions and behaviours over time. It also enables us to look beyond simplistic surface-level changes in beliefs and practices and provides insight into the complexities

of cognitive and behavioural change; change that might be overlooked by surveys which only focus on stated beliefs, or studies which seek evidence of 'transfer' of course content to classroom practices, as Borg (2006) notes. The study also shows that the MA programme had a strong influence on teachers' beliefs and practices, but in ways that might at first sight not appear obvious. I now explore these influences in more detail.

An important point to emerge from the study is that changes in beliefs may involve confirmation or reinforcement of existing beliefs, and/or restructuring of the relationship between beliefs. Thus, all three teachers in the study deepened their understanding of the importance of formal instruction as the MA provided a theoretical underpinning for their initially unquestioned beliefs, while on-going questioning and exploration during the study enabled Anne to deepen her awareness of PPP, Daphne to strengthen her understanding of the uses of grammatical terminology, and Mark to deepen his grasp of issues related to presenting grammar. Similarly, Mark and Daphne were able to restructure the relationship between core beliefs, such as the need to engage learners and meet their expectations, and specific beliefs regarding discovery learning. Previous studies have suggested that belief change may take the form of confirmation or reinforcement of existing beliefs (Borg 2005), and/or restructuring of the relationship between beliefs (Cabaroğlu & Roberts 2000), and this study builds on this by demonstrating that such confirmation, deepening and restructuring are extremely powerful and important changes in terms of the way they influence teachers' practices.

Teacher education also impacted on the classroom practices of all three teachers in different ways. Firstly, the process of change was shown to be complex, involving much experimentation and incremental steps. Secondly, confidence and awareness were inextricably linked to behavioural change. As teachers gained confidence in their knowledge of grammar and learnt that their beliefs were supported by theory, and as they increased their language awareness and understanding of difficulties learners have with particular grammar points, they felt more ready to experiment with aspects of their teaching. Thirdly, changes in teachers' practices need to be supported by a perception that they will enhance learning without causing problems in terms of classroom management. This can be seen clearly in Daphne's gradual incorporation of elements of her previous teaching routines, such as analysis of grammar and meaningful practice, Mark's gradual development of new routines for inductive presentations and meaningful practice, and Anne's gradual implementation of group-work and elicitation.

This last point reflects findings from Sato and Kleinsasser (1999), whose teachers also avoided group-work despite stating that they believed in its acquisitional value.

Importantly, despite the general lack of consensus as to what constitutes effective teacher education (Cochran-Smith 2005), the study identifies a number of characteristics that can play a significant role in supporting the development of teachers' beliefs and practices, and which have been recommended separately by various researchers. The findings of this study suggest that together these characteristics exert a powerful influence on the development of teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices:

- *explicit focus on beliefs*; enabling teachers to become aware of their beliefs and to critically question them in the light of input and their practices (Crandall 2000; Darling-Hammond 2006a; Korthagen 2001b; Richardson 1996b; Russell 2005).
- *reflective practice*; encouraging teachers to critically reflect on their beliefs, practices and input (Farrell 2007; Hiebert, Gallimore & Stigler 2002; Roberts 1998; Moon & Lopez-Bouillon 1997).
- *link between theory and practice*; helping teachers put ideas into practice, and theorise their practices (Hayes 1995; Johnson 1996; Korthagen, Loughran & Russell 2006).
- *language awareness*; enabling teachers to improve their awareness of the complexities of grammar and reasons for learners' difficulties (Andrews 2007; Borg 2001; Larsen-Freeman 2003).
- *practical examples*; helping teachers see the 'plausibility' of alternative practices especially if modelled by teacher educators (Darling-Hammond 2006a; Korthagen et al. 2006).
- *experimentation*; enabling teachers to personally experience the benefits of alternative practices (Markee 1997; Murphy & Mason 2006; Tsui 2003).
- *practical assignments and tasks*; encouraging teachers to plan lessons in detail, for assessed teaching practice for example, by considering options and justifying their choices (Roberts 1998; Wallace 1996).

It should be remembered, though, that the structure of the MA (including the DELTA component of it) lent itself particularly well to the conscious exploration of beliefs and teaching over time, and is distinctive in the way it links theory and practice and encourages experimental practice (see Chapter 2).

9.2.2.3 Tensions as catalyst for learning

The study demonstrates the important role that tensions between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices and among competing beliefs can play in teacher learning. Recognising tensions was integral in enabling all three teachers to develop their classroom practices. Awareness of such tensions raised questions in their minds, created initial dissatisfactions, and motivated them to explore and try to overcome the 'dilemmas' that this presented them.

Teachers in this study were already aware of some tensions between their beliefs and practices and/or among competing beliefs, whereas specific teacher education activities and tasks on the MA helped raise awareness of other tensions. Such awareness facilitated learning, as was evident in Anne's awareness of the tension between her belief in releasing control and her concern that this might cause her to lose face, and Daphne's realisation that her belief in the value of inductive learning and meaningful grammar practice conflicted with her belief that learners will respond better and ultimately learn more if their expectations are met. Such awareness encouraged Anne to peer-observe a colleague in order to see how to reconcile her two competing beliefs, and Daphne to experiment and eventually find a compromise between practices she believed would enhance learning better and those she felt learners would respond better to. Freeman's (1993) study of teachers of French and Spanish also found that discussion of tensions helped teachers develop their practices.

This study portrays tensions in a different light, not as something negative and to be avoided at all costs, but as something positive which can serve as a valuable catalyst for subsequent teacher learning. Teacher education programmes would do well to consider this, and to find ways of encouraging teachers to critically reflect on and consciously explore their beliefs and practices, acknowledging any tensions which emerge or are already present, and providing support for teachers in their subsequent exploration of such tensions and opportunities for collaborative discussion, as recommended by Phipps and Borg (2007).

9.2.2.4 Research as catalyst for learning

This longitudinal study demonstrates ways in which aspects of the research itself acted as catalysts for teacher learning. Thus, teachers' looking at transcriptions of their own lessons and discussing their beliefs and practices in detail are not normal features of the MA, so the teacher learning documented here may not have occurred as it did

without the intervention provided by this research. Dörnyei (2007) refers to the need for research participants' to feel they have gained something from research involvement, but this is as yet a relatively unexplored area.

The study indicates that collaborative discussion of beliefs and practices, and particularly of tensions between them and among competing beliefs, can help teachers reflect on them and to notice features which they may not have done otherwise. In terms of research, the study encouraged this implicitly by asking teachers to rationalise their practices and comparing these with stated beliefs, whereas teacher education might benefit from explicit tasks and activities which promote such reflection and collaborative discussion, as Richards and Pennington (1998) recommend. Thus, regular discussion of recurring issues related to their practices enabled Anne to notice how and why she was using lock-step oral practice, and helped raise her awareness of aspects of PPP. Similarly, it enabled Mark to notice that he was using gap-fills for classroom management purposes, and to reflect on the importance of thoroughly researching a grammar point before class.

The findings also demonstrate the value of teachers' engaging with data from their own teaching. Reading transcriptions of their own lessons was a new experience which helped Mark and Anne notice aspects of their error correction, and raised Mark's awareness of the value of considering which language learners would need for freer practice activities, thus helping him plan and monitor such activities. The study implicitly encouraged this by asking teachers to read the transcriptions of their lessons before the post-lesson discussions, but again teacher education would benefit from explicit tasks and activities which make use of data from teachers' own or others' classes, as called for by Borg (1998b, 2003c).

9.2.2.5 Conceptualisation of teacher learning

I conclude this section with a conceptualisation of teacher learning which considers the range of factors which serve as catalysts for teacher learning. This study has shown that teacher learning in an in-service teacher education context involves an on-going dynamic interplay between cognitive, affective, experiential and contextual factors (see Figure 9.3 below).

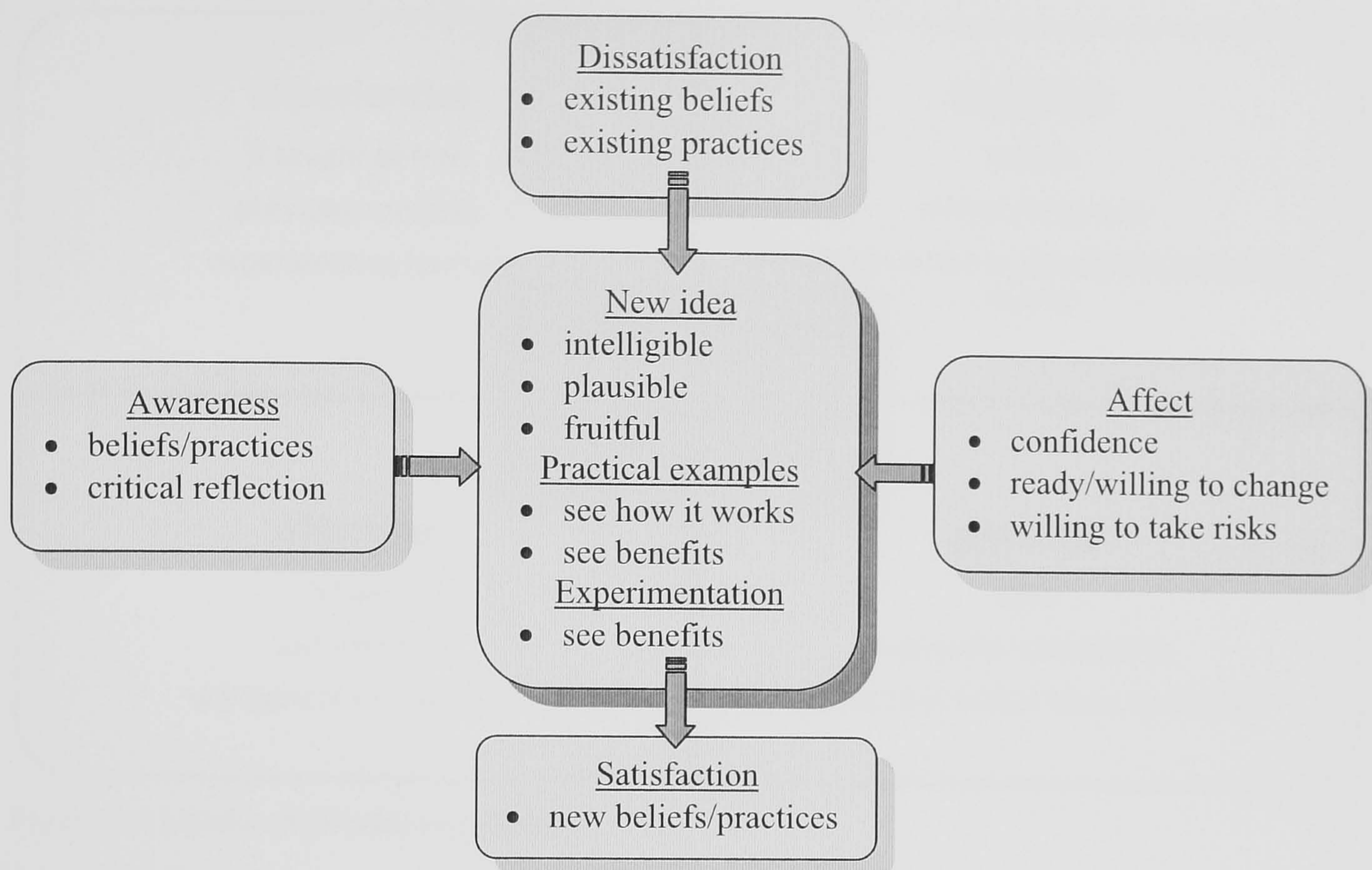


Figure 9.3 Conceptualisation of in-service teacher learning

Thus, dissatisfaction with some aspect of existing beliefs and/or practices functions as a stimulus for teacher learning, and is further facilitated by exposure to alternative ideas and practices, supported by theory and practical examples and the chance to experiment, which teachers then perceive to be intelligible, plausible and beneficial. This process is facilitated by affective factors, such as confidence, a desire to change and improve, and a willingness to take risks, and by cognitive factors, such as critical awareness of, and ability to critically reflect on, existing beliefs and practices. While it is possible that highly motivated and aware teachers may encounter a new idea and be so inspired that they decide to try it out, I would argue that even in such cases teachers are likely to hold an unconscious sense that this particular aspect of their practices could be improved.

Importantly from a teacher education perspective, the study has also provided insight into the factors which mediate teachers' uptake of alternative practices during in-service teacher education. Figure 9.4 below provides a framework outlining the cognitive, affective, experiential and practical factors which often mediate the extent to which teachers put ideas learnt from teacher education into practice into their everyday teaching. It is, however, worth bearing in mind that the reality in teachers' minds is likely to be more complex and may not be dichotomous in the manner implied here.

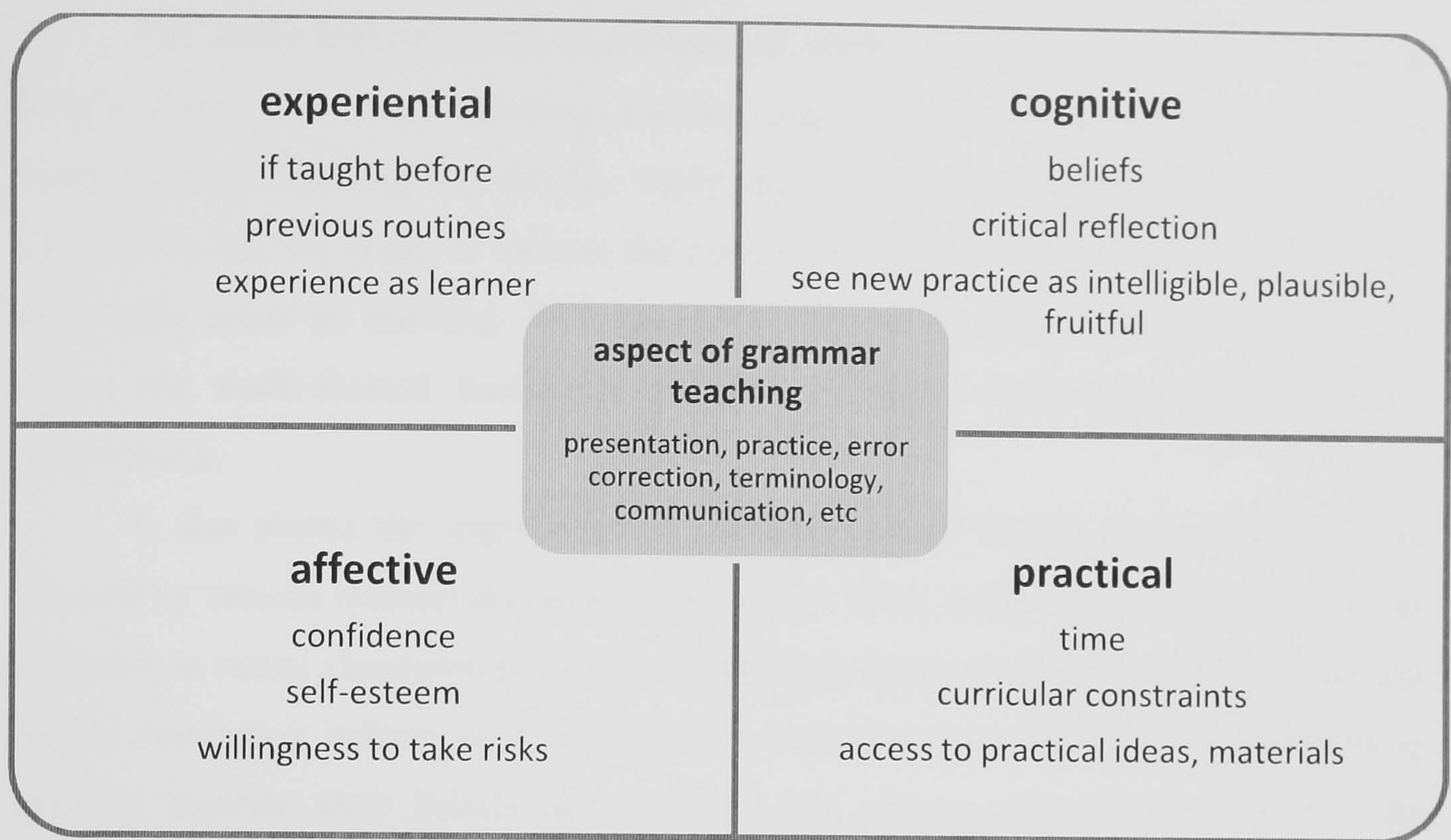


Figure 9.4 Uptake of alternative practices

Thus, the extent to which teachers are able to incorporate an aspect of new practice into their grammar teaching routines will depend on the following factors: (1) whether it conflicts with any existing beliefs, and whether the benefits are perceived to outweigh the risks, (2) whether they have the necessary confidence to try it out, (3) whether they have any experience of this or similar practices as a teacher or learner, and (4) whether there is enough time, whether it is in line with curricular constraints and learner expectations, and whether there are suitable materials available. It is my contention that teacher educators should consider these factors when designing in-service programmes.

This section has highlighted the important contributions this study makes to our understanding of the complex process of teacher learning and ways in which teacher education facilitate these. In the following section I discuss its contribution to language teacher cognition research.

9.2.3 Research

Having looked at the insights to emerge from this study in terms of grammar teaching and teacher education, I now outline the main contributions this study makes to our understanding of teacher cognition research, especially with regard to language teaching.

The study highlights the importance of teacher cognition research, confirming Borg's claim that 'understanding teacher cognition is central to the process of understanding teaching' (2006:1). Only by exploring teaching from teachers' perspective can we begin to fathom the complexities of teachers' cognitions and how they make sense of teaching. This study, by seeking to understand this complexity, shows the multi-faceted nature of grammar teaching when seen from teachers' perspectives.

It also shows the importance of studying teacher beliefs through practice, as stressed by various researchers (Borg 2006; Burns 2003; Fang 1996). By making direct reference to actual classroom practices, the teachers in this study were able to shed light on the competing influences which mediate their decision-making, thus highlighting tensions between their beliefs and practices and among competing beliefs and the underlying reasons for these. As Borg observes, there is a significant difference between 'ideal-oriented' and 'reality-oriented' cognitions (2006), which implies that claims we make as researchers about our findings need to be qualified by a critical understanding of the ways our data are elicited. This means that in order to make claims about actual practices, we need to find ways to ensure that we are tapping into teachers' practical (as opposed to theoretical) knowledge.

The study emphasises the value of using different data-collection instruments. As many writers have acknowledged, use of different data sources helps researchers overcome the limitations of each instrument (Dörnyei 2007; Maxwell 1996; Silverman 2000). Not only do different instruments have different levels of sensitivity in detecting, for example, changes in teachers' beliefs and practices, they also reflect different assumptions about teachers' beliefs (Borg 2006). The combination of observations and interviews in this study enabled tensions between different data to be explored in more detail, something that would not have been possible if only one instrument were used.

The longitudinal nature of the study enabled important insights into the process of teacher learning, cognitive and behavioural change and the effects of teacher education which could not have been obtained from mere snapshots during a limited timeframe. This adds support to claims that longitudinal studies can provide a rich varied picture of teachers' thinking and development within a temporal context, reveal individual development pathways, and document interaction between different factors over time (Dörnyei 2007; Duff 2008).

The study also demonstrates the value of exploratory case study research. In this study, complex changes to the structure and content of teachers' beliefs would not have been evident simply by using pre- and post-questionnaires. Seeking to understand rather than confirm existing theories enabled me to keep an open mind and to develop insights which would not have been gained without the 'thick description' (Geertz 1973) and rich data which prolonged involvement with participants provided (Maxwell 1996; Robson 2002).

A final point to make is that involvement in the study brought practical benefits to the participants by helping them notice aspects of their teaching, and stimulating critical reflection. This reminds us that teacher cognition researchers, through working closely with teachers, can also contribute to their development.

9.3 Limitations of the study

To conclude this chapter, I indicate some of the limitations of the study. Firstly, the small number of participants in this study inevitably means that the findings directly relate to the idiosyncratic nature of each of the three teachers, and caution should be taken in assuming their relevance to other teachers in other contexts. As I outlined in Chapter 4, these participants were not intended to be in any way representative of teachers elsewhere. There may be similarities in the constraints and experiences of teachers in this and other contexts, but it is likely that each individual teacher and each individual context will display their own unique features, which are likely to reflect both also differ in specific ways from those of this study.

Secondly, the specific nature of the teaching context in which the participants were working contains characteristics, such as a monolingual classroom context in an EFL environment and a prescribed curriculum, which, while not uncommon around the world, are by no means universal. This should again be taken into account when comparing the findings to other contexts. We should also consider that the specific nature of the teacher education context, namely an in-house, in-service MA which includes a strong practical teaching component, is likely to display features which are different from many in-service teacher education contexts worldwide. Moreover, all three participants were relatively new to the teaching context, so the influence of contextual constraints on their beliefs and practices is likely to have been different than if they had been working there for a long time.

Thirdly, the specific nature of the study (i.e., it is non-generic as it focuses on a particular aspect of teaching) means that the findings are of primary relevance for grammar teaching and in-service education involving practising language teachers. Nevertheless many aspects of the findings are likely to be relevant for teaching, language teaching, teacher education and language teacher education in general.

A fourth point is that the research methods used in the study have their own limitations which need to be taken into account when considering the reliability of the data. Observations of classroom practice inevitably have a reactive effect on participants, teachers and students alike, and are likely to elicit behaviours which may differ from those in unobserved lessons. Interviews provided only limited insight into the origin of teachers' beliefs as they relied on teachers' own recollection of past events. The nature of the research design also led to unobserved gaps between data collection stages when teachers were neither interviewed nor observed, and it is problematic to surmise what was happening to teachers' beliefs and practices during such periods. The study also provided limited insight into the impact of unstudied aspects of the MA, such as assessed teaching practice, and of aspects of the teaching context, such as collaborating with teaching partners, on teachers' thinking and learning.

A related limitation is my dual role as researcher and course director of the MA, which is likely to have impacted on the study. I outlined the advantages of such a dual role in terms of insider knowledge in Chapters 2 and 4. However, participants may have felt the need, consciously or unconsciously, to impress on me their knowledge learnt from the MA, and to say what they felt they should say or what they thought I wanted them to say. Although steps were taken to enhance reflexivity and overcome subjectivity, my dual role also raised the possibility of me drawing conclusions which matched my previous expectations.

Finally, the study makes no claims about the effectiveness of teachers' practices, or of the effect of these practices on student learning. Both these areas are emerging as important research foci in the field of language teacher cognition and could provide a valuable way of extending the insights from this study in future work of this kind.

10. IMPLICATIONS

The discussion of the findings of the study in the previous chapter has important implications for language teacher education as well as for continuing research on teacher cognition and grammar teaching. The main purpose of this chapter is to outline these implications, and in particular to suggest ways in which in-service language teacher education can engage with teachers' beliefs and practices to help them explore their classroom practices.

10.1 Teacher Education

On the basis of this study I make the following recommendations for in-service language teacher education generally.

10.1.1 Move beyond simplistic models of grammar teaching

The conceptualisation of grammar teaching from teachers' perspective which I outlined in Chapter 9 above is highly complex and, although undoubtedly informed by theoretical models and methodological dichotomies abundant in the literature, does go beyond such models and dichotomies. Teachers deal with an overwhelming array of cognitive, affective, contextual and experiential factors which compete for influence over their instructional decisions. Much benefit can, therefore, be gained if teacher educators raise teachers' awareness of these influences and illustrate, based where possible on real evidence, different ways in which these factors may inform pedagogical decisions.

Awareness of theoretical models may help teachers to make sense of their work and appraise the various options available to them, but discussion of the factors which help and hinder their implementation can help them to better understand the competing influences and how to balance them. There are various ways in which this can be done, and I discuss each of these briefly below.

10.1.2 Raise awareness of beliefs

Given the powerful influence of teachers' beliefs on their classroom practices, an important role of teacher education should be to help raise awareness of these often tacit beliefs. This should involve specific tasks and activities which attempt to elicit teachers' beliefs at the start of the teacher education programme, encourage them to

rationalise and understand why they hold such beliefs, and help them to explore the ways in which these beliefs influence their practices.

Having raised awareness of teachers' beliefs, opportunities can subsequently be created to confront these beliefs (this is not to suggest, of course, that all existing beliefs held by teachers are pedagogically suspect or erroneous) and for teachers to explore them in the light of the relevant literature and SLA research findings, and also in relation to their own classroom experiences and observations. Specific activities and tasks should then encourage teachers to reflect on (some of) their beliefs and practices, to link these to appropriate readings and, where possible, to write up their findings, either formally through written assignments or informally through a learning journal. This reflection can then form the basis for subsequent collaborative discussion with peers and teacher educators.

Observations of teaching practice carried out by teacher educators as part of the teacher education programme can build on awareness of each teacher's beliefs by focusing part of the post-lesson discussion on exploring the teacher's underlying assumptions and reasoning behind decisions taken before and during the lesson, and linking these to the teacher's stated beliefs. This is, of course, not easy to do and will require time and effort on the part of teacher educators, support and guidance in how to do it, as well as a belief that it is worthwhile doing.

10.1.3 Explore tensions

This study has demonstrated that tensions between teachers' beliefs and practices can often be explained in terms of tensions between competing, and at times conflicting, beliefs. Teachers may be unaware of the existence of, and/or the underlying reasons for, such tensions and teacher education may often not encourage teachers to engage directly with them. Given their powerful influence on teachers' pedagogical decision-making, teacher education programmes should include tasks and activities which encourage teachers, in collaboration with a teacher educator, to try to make explicit and understand the underlying reasons behind their instructional decisions, and to identify aspects of their teaching which appear to be at odds with their stated beliefs.

As I discussed at length in Chapter 9 above, tensions between teachers' practices and their stated beliefs are logical from the perspective of the teacher, especially considering their competing beliefs, and should not, therefore, be treated as something negative to be addressed, but rather as a developmental opportunity to be explored.

Such exploration of tensions needs to be conducted sensitively due to the involvement of affective factors. This suggests that teacher education programmes would benefit from acknowledging the importance of teachers' confidence, self-esteem and self-efficacy and actively working with teachers to enable these to develop.

Specific tasks and activities can be designed which encourage teachers to explore and engage with their tensions over time and, again with the support and guidance of a teacher educator, this reflection can form the basis for collaborative discussion with peers. Post-observation discussions after teaching practice can also focus partly on these tensions. The teacher may already know what they should (or are expected to) do, but competing beliefs may be preventing them from teaching as they would like. Teacher educators can, then, help teachers to address such tensions between competing beliefs by offering practical suggestions as to how they might overcome or accept them. This is likely to be more effective in enabling teachers to improve and develop their practices than simply reiterating perceived deficiencies in teachers' practices. Of course, institutional or other contextual constraints may be unavoidable, in which case teachers would benefit from support and guidance in how to come to terms with them and, where possible, adapt their teaching accordingly.

10.1.4 Encourage collaborative dialogue

I have already stressed, in the previous two sections of this chapter, the importance of collaborative dialogue with teacher educators, and indeed with peers, in helping teachers to explore their beliefs, practices and the relationships between them. The study has illustrated the value of such dialogue in raising teachers' awareness in ways which may not otherwise have happened, and also in helping to uncover the underlying (often tacit) reasons behind teachers' behaviours.

Teacher education programmes do often incorporate elements of collaborative dialogue, but what I am arguing for here is that this is likely to be particularly beneficial if explicit opportunities are created for teachers to discuss their beliefs and practices with teacher educators in such a way that it raises awareness of tensions among competing beliefs. Awareness of such tensions which manifest themselves as practices which do not reflect their stated beliefs can then serve as a catalyst for teachers' learning and a springboard for further exploration of their beliefs and practices.

Such collaborative dialogue may then be factored into the design of teacher education programmes in such a manner that it is integrated with and builds on specific

activities and tasks which help teachers to raise awareness of their beliefs and practices, and to identify potential tensions between them. It is important that this is done supportively and collaboratively rather than judgementally and uni-directionally, not only in order to ensure trust and openness, but also to provide affective support which, as I have already stressed, is important for teachers' development.

10.1.5 Engage teachers with data

This study has highlighted ways in which practising in-service teachers make sense of grammar teaching and provided insights into the complex interplay between their understanding of background theory, their own at times conflicting beliefs about language teaching and learning, their previous grammar teaching experiences and routines, and contextual and affective factors. The nature of this dynamic relationship at any one time determines how grammar teaching unfolds and how it is perceived by teachers themselves. The data in this study is rich with examples of episodes of real classroom events and teachers' own reflection and analysis of their work in grammar teaching. In the previous chapter I outlined ways in which engagement with this data (as part of their involvement in this study) helped raise teachers' awareness and stimulate reflection and subsequent learning.

It follows, then, that teacher education activities which facilitate such engagement have great potential in helping teachers to notice and reflect on aspects of their beliefs and practices and ultimately to improve their teaching. While it is, of course, unreasonable to expect teachers, or teacher educators for that matter, to devote hours of their time to recording and transcribing extracts of lessons or post-lesson discussions, there are ways in which such engagement with real data can be incorporated into the design and delivery of teacher education programmes. I now discuss some of these briefly below:

- A good starting point is to use a previously recorded and transcribed extract of data from another teacher (or alternatively a running commentary if no such transcription exists), and to give tasks which focus on particular aspects or events in the lesson. The data and tasks can form the basis of group analysis and discussion with a teacher educator, which Ur (1996) refers to as 'vicarious experience'.
- This can then be followed by similar analysis and discussion of a transcription of the post-lesson discussion (again previously recorded and transcribed), with specific tasks which encourage awareness of specific tensions evident in the data. These tasks

and subsequent discussion can be guided so as to explore underlying reasons for (rather than mere description of) the teacher's behaviour. Depending on teachers' level of experience and awareness, the next step could be to discuss how else the teacher might have taught and/or how the teacher might try to overcome the tensions identified.

- If time permits (and assuming the requisite skills and/or equipment) teacher educators can then record and transcribe one of each teacher's lessons, and return the transcription to each teacher accompanied by suitable tasks which encourage them to critically reflect on their rationale for certain decisions in light of the lesson and how it impacted on learners. The post-lesson discussion can then explore these tasks further, and end with clear action points for the teacher.
- A further stage could then be for each teacher to record one of their own lessons and to transcribe it for their own analysis. This could then be shared with the teacher educator and form the basis for further collaborative discussion.

These suggestions are not exhaustive; instead they are meant to be illustrative of ways in which tasks which encourage teachers to engage with real data of actual classes can be incorporated into teacher education programmes. A simpler approach would be to use narrative texts or classroom materials rather than transcriptions.

10.2 Recommendations for future research

This study indicates that research which is exploratory and longitudinal, which is grounded in teachers' actual classroom practices and which reflects teachers' own perspectives on their work can make a significant contribution to understandings of teachers' beliefs and practices, teacher learning and the way teacher education impacts on these. Further research can build on and add to the developing knowledge bases of in-service language teacher education and grammar teaching from a teacher cognition perspective. In this section I briefly outline recommendations for further research on in-service language teacher education and grammar teaching as follows:

- *Other in-service teacher education contexts.* Similar studies of the development of teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices in different in-service teacher education contexts would provide useful insights into the processes of teacher learning. Similarities and differences with the results of this study would shed light on the extent to which unique features of this MA impacted on teachers, thus

contributing to a more sophisticated understanding of the effects of in-service teacher education.

- *Other aspects of teaching.* Most domain-specific teacher cognition research in both general education and ELT has been conducted on grammar teaching or literacy (reading and writing). Similar studies to this one on other aspects of teaching (such as vocabulary, speaking, listening, for example), perhaps using different methods or more extensive engagement, would further broaden the rather narrow focus that currently exists and enable us to see the extent to which different aspects of teaching are influenced in different ways by in-service teacher education.
- *Replication studies in same context.* It would be interesting to conduct similar longitudinal studies in the same context with different teachers doing the same MA programme and working in the same institution. The participants in this study were all relatively new to the work context, so it would be particularly useful to explore the development of beliefs and practices of teachers who have been in the same institution for a number of years.

These three recommendations suggest that similar exploratory longitudinal case studies of teachers' beliefs and practices should be conducted with different participants, in different contexts and on different aspects of teaching.

10.3 Concluding remarks

To conclude this study, I now summarise the main contributions it has made to understandings of grammar teaching, teacher learning and teacher education and teacher cognition research methodology.

This study contributes to a more sophisticated understanding of grammar teaching from teachers' perspective by highlighting the various cognitive, affective, contextual and experiential factors which influence teachers' pedagogical decision-making in grammar teaching. It also confirms that teachers teach grammar for different, sometimes conflicting, reasons, and that awareness of theoretical models forms only a part of their decision-making process. It shows that teachers' beliefs are not always reflected in their practices, but provides insight into the complexity of reasons behind such lack of congruence. In this respect the study makes an important contribution by demonstrating how tensions between competing beliefs manifest themselves in what superficially may be seen to be tensions between beliefs and practices.

In terms of research methodology, the study demonstrates the value of exploring teachers' beliefs through their classroom practices, and of looking at teachers' work from their perspective. It also emphasises the benefits of using different instruments to elicit teachers' beliefs, and highlights the strengths of using interview and observation data to make assumptions about teachers' actual practices. Importantly, it illustrates ways in which research participants can benefit professionally from research involvement.

The strongest contribution of this study lies in the insights it provides into the ways in-service teacher education impacts on teachers' beliefs and practices. It reiterates the 'strong intervention' potential of in-service language teacher education, and the powerful influence of teachers' prior beliefs on their teaching and their learning from formal teacher education. It contributes to a more sophisticated understanding of the processes of teacher learning by showing the differences between changes in the content and structure of beliefs, and by revealing aspects of teacher education which facilitate teacher learning. In this regard it sheds light on the role of affect in teachers' development. It also shows how collaboratively discussing tensions and engaging with data from teachers' own classes can stimulate teacher learning.

Finally, on a personal note this study has contributed enormously to my own professional development and broadened my understanding of grammar teaching, teacher education and research methodology.

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12. APPENDICES

Appendix 2.1: Input on the MA

LINGUISTICS

1. Introduction
2. Theories of Language
3. Theories of Language Learning 1
4. Theories of Language Learning 2
5. Second Language Acquisition 1
6. Second Language Acquisition 2
7. Classroom SLA Research 1
8. Classroom SLA Research 2
9. Psycholinguistics 1
10. Psycholinguistics 2
11. Cognitive Processes of Language Learning 1
12. Cognitive Processes of Language Learning 2
13. Implications for pedagogy
14. Lesson Shapes (PPP, TTT, TBL, etc)
15. Principles of Language Teaching
16. Evaluation

GRAMMAR TEACHING AND LEARNING

1. Introduction
2. Tense and aspect
3. Language analysis
4. Video lesson
5. Presenting grammar
6. Practising grammar
7. Practical teaching ideas
8. Lesson planning
9. Lesson shapes
10. Sample demo lessons
11. Peer observation of a grammar lesson
12. TBL
13. Language analysis
14. Checking learning
15. Sounds and drilling
16. Foreign language experience (Russian lesson)

Appendix 4.1: Informed Consent Form

Research Project Consent Form: Participant's Copy

Simon Phipps is conducting research into the development of MA students' beliefs and practices in relation to grammar instruction. This will involve exploring teachers' beliefs and their origins at the start of the MA, and investigating the extent to which these might change at various points during the 2-year period. In addition the research will focus on teachers' classroom practices in grammar teaching in order to explore the relationship between their belief statements and their teaching.

If you consent to participate in this study, you will be asked to be interviewed and observed by the researcher on a number of occasions over a 2-year period between November 2005 and July 2007, as outlined below.

- An initial interview of up to one hour will be conducted in November 2005, at a time convenient for you, in order to explore your existing beliefs about grammar teaching, and their origins.
- Three further interviews of up to one hour each will be conducted by the researcher at 6-month intervals, at a time convenient to you, in order to explore developments in your beliefs.
- A total of three 50-minute lessons will be observed by the researcher at 6-month intervals, at a time convenient to you. No special preparation is required for each lesson. During the lesson the researcher will take notes and will also ask you for copies of any material you use. A post-lesson discussion of up to one hour will be conducted as soon after the lesson as possible, at a time convenient to you. The purpose of this follow-up interview will be to seek your views of the lesson, the activities you undertook and their rationale.

All interviews and classroom observations will be audio-recorded. These recordings and the notes taken by the researcher will be kept totally confidential. Care will also be taken to minimize the effect of your participation in the research on your workload. Your participation in this research will have no effect whatsoever on the MA.

Anonymity will also be insured. Your participation in the research will not be made public. When the research is written up the researcher will ensure that you are not able to be identified as no reference to personal names will be used. In addition only the researcher will have access to the data collected for the project. Confidentiality will be maintained at all times. Any data used in reports or publications about the project will be for illustration purposes only. Before the final report for the project is prepared, the researcher will send you an account of what he has written about your classroom and the interviews conducted with you and will ask you to comment on any descriptions or interpretations that you believe are inaccurate or mistaken.

Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any time. You do not have to give a reason for withdrawing from the research and there will be no adverse consequences if you decide to withdraw.

Participant's consent; the participant has been given a signed copy of this form to keep.

I agree to participate in this research.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix 4.2: Initial Beliefs Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE*: BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHING AND LEARNING L2 GRAMMAR

Please take a few minutes to reflect on your views about teaching and learning grammar. Think about the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements below and circle the relevant boxes.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	Learners will learn grammar if they get lots of exposure to English.	5	4	3	2	1
2.	It is possible for adults to learn a foreign language in the classroom without studying grammar.	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Teachers should present grammar rules one at a time.	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Teachers should teach simple grammatical structures before complex ones.	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Learners benefit from lessons where grammar is the primary focus.	5	4	3	2	1
6.	Grammar teaching should be integrated with skills work.	5	4	3	2	1
7.	Before learners can use grammar it needs to be presented to them.	5	4	3	2	1
8.	Grammar should be presented in context.	5	4	3	2	1
9.	Grammar learning is more effective when learners work out the rules for themselves.	5	4	3	2	1
10.	Controlled practice exercises help learners develop fluency in using grammar.	5	4	3	2	1
11.	Mechanical drills are necessary for learners to learn grammatical structures.	5	4	3	2	1
12.	During lessons, a focus on grammar should come after communicative tasks, not before.	5	4	3	2	1
13.	Learners need knowledge of grammar rules in order to be able to use the language effectively.	5	4	3	2	1
14.	If learners know the grammar rules they will be able to use the language effectively.	5	4	3	2	1
15.	It is important for learners to learn grammatical terminology.	5	4	3	2	1
16.	Teachers should correct learners' grammatical errors otherwise they will develop bad habits.	5	4	3	2	1
17.	Learners will not learn grammar without plentiful opportunities to use the language.	5	4	3	2	1
18.	Vocabulary is more important than grammar.	5	4	3	2	1
19.	Teaching grammar is the most important role of the language teacher.	5	4	3	2	1
20.	It is important for teachers to teach the pronunciation of a new grammatical structure.	5	4	3	2	1

Thank you.

*Adapted from Borg, S. (2005b). Beliefs about grammar questionnaire. Handout for EDUC5912: Grammar Learning and Teaching. School of Education, University of Leeds, UK.

Appendix 4.3: Initial Interview Questions

1. Own language learning experience? (15')

- Which L2 did you study at school?
- How were you taught? How did you learn the grammar?
- How successful do you think you were?
- Have you tried to learn any other languages?
- Which strategies did/do you use? How successful do you think you were/are?
- If you compare your teaching of grammar with what you experienced as a learner, what similarities and differences might there be?

2. Beliefs about teaching and learning grammar (20-25')

- Talk through questionnaire answers (probe where necessary)

3. How you teach grammar (15')

- Talk through a grammar lesson taught recently (probe rationale)
- Is this how you often approach grammar in your teaching?
- How do you feel about the way you teach grammar?
- How successful do you think this is?

4. Changes in beliefs (5-10')

- Are you aware of any changes in your beliefs about grammar since you started teaching?
- Are you aware of any changes to the way you teach grammar since you started teaching?

Appendix 4.4: Example of interview guide

Interview 1 – Tentative Interview Qs (July 2006)

Intro

Purpose and outline

Confidentiality and openness

Beliefs

Before you said – sts need focus on form. Do you still agree?

Would you say your teaching reflects this?

How would you say your beliefs about grammar have developed since then?

(explore probe any changes – if aware how, why, if reflected in teaching)

Teaching

Before you said your teaching had started to change - would you say it has changed?

- would you say it is still changing?

Have you taught more grammar this year?

How do you tend to teach it?

How successful do you feel this has been?

How do you decide which grammar to teach?

To what extent do you make grammar explicit for learners?

Do you teach grammar lessons at all? How? How has this gone?

Do you present grammar at all? How? How has this gone?

Before you said sts can find discovery frustrating if grammar has not been presented –

How do you feel now?

Before you said controlled practice (CP) can be helpful - Would you still agree?

- Do you tend to use CP?

To what extent do you correct learners' grammatical errors?

Beliefs vs Teaching

Do you always teach in line with your beliefs?

Why do you think this is? Is it conscious?

How do you feel about this?

What would you say influences the way you approach grammar in your teaching?

MA

Have you learnt anything about grammar teaching?

Have you tried out anything different in class?

How successful has this been?

To what extent do you feel you have explored different ways of teaching grammar?

Have you learnt anything from feedback on your grammar teaching?

Have you noticed anything about your own grammar teaching?

Have you noticed anything about your students' learning of grammar?

Appendix 4.5: Example of post-observation guide

Post Observation 4: Interview Qs (Anne: 01.04.07. 15.30-16.30)

Approach to planning

Talk through how you approached planning (probe how principled, how aware of options)

- Aims, rationale for 'wish' focus
- How chose lesson shape? Was this revision? How did this affect planning?
- How started planning, how chose stages, materials, activities
 - What options were available, what choices made and why
 - How researched grammar point (could for someone else?)
 - What constraints affected planning (50', exam, curriculum rush, partners, etc)
 - Why coursebook materials were not felt to be appropriate
 - To what extent is planning influenced by what learnt from MA
 - How detailed was the planning compared to normal (time, etc)
 - To what extent this was this more normal lesson compared with previous ones
 - How else could the lesson have been
- Taught 'Wish before', anything new for you, experimenting, trying out
 - How taught it before
 - Why choose to focus on wish + s past/would/could at same time
- Conscious decisions re correction, control, CP, GW, PPP, meaning, unexpected Qs, eliciting

General impressions

How did the lesson go

- How confident felt, how impacted on student learning
- How different choices would've impacted, in ideal world what would have been different

Feedback on initial stage

What happened, what did sts learn?

- Theme/communication (conscious decision? Core or peripheral?)
- Elicitation (conscious or automatic?)
- Genuine vs display Qs (conscious?)
- Pronunciation, drilling (conscious decision to avoid?)
- Sts generating sentences (conscious decision to avoid this time?)

Feedback on consciousness-raising stage (focus on meaning, focus on form)

- Releasing control (why not use OHT for f/b? T-led then pairs?)
- Meaning (concept Qs this time, conscious? How clear? Explanations? How confident?)
- Getting sts to analyse/think (conscious? How did it go?)
- Guidance/setting up (aware of how? No demo – conscious?)
- Dealing with unexpected Qs (while monitoring? How did it go? How felt?)
- Formula (how helped?)
- Error correction (insist on full sentences, teacher/peer/self correction – conscious?)

Feedback on gap fill

What happened, what did sts learn?

- Meaning/mechanical (compare could/would/s.past, how clear?)
- CM (aim? Lack of time to find sth else? See CM as mechanical?)
- Error correction (consistent? Conscious? How felt? Contractions)

Feedback on writing

What happened, what did sts learn?

- Guidance/setting up (aware of how? No demo – conscious?)
- Releasing control (how felt? Confidence? How helps sts learn grammar?)
- Meaning/mechanical (conscious decision? Manipulate form? Meaning? Not corrected?)
- Understanding of terms 'production', 'freer practice'

Conclusions

How did you continue in the next block?

Other grammar lessons recently (relative clauses) – how planned, decisions taken, how went

Appendix 4.6: Example of transcription style used

Steve: Transcription Interview 1 (05.10.06, 11.00-12.00)

SP: You mentioned that quite often you follow the text book in the sense of drawing things out of the text. Would that be something that you'd plan beforehand what you're going to focus on from the text?

T3: Well, yeah, if I had, if I knew that there was a problem that the students were having, then I would have to find a text that was addressing, that was showing the issue that I wanted to focus on. Yeah, because otherwise the text might not actually show what I want to show, and that might be confusing or not useful.

SP: And do you sometimes have a lesson where you're focusing, for example, on relative clauses in this lesson, or another grammar point?

T3: Oh, yeah. Yeah. There's definitely, that's (...)

SP: ...and do you have a particular approach as to how you would tackle grammar in a lesson?

T3: Well, err, yeah. (...) I mean, one thing that happens is that you have repeat students and regular students, students that are new, so some of them the grammar points are not new to them. One reason I think is that grammar rules and things like that are something tangible that they can kind of, I know that I can, this is a rule and I can understand this rule, but you know 300 vocabulary words, well, I don't know if I can handle all that. So, I think that's one, err, I think also their previous education there has been geared towards grammar training, and so it's something that they're used to and is familiar. That being said, at this level any grammar point tends to be both a review for some and an introduction for others. Umm, so (...) the way I look at it, err, is with both of those things in mind (...). The general format that I follow when I'm introducing a new grammar point is to, umm, is to show it in some context. It might just be as basic as a sentence, or it might be something within a reading where there are several examples. From time to time when I find songs that have a particular grammar, for instance I know some songs that use the, umm, the second conditional, and so (...) using that as a, where you can see what it is and it's being repeated over and over. Something to where the (...) within a context the students can understand the meaning and they also see the form, so after just noticing it, what is (...), then, umm, I generally go through issues of form, so if it's a, if it's in (...), for instance present perfect aspect then the positive, negative, question, yes/no questions, err...

SP: ... short answers, maybe...

T3: ...yeah, how do we form it? And then going along with present perfect again, looking at the functions it serves, what meanings we create from it, umm, and again the text. The text can be useful to refer back to, so students can see a meaning for themselves. Umm, and (...) then asking students to produce it first in a more controlled way, which maybe just focuses on getting the form correct and then asking them to produce it within a context where they need to understand what it means.

SP: So, how does that sort of controlled practice help them in their learning?

T3: Well, err, I think that some of it is the (...12 secs...), I think some of it acts as, I don't know but from a behaviourist approach it's repetition. Also how I look at it is that (...5 secs...) that through the examples they're all going to find somehow that it's going to stick into their minds.

Appendix 4.7: Example of analytic memo

Anne: Post-Observation Interview 2 Summary (December 2006)

Espoused beliefs about teaching and learning grammar

- there should be a focus on form, sts benefit from seeing rule/pattern
- there should be a focus on meaning and context of any grammar
- some terminology should be used explicitly
- there should be some error correction, sts need it
- controlled practice helps sts learn
- it is important for sts to produce the target structure

Reflections on the lesson

- felt PPP worked
- if had more time in this lesson;
 - more examples and concept checking during presentation
 - more practice, and more focus on meaning during CP
 - longer time on production

Teaching grammar

- similar to normal teaching (in terms of lesson shape)
- thought of concept of 2nd conditional, then wrote letter for reading text
- feels constrained by time when observed (all in 50 mins), otherwise would spend 1.5-2 blocks
- tends to use mainly PPP (starting to plan according to 3 P stages)
- Presentation
 - now likes to start with text or story (used to use isolated sentences)
 - context, elicitation, concept Qs
 - model sentences (focus on form and meaning)
 - getting sts to analyse, come up with rule/pattern (sth new)
 - formula, terminology
- Practice
 - Gap fill (mechanical), chain sentences (fairly mechanical)
 - Not so clear about checking meaning (becoming more aware)
 - Sts not using target language at this stage (tends to want to keep control)
- Production (tends to get sts to use the grammar)
 - Important to check learning through written production
 - Not so comfortable with speaking in groups (hard to monitor)

Beliefs and teaching about grammar

- Becoming more aware and questioning own teaching, starting to try out new ideas
- Believes production is important, but little chance given for sts to use target language
- Wants to monitor production, unhappy to release control at this stage
- Unclear about value of speaking in groups, feels unsure and uncomfortable

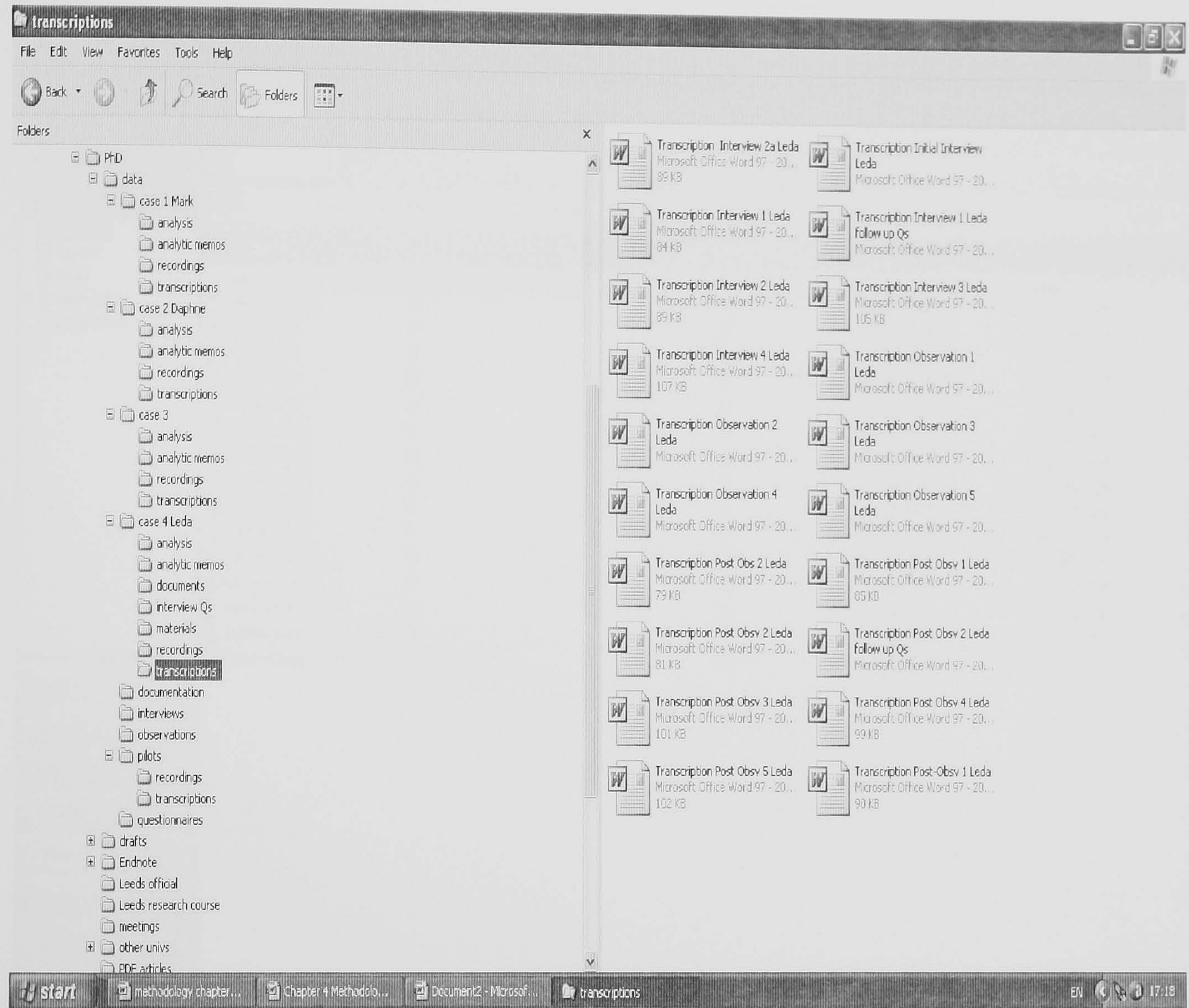
Influences on grammar teaching

- Not being main class teacher influences how much grammar is taught and how
- Grammar point chosen according to curriculum
- Negotiated with teaching partners, told them she needed to teach a grammar point
- Teaching grammar according to perception of student needs, own teaching habit
- Trying to learn to do 50 min lessons for MA

Conclusions

- Unsure about PPP and TTT (but gradually becoming clearer and more coherent)
- Open to new ideas
- Developing awareness and confidence, becoming more self-critical
 - Starting to try out new ideas (groupwork, correction, getting sts to analyse)
 - Starting to think more about meaning

Appendix 4.8: Electronic data storage



*note initial pseudonym used for Anne

Appendix 4.9: Sample of Nvivo archiving

The screenshot shows the Nvivo software interface for a project named 'PhD Leda'. The main window displays a list of documents in a table. The table has the following columns: Name, Nodes, References, Created, and Modified. The documents listed are:

Name	Nodes	References	Created	Modified
Initial Interview Leda	19	46	25.11.2007 19:25	17.12.2007 09:30
Interview 1 Leda	18	45	25.11.2007 19:25	17.12.2007 11:32
Interview 2 Leda	18	39	25.11.2007 19:25	17.12.2007 14:56
Interview 3 Leda	22	67	25.11.2007 19:25	18.12.2007 11:29
Interview 4 Leda	27	82	25.11.2007 19:25	18.12.2007 17:20
Observation 1 Leda	9	28	25.11.2007 19:25	25.11.2007 19:29
Observation 2 Leda	10	30	25.11.2007 19:25	18.12.2007 15:16
Observation 3 Leda	10	34	25.11.2007 19:25	18.12.2007 17:29
Observation 4 Leda	11	38	25.11.2007 19:25	18.12.2007 15:40
Observation 5 Leda	9	21	25.11.2007 19:25	18.12.2007 17:32
Post Obsv 1 Leda	16	33	25.11.2007 19:25	18.12.2007 17:35
Post Obsv 2 Leda	17	43	25.11.2007 19:25	17.12.2007 14:00
Post Obsv 3 Leda	15	54	25.11.2007 19:25	25.11.2007 19:31
Post Obsv 4 Leda	19	51	25.11.2007 19:25	25.11.2007 19:31
Post Obsv 5 Leda	23	53	25.11.2007 19:25	18.12.2007 12:11

The interface also shows a sidebar with navigation options: Sources, Nodes, Sets, Queries, Models, Links, Classifications, and Folders. The status bar at the bottom indicates 15 items and shows the Windows taskbar with several open applications.

*note initial pseudonym used for Anne

Appendix 4.10: Sample of Nvivo category codes organised as tree nodes

PhD Daphne - NVivo

File Edit View Go Tools Window Help

Look for: Search In Tree Nodes Find Now Clear Options

Nodes

- Free Nodes
- Tree Nodes
- Cases
- Relationships
- Matrices
- Search Folders
- All Nodes

Sources

Nodes

Sets

Queries

Models

Links

Classifications

Folders

Tree Nodes

Name	Sources	References	Created	Modified
1 background profile	0	0	18.03.2008 15:31	18.03.2008 15:33
a language learning	1	5	18.03.2008 15:34	18.03.2008 15:58
b teacher education	2	3	18.03.2008 15:34	18.03.2008 17:58
c grammar teaching	3	11	18.03.2008 15:35	18.03.2008 17:59
2 developments	0	0	18.03.2008 15:32	18.03.2008 15:32
a focus on form	10	37	18.03.2008 15:40	18.03.2008 18:31
b planned incidental	9	38	18.03.2008 15:40	18.03.2008 18:29
c communication	10	37	18.03.2008 15:40	18.03.2008 18:35
d teacher control	6	10	18.03.2008 15:41	18.03.2008 18:26
e inductive teaching	10	27	18.03.2008 15:41	18.03.2008 18:29
f error correction	9	28	18.03.2008 15:41	18.03.2008 18:31
g controlled practice	8	23	18.03.2008 15:41	18.03.2008 18:35
h pron	4	4	18.03.2008 15:42	18.03.2008 18:30
3 common developments	0	0	18.03.2008 15:33	18.03.2008 15:33
a dilemma	4	16	18.03.2008 15:42	18.03.2008 18:01
b exploration	4	10	18.03.2008 15:42	18.03.2008 18:01
c new routines	4	17	18.03.2008 15:42	18.03.2008 18:37
d contextual constraints	6	17	18.03.2008 15:43	18.03.2008 18:19
4 MA influence	0	0	18.03.2008 15:33	18.03.2008 15:33
a awareness	4	20	18.03.2008 15:43	18.03.2008 18:38
b beliefs	1	2	18.03.2008 15:43	18.03.2008 18:30
c confidence	3	3	18.03.2008 15:43	18.03.2008 18:36
d teaching	3	17	18.03.2008 15:44	18.03.2008 18:37
5 issues	0	0	18.03.2008 15:33	18.03.2008 15:33
a conceptual change	2	12	18.03.2008 15:44	18.03.2008 18:37
b grammar knowledge	2	2	18.03.2008 15:45	18.03.2008 18:31
c initial routines	0	0	18.03.2008 15:45	18.03.2008 15:45

29 items

start Chapter 4 Methodo... Initial interview (Com... Transcription Intervie... case 2 Daphne PhD Daphne - NVivo EN 13:26

Appendix 5.1: Example of Anne's use of terminology

A: Good. OK. Why don't we say 'goed'? Why do we say 'went'?

S: Irregular.

A: I don't know why.

S: Special word.

A: Which ones are regular and which ones are irregular?

S: Go irregular

A: Went, is it V1?

S: V2, go, went, gone.

A: What about this one?

Sts: Regular.

A: Wanted.

Sts: Regular.

A: Ate.

Sts: Irregular. (T writes regular, irregular on b/b)

A: OK, so this is in the past. Does anyone know what it's called?

S: Past simple tense

A: Yes, so this is called past simple or simple past tense (T writes simple past tense on b/b)

Alright. OK. Let's look at this sentence, arkadaslar. Is it positive or negative?

Sts: Positive.

A: OK. If this is a normal sentence, what would be the negative form?

Sts: Didn't want.

A: How do we spell it? (T writes on b/b Tim didn't want to be with his friends) So, didn't....

Sts: Didn't want.

A: So this is which form?

Sts: Negative.

A: Can you give me a question?

Sts: Did Tim want to be with his friends.

A: Did Tim want to be with his friends. (T writes this on b/b) OK, what would the question be for this one? How would you put it?

S: What did Tim eat?

A: Good, so what did Tim...

Sts: Eat.

A: What did Tim eat? (T writes this on b/b)

Sts: Eat.

(AO1:86-119)

Appendix 5.2 Anne's wish-clause activity

Analysis

Questions

1. Match the sentences in column A

A	B
1. I wish I were in Istanbul	a) I want you to answer the phone when I call you next time
2. I wish I could talk to you face to face	b) I'm not in Istanbul now but I want to be there
3. I wish you would listen to me and come back	c) I want you to listen to me and come back to England
4. Do you also wish we could come together?	d) I cannot talk to you face to face now but I want to
5. I wish we weren't so far away from each other	e) We aren't together now. Do you want to be together now?
6. I wish you would take my call this time and we could talk	f) We're far away from each other

2. Write which ones are present and future wishes

3. Why do we use wish clauses?

4. a) When do we use simple past and could after wish clause?

b) When do we use would after wish clause?

5. a) Make a rule about wish clauses by focusing on the examples 1, 2, 4 and 5 above

b) Make a rule about the examples 3 and 6.

Appendix 5.3: Example of Anne's elicitation

(A projects following sentence from OHT onto b/b)

Da Vinci was born in Anchiano, which is 3km away from Vinci.

A: I chose a sentence from your reading. Da Vinci was born in Anchiano, which is 3km away from Vinci. Any idea why I might have chosen this sentence?

Sts: Relative clause.

A: Oh, my God, OK. How many verbs are there in this sentence?

Sts: Away from.

A: How many verbs are there?

Sts: Was, is.

A: OK. How many sentences can you make out of these 2 sentences?

S: 2.

A: Can you make 2 sentences? How?

S: He was born.

S: Anchiano is...

A: This is the first one. Anchiano is...

Sts: 3 km away from Vinci.

(A writes the following on b/b)

Da Vinci was born in Anchiano,
It is 3km away from Vinci.

A: OK. You said it's a relative clause. What's the purpose of 'which'?

S1: Linker.

S2: Combine.

A: Combining, not really. Good try.

S3: 2 sentences. Some information.

A: Yes, this is the main purpose. So, the purpose is to give some extra information. Do we need extra information? Why?

S: To say...

S: Which states some sort of extra information

A: Yes, to give extra information by using relative clauses. OK, so the question is; have you ever used relative clauses in speaking or have you ever seen them in writing? What sort of language are they, formal or informal?

S1: Formal.

S2: Informal.

A: Can you use it in spoken language?

S: No.

S: Only when we write.

A: In writing it's more popular, let's say. In speaking it's rare. OK, so it's a relative clause. So, which bit is the relative clause? How many parts are there?

S: 2.

A: 2 parts. So, can you tell me which part is the relative clause?

Sts: (...)

A: Which bit is the extra information?

S: Which...

(A underlines relative clause, circles relative pronoun 'which')

A: OK, so this is the extra information part. OK, I just circled this 'which', what's it called?

S: Relative pronoun.

A: Very good. 'Which' is one of our relative pronouns. Do you know any others?

Sts: Who, what, how...

(A elicits and writes on b/b)

Who, whom, whose, where, when, which

A: What's it about?

Sts: Place, time

(AO5:41-98)

Appendix 5.4: Example of Anne's teacher-fronted oral practice

S1: Where did you go?

A: I went to London.

S1: Where did you stay?

A: I stayed in a friend's house.

S1: How long were you there?

A: I was there for 2 weeks.

S1: How did you get there?

A: I got there by plane.

S2: What did you do there?

A: I went to the cinema. A difficult question.

S2: Did you any problems?

A: Shall I be honest? No, I didn't.

S3: What did you have weather?

A: way to?

S3: weather

A: Weather, weather. How was the weather? The weather was rainy and cloudy.

S4: Who did you go with?

A: I went with no-one. I went alone.

S5: Was it boring?

S5: Did you have a good time?

A: Yes, I did. I had a great time with my friends. I was alone but I met my friends there.

S6: What did you do at night?

A: Cinema I said

S6: Only cinema? (Laughter)

A: Selin, where did you go?

S1: Mersin

A: Who did you go with Orcun?

S2: I go with my parents.

A: You went...

S2: I went with my parents.

A: Where did you stay Kerim?

S3: I stayed in hotel.

A: In a hotel. Was it nice?

S3: Yes, it was cool.

A: What did you eat, Kadir?

S4: I ate ... (inaudible)

A: Did you do any housework?

S5: No.

A: No, you didn't. Did you have a lot of money with you, Ercan?

S6: Of course.

A: Wow, rich, rich, OK. Elif, did you go to a disco?

S7: Yes, I did.

A: Did you have a girlfriend with you Berk?

S8: Yes, I did.

A: What did you eat there?

S9: I ate everything.

(AO1: 321-367)

Appendix 5.5 Types of error correction Anne used

Examples of error correction

Observation	Teacher correction (direct or recast)*	Student correction (self or peer)	No correction (aware or unaware)
1	2	6	1
2	3	2	3
3	1	6	4
4	2	4	2
5		1	1
TOTAL	8	19	11

*number of times each type of correction was observed in each lesson

Error correction during accuracy-based activities (presentation or practice)

Observation	Teacher correction (direct or recast)	Student correction (self or peer)	No correction (aware or unaware)
1	2	6	1
2	2	1	1
3	1	6	2
4	2	3	1
5		1	1
TOTAL	7	17	6

Error correction during fluency-based activities (production)

Observation	Teacher correction (direct or recast)	Student correction (self or peer)	No correction (aware or unaware)
1			
2	1	1	2
3			2
4		1	1
5			
TOTAL	1	2	5

Appendix 6.1 Examples of Daphne's use of grammatical terminology

Extract 1 (DO1:210-25)

D: Ah. OK, then maybe we can say 'was decreasing'. OK? Well done, though. Irem. Irem gave a very good sentence. What was the name of the sultan?

S6: Vahdettin.

D: Now, you said, 'While Turkey conquered he escaped.' (D writes this on b/b)

Sts: (inaudible)

D: Ah, so did someone conquer Turkey?

S6: Yes.

D: So, then we have to be careful and make it a passive.

Sts: Was being.

S6: I was trying to use just past simple.

D: OK, it's true but this is past continuous and we can make it into a passive. While Turkey was being conquered, while Turkey was being invaded. So, other people were coming and doing it. OK? So, a great person from history. And then continue, so past simple, any problems now? And then Gokhan, you asked me 'what about *had*'.

Sts: Past perfect.

Sts: Past perfect continuous.

Extract 2 (DO3:54-133)

D: Very good. OK, now I'm going to write some sentences. Everybody listen please. I'm going to write some sentences. What comes in the gaps?

(D writes the following sentence on b/b)

I was _____ after a famous actress.

S1: named

S2: *ne demek* named? (*Turkish =: what does it mean?*)

S1: called

D: Named. OK, Idiz, in your case you can certainly make the same sentence or a similar sentence.

S: I was named after a famous actress.

D: Was it actress or was it artist?

S: Actress.

D: Oh, OK.

(D writes the following sentence on b/b)

My middle name has been _____ through my family

D: My middle name is Elizabeth. My mother's name is Elizabeth and my grandmother's name is Elizabeth. So, for many years...

S1: ...continue.

D: My middle name has been...

S2: ...coming...

S3: ...came...

D: We're looking for another word...

S4: ...inherit.

D: It has the same meaning. Yes, when something is in your family,

S: (inaudible)

D: Excellent. So, my middle name has been...

S1: Passing.

S2: Pass.

S3: Passed.

S4: *Ne demek?* (*Turkish =: what does it mean?*)

D: (writes 'passed' on b/b) So, in the family one person has it, then the next person has it.

S5: So Daphne Elizabeth Smith.

D: Yes, that's right. Is there anyone here with a name like this?

S1: I have. My grandfather's mother's name was Sultan and my sister's name is Sultan. And my second name is Sultan.

D: So, it has been passed down. Would you continue this in the future? Would you like to continue this?

S1: No, it's enough. (laughter)

D: You know Bill Clinton?

Sts: Yes.

D: What's Bill Clinton's daughter's name? Can you remember?

S1: No.

S2: Chelsea.

S3: Not Manchester. Not for football team.

(D writes the following sentence on b/b)

She _____ a famous place in America.

S1: She was named after.

D: Well done. Easy.

S2: Yukarida yaziyor zaten. (*Turkish= it's written above*)

D: Is this becoming quite popular now to give people place names?

Sts: No.

D: What about famous people?

S: Paris

D: Paris who?

S: Paris Hilton.

D: Paris Hilton. David Beckham's son, do you know his name?

S1: Romeo.

S2: Brooklyn.

D: OK, well done, yes.

(inaudible)

D: Last one. Who can finish this sentence?

(D writes the following sentence on b/b)

I _____ the name Daphne because my dad preferred it to Helen.

D: I blank blank the name Daphne because my dad preferred it to Helen.

S1: Gave.

S2: Was given.

D: Say again for me.

S: I was given.

D: Yeah. Very easy. OK, so you can tell me, what do all these sentences have in common?

S: Passive.

D: An easy one, but why are they passives?

S1: Because we don't choose.

D: Excellent.

Appendix 6.2: Example of Daphne's use of error correction

Extract 1 (DO1:107-18)

D: What's the past form of choose?

S: Chose, choice

D: Chose. Choose, chose.

S: Then choosen.

D: Not choosen. Chosen. Choose, chose, chosen. (writes these on b/b) That's why we practice pronunciation in the class. Let's call it verb 1, verb 2 is...

Sts: Chose.

D: 1 o or 2?

Sts: 1.

D: This one?

Sts: Chosen.

D: Chosen (T corrects pron of chosen)

Extract 2 (DO2:67-80)

S: If I had got the best points in Turkey, I would have made different choice. I would have gone Bosphorus University.

D: So, you would have gone to Bosphorus University?

S: Yes.

D: OK, what about you, Ceren?

S: If I had the best points, I would have made different choices.

D: What would you have studied?

S: I studied genetic engineering.

D: ...would have...

S: I would have studied genetic engineering.

D: Excellent.

S: I wouldn't have made different choices. I want to be a computer engineer, because of my father's job. If I had got the best points in Turkey, I will again make the same choices.

D: So, you're happy now.

Extract 3 (DO3:193-209)

S1: I chosen.

D: How did you spell it?

S1: c h o o s e n

S2: One 'O'

D: One 'O'. So, is that verb 2 or verb 3?

S: Verb 3.

D: Are chosen.

S: Are chosen. Because names.

D: Idil, what do you think for number 2?

S1: Have taken.

S2: Haven't been taken.

S3: Doesn't take.

D: Does it happen in general or up to a period?

S: Generally

D: Generally. So,...

S: ...don't take.

D: OK, don't take.

Appendix 6.3: Example of Daphne's use of grammar presentation

D: You said Elvis before. What do you know about Elvis?

S1: He died.

S3: The dates about Elvis. This is definite. We can use past simple.

D: OK.

S: He died in 1960.

D: That's OK. Does everyone agree?

Sts: Yes.

D: He died in 1960. OK, I think you know this one. (writes Past continuous.) Let's have a look at these 2 now. OK. Last night, this is me. (draws pics on b/b, her, TV, phone, etc) What is it?

Sts: Phone.

D: OK. Alright. We have 2 actions. What do we call this when the electricity...

S: Cut off.

S: Cut from electricity.

D: The electricity is...

S: Electricity is go out, go away.

D: OK, who can make this sentence?

S1: Last night while I was watching TV, the electricity went out (T writes sentence on b/b)

D: OK, good. Look at the difference between past simple and past continuous. Can you say it again?

S1: Last night while I was watching TV, the electricity went out.

D: Or you can say there was a power cut. If I wanted to change the sentence, last night the electricity went out I was watching TV. (writes this on b/b)

S: When.

D: We use while for which tense?

S: Past continuous

D: OK. Can someone explain the meaning of the 2 tenses? Why have I used 2 tenses together?

S1: It happened last night.

D: Can I say, I watched TV when the electricity went off?

S2: It was happening same time.

S3: While I was.

S4: Long period. Short period cut.

D: OK. Does everyone agree? Ok so this is ongoing, let's say the longer action. And then this one cuts it, what do we call this when you cut it? Inter....

S: Interrupt.

D: Yes, interrupt. Good. OK, what problems do students sometimes have with these 2? What mistakes might you make in the exam, when you're writing? What could be a problem? In an exam, or when you're speaking, when you're writing?

S: While.

D: This is one, isn't it? We remember that we use while for past continuous, when for short action. Another mistake or another problem? (...) Sometimes, in fact very often, lots of students have problems remembering was/were. And the same with present, they say I going. OK, so be careful with the auxiliary verb, was and were. OK, and then remember past forms of irregular verbs.

(D01:52-94)

Appendix 6.4: Example of Daphne's use of inductive grammar presentation

(D writes on b/b as follows;)

Past	Present
Dropped out of the law faculty	I'm a teacher now
If Daphne of the law faculty, she a teacher now.	

D: When I went to university, what was my plan, do you think? What did I want to do as a job?

S: Lawyer.

D: I wanted to be a lawyer. Am I a lawyer now?

S: No.

D: Why not? Why am I not a lawyer?

S: Because dropped out.

D: My past decision affects my present life, because I'm a teacher, a very happy teacher. Let's imagine if I was a hard working student in the law faculty. What can we say?

S: (inaudible)

D: If ...

S: ...hadn't dropped out.

D: If Daphne hadn't dropped out of the law faculty

(T completes 1st clause on b/b)

S: she wouldn't be

D: she wouldn't be a teacher now

(completes 2nd clause on b/b)

D: What if we're not sure exactly? Another modal.

S1: couldn't

S2: might not

(writes on b/b she wouldn't/might not be a teacher now)

D: OK. I'm not sure but it's possible. I might not be a teacher now.

(DO2:223-49)

Appendix 6.5: Example of Daphne encouraging learners to discover grammar

D: I'm going to give you some questions about the university entrance exam. Listen.
(D dictates the following questions to sts)

- 1.If you took the university entrance exam again, would you get better/worse points?
- 2.If you had got the best points in Turkey, would you have made different choices?
- 3.If a student gets good points, will he definitely go to his preferred university?
- 4.If you hadn't taken the university exam, where would you be now?

(sts discuss wording of questions)

(D elicits and writes questions on b/b)

D: OK, can everyone look at the board, please. Serhat. Can you read the first question for us?

S: If you get the university exam again now, would you get better or worse points?

D: OK, nearly there. Sevgi?

S: If you had to take the university exam again now, would you get better or worse points?

D: Well done. What do you think? Number 1, how would you answer? If I...

S: If I had to take the university exam again now, I would get worse points, because the exam has changed.

D: Oh, has it changed this year.

S: Yes. Before there was one exam, now there are two. And it tests high school one and two years. (inaudible) And your school grades are important now.

D: What do you call that word when the school gives you a list of your grades?

S: Transcription.

D: Yes, good. Anyone else? Serhat, you wanted to say something. Can you make the sentence, Serhat. Give me an answer, if I...

S: If I had to take the university exam again now, I would get better...

D: ...ah.

S: Because I couldn't take one class last year, so I think I would get better points now.

D: OK, what do you think, Seyhan?

S: I took university exam in 2030, in 2003, and again last year I took it, and I took lower grade.

D: Lower than before?

S: Yes.

D: So now it would be lower.

S: Yes.

D: OK, thank you.

(DO2:19-55)

(After going through the other 3 questions, the teacher continues as follows)

D: What do you notice about all these sentences?

S: Conditional type 3.

D: Are they all conditional? All of them?

S: Mixed conditional.

D: OK, no 1, tell us about this one, Aysegul? What is the first one?

S: Which conditional?

D: Yeah.

S1: Mixed

S2: Type 3

S3: First sentence type 3.

D: Is it?

S: 2nd, type 2

D: Type 2 or 2nd conditional. So, for this one are we talking about real or unreal?

S: Unreal.

D: OK, we're talking about the present and unreal situation

(T writes unreal present, imagined result on b/b)

(DO2:123-38)

Appendix 6.6: Example of Daphne's use of controlled grammar practice

Daphne

Language Practice: Passive Forms

What's In a Name?

A. Choose the correct form of the verbs (*active or passive*) to complete the text below

Cultures around the world have different traditions regarding how names (1)_____ (**choose**). For instance, in Ethiopia your surname is your father's first name. In other words, my full name would be Jane Elizabeth Philip because Philip is my father's first name. In addition, Ethiopian women (2)_____ (**not/take**) their husband's surname. This is unusual in many other parts of world where women (3)_____ (**expect**) to give up their "maiden name" after marriage.

In some Asian countries such as Thailand or Cambodia, babies (4)_____ (**give**) a particular name depending on their birthday. This is because each day of the year has its own special names and parents (5)_____ (**suppose**) to pick one of these names for that certain day. China has a similar custom where parents name their children according to the time of day he/she was born. So if you were born during the day, you (6)_____ (**call**) something that includes the word "Sun". If you were born at night, your name (7)_____ (**include**) the word "moon".

Of course, people's names can (8)_____ (**determine**) by family tradition. For instance, the name "Elizabeth" (9)_____ (**pass down**) in my family for many generations. However, nowadays many people are using different ways to find a name for their baby. Places are becoming an increasingly common source of names. For instance, *Chelsea* Clinton, *Brooklyn* Beckham and *Paris* Hilton (10)_____ (**name after**) places which had important memories for their parents.

B) What about Turkish naming traditions? Write a paragraph using five examples of passive structures.

Adapted from <http://silverinternational.mbhs.edu/v121/Yodit.html>

From Observation 3 (DO3)

Appendix 6.7: Daphne's discovery worksheets

As for the discovery worksheets, unfortunately I do not have copies of such materials (frustratingly, just a couple of days after my final research project my computer decided to die so I have actually lost all my MA / DELTA / teaching files!). Basically, the one that vividly sticks out from my CELTA course - and the one I probably was referring to in the interviews - was one where I had to do a third conditional TP, so I'll try to describe how I used it.

1. I told the learners an anecdote of the chain of events leading to my getting stuck up a mountain in Spain (I did my CELTA in Seville) and we talked about who was to blame. I then concluded the story by saying something like "If I hadn't eaten that omlette, I wouldn't have missed the bus".

2. I then asked students to comment on the sentence - by asking them to make the link = why was the omlette to blame for missing the bus?

3. I then handed out a worksheet with the target form in a box. Below the box were 4 or 5 discovery / concept-checking questions which the students answered such as:

- did I eat the omlette?
- what happened as a result?
- look at the sentence in the box, which action happened first?
- which action was the result?
- was it real or unreal (etc.)

4. The final part of the worksheet had a boxed text where students had to complete grammatical information by selecting the correct choice in brackets: "The third conditional is used to express (unreal / real) events which refer to the (past / present). The if clause is formed with the (modal / past perfect) and is the (first action / result of the first action) etc."

5. Ss were then asked to form new sentences using information from the story.

I think that was basically the mechanics of it - I think it was mainly the sense of the students discovering how the conditional related to my story and how it showed the links between actions and results.

(emailed to me 27.06.2008)

Appendix 6.8: Respondent validation (Daphne)

Hi Simon,

I would have got back to you earlier but I have been out of the office this week. Anyway, I've read the chapter and it was really interesting to see how aspects of my beliefs and practice have changed (or not) over the study. It was an interesting study to highlight links between teacher education, practices, and beliefs - this is something I've been musing over myself with regards to instructors' perceptions of pronunciation teaching and whether perceptions are influenced by the input received on MA and the like!

The only comment I would like to make is that perhaps where you say that "reading does not seem to have greatly affected her beliefs" (6.3.4 p. 25) this might be because what I read actually reinforced what I intuitively felt but was unable to articulate beforehand, rather than because I did not find the reading useful or that it was discordant with my beliefs.

If there is anything at all you need, please get in touch.

Best,

Daphne

(emailed to me 27.06.2008)

Appendix 7.1: Example of Mark's use of grammatical terminology

M: OK, number 1. Fatih?

S1: Living

M: Living. What is that? What part of speech is that?

Sts: Noun. (.....)

M: Noun, verb, adjective?

Sts: Noun, noun

M: Noun?

S1: Noun

M: How do you know?

S1: Verb and -ing

M: -ing noun, and?

S1: Verb.

M: Verb. Good, very good. What about the second one, Mustafa?

S2: I think it's noun,

M: What's the verb?

S2: Die

M: Die, OK.

S2: Noun, because of I think.

M: Do we have -ed nouns?

S2: Uh?

M: Do we have -cd nouns?

S2: No.

M: No. So, what else can it be? Is that a gerund or infinitive?

S2: Gerund, noun.

M: Gerund, noun, very good. Number 3, Gokhan?

S2: Calling

M: Calling, is that a noun, or?

S3: Noun

M: Noun? OK, what about number 4?

Sts: (.....)

M: 4, did anyone have?

S4: Coming.

M: Coming, is that a noun, err, or a gerund?

S4: I think it's a noun, noun.

M: Um. How do you know that?

S4: What is coming.

M: So, what tense is that?

S4: (....)

M: What tense is that? What tense, verb tense?

S4: I think continuous.

M: Perfect continuous?

S4: No. Present continuous

M: Present continuous. Very good. OK what about 5.

Sts: Calling, calling.

Sts: I don't know.

(MO1:13-57)

Appendix 7.2: Example of Mark's grammar presentation

(after the dictogloss activity, M writes the following on b/b)

I've been to Italy
Have you ever been to Italy?
No, I've never been to Italy
I have already been to Italy
No, I haven't been to Cairo yet

M: Does anyone know what tense it is?

Sts: Present perfect

M: How do you know that? How do you know?

S1: Have, has, verb 3.

S2: I understand I have already had + verb 3.

M: And what else?

Sts: (inaudible)

M: Have, has. But that could be present. Have, has, that's present.

Sts: Verb 3.

M: Which one is verb 3?

Sts: Been.

M: What else tells you it's present perfect?

Sts: Never, ever, yet, already, just.

M: So, how do we form present perfect?

S1: Subject, plus have/has, plus verb 3.

M: OK, and what do we use with present perfect? Wait, Ali. What other things do we use with present perfect?

S2: Ever, never, already, yet, just.

(M writes 'never, ever, yet, already' on b/b)

S: Since

M: Not today, later. We'll talk about since and for later. What else?

S1: 'Ever' we use question form. 'Never' we use negative form. Only meaning is negative. 'Already' we use positive form. 'Yet' we use end of sentence, but negative form and question and end of sentence.

M: So, give me an example of present perfect with 'ever', Fatih.

S2: Have you ever been ...

M: Have you ever been...

S2: Have you ever been to Italy?

M: Give me a different example.

S2: Have you ever gone to French, France?

M: Have you ever gone to France? What does this mean? In English.

S2: Have you ever, question, been or gone.

M: Been or gone? To Germany. What does 'ever' mean?

S2: Hiç. (*Turkish = nothing/never*)

M: Hiç is every.

S2: Nothing.

M: What does it mean? Have you ever been to Germany?

S2: Yes.

M: Is it possible? (...) What if I say, 'Have you never been to Germany?' Is it possible?

S2: Say again.

M: Have you ever been to Germany?

S2: Yes, I have been to Germany.

M: OK. 'Ever' means possible in past. Something that's possible. Question is possibility for the past. Have you ever been to Germany?

S2: No, I have never been to Germany.

(MO2:77-128)

Appendix 7.3: Example of Mark's controlled practice

From Observation 2 (MO2)

Mark Obs 2 Mats 1

DIRECTIONS: Choose the correct answer 'been' or 'gone' to complete the sentence

Q1 - She's ___ out for lunch- she'll be back at two o'clock.

been

gone

Q2 - Have you ever ___ to Prague?

been

gone

Q3 - I'll speak to him tomorrow- he's already ___ home.

been

gone

Q4 - He's just ___ to the bank, so you could ask him to lend you some money.

been

gone

Q5 - Where have you ___? I've been waiting for an hour.

been

gone

DIRECTIONS: Choose the correct sentence.

Q11 - Which is correct?

I just have gone there.

I have just gone there.

Q12 - Which is correct?

I have already been to Ankuva.

I already have been to Ankuva.

Q13 - Which is correct?

I have been recently ill.

I have been ill recently.

Q14 - Which is correct?

I haven't gone yet by plane to Antalya.

I haven't gone by plane to Antalya yet.

Q15 - Which is correct?

Never I have been there.

Never have I been there.

Q16 - Which is correct?

Have you ever gone there?

Have ever you gone there?

Q17 - Which is correct?

Have you been lately there?

Have you been there lately?

Q18 - Which is correct?

I haven't gone there recently.

I haven't gone recently there.

Q19 - Which is correct?

I have gone today to school.

I have gone to school today.

Q20 - Which is correct?

Has it been yet done?

Has it been done yet?

DIRECTIONS: Choose the correct answer 'ever' or 'never' to complete the sentences.

Q21 - I've ____ been there.

ever

never

Q22 - I am surprised that you have ____ gone there before.

ever

never

Q23 - Have you ____ gone to Magellan to try it?

ever

never

Either could be used.

Q24 - Haven't you ____ been there?

ever

never

Either could be used.

Q25 - It's ____ been this bad before.

ever

never

Either could be used.

Appendix 7.4: Example of Mark's freer practice

(M rearranges groupings of students)

M: You're going to write sentences. I want you to write 10 good things or bad things about Ankara, Istanbul, etc (the city you're from). Use a, an, one, a few, some, many, a lot, little, much. Use the following words

Crime, jobs, schools, concert halls, museums, hospitals, parks, universities, restaurants, sports halls, poverty, pollution, traffic

M: Write. One person write. I'll give you 10 minutes.

(sts write in groups of 4,5 for 10 mins. M monitors)

(sts write their sentences on b/b as follows)

Yozgat	Denizli	Istanbul	Ankara
There aren't many people in Yozgat because it is a small city. A few people live in Yozgat therefore the city hasn't got a much traffic problem. The city has a few shops. Yozgat is a small city but it has a lot of restaurants.	Denizli hasn't got much university. Denizli isn't any parking area. There are many restaurants in the city. There isn't crime a lot.	Istanbul has got a lot of universities and hospitals. Istanbul has got a few museums. Istanbul has got a lot of historical places, therefore many people go to the historical places.	Ankara has got many beautiful universities. The best university is X. Ankara has got a beautiful sports hall. It is a historical club. Ankara has got some parks. Ankara has got a few crime.

M: Read the ones on the board. Who wants to read number 1 from Ankara?

S: Ankara has got many beautiful universities. The best university is X (*name removed*).

M: Do you agree?

S: Yes.

M: Agree, yes. Is this the same as second mention?

S: Because separate.

M: Separate, very good.

M: OK, second one?

S: Ankara has got a beautiful sports hall. It is a international club.

M: Why an? Is an international

S: Teacher. Ankara has got a beautiful sports hall.

M: OK, good.

M: Number 3? Ankara has got...

S: Ankara has got some parks, for example Kugulu, Segmenler and Botanik Park.

M: Is there anything wrong? Ankara has got some parks? Ankara has got some...

S: Ankara has got a lot of parks area.

M: You can say some parks or a lot of parks? Both are OK. We need s to go with some.

S: Because plural.

M: Very good.

M: The next one?

S: Ankara has got a few crime, for example under the bridge.

Sts: (laughter) Under the bridge.

M: What does crime mean? Crime? You mean poor people. No money.

S: Poor people.

M: OK, poor people. (writes poor people in the sentence on b/b). So, Ankara has got a few poor people.

(MO3:176-217)

Appendix 7.5: Instances and types of Mark's error correction

Instances of Mark's error correction

Observation	Teacher correction (direct or recast)*	Student correction (self or peer)	No correction (conscious or unconscious)
1			8
2	2	2	4
3	4	6	
TOTAL	6	8	12

*number of times each type of correction was observed in each lesson

Error correction during accuracy-based activities (presentation or practice)

Observation	Teacher correction (direct or recast)	Student correction (self or peer)	No correction (conscious or unconscious)
1			
2	2	2	4
3	4	6	
TOTAL	6	8	4

Error correction during fluency-based activities (production)

Observation	Teacher correction (direct or recast)	Student correction (self or peer)	No correction (conscious or unconscious)
1			8
2			
3			
TOTAL			8

Appendix 7.6: Examples of Mark's error correction

Extract 1(MO1:152-186)

M: Berkant. If you had 150,000 dollars, what would you spend it on?

S1: We think that one part will be sent to people who need money. We are so happy.

M: OK, so what's your solution?

S2: Our solution is we send one half to people who need it...

S3: ...to poor people

S2: ... maybe 140,000 we give

M: Where would you do this? You say, 140. What country?

S4: We use that money for us

S5: We want to buy sports car, but after we will help to solve world peace, but we have to solve our problem first.

M: Very good. And what did you do?

S6: If I have money, I will think when I have money in my hand.

M: Why?

S6: I don't know, but I don't have the money now.

M: But if you did...

S6: o zaman hepsini bagislardim [*Turkish = I would give it all away*]

S7: If we need this money we don't use for helping, or for extra things...

S8: ... for example if we win the lotto or other things we can use for helping other people, because we need the money for other things.

S7: We don't have money now.

M: OK, next class we're going to go to the lab.....

Extract 2 (MO2:138-43)

S4: Always I go to school.

M: Always you go to school.

S: Always you go to school. Every day.

M: Every day? So, I've already been to school today. Today? Is it finished?

S4: It isn't finished.

M: OK, we'll talk about that. 'Yet', can you use 'yet'. Can we talk about 'yet'?

Extract 3 (MO2:186-93)

S3: I have gone to outside.

M: I have gone to. Let's say outdoors. Been or gone. Been, OK.

S3: I have been in Ankara.

M: I have been in Ankara. OK, we'll stop there. Gone, Uğur.

S4: I have gone to somewhere.

M: Where?

S4: Outside, out the door.

M: I've gone outdoors.

Extract 4 (MO3:292-302)

S: There isn't crime a lot.

M: Crime a lot?

S: False

S: It's not false, because he misses you a lot.

M: OK, that's different. OK, maybe.

S: A lot is true.

M: A lot is true. Maybe. Is there any other option?

S: There isn't any crime.

M: There isn't a lot of crime. OK.

Appendix 7.7: Mark's confusion with 'been' and 'gone'

Extract from the lesson

M: Possible, yes. What's the difference between 'been to Italy' and 'gone there by plane'?

S6: What's the question?

M: What's the difference between 'been to Italy' and 'gone there by plane'? Bahadır?

(M writes on b/b the following sentences)

I have gone there by plane I've been to Italy
--

S6: I think been means in the past, for example, he was in Italy. You say I have been to Italy, but you were travel. (...) Translation?

M: No.

S6: (inaudible) Sometimes you were in Italy you use been, but...

S7: kalmak.

S6: Gidip gelmek. You go and come, we use gone.

M: Look at these 2 words, there and to. Those are prepositions, yeah. Sorry, not there, by. We use been to say where, so with prepositions of place. We use gone to say how, so with prepositions of direction. (T writes these on b/b) That's the important part. I have been to Italy. We need a preposition of place after been. I have gone there by plane. That's how you went there. Yes? What are some prepositions of place?

Sts: To.

M: To, what else?

Sts: In.

M: In, what else?

Sts: At, on.

S1: What do we do with prepositions of place? (...)

M: Preposition of place? OK, so, give me a sentence with 'in'. With 'I have been'...

S1: I have been in...

M: ...in...

S1: ...in Antalya. I have been in Antalya.

M: I have been in Antalya. OK, that's good, Mustafa. Prepositions of direction? I have gone...

(MO2:155-85)

Extract from post-observation interview afterwards

In our discussion afterwards he reflected on the confusion this caused learners:

Most of them had the correct answer, but when I intervened...with prepositions of movement and place, that caused them more confusion...I thought I was clear with been/gone before the lesson, but when I looked it up on the internet, they had prepositions of movement and place. That's not the case, so I confused myself before I went into the lesson. (MP2:18-22)

Extract from respondent validation (email 18.08.08)

the Have/Been gone lesson had probably the most profound effect on me throughout this study. I felt it is a bit downplayed or I didn't stress the importance it had on me enough. This one lesson made me quite embarrassed as an English teacher. Although, before coming here I had never really taught any level below FCE (except one small elementary course in Europe). This is a fairly elementary grammar point that all teachers should know and not knowing it made me really embarrassed to call myself an English teacher. Later I realised the rule is something like Been refers to going and returning and Gone refers to there now. This would've been such a simplistic answer to give the students and remember the rule. (I might had known such a thing at one time but had never committed to memory.) I felt this is something I definitely should have known and I was quite embarrassed that I didn't and it sparked to prepare for grammar teaching just a bit more and some case avoid it (by passing it on to another teacher) if I felt I wouldn't be able to teach it to the students.