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以個案研究探討兩位補救教學的英文老師其教學認知和實務

**A Case Study of Two English Teachers' Cognition and Practices  
in a Remedial Program**



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## 中文摘要

近年來的研究對於教師在第二外語教育上的認知和實務日趨受到重視。由於許多研究指出教師在課堂上的教學決定和實務受到多種因素的影響，其中包括教學知能、教學理論、教學態度、以及教學實施和情境。因此，Borg (2003)將影響教師的認知因素歸納整理為三種範疇：(1)認知和先前語言學習經驗 (2)認知和師資培育(3)認知和教學實施和情境。然而，在過去的研究中，以教學實施對教師的認知和其實務影響最為之大。

多數的研究主要探討在主流教育下，教師所處的教學情境對其認知和實務的影響，然而，以幫助弱勢國中學生的補救教學計畫，像是課後補救教學，卻沒有得到同等的注意。再者，過去的研究中，仍以少數幾種影響教師認知和實務的因素做為其研究主題，因而未能提供一全盤且完整的教師知能發展。本研究採用 Borg (2006)的理論架構(Elements and Processes in Language Teacher Cognition)，用來檢視兩位在台灣北部一個非營利組織之英文教師在參與原住民補救教學中，其認知發展和實務間的影響。研究資料經由訪談、課堂觀察、以及文件蒐集彙整而成。所蒐集資料經由修改後的 Borg 其理論架構分析以便釐清教師教學認知、實務、和教學情境三者間的關係。

本研究結果發現兩位補救中學的教師其教學認知受到個人先前語言學習經驗、師資培育、以及教學實施和情境的影響。這兩位教師的先前語言學習經驗提供他們一個教學上的藍圖，協助他們課堂上的教學流程。另外，在種種因素影響教師認知和實務下，師資培育對教師的影響最小。原因在於師資培育的過程中，教師其認知並未和教學理論做一連結以及教師對教學情境的改變無法做一適當

的轉變。最後，教學現場的情境，像是和上司間的互動、同事的評論、學生課堂上的反應、以及學生家長對教師的看法，皆是影響教師認知和實務的主要原因。

本研究期望能找出英語教師其認知、實務、以及所處環境因素三者間的互動關係。基於研究結果，本研究提出研究結果在教學及師資培育上之意涵，包含教師在其教學情境下的角色和先前的語言學習經驗會提升或是阻礙其教學認知和實務以及師資培育必須協助教師將過去學習和教學經驗和教學理論做一連結，用以其改變教師認知和讓教師將教學理論應用於教學實務之中。因此，本研究建議在學校能夠提供輔導老師協助新手老師提早適應其教學情境並促進其教學成長。

關鍵字：教師認知、補教教學、師資培育



## ABSTRACT

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in the issues of teacher cognition and practices in second language education. Previous studies have indicated that teachers' decision-making and practice in their language classrooms are highly influenced by a variety of factors, including knowledge, theories, attitudes, and situated context. To embrace the complexity of teachers' mental lives, Borg (2003) summarized those factors into three categories: (1) cognition and prior language learning experience, (2) cognition and teacher education, and (3) cognition and classroom practice. Researchers, in particular, emphasize that contextual factors play a pivotal role in the implementation of teacher cognition and teaching practices.

While the bulk of studies have explored how teacher cognition is influenced by the contextual factors in mainstream educational systems, remedial education, in particular, after-school programs, which aim to help disadvantaged students in their junior high school, has inexplicably received little attention. Furthermore, previous studies have mainly examined how one or few factors influence teachers' cognitions. Few studies have attempted to provide a holistic picture of how teacher cognition is developed and shaped. Drawing on Borg's framework (2006), this current study aimed at examining the interplay of teacher cognition and practices by exploring factors shaping teacher cognition and their practice in remedial education. A qualitative case study approach was adopted to investigate two English teachers' cognition in a remedial program for aboriginal junior high school students in northern Taiwan. Data were gathered from interviews (formal and after-class interviews with two targeted teachers and interviews with their students), weekly classroom observations, and teaching documents (e.g. syllabus, handouts, and supplementary materials). The collected data was analyzed by Borg's theoretical framework in order to identify the relations among teacher cognitions, practices, and the contextual

factors.

The findings illustrated that first; the two teachers' cognition in the remedial program was shaped by their personal learning experiences, professional coursework they took, and the context of their teaching. For both teachers, their prior learning experience served as a blueprint, which helped them dominate their initial decision-making in their teaching. Second, the professional training teachers received was found to have a slight impact on their cognitions because the training did not provide teachers with opportunities to make sense of theory and did not help teachers realize the contextual change. Finally, the situated context including their interaction with the administrator, colleagues' comments, their students' responses, and students' parents' attitudes toward the remedial program were the most distinctive contextual factors influencing the teachers' cognitions and their practices.

In conclusion, this study helped to gain an in-depth understanding of English teachers' cognitive development in the remedial program. The results further imply that teachers' roles in the situated context and their different teaching as well as learning backgrounds could facilitate or hinder their teaching cognition and practices. It is important of teacher education, which should help teachers clarify their past experiences and then integrate in their teaching practices in order to achieve more efficient teaching instructions. The study suggests that remedial institutions should provide mentors to assist novice teachers to build knowledge and skills to deal with practicum teaching context. The pedagogical implications drawn from the study results may help to improve the efficiency of both teacher education and remedial education. Furthermore, teachers' cognitive development should be focused to facilitate their professional growth.

*Keywords:* Teacher cognition, Remedial education, Teacher Education

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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCAITON

### 1.1 Background

In the recent years, issues of teacher cognition have been extensively discussed in education. A large number of studies have found that there is a significant connection between teacher cognition and classroom practice. In the past decades, this notion has also been examined in language teaching education. A number of studies have echoed that teachers' cognition influenced their behaviors in classrooms (Borg, 2003). Language teachers' beliefs about teaching, learning, students, subject matters, and classroom contexts guide their decision-making in the classroom and reflect on their course designs (Borg, 1998; Burns, 1996; Johnson, 1994; Smith, 1996; Woods, 1996). Teaching reflects a teacher's personal response; hence, teacher cognition is very much concerned with teachers' personal and "situated" approaches to teaching. Freeman (2002) and Johnson (1999) further claimed that understanding those influences is central to have a better understanding of language teaching.

Earlier research in second language education has indicated that teacher cognition consists of many aspects, including personal practical knowledge (Connelly & Clandinin, 1985), situated knowledge (Lave, 1988), and pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987); however, those studies have mainly focused on the examination of how one or very few factors influence teacher cognition (Borg, 2003). Few studies have attempted to provide a holistic picture of how teacher cognition is developed and shaped. To embrace the complexity of teachers' mental lives, Borg (2003) summarized those factors into three categories in a diagram: (1) cognition and prior language learning experience, (2) cognition and teacher education, and (3) cognition and classroom practice.

Recently, a lot of research in the field of second language teacher cognition has pertained to topics such as grammar and literacy instruction, while others have put emphasis on general issues, such as teacher education. The diversity of research on language teacher cognition highlights the similar core - “the knowledge and skills teachers develop are closely bound up with the specific contexts in which they work and in their own personal histories” (Tsui, 2003). More specifically, contextual factors play a significant role in teachers’ practice. Ebsworth and Schweers (1997) investigated teachers’ beliefs about conscious grammar instruction held by 60 ESL university teachers. The results from questionnaires and interviews showed that teaching was shaped by students’ needs and context expectations. As Borg (2006) indicated, personal prior experiences and contexts may outweigh professional trainings and informal cognition into practice. Using the above perspectives of teacher cognition, teaching is not simply the application of knowledge and learned skills, but is a complex process, which is driven by classroom contexts, teachers’ prior experiences, and other contextual factors.

In the past decade, remedial education has been increasingly implemented in both secondary and higher education systems, originating from the uneven distribution of wealth that has indirectly influenced unequal education opportunities (Hsu, Yu, & Chang, 2010). To achieve social justice, educators have started many projects helping disadvantaged students eliminate education inequality, accomplish their academic goals and establish a smooth transition for their continuing schooling or career (Bettinger & Long, 2005).

To understand the effect of these projects, studies have mainly examined two issues: remedial education systems and students’ academic performances (Adelman, 2004; Attewell, Lavin, Domina, & Levey, 2006; Bettinger, & Long, 2005; Chang, 2001; Tan & Wu, 2009). Although the results of the studies have showed that the

implementation of remedial programs may enhance most students' academic performances, some issues have been raised. For example, teachers' insufficient professional training and students' negative influences from family. These may affect the efficacy of remedial education and students' learning. Hsu and Chen's study (2007), for example, pointed out that most teachers in secondary education lacked professional knowledge of remedial instructions and faced some difficulties to implement efficient teaching to meet students' needs. They further found that students' success always accompanied teachers' proper practices, which were suitable for students' needs. Thus, teacher practice in remedial courses should be paid attention to.

## **1.2 Remedial Education in Taiwan**

In the recent years, disadvantaged students' academic performances have drawn much attention in Taiwan, due to the large gap between high achievers and low achievers in secondary education (Chen, 2008; Hsu, & Chen, 2007). The gap became larger after the implementation of the Nine-year Integrated Curriculum (Chang, & Yu, 2004). English education, in particular, shows a twin-peak distribution of learning . Consequently, remedial education has widely been regarded as an indispensable part of English education in Taiwan (Chang, & Yu, 2004). In 1996, the Ministry of Education (MOE) first launched an educational policy named Educational Priority Area (EPA), which aimed to improve the academic achievement of disadvantaged students in the rural areas (MOE, 2005). In 2006, the After School Alternative Program (ASAP) was put into practice to extend the remedial education to students who study in urban regions (MOE, 2006). Through the remedial education, the government has tried to promote the ideal of equality of educational opportunity via the external resources as well as the certificated teachers (Chen, 2008; Tan & Wu,

2009). Not only the MOE but also the civic associations, such as Yonglin Foundation, Rerun Novarum Center, and other non-profit organizations have dedicated large amounts of money and man power into remedial educational systems, to assist disadvantaged students to enhance their academic performances.

However, many teachers in remedial programs lack teaching certifications for the abrupt boost of remedial programs and underachievers. In 2010, to solve the problem, the MOE (2010) modified the criteria for teachers who are qualified to teach in remedial programs as follows.

1. Teachers who are certified by the MOE and currently are teaching in the school,
2. Retiring teachers,
3. University students with professional knowledge related to students' subjects,
4. People with education certification
5. People with professional knowledge related to students' subjects.

In addition to the criteria for teachers' recruitment, disadvantaged students are categorized as: the disabled, the aboriginal, cultural minorities, and the socioeconomically disadvantaged (MOE, 2001). Through the clear guidelines from the MOE, remedial education in Taiwan is expected to both increase the equality of educational opportunities for the disadvantaged minorities and to minimize the profound impact of the Nine-year Integrated Curriculum.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

While a bulk of studies have explored how teacher cognition is influenced by the contextual factors in mainstream educational systems, remedial education has inexplicably received little attention. Drawing on Borg's framework (2006), this current study aims to examine the interplay of teacher cognition and practices by exploring what factors shape teacher cognition and their practices in this particular

educational context. Furthermore, this study attempts to discover to what extent the context may influence teachers' practices and their cognition.

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

Three research questions are addressed:

1. How do the two teachers form their cognition of English teaching in the remedial program?
2. How does the two teachers' cognition interweave with classroom practices?
3. How do contextual factors influence the two teachers' cognition and practices in the remedial program?

#### **1.5 Organization of the Thesis**

In addition to Chapter 1, the thesis includes four chapters. In Chapter 2, previous studies related to teacher cognition and practices, Borg's framework, and remedial education are reviewed. In Chapter 3, the methods used for this study are described in detail, including research settings, participants, data collection, and data analysis. In Chapter 4, two cases are presented respectively by their teaching cognition, teaching practices, and its factors, which interweave with both cognition and practices. In Chapter 5, as the last chapter, discusses and summarizes major findings, pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

The chapter encompasses four essential areas in L2 language teachers' cognition and practice to frame the present study: (1) teacher cognition domains, (2) teacher cognition in second language, (3) teacher cognition in remedial course, (4) and the summary of the whole chapter.

#### **2.1 Teacher Cognition Domains**

##### **2.1.1 Teacher Knowledge**

In past decades, L2 researchers have drawn attention to teacher cognitive development, which drives teachers' decision-making and then shapes their classroom practices. Earlier studies primarily discussed teacher cognition from their beliefs, knowledge, principles, theories, and attitudes (Borg, 2008). More specifically, the relationship between teacher cognition and classroom practices has been focused on. In recent years, researchers have advocated another viewpoint, which emphasizes the specific aspect of the investigation toward implicit teachers' actions in practice (Borg, 2009, Golombek, & Johnson, 2004).

From research viewpoints, the nature of teacher knowledge can mainly be defined from three perspectives (Tsui, 2003). The first perspective emphasizes teacher knowledge as personal, practical, tactic, systematic, and dynamic development developed in the classroom context where language teachers highly engage and respond. The related research defining this term as "personal practical knowledge" (Connelly and Clandinin, 1985), focuses attention on teachers' personal understanding as well as action of their belonged situations through their daily practices. The second perspective, termed as "situated knowledge" (Lave, 1988), is influenced by



anthropological and psychological methods to knowledge. Specific environments, such as school and classroom settings, affect teachers' perceptions. Teachers' perceptions are affected by the specific environment, such as school and classroom settings where they operate. The third perspective explores how particular content knowledge and pedagogical strategies interweave in the minds of teachers, referred to as "pedagogical content knowledge" (Shulman, 1987).

### **2.2.2 Personal Practical Knowledge**

Influenced by the earlier eminent scholars, such as Dewey (1938) and Elbaz (1983), some researchers found that teacher knowledge performed as social and experiential orientations and proposed a term "practical knowledge" to refer to "focused attention on the action and decision-oriented nature of teacher's situation, and construes her knowledge as a function, in part, of her response to that situation." (p.5) It means that practical knowledge is observable and explainable in a teachers' daily practice, in a particular context. Furthermore, what guides a teacher to actively shape and direct their teaching is their understanding of a specific context, which is very complex and situational (Elbaz, 1983). Elbaz; therefore, identified these features of practical knowledge into five categories: knowledge of self, knowledge of the milieu of teaching, knowledge of subject matter, knowledge of the curriculum, and knowledge of instruction. While Elbaz emphasized the practical knowledge, Connelly and Clandinin (1985) expanded her framework and gave attention to the personal part of teacher knowledge, referred to as "personal practice knowledge." They regarded a teacher's knowledge as the reflection of an individual's previous experience and of knowledge construction and reconstruction by situations. Through narratives, personal practice knowledge such as philosophies, teaching metaphors, and rhythms of school patterns, could be unveiled. Clandinin (1986) claimed that teachers could shape a

vivid “image” toward their work and a whole understanding, as well as perceptions of teaching, could be understood through the story-telling process (cited in Tsui, 2003). Based on the viewpoints above, Golombek (1998) investigated two in-service ESL teachers’ personal practice knowledge, informing their practice through the narratives. The study highlighted the L2 teachers’ personal practice knowledge, and was embodied in persons and taken in the form of stories. That is, teacher knowledge was shaped by the reconstruction of their experience through stories.

### **2.1.3 Situated Knowledge**

The previous subsection discusses the teacher knowledge in terms of individual’s cognitive perspective via the narratives; however, Lave and Wenger (1991) and Leinhardt (1988), who took an anthropological aspect on knowledge, posited cognitive core is related to contexts and is developed contextually when practitioners responded to specific context where they operated. They proposed “situated knowledge”, which focused on the relationship between learning and social situations where it occurred. The further explanation is “how a person learns a particular set of knowledge and skills, and the situation in which a person learner, become a fundamental part of what is learned” (Putnam & Borko., 2000, p.4). According to Lave (1988), it could find that learners’ cognition is situated in practice; thus, it is of essence to consider the effects of contexts on teacher decision-making. Leichardt’s (1988) study echoed the above viewpoints. She examined how expert teachers used the situated knowledge to select and choose examples to illustrate mathematical concepts. The results showed that teacher knowledge was developed contextually in the specific social practice. In the study, the math teacher adjusted the teaching styles and chose the situated knowledge instead of generative knowledge since the former could be more suitable and effective in terms of problem solution

than the latter. In sum, the notion of situated knowledge pertains to “the teaching acts as a joint constitution of the context and the teaching-acting” (Tsui, 2003, p.50).

#### **2.1.4 Pedagogical Content Knowledge**

Unlike the previous conceptions related to general pedagogical knowledge, Shulman (1987) advocated “pedagogical content knowledge” which focused on the interaction of specific subject matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge of the teaching context. Regarding his notion, teachers’ theoretical and practical knowledge could inform and be informed by their teaching. Moreover, Shulman (1987) proposed that “Teachers’ development from students to teachers, from a state of expertise as learners through a novitiate as teachers, exposes and highlights the complex bodies of knowledge and skills needed to function effectively as a teacher (p.4).” Given that the knowledge transformation process is complicated, Shulman (1987) outlined two categories to summarize teacher’s pedagogical content knowledge: Content knowledge, also known as deep knowledge of the subject itself, and knowledge of the curricular development. Adopting Schulman’s framework, Watzke (2007) investigated how nine beginning teachers’ pedagogical content knowledge performed and shifted over time. The research supported Shulman’s work that pedagogical content knowledge is developed through the process of teaching, conflict, reflection to solve the problems occurred in the particular course or the classroom context. That is, teacher development is inextricably linked to the specific subject knowledge and the real classroom settings.

#### **2.1.5 Borg’s Framework for Language Teacher Cognition**

Based on the above mentioned by studies, there are a number of identical terms referring to similar concepts, such as practical knowledge (Elbaz, 1983), personal

practical knowledge (Connelly & Clandinin, 1985), situated knowledge (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Leinhardt, 1988), and pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987). Early studies have mainly focused on the examination of how one or a few factors influence teacher cognition. Additionally, researchers, in particular, emphasize that contextual factors play a pivotal role in the implementation of teacher cognition and teaching practices. To embrace the complexity of teachers' mental lives and provide a holistic picture of how teacher cognition is developed and shaped, Borg (2003) used "teacher cognition" and proposed a schematic conceptualization of teacher cognitions and modified it as "language teacher cognition" (2006) as shown in Figure 2.1. In this model, Borg specifies three areas that influence teacher cognition, namely, schooling, professional coursework, and contextual factors.

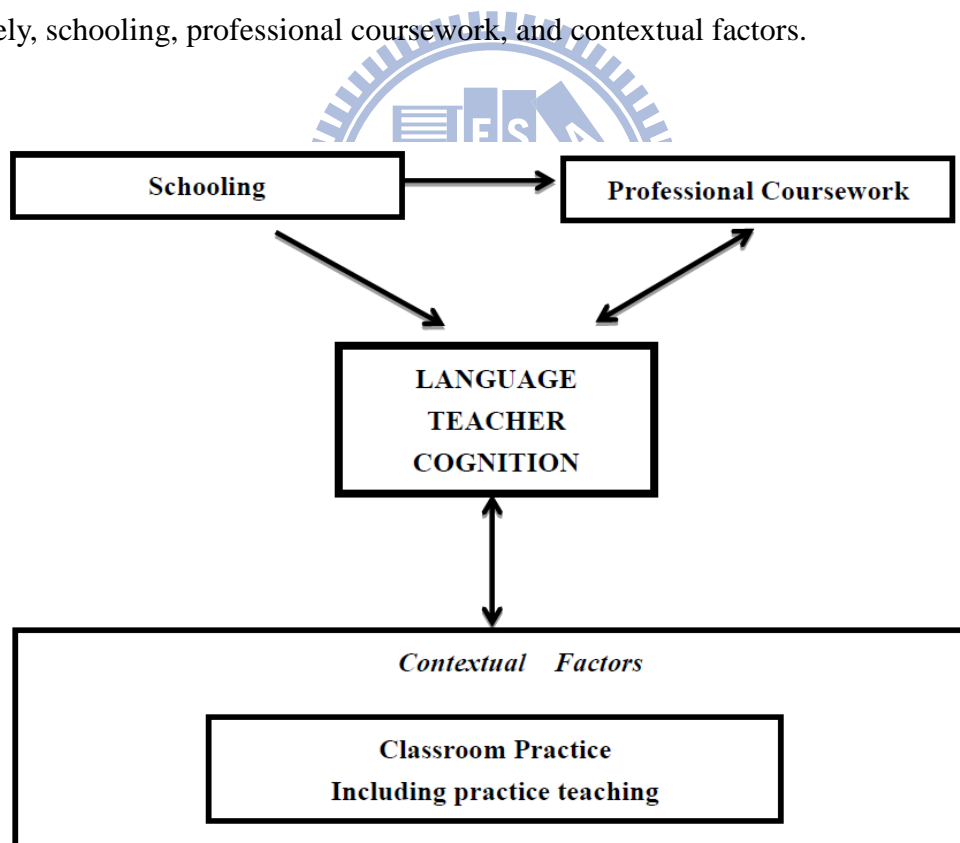


Figure 2.1 Elements and processes in language teacher cognition

As shown in Figure 2.1, teacher cognition takes the central role, which refers to the interaction and negotiation among other three perspectives (schooling,

professional coursework, and contextual factors).

### **2.1.5.1 Teacher Cognition and Schooling**

Schooling refers to teaching that is influenced by teachers' earlier learning experiences (Borg, 2006). Teachers' personal experiences as learners influence their cognition and their teaching. Borg, therefore, regards this factor as one of the main evidence to understand what teachers do throughout their careers. Johnson (1994) proposed the similar notion of teacher knowledge earlier. Language teachers' prior language learning experience plays an essential role affecting and shaping their teaching philosophies, classroom practices, and instructional decisions. In addition, Grossman (1990) points out that teachers' personal learning experiences have a strong impact on their expectations of students and their conceptions of how students learn. On the other hand, Lortie (1975) defined this term, schooling, as "apprenticeship of observation", deciding what teachers do in their classroom according to their memories as students. Teachers can easily trace back to their personal learning histories and imagine what teaching should be like based on their experiences as learners. As a result, identifying this feature is of importance for teacher cognitive development.

### **2.1.5.2 Teacher Cognition and Professional Coursework**

The professional coursework refers to teacher training programs affecting teachers in different and unique ways. From Borg's (2006) viewpoint, teacher education has a significant function for teachers' behaviors and practices because teachers can construct knowledge and form their teaching belief. However, some studies prove that the relationship between teacher education and teacher cognition is not directly related (Almarza, 1996, Kagan, 1992; Richard, Ho, & Giblin, 1996). The

researchers claimed varied factors, such as the duration of the course training, their conception of their role in the classroom, their knowledge of professional discourse, their concerns for achieving continuity in lessons, and other classroom problems (e.g. time pressure, tests) outweigh their professional training. Borg also maintains that cognition change does not guarantee behavior change, especially for novice teachers. Teachers may perform particular behaviors and practices without any conscious change in their cognition. The relationship between teacher cognition and training is, thus, dependent on variable situations.

### **2.1.5.3 Teacher Cognition and Contextual Factors**

Contextual factors entail classroom practices refer to social, psychological, and environmental conditions of the school and classroom, which have a strong impact on teachers' cognition. The major difference between experienced teachers and novices is the instruction implementations in accordance with their cognition. Experienced teachers' prior teaching experiences would largely influence their current teaching and allow them to anticipate instructional and students' problems. Teachers instead of ones use their learning experiences more to envision difficulties and are have trouble thinking about learning issues from students' perspectives (Borg, 2006; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999). Based on Borg's notion, novice teachers may encounter many challenges arising from curriculum, students, parents, institutions, education policies, and standardized tests. These factors may cause tension between teacher cognition and classroom practice and hinder their abilities to adopt ideal practices into the classroom; thus, teaching leads to the imbalance, especially for the novice teachers. Nevertheless, Johnson (1996) claimed that novice teachers' teaching enthusiasm can overcome the contextual reality and soothe the condition. No matter what viewpoints researchers provide, context indeed has a strong power for both experienced and

novice teachers.

To summarize, teacher cognition is personal, practical, tacit, systematic, and dynamic (Borg, 2006). With different personalities, learning experiences, academic backgrounds, professional training, teaching experiences, and other contextual factors, teachers form their own individual conceptions of learning and studying (Tsui, 2003). Hence, examining how teacher cognition interweaves with classroom practice is vital to get further understanding of teachers cognitive development by using Borg's diagram.

## **2.2 Teacher Cognition in Second Language Education**

Research on teacher cognition in second language education had a late start in the 1990s (Borg, 2003, Tsui, 2003), and numerous studies indicate that there is an interrelationship between language teacher's cognition and actions. Most of these studies are related topics, especially in the field of grammar and literacy instruction while others focus on general issues, such as teacher education and decision-making within language teaching context. The diversity of research on language teacher cognition highlights the similar core, that is "the knowledge and skills teachers develop are closely bound up with the specific contexts in which they work and in their own personal histories" (Tsui, 2003). A Teacher's cognitive development relies heavily on the context and in turn the context is re-shaped by their cognition. To sum it up, the relationship between teacher's cognition that they develop and the context where they work is dialectical.

### **2.2.1 Teacher Cognition in Topics**

Several studies of teacher cognition in English education in relation to specific topics like grammar, reading, and writing have been mostly carried out in the ESL

context in America. Ebsworth and Schweers (1997); for example, investigated teachers' beliefs about conscious grammar instruction held by 60 ESL university teachers by using questionnaires and informal interviews. They found that teachers in Puerto Rico taught grammar explicitly more than teachers in New York, given that teachers mentioned multiple factors shaping their viewpoints, including students' needs and context. They concluded that teachers' classroom practice especially in Puerto Rico rarely referred their teaching to research studies or any particular methodology. Another study conducted by Burgess and Etherington (2002) echoed the previous research result. Researchers explored the beliefs about grammar and grammar teaching with 48 teachings of English for academic purpose (EAP) in UK universities by using questionnaires. The results indicated that teachers reported that students in the classroom expected them to give explicit grammar instruction for efficient language study, causing teachers to hold a positive attitude towards conscious grammar teaching to meet students' expectation and needs. Therefore, understating the students' cognition and capabilities in language learning is of importance.

### **2.2.2 Teacher Cognition in Contextual Factors**

In addition to the context factor, teachers' cognition is also affected by another issue, prior learning experience from the original text. Farrell (1999) examined grammar teaching approaches, inductive and deductive methods, held by some pre-service English teachers in Singapore by writing self-reports relating to their earlier language learning experiences and their opinions about teaching grammar. The findings pointed out that pre-service English teachers preferred to track back to their own learning experiences and had been influenced relatively little by those theories of second language in the textbook. The studies conducted by Brumfit, Mitchell, and



Hooper (1996) as well as Ebsworth and Schweers (1997) also got the same insight. SLA theories and schooling play a minor role in the English teaching context.

“Teachers’ experience as learners can inform cognition about teaching as well as learning and these cognition may continue to exert an influence on teachers throughout their career. There is also evidence to suggest that although professional preparation does shape trainees’ cognition, programs which ignore trainee teachers’ prior beliefs may be less effective at influencing these (Borg, 2006, p.248).”

Furthermore, Borg (1998) examined one EFL teacher’s personal pedagogical systems and classroom practice in grammar instruction by using classroom observations and interviews. He concluded that a teacher’s cognition was shaped by educational and professional experience in his life. His initial training and learning affected the teacher in this study heavily.

In 2001, Borg compared two experienced EFL English teachers with regards to their grammar instruction and highlighted that teachers’ formal instruction and knowledge were relatively related. In other words, the teacher with confidence and high language proficiency about grammar was willing to answer students’ questions without any preparation and was more acceptable to the unplanned teaching instructions.

In conclusion, teacher cognition based on these previous studies was shaped by multiple factors including schooling, professional coursework, classroom practice, and other contextual factors. Thus, using Borg’s framework to depict the key dimensions of teacher cognition is crucial and can detail the relationships among them.

## **2.3 Teacher Cognition in Remedial Education**

### **2.3.1 Remedial Education for Underachievers**

In the past decades, remedial education has increasingly been implemented into both secondary and higher education systems because of the uneven distribution of wealth that has indirectly influenced the unequal educational opportunities (Hsu, Yu, & Chang, 2010). In addition, race issues have been paid much more attention than before for the disparate schooling and educational resources (Tsai, 2004). As a consequence, more and more people observed this problem and proposed remedial programs to make up the disparity, as well as to equip students with required and necessary skills and knowledge to meet the basic capabilities at schools (Rienties, Tempelaar, Dijkstra, Rehm, & Gijsselaers, 2008). Also, Bettinger and Long (2005) claimed that a main purpose of remedial courses is to assist underachievers' and students from low socioeconomic backgrounds and to help establish a smooth transition to the following step of their schooling or career. While numerous remedial programs for underachievers have been employed (Adelman, 2004; Attewell, Lavin, Domina, & Levey, 2006; Bettinger, & Long, 2005; Chang, 2001; Rienties, Tempelaar, Dijkstra, Rehm, & Gijsselaers, 2008; Tan & Wu, 2009), few have carried out for the disadvantaged students (e.g. aboriginal, disadvantaged background students) in educational settings.

Since the 1960s in the United States, remedial education is very common, especially at universities, and many undergraduates would choose those kinds of courses to help them accomplish their academic goals (Attewell, Lavin, Domina, & Levey, 2006). The study conducted by Bettinger and Long (2005) examined approximately 8,000 freshman's learning outcomes after attending remediation courses at Ohio university from fall 1998 to spring 2003 or 2004, by controlling student background variables and using longitudinal data. The results showed that the graduation rate of those students participating in the remedial courses was similar to that of highly academically prepared students. Students could benefit a lot and had

several positive effects from the remedial education (Bettinger & Long, 2005, Lavin et al., 2005). Nevertheless, other researchers claimed that not all students enrolling in the remedial program could have certain beneficial consequences (Adelman, 2004). Some may fail to complete remedial courses and some may drop out.

While many studies in relation to remedial programs were conducted in universities in America and attention was paid to underachievers' learning outcomes, this phenomenon also has flourished in Taiwan from the year 2000. With the implementation of the Nine-year Integrated Curriculum, all public schools need to offer English courses to students from grades three. Because of the earlier second language learning and uneven resources distribution, underachievers and disadvantaged students fail to catch up in their language learning. Twin-peak distribution of English learning has occurred (Chang, & Yu, 2004). The government has striven to carry out the remedial programs, such as Educational Priority Area (EPA), After School Alternative Program (ASAP), Education for Sustainable Development (ESD), Hand-in-Hand After School Tutoring Program (HHASTP), and other plans in order to resolve this problem, to compensate the disadvantaged students for lower academic achievement, and to make up the learning gap at the starting point in elementary and high schools (MOE, 2004). Although Taiwan educators claimed that remedial education is designed for disadvantaged students and aims to help them achieve high academic performances, many remedial programs (e.g. ASAP, ESD, HHASTP) are applied to underachievers. Many studies were conducted related to various remedial programs and underachievers. In the current study, the researcher aims to focus on issues of remedial programs for disadvantaged students.

### **2.3.2 Remedial Education for Disadvantaged Students**

In the field of remedial education for disadvantaged students, most studies focus

on how to implement remedial programs efficiently. Chang (2001); for example, compared Taiwan remedial education with remedial education in Western countries and discussed how to design and improve the remedial programs to suit change to Taiwan. In Chang's (2001) research, he introduced different aspects of remedial courses and instructions such as the types of courses and the effective teaching strategies by collecting other's studies. The implication was that designing remedial instructions or handouts for individuals, choosing adaptive learning materials, training teachers' with professional knowledge for teaching remedial courses were all of importance when the educational authorities implemented the policy into schools. Also, Tan and Wu (2009) examined difficulties the disadvantaged students faced in Taipei. Both studies urged that disadvantaged students mostly come from low-socioeconomic backgrounds causing them to receive little educational resources which affected the students' academic performance.

Nevertheless, Chen (2008) provided a different perspective in her study which aimed to observe how the remedial programs ASAP, were conducted in Taiwan. She pointed out that remote areas obtained lots of ASAP resources. The major problems which caused students' lower achievement were that firstly, certified teachers lack professional trainings in the field of remedial education; secondly, parents do not take children's academic achievement seriously; thirdly, students themselves are lacking high learning motivations. Students are inclined to give up their study when meeting some familial difficulties including parents' divorce, child abuse, and an absence of parents with the role being filled by grand-parents family. According to Chen's research, the urgent issue for the implementation of remedial education is to develop teacher education, which scaffolds teachers to combine the theoretical and practical issues in their teaching practice so as to cope with the difficulties. Tsai and Hou (2009) echoed Chen's notion and proclaimed that teachers need not only be equipped with

professional knowledge but also need to transform knowledge to assist disadvantaged students. Teachers indeed play a crucial role in remedial programs, so investigating how teachers think, act, and perform their instruction in remedial courses is important.

In conclusion, the previous research focuses mainly on remedial programs implementation and underachievers learning outcome; however, few of the studies portrait in detail how teacher's cognition interweaves with practice in the second language remedial programs for disadvantaged students. This study aimed to investigate teachers' cognition and teaching practices in the remedial program.

The literature review has shown how teacher cognition interweaves with classroom practice, which is vital to get further understanding of teacher cognitive development. It has also shown studies related to remedial programs and teachers and students' difficulties in remedial courses. Based on Borg's theoretical framework of teacher cognition, the research therefore conducted a study to investigate teachers' cognition and teaching practices in the remedial program. In the next chapter, methods used in the current study are described in detail.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHOD

This chapter describes the setting, participants, data collections, and data analysis.

#### 3.1 Setting

The remedial program was conducted in a branch of the religious foundation, Rerun Novarum Center (RNC), in Hsinchu, Taiwan. Two teachers, Ron and Olivia were recruited in this current study. The religious foundation, originally established by priests and sisters, aimed to help the disadvantaged minority in particular areas. Various plans, such as work trainings, work opportunities, and remedial programs, were provided for laborers, aboriginal, foreign brides, and people in need. In the early stage of this foundation, RNC mainly focused on assisting adults in need. Later, the foundation added the field of education to meet requests from disadvantaged parents because they started to be aware of this issue and asked the chief to help their children enhance their academic performances. They thought that the poverty issue could be thoroughly resolved through this method - education for the next generation. Six years before the data collection time, the foundation set a branch pertaining to remedial programs in Hsinchu to help aboriginal junior high school students in this area.

The administrator of this branch, Anne (pseudonym), was an aboriginal adult, during the data collection time. Her role in the branch was the channel of communication among students, parents, and the chief of the foundation. She took responsibilities of recruiting teachers, dealing with students' problems, negotiating with parents, and reporting issues to the chief.

During the data collection time, there were 18 teachers. They were

non-aboriginal and mostly graduate students from National Chiao Tung University and National Tsing Hua University. They taught Math, English, Physics, and Chemistry. Before the semester, Anne shared with each teacher students' background information and her teaching beliefs in order to make teachers better understand the students' situations and cultures. They were required to design their own syllabus and worksheets referring to three different versions of students' textbooks and their school course schedules because they were from different junior high schools. Additionally, most teachers were not authorized to their class in the beginning of the semester. Whenever teachers had problems in teaching, classroom management, or other external factors, they could negotiate, respond, and discuss with Anne.

At the beginning of the data collection, there were 70 students. Since some students dropped out from courses, during the semester, there were 56 students at the end of the data collection. They were from nearby schools and attended classes starting from 6 p.m. to 8:30 p.m. on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays every week. In each class, there were about 8~15 students, including boys and girls with diverse English proficiency levels. The foundation lent space in the church as classrooms for the remedial program. In the classroom, two to four students shared a long desk and faced the same direction to the stage. There was also a white board on the stage behind the teacher. The setting was easier for students to discuss and practice with peers.

## **3.2 Participants**

### **3.2.1 Recruitment of the Participants**

Borg (2003) advocated that language teachers' cognition are affected by schooling, professional coursework and contextual factors. Especially for pre-service teachers, contextual factors play an essential role in the relationship between teacher

cognition and instruction. To investigate the topic, the original criteria for recruitment were as follows. First, both of them had the TESOL backgrounds. Second, they were novice teachers lecturing for less than a semester in this program. After ensuring the willingness of the participating teachers, the researcher explained the purposes of this research in person, gave them the consent forms (see Appendix A), and started to observe their classes. This study aimed to examine English teachers' cognition and practices in the remedial program. Since there were only 4 English teachers (including the researcher) in the program, the researcher targeted two English teachers by e-mail at the beginning of the second semester in 2010. However, after two weeks, one of the participants felt uncomfortable with the classroom observations and asked to withdraw from this study. To resolve the unexpected situation, the researcher had to change the original study from both teachers with TESOL backgrounds to teachers with and without the TESOL certification. After a two-week negotiation, the fourth English teacher in the program agreed to participate in the current study.

### **3.2.2 Demographic Information of the Participants**

Table 3.1 presents the demographic information of the two teachers. The two participants, Ron and Olivia, respectively, taught English in the remedial program.

### **3.2.3 Ron**

Ron, a French priest, was in his early 60s. He majored in English in his bachelor degree, culture studies in his master program, and Chinese history in his doctorate degree in France. Ron had taught English from 2004 in the program. At first, Ron, one of the chairmen in the foundation was asked to teach the aboriginal students because of the lack of English teachers in the program and his English major in college.

Although Ron's major was in English, he did not take any English teaching courses in



college. Since then, he has taught 7<sup>th</sup> graders every semester for six years. During the data collection, Ron taught 7<sup>th</sup> graders.

### 3.2.4 Olivia

Olivia, a Taiwanese and a pre-service teacher, was in her mid-twenties. She majored in English in college and TESOL in her master program. Unlike Ron's motive, Olivia applied for this job because she thought that a pre-service teacher should actively hunt for teacher-related part-time jobs to accumulate teaching experiences. In the data collection time, Olivia taught two English remedial courses in elementary schools and in the remedial program (8<sup>th</sup> grade) simultaneously.

Table 3.1  
Demographic information of the participants

Participants	Ron	Olivia
Age	63	25
Nationality	French	Taiwan
Education	B.A. English major M.A. Culture studies Ph.D. Chinese history (Received from France)	B.A. English major M.A. TESOL (Received from Taiwan)
Native Language	French	Chinese
Foreign Language	English, Chinese	English
Teaching Experiences	Teaching secondary school students French in France for one year	Tutoring Elementary school students for one year Secondary school students for a semester
Current class	7 <sup>th</sup> grade	8 <sup>th</sup> grade
Seniority in this institution	6 years	1 years

### **3.2.5 The Role of the Researcher**

Since I was also one of the English teachers in the program, I had known Ron and Olivia before my data collection. During the data collection, we had many personal and teaching-related conversations and interactions in that context. Sometimes they asked my opinions about their teaching after class. Sometimes, we talked to Anne and discussed students' issues together. The observed students were also familiar with my role in the classes as a researcher. Therefore, all participants understood my role in their classroom during the data collection period from March 2010 to June, 2010.

## **3.3 Data Collection**

Data collection was conducted from March 2010 through June 2010. The study data included data from interviews, classroom observations, and teaching materials.

### **3.3.1 Interviews**

#### **3.3.1.1 Formal Interviews**

There were a total of three interviews, during and after observations of classes, which lasted for 1-1.5 hours with each of the teachers. According to Borg's notion (2006), semi-structured interviews were adopted given that it had been widely used in the research of language teacher cognition for the advantage of comparability. In semi-structured interviews, teachers were given similar questions, which focused on general topics rather than having all of the determined issues (Tsui, 2003). By using this method, researchers could scope for more flexible interaction and participants could depict on any matters related to their viewpoints and experiences. In this study, the researcher sent the interview questions to participants in advance and then conducted the interviews, in Chinese, individually with each teacher to eliminate any

barrier. Although Ron was not a Chinese native speaker, he felt comfortable using Chinese to elaborate his ideas in the interviews because he had lived in Taiwan for approximately 40 years and was used to communicating with the locals using Chinese. The scheduled interviews were audio taped and later transcribed.

The purposes of the first interview (see Appendix B) was to acquire an in-depth understanding of the two participants' background information, reasons for teaching English, and experiences of language teaching and learning. The second interview (see Appendix C) during the period of data collection was to gain teachers' cognition about teaching and learning. Topics and issues were mainly based on Borg's framework in 1998.

The third interview (see Appendix D) was carried out immediately after the last class in the semester. Participants reviewed their teaching throughout the semester and reflected overall classroom practices and cognition. The dates and focuses of the three interviews were presented in Table 3.2.

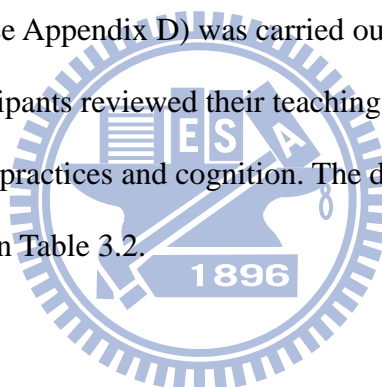


Table 3.2  
Dates and focuses of formal interviews with teachers

	<b>1<sup>st</sup> formal interview</b>	<b>2<sup>nd</sup> formal interview</b>	<b>3<sup>rd</sup> formal interview</b>
<b>Focuses</b>	Background interview, including biographical information, language background, the profession and development as a teacher	Teacher's perspective on language itself, language learning, language teaching and the teaching context	Teacher's reflection on teaching and questions from the previous interviews and classroom observations
<b>Ron</b>	03 May, 2010	07 June, 2010	01 July, 2010
<b>Olivia</b>	15 April, 2010	03 June, 2010	24 June, 2010

### 3.3.1.2 After-class Interviews

In addition to formal interviews with the targeted teachers, there were after-class

interviews, which aimed to conduct stimulated recall after classroom observations (Bloom, 1954). Teachers were asked to recall their thinking at specific points in the class to further explain their teaching instructions and their decision-making in the class. The researcher elicited some questions based on classroom observations and asked teachers to explain their purposes and intentions of instruction implementation after class. The interval was every one or two classes. Occasionally, the researcher had informal talk with them or staying with them while they recorded students' performances on the evaluation sheets. The after-class interviews were audio taped and later transcribed.

### **3.3.1.3 Students' Interviews**

Apart from teachers' interviews, other data from students' interviews were also supportive and valid to conceptualize teacher cognition (see Appendix E). The aim of student interviews in the final two classes was to try and investigate the impact of the two teachers' teaching on students' learning and attitudes. Through this method, it could verify whether teachers' implicit teaching emerged and whether students learned from their teachers. Students from the observed classes (Ron's class – 10 students, Olivia's class – 11 students) were interviewed and the interviews were taped-recorded and transcribed.

## **3.3.2 Observations**

### **3.3.2.1 Classroom Observations**

Non-participant observation was conducted of the two teachers, following them through their teaching in one semester (Woods, 1986). They both only had one class lasting two hours and twenty minutes per week in the branch. To have a vivid picture of their teaching practices, the researcher observed one class of each participant on a

weekly basis in the data collection time. Nine times of observations were done in teacher Ron's class and 14 times of observations were done in teacher Olivia's class. For the experienced teacher, Ron, the observation period spanned a period of three months, nine times from April to June, while for the novice teacher, Olivia, it spanned a period of four months, 14 times from March to June. The reason for the unequal distribution in observations is due to the delayed recruitment of Ron and classes missed because of holidays. The intensive classroom observations were conducted weekly, aiming to study teachers' instructions and examine) what factors influenced teacher cognitive development throughout the data collection period. Furthermore, detailed accounts of classroom events via qualitative field notes and audio recordings could be obtained. Some important interaction between the teachers and the students were transcribed.

#### **3.3.2.2 Out of classroom observations**

As the study started in March, 2010, the researcher kept writing what I noticed from the informal talks and observed out of the classroom contexts in order to find the best and most relevant information on the topics. The logs attempted to formulate interview questions, pinpointed the core issues for interviews as well as classroom observations, and generalized themes. It also served as supportive data to verify the results in this study.

#### **3.3.3 Documents**

Since many data sources were collected, documents were rich sources of information about many organizations and programs (Patton, 2002). Archival techniques served as a significant data source for field research. To get further understanding each teacher's teaching design, curriculum materials, such as handouts

and supplementary materials were collected in class observations. Those provided a wealth of information that could not be captured by an audio recording. It served as another important reference to triangulate and verify the data.

### **3.4 Data Collection Procedure**

The procedures undertaken in the study was approximately one semester. Table 3.3 shows the data collection procedures.

After the preliminary observation for one month, the first formal interview with Olivia was conducted to retrieve her demographic information, language background, and the profession and development as a teacher. On the other hand, the first interview of Ron was in May due to the delayed recruitment. In the meanwhile, classroom observations of both Ron and Olivia were continually conducted to gain more details about actual classroom practice.

Second, the second round of interviews were taken place in June, 2010. The main purpose was to explore teachers' perspectives of language learning, language teaching, and the teaching context. Moreover, whether their teaching beliefs changed after interacting with students during this period was another issue. At the end of the course, all students in each observed class were interviewed individually to examine their viewpoints on teachers' instructions and classroom management. Following the interview, the classroom observations were also conducted.

After the courses end, the final round of interviews with each teacher was conducted. At that time, they overviewed and reflected on their teaching and practices. Also after-class interviews, with around one or two week intervals, were conducted, serving as simulated recall to gain the further explanation of their practices and purposes immediately during the data collection semester.

Table 3.3  
Data Collection Procedures

Time	Data Collection	Data Collected
March, 2010	Preliminary Classroom Observations- Olivia's class	Field Notes Worksheets
	Informal Interviews	Interviews transcripts
	Classroom Observations- Ron & Olivia	Field Notes Worksheets
April, 2010	Informal Interviews	Interviews transcripts
	1 <sup>st</sup> Formal Interview- Olivia	Interviews transcripts
	Classroom Observations - Ron & Olivia	Field Notes Worksheets
May, 2010	Informal Interviews	Interviews transcripts
	1 <sup>st</sup> Formal Interview- Ron	Interviews transcripts
	Classroom Observations - Ron & Olivia	Field Notes Worksheets
June, 2010	Informal Interviews	Interviews transcripts
	2 <sup>nd</sup> Interview- Ron & Olivia	Interviews transcripts
	Students' Interviews	Interviews transcripts
	3 <sup>rd</sup> Interview- Ron & Olivia	Interviews transcripts
July, 2010	3 <sup>rd</sup> Interview- Ron & Olivia	Interviews transcripts

### 3.5 Data analysis

The primary data of this study consisting of interviews, observations, and documents were analyzed based on Borg's framework for language teacher cognition, which employed three main components including schooling, professional coursework, and contextual factors (see Figure 2.1). Also, according to the data of study, open-coding strategy was used to generate categories and their properties which fit, worked, and were relevant to the current study (Creswell, 2009). During data analysis, the data would be organized based on Borg's framework and provided more subcategories under the three major themes. Coding themes and definitions were stated in Table 3.4. Examples for coding subcategories were attached in Appendix F.

In the following these themes and subcategories are listed, respectively.

Table 3.4  
Coding categories for themes

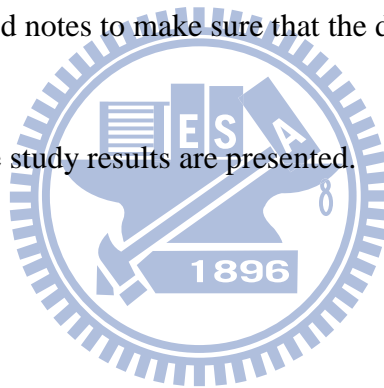
Themes	Sub-categories	Definitions
Schooling	Past learning backgrounds	As Lortie (1975) claimed, schooling as “apprenticeship of observation.” Teachers easily traced back to their personal learning histories and imaged what teaching should be like based on their experiences as learners.
	Past teaching experiences	Teachers’ prior teaching experiences served as a mirror for teachers to modify their current teaching and reflect on their successful and unsuccessful teaching.
Professional coursework	Professional coursework	The teaching training served as a platform, which connected theories and practices together for teachers. However, the lack of combination between their previous experiences and theories may reduce the effect on teacher cognition.
Contextual factors	Teachers’ roles in the remedial program	Different roles in the remedial context may influence teachers’ teaching practices and further re-shape their cognition.
	Interactions with the administrator	The administrator’s assistance and beliefs may change or dominate teachers’ teaching instructions. Teachers’ teaching cognition may be re-shaped.
	Interactions with colleagues	Colleagues’ teaching instructions exchanges and affective support could foster teachers’ teaching instructions.
Teachers’ personalities	Teachers’ personalities	Different personalities for each teacher may affect what teachers did and thought in class.



### 3.6 Trustworthiness

The following approaches to establish trustworthiness of the present study were employed. First, the use of multiple methods of data collections such as classroom observations, interviews, and documents aimed to triangulate the findings. Second, each type of data source was collected several times to gain the consistency of the data. 23 classroom observations were done in Olivia’s class and 14 observations in Ron’s class during the data collection semester. Three formal interviews were also used. Third, regular classroom observations with field notes as well as documents accompanying informal interviews aimed to eliminate possible biases hidden in the data. Finally, a member checking technique by the participants was used to examine the transcribed data and field notes to make sure that the data accurately corresponded to their original thoughts.

In the next chapter, the study results are presented.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS**

In this chapter, the results of this study were presented. Each case in the remedial course was presented respectively. Under each case, teaching cognition, factors of teachers' cognition, and teaching practices were presented. In the first part, each teacher's perspectives about teaching were introduced. In the second part, factors that influenced teacher's cognition based on Borg's framework and main coding themes were demonstrated. In the third part, teaching practices including classroom managements, enactment of curriculum, and classroom instructions were presented.

#### **4.1 Case One: Ron**

Before teaching English in the remedial program, Ron was a priest. Six years ago, the institution, RNC, established a new project, which aimed to assist aboriginal students' academic performance. In the early stage, Ron, one of the executive committees in this institution, was asked to teach English because of the shortage of teachers in the mountainous areas and his bachelor's degree in English. Before the data collection time, Ron had taught 7<sup>th</sup> grade English for six years.

##### **4.1.1 Ron's Teaching Cognition**

In this section, Ron's teaching cognition before teaching English in the remedial course are provided. Three teaching cognition are as follows. First, he believed that teaching English as a whole was important. Second, respecting other languages was indispensably essential. Third, he thought that disciplining students' behaviors strictly could facilitate students' learning process.

#### **4.1.1.1 Cognition 1: Teaching English as a Whole**

To Ron's point of view, language teaching should encompass four language skills, such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Teachers should integrate the four skills into a meaningful context. He believes that language should be acquired as a whole, not isolated segments. Ron claimed, "I thought that only vocabulary and grammar were not sufficient to acquire a language. Four skills should be implemented into language learning contexts." (Formal Interview 1, May 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010). In addition, language evaluations should focus on multiple parts. As he thought, "If school teachers could evaluate students' English competences from different aspects, some aboriginal students could have good scores and good academic performances, which could motivate their learning interests." (Formal Interview 3, July 1<sup>st</sup>, 2010).

#### **4.1.1.2 Cognition 2: Respecting the Culture Embedded in a Language**

Ron also heavily emphasized the importance of language respect and usage. For him, respecting languages meant that people respected others' cultures. Holding this belief, Ron thought that "It was very essential to teach Taiwanese students positive attitude toward English learning." (Formal Interview 1, May 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010).

#### **4.1.1.3 Cognition 3: Implementing Strict Disciplines**

Ron believed that strict disciplines were necessary to manage the classroom and could make students' learning take place. As a priest, he observed that some aboriginal students formed deviation behaviors because they lacked parental supervisions, they were emotionally detached from parents, and they were influenced by peers and school environments, such as drinking, smoking, stealing, gangbanging, and drug use. Therefore, he believed that he should take responsibility to discipline students' behaviors and lead them to a bright future. Owing to those concerns, he

thought that a firm and serious learning environment could make students study efficiently.

#### **4.1.2 Factors Influencing Ron's Cognition**

In previous sections, I discussed Ron's teaching aspects, such as guiding principles, classroom managements, enactment of curriculum, and classroom instructions. Ron's cognition may be observed by his prior learning and teaching experiences, the professional courses he took in college, and the contextual factors where the program was situated. The following section demonstrates how those factors influenced Ron's cognition.

##### **4.1.2.1 Factor 1: Ron's Past Language Learning Experiences**

###### Prior English Learning Experiences in France

As mentioned in the previous chapter, Ron learnt English in his middle school and in college in France. At the beginning of learning a foreign language in middle school, he did not master it well, owing to his teachers' rigid and inflexible teaching styles. He recalled, "I hated English most among those subjects. My English teachers merely followed the content and fixed answers in textbooks at that time. Without textbooks, they did not know how to teach English." (Formal Interview 1, May 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010). That kind of language teaching decreased his motivations in English learning. When he became an English teacher, he tried to make his teaching flexible by providing supplementary materials and giving various possible answers for students.

Before entering college, he had a chance to travel to England for three months. From that travel experience, he found that he picked up English subconsciously and naturally. As he recalled,

In England, the only language I could use was English. I had many opportunities to practice that language and absorbed myself into that context. Before the first semester began in college, all freshmen majoring in English had an English exam. Then, I passed that exam. I knew if I did not go to England for three months, I would not pass that exam. At that time, I found that a natural environment for language learning was very important. (Formal Interview 1 May 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010)

Ron's experience of acquiring English in an authentic environment had formed his belief that teachers should provide learners an environment where they could use the target language. Therefore, being an English teacher, he usually talked to students in English in and out of the classroom. Even if students could not answer his daily English conversation immediately and correctly, he would practice with them repeatedly all the time.

In addition to language learning environments, Ron particularly put emphasis on listening and speaking skills. As he said,

Although my English teachers in the middle school did not emphasize listening and speaking instead of translation, I felt that it was not a correct learning method. In college, the four skills of English were equally focused. I started to feel that English was an interesting language.

(After-classroom Observation, April 26<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

Comparing the two learning experiences from middle school and college, he concluded the better way for language learning and held the belief that language learning should be taken as a whole rather than as discrete parts, such as grammar only, especially in the remedial course, where some students were good at listening and speaking instead of writing and reading. Influenced by his prior language learning experiences, Ron tried to provide different aspects of English and further inspire students' learning motivation.

### Prior Chinese Learning Experiences in France

In college, Ron majored in English and chose Chinese as a second language. When learning Chinese in French, he was often confused about Chinese grammar owing to different language systems. He recalled that, “After I graduated from college, my Chinese was still poor.” (Formal Interview 1 May 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010). After being a priest, he went to Hong Kong and China serving missionary work. At that time, he was immersed in a Chinese environment and had a lot of Chinese input, which enhanced his Chinese capabilities. As he said,

At the monastery in Hong Kong, people there were from different countries speaking different languages, so I needed to speak different languages to different persons and switched French, English, and Chinese all day. At first, I could not use English and Chinese accurately and fluently. Also, I messed up with the language switches and I felt exhausted and was too fatigued to speak any word. However, after making innumerable mistakes, I found that I finally mastered both foreign languages well.” (Formal Interview 1, May 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010)

For Ron, the language learning experiences of both English and Chinese were quite similar. The experiences of learning Chinese reinforced his beliefs again. That is, language learning should happen in a natural and an authentic environment. Moreover, he said that learners should not be afraid of making mistakes, which functioned as stepping stones facilitating language learning successfully.

#### **4.1.2.2 Factor 2: Prior Teaching Experiences**

Before teaching English, Ron taught French and religion. After becoming a resident priest in the mountainous church in Taiwan (Hsinchu), he began his first English teaching position teaching English to aboriginal students. Previous to the data collection period, he had taught English for 10 years. At first, he had no idea how to

teach English for elementary and junior high school Taiwanese students. As he recalled,

In my first English class, I assumed that junior high school students at least had basic English abilities, so I planned to review basic grammatical patterns and exercises for them. When I taught the first sentence, students all looked puzzled. Since then, I realized that they knew little about English; therefore, I abandoned my worksheet and taught them from the very beginning stage of English such as phrases and vocabulary. Moreover, unlike other students I taught before, aboriginal students would not sit down quietly in your classroom, not to mention paying attention to your class.

(Formal Interview 2, June 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

Through the teaching experiences accumulating in the past ten years, Ron not only understood aboriginal students' English proficiency but also realized that classroom disciplines were more important than teaching the subject. He slightly modified his teaching to meet the requirement criteria on the exams in the middle schools in Taiwan. For example, he would consult school textbooks and adopt some exercises when designing worksheets. Ron believed that with those strict disciplines, students could concentrate on their learning.

#### **4.1.2.3 Factor 3: Contextual Factors**

The biggest factors were contextual factors, which interwove teachers' cognition and further shaped what teachers did in class. In Ron's case, his teaching mainly influenced by the administrator and students' parents in the remedial program.

As an experienced teacher, Ron knew how to deal with students' problems and what difficulties he would face in the classroom. Sometimes students' bad behaviors annoyed him. After the class, he would report these events to the administrator and they discussed the solutions together. As he reported,

Unlike the administrator who could observe each student's learning via different classes and other teachers' reports, I only taught them one subject. As a result, if I had any questions about students' learning conditions, the administrator could provide me more information about students. It was helpful for me to solve students' problems. (Formal Interview 3, July 1<sup>st</sup>, 2010)

Through different viewpoints, Ron thought that he could understand students more and objectively evaluate students' learning outcomes.

Meanwhile, in the English class, Ron played two roles, a priest and an English teacher. As a priest, he was in charge of part of the fundraising for this remedial program. He raised funds and gave students weekly allowance to take public transportation from mountainous areas to downtown. Also, he helped students in need apply for scholarships for studying at senior high schools and colleges.

In addition to fundraising, he spent a lot of time counseling students against indulging in violence and drug use. He tried to resolve students' problems and guide them to the path of positive life. If the students' parents were Ron's brethren, he informed students' parents about students' behaviors and discussed with them how to deal with the problems. The administrator said that "sometimes, he also educated students' parents, grandparents, or relatives about how to teach children" (Formal Interview, May 27<sup>th</sup>, 2010).

Moreover, some of the parents did not trust this remedial program. If their children behaved badly and went astray, most parents would attribute these behaviors to the program. To earn the parents' faith, not only the administrator, but also Ron, directly discussed students' learning conditions with their parents. Through direct communication and negotiation with the parents, he thought that the parents could trust the institution and know their children's learning outcomes and behaviors.



#### **4.1.2.4 Summary of Various Factors Formed Ron's Teaching Cognition**

Ron's past language learning experiences in English and Chinese influenced his belief about language learning. When tracing back to his prior language learning experiences, he found that exposure in the target language environment was the key factor which affected his language acquisition. Therefore, he tried to create an English learning environment and communicate with students in English. Through authentic learning, he believed that students could pick up English naturally.

Moreover, his prior teaching experiences as an English teacher in the mountainous areas shaped his teaching belief. Since he did not learn English in Taiwan before, and Chinese was not his mother tongue, he used his own knowledge about English learning to teach students at first. Also, the language barriers hindered the teaching process. After accumulating some teaching experiences, he gradually modified his teaching methods to meet the exam in Taiwan and implemented disciplines to meet the goal in the remedial context.

Lastly, the administrator and the students' parents shaped his teaching belief. Ron usually discussed the students' learning conditions with the administrator and gained some different insights to re-evaluate students. If needed, he would talk to the students' parents directly. Playing roles as a teacher and a priest in the English classroom, Ron not only assisted students learning outcomes but also tried to help in their personal lives. He acted as a supervisor who led students to the right road and taught proper behaviors.

#### **4.1.3 Ron's Teaching Practices**

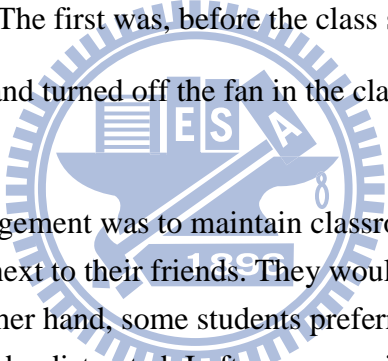
The previous section displayed multiple factors, which formed Ron's teaching cognition. In this section, how Ron implemented teaching practices would be investigated within three phases of teaching: classroom management, curriculum

planning, and classroom instruction.

#### **4.1.3.1 Classroom Managements**

##### Establishing classroom routines and maintaining classroom disciplines

Ron evaluated this class as a more difficult class compared to the classes that he taught before because of the students' different language proficiency levels and negative learning attitudes. He stated that "students in this class were very lazy and lacked learning motivations. I felt that they needed someone to push them to study." (Formal Interview 1, May 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010). To facilitate students' learning outcomes, he tried hard to draw students' attentions and to strictly discipline their behaviors by adopting several strategies. The first was, before the class started, he always re-arranged students' seats and turned off the fan in the classroom. As he stated,



The purpose of rearrangement was to maintain classroom discipline. Students always chose the seat next to their friends. They would talk with each other during class. On the other hand, some students preferred to sit in the last row, which allowed them to be distracted. I often re-organized their seats before starting my class. (After-Class Interview, May 17<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

Second, Ron began to deal with classroom businesses, including checking the attendance of students, reporting the absence to the administrator, distributing worksheets to each student, and preparing learning materials. He seldom waited for late students because he knew that aboriginal students tended to be late for everything and did not take studying seriously. As a result, in his course, Ron hoped to establish regular routines to raise students' time awareness and responsibility for their own learning. From the classroom observation, if students were late, he would point at his watch showing the time to students and ask them what time it was. If students were

late for class several times, he would ask students not to attend his class anymore and reported this to the administrator. Due to his strict disciplines, students always attended his class on time. Additionally, Ron also prevented aboriginal students from speaking swear words. The students would be isolated immediately if they spoke swear words and asked to see the administrator.

Third, Ron had low-toleration in noise, so he scolded or even shouted at students who did not pay attention to the class or made noise. As he stated,

I felt that students would learn nothing if the class was too noisy. You know, school teachers were too young in the mountainous areas to discipline those aboriginal students' behaviors. Some parents did not take responsibility to take care of their children. Thus, those aboriginal students who were not disciplined from the elementary schools would think that they could do what they wanted to do in class. I did not agree with that. The learning attitude was not correct.  
(Formal Interview 2, June 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

For Ron, guiding students to the learning path was of importance. Silence was the first step that could help students pay attention to the class. As a result, he focused on classroom management. However, when controlling students' behaviors, Ron lost his temper several times. Once, he asked students to be quiet, but one student ignored his words and kept whispering to his classmate. Then, Ron stopped his lesson and scolded the student. The class became quiet and no one dared to make any noise. Finally, Ron asked the students to go downstairs and talk to the administrator. At that time, students were very scared of him. He later explained his behaviors in the event.

I knew that many students, the administrator, and even other teachers noticed that I was the strictest person in the institution. I said, "OK!" I did not mind that comment. Because students had many disciplinary problems, I felt that I had to be stricter than other teachers did. (Formal Interview 3, July 10<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

For Ron, being very strict with students was effective in terms of classroom management and students' learning outcomes. From classroom observations, the administrator often told him that his students (grade 7) were very noisy and mischievous in all courses except in his class. Students' good learning conditions reinforced Ron's belief in strict discipline. Also, he self-reported that "students whom he taught before said that because of the harsh discipline, we studied hard at that time and our English improved a lot. But now, we forgot many English words because teachers were too lenient." (Formal Interview 3, July 10<sup>th</sup>, 2010). Students' successful learning experiences were positive reinforcements for Ron and indirectly supported this kind of classroom management. He said, "I thought that being strict was necessary to aboriginal students because their school teachers and parents seldom treated them in a severe way." (Formal Interview 2, June 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010).

Fourth, Ron sometimes re-arranged some students' seats when they were not willing to study hard and behaved well in his class. The reason why Ron needed to pick up students was that students held different reasons attended the remedial courses in this institution. According to his observation, he said,

Some students came here because they were bored at home. Some wanted to escape from their parents who drank and punished them severely without any reasons. We did not welcome those who did not do their best to work hard. They would interrupt my teaching and other students' learning. That was why I needed to kick them out. (Formal Interview 3, July 1<sup>st</sup>, 2010)

Before kicking students out, Ron would give students the second chance to change themselves. As he said,

Before kicking students out of my class, I would give many opportunities to students and then assessed their learning progress. If I found he/she still did not

want to strive for the best, I would ask the student not to attend my class because it wasted our time. What's worse, my teaching and other classmates' learning may be interrupted by their distraction and misbehaviors.

(Classroom Observation, June 22<sup>nd</sup> 2010)

In addition to students' self-reflections, Ron also discussed students' learning conditions with the administrator. If necessary, he would request her to re-arrange the students to another class or suspend the students from the remedial courses. Unlike the public high school, where teachers could not choose students, in this remedial program, Ron could choose class members and hoped to help students in need achieve higher academic performance. For Ron, re-arrangement of class members aimed to raise students' awareness of learning rather than deprived their educational opportunity.

#### Playing roles as a priest and an English teacher in the classroom

Ron played two major roles in the English class, a priest and an English teacher. The two roles often interplayed with each other. As an English teacher, Ron held a cognition that strict discipline was very important for students, but influenced by the role of a priest, he usually implemented different standards for each student who was against his prior cognition. Sometimes, he would ignore students' bad behaviors and low learning motivations. Moreover, he expected that students should have a correct learning attitude. Nevertheless, his role as a priest further caused expectations that students should hold not only correct attitudes but also have a bright outlook towards their lives. To keep students from going astray from the path of god, he tried to show that them that he cared about students' moralities, things they like to do, and the friends they made out of the classroom. Ron's high expectation of his students in and outside the classroom could be attributed to his two roles.

### 4.1.3.2 Curriculum Plan

#### Teaching goals

In spite of students' English learning objectives made by the MOE, Ron had his own goals toward language learning. There were three major teaching objectives in his class. First, it was very important to teach students positive attitudes toward English learning, such as not being afraid of making mistakes and respecting languages. Second, he tried to put emphasis on the four skills and encouraged his students to use English for daily communication in his class. He was against the notion of "learning English from the textbooks only". As he mentioned,

I felt that if English only existed in the textbooks, students would not pick up that language. Exercises in the textbooks were good but these were not authentic. For language learners, textbooks could not help them acquire a language in a long-run period. I thought that language teachers had the responsibility to create the environment and provide them a lot of opportunities to listen to and to speak. Otherwise, language learning would not take place.  
(Formal Interview 1, My 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010)

Third, he thought that language learning was not merely learning language itself, also the culture from which it came. Ron expected his students to understand foreign cultures behind the surface of the language when students studied English.

#### Creating English learning environments

Believing that the efficient language learning took place in an immersion environment, Ron provided many opportunities for students to practice what they had learnt before in their daily life. He usually greeted students in English and asked them to respond in English. Example 4.1 showed how Ron interacted with students in English in the hall before the class started.

#### Example 4.1

(Before class, Ron says hello to one student.)

T: How are you today?

S: 什麼 (What!?)

T: How are you today? (Repeat the question again with low speed)

S: Fine, thank you!

T: OK!

(Researcher Logs, May 17<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

However, sometimes, communicative practices between Ron and the students were not smooth due to the students' low language proficiency, which hampered their language input and output. Example 4.2 showed the event that the student could not achieve comprehensive understanding during dialogues.

#### Example 4.2

(One Day, before class, Ron stood in front of the door in the classroom waiting for students. Then, he meets a student and greets her with a smile.)

T: Where were you yesterday?

S: (stand there with a smile)

T: Where were you yesterday?

S: (still standing there with an embarrassing smile)

T: Miss, look at me. Where were you yesterday?

(Repeated again with lower speed)

S: 我不知道 (I don't know.)

(Then she runs away)

(Researcher Logs, June 21<sup>st</sup>, 2010)

Usually, students could not respond to Ron's questions immediately but he spoke slowly and encouraged them to try to answer it. In addition to greeting, Ron used to speak English in class when dealing with classroom businesses. Example 4.3 and 4.4 were as follows.

Example 4.3

(Ron is checking the attendance in the classroom.)

T: Are you here, Mr. Guan Yu.

S: Here, man.

T: No! No! No! You cannot call me “man”.

S: Here, teacher.

Example 4.4

(In the class, a student wanted to go to the toilet.)

S: (raising his hand) 神父，我要上廁所 (Father, I want to go to the toilet.)

T: What!?! (Pretending he cannot understand what he says)

S: 我想要 (I want to.....) (Turning to ask classmates for help)

S: May I go to the toilet?

T: Can you wait for 5 minutes?

S: Yes! (Preparing to walk out the classroom)

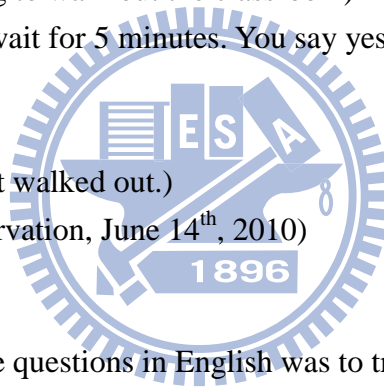
T: I say can you wait for 5 minutes. You say yes.

S: No!

T: OK!

(Then, the student walked out.)

(Classroom Observation, June 14<sup>th</sup>, 2010)



For Ron, using those simple questions in English was to train students' language abilities. Influenced by his past learning experiences, he tried to offer an English-speaking environment where students may enhance their language capability.

### Teaching positive attitude toward language learning

In Ron's class, he encouraged students to speak up without being afraid of making mistakes. He believed that errors could re-boost their learning. Ron understood that only providing many output chances for students was not enough because most students were still afraid of opening their mouth. Every time when students saw Ron, many of them snuck away. If Ron started to talk to students in English, they usually bowed their heads and did not dare to look at his eyes. They



were too shy and too nervous to respond to the questions. As Ron said, “students were afraid of making mistakes, so they did not dare to respond to my questions.” (Formal Interview 2, June 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010). From his own experiences of learning English, he was convinced that people made mistakes, and then they could acquire it. It was very important. Therefore, in his classroom, he tried to change students’ negative attitudes to positive ones.

#### **4.1.3.3 Classroom Instructions**

##### Instruction 1: Teaching strategies

In Ron’s opinion, “associating known knowledge to unknown knowledge was the best teaching strategy to help students acquire language efficiently.” (Formal Interview 3, July 1<sup>st</sup>, 2010). In practical situations, he reviewed relevant grammatical rules and vocabulary which students learned before when introducing new grammar and vocabulary. He spent much time reviewing students’ prior knowledge so that the slow progress of teaching did not meet the schools’ progress. He thought that students with the solid foundation could learn much better than those with a weak base. As he said,

In this remedial program, teachers aimed to help students understand how to gain knowledge by themselves rather than achieve high scores on exams. I believed that once students mastered some learning skills and accumulated enough basic knowledge, their academic performances would also become better.

(Formal Interview 3, July 1<sup>st</sup>, 2010)

Holding this belief, Ron always reviewed grammatical patterns repeatedly. For example, he taught auxiliary interrogative sentences and negative sentences five times throughout the semester. When finding that students in his class did not acquire the basic grammatical rules, he reviewed the concepts again. By using these teaching

strategies, Ron found that they were successful in conveying the basic sentence structures and guiding students to learn the target sentences according to test performances.

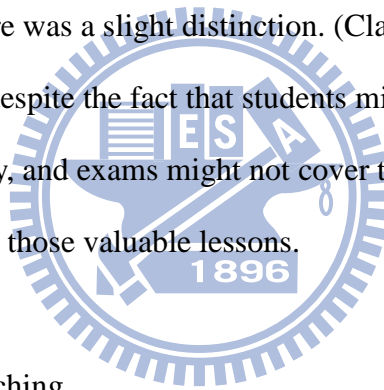
### Instruction 2: Vocabulary teaching

One of the focuses in Ron's class was vocabulary instruction. He thought that, "the most important aspect of learning English was vocabulary, which was one of the building blocks of language" (Formal Interview 2, June 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010). Without vocabulary, students could not understand sentences, not to mention organizing their speech. For each unit, he would choose a number of words that he thought important, based on both his teaching and learning experiences. In addition to some keywords, he picked polysemy to explain further. When explaining polysemy, he also gave Chinese meanings and translations for students to learn from the context (see Appendix G). He asserted that, "it was of importance for students to learn the polysemy. Although there was only one meaning in their textbooks, they needed to understand that there was not only one in daily use. (After-classroom Observation, May 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010). Not only did Ron provide the surface meanings of a word, he introduced semantic, pragmatic, and sociocultural parts as well in order to reinforce students' memorization and foster their interests in English learning. As he claimed,

Although I was not a Chinese, I learnt English before and also majored in English as my master degree. Compared to other English teachers, I felt that I knew something more than they did. Because of different backgrounds, I thought that I could provide different language perspectives for students.  
(Formal Interview 2, June 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

Once, he taught months, which were difficult for students to memorize owing to the

multiple syllabi. He separated those words into two parts and told students the origins of those words. For example, sept-, oct-, nov-, and dec- were from the Latin, which meant nine, ten, eleven, and twelve. (Classroom Observation, May 31<sup>st</sup>, 2010). He thought that memorizing a word with its historical backgrounds was much more efficient than cramming. Another example was that when teaching the word, beef, he introduced its historical background to students. When Ron introduced the historical parts, students all paid great attention to him. The other event was the subtle difference of words' meanings between British English and American English. He explained the difference between "a lot of" and "lots of". He said that those two phrases had the similar Chinese meanings; however, "a lot of" meant many and "lots of" meant much more. There was a slight distinction. (Classroom Observation, April 26<sup>th</sup>, 2010). He stated that despite the fact that students might not know what he introduced comprehensively, and exams might not cover those parts, he still had the responsibility to teach them those valuable lessons.



### Instruction 3: Grammar teaching

The other emphasis in Ron's class was grammatical rules. For him, using grammatical structures correctly in the appropriate context was essential. The concept was formed from his personal experiences being a foreigner who saw many English mistakes occurring in Taiwan. He hoped that students did not make the same mistakes and learned how to utilize English accurately. The deductive approach he used aimed to provide students a clear formulaic rule to follow. He taught grammatical patterns briefly and then provided many Chinese-English translations. With extensive practice, he believed that students would pick up rules directly and immediately. He said that, "I hope that students could answer those basic questions spontaneously. They needed to subconsciously and naturally use the target language to express their ideas rather

than deliberately think how to answer questions in English correctly.” (Formal Interview 2, June 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010). From his language learning experiences, he thought that learning should happen in a natural context.

For Ron, association with the known knowledge and unknown knowledge was useful for students to learn previous grammatical rules and new patterns systematically (See Appendix H). Especially in the remedial course, students with low achievements required teachers to connect knowledge together, which could enhance their learning outcomes. With well-organized instructions, great deals of exercises were followed. In such a way, it would help students to be aware of grammatical items and be able to use the target structures accurately and fluently. In addition to a deductive grammatical teaching approach, Ron compared Chinese grammar and English grammar. He explained that, “I learned both English and Chinese before, so I consciously picked up syntactic rules in both language systems. I knew the differences between the two languages. Being aware of those distinctions between two languages could help students clarify their confusion and avoid making linguistic mistakes.” (Formal Interview 2, June 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010). Example 4.4 showed how Ron taught the Be-verb rule to students by language comparison. When teaching the simple sentence, Ron made comparisons to reinforce students’ understanding.

#### Example 4.5

T: 當你說天氣很熱和我的朋友很聰明，中文裡面有沒有動詞？

(Is there a verb in Chinese when you say the sentence, the weather is hot, or the sentence, my friend is very smart?)

S: 好像沒有 (No!)

T: 對了! 天氣很熱，中文沒有動詞，但是英文有。我的朋友很聰明一樣，中文也沒有動詞，但是英文有。

(You are right! When you say the weather is hot, there is no verb in Chinese but in English. This sentence “My friend is very smart” has the same grammar. There is no verb in Chinese, too. But in English, it contains verb.)

(Classroom observation, April 26<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

#### Instruction 4: Various types of drills

Ron perceived that tedious exercises could reinforce students' prior knowledge and they were indispensable in language learning. After he taught a new grammar rule and new words, he provided students with drills, including dictations, fill-in, Chinese-English translations, True-or-False, vocabulary, short-answer questions, reading comprehensions, and other types of exercises. When reviewing translations, Ron gave several possible answers for each question. He also pointed out that since grammatical rules were abstract and unknown words were also meaningless for students, constant practice of the target language in meaningful contexts was of importance. To achieve meaningful learning, Ron often wrote short paragraphs containing unfamiliar words and grammar by him. For example, when teaching weather adjectives, he used his personal story to write a text as below.

I like to live in Taiwan. It is very different from my country but the people there are very nice with foreigners. It is different from Hong Kong or Mainland China. Besides, the weather is much warmer than in Europe. [.....] In winter, it is very cold. You must wear warm sweaters and jackets. The season I prefer is autumn. Then the weather is usually good, not too hot and not too humid. [.....] in May and June, it can rain a lot. This is the rainy season and the Taiwanese call this the "plum rain". Usually, the rain comes with thunderstorms.

(Classroom observation, June 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

He read the story twice. The first time, he read the story loudly and asked the students to listen to it carefully. Then he asked some comprehensive questions from contexts.

Most of time, there was no response from students. Then, he read it again with nonverbal aids, such as gestures and drawings. Students could look at their text at the second time. In the text, Ron not only provided the unknown words, the weather

adjectives, but also reviewed the known words, months and clothing from previous lessons. Then, short-answer questions were followed. Finally, students also were asked to repeat after him. As shown above, Ron tried to integrate listening, reading, speaking, and grammar together. By using multiple input and output, he hoped that students could be familiarized with the sentence patterns and target words under a meaningful context.

#### Instruction 5: Assessment

After teaching a unit, Ron used to give tests at the beginning of the class once every two weeks. The purpose of tests was to examine to what extent students learned the previous grammatical patterns, which had been taught. Then, he could modify his teaching pace and instruct what students had learnt before again by reviewing questions. There were diverse question items, including text dictations, 20 words dictations, questions, True-or-False, and sentence corrections. Among those drills, text dictations were very essential for Ron. As he said,

I knew in Taiwan, teachers seldom did so. But in my country, this kind of test was very common. When I learnt English before, my teachers gave test dictations every time. It developed several language skills but also integrated high-level comprehensive capabilities.

(After Classroom Interview, April 26<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

Because of his prior learning experiences, Ron thought that English teaching should not focus on the discrete skills such as grammar and reading. It should integrate four skills. During the period of exam, Ron would give students some individual instructions if they had problems. For him, test scores were important and indicated whether students studied hard or not at home. If students did not get a good grade, he would blame and harshly scold the students. As he said,

Because no one would force them to study hard and their parents did not care about their academic performances, I thought it was important for me to discipline them to work hard. They needed to know the purpose of studying. Playing computer games, hanging out with friends, and fooling around were useless.

(Formal Interview 3, July 1<sup>st</sup>, 2010)

For Ron, the main assessment in class was tests which could indicate students' learning outcomes and helped him adjust his teaching pace. Moreover, the philosophy behind tests was to urge students to study hard.

#### **4.1.3.4 Summary of Ron's Teaching Practice**

As an experienced teacher, Ron set his disciplines and managed the classroom efficiently. For him, the best way for language learning was to learn in contexts. As a result, he usually talked to students in English and encouraged them to reply in English. When having tests, he provided comprehensive questions instead of discrete items for students. To help students achieve comprehension in English, he implemented several teaching strategies to re-instruct the same concepts again and again and implemented language cultures as well as usages in the classroom to enhance students' memorizations.

## **4.2 Case Two: Olivia**

### **4.2.1 Olivia's Teaching Cognition**

Before teaching in the remedial program, Olivia was a graduate student majoring in TESOL. She applied for this job because being an English teacher-to-be, the only way to compile knowledge in language teaching was through practice. The data collection semester was her first teaching experience to teach a big class. She held

several beliefs regarding how English should be efficiently taught in a remedial program: strict discipline implementation and grammar-oriented instructions.

#### **4.2.1.1 Cognition 1: Teaching Grammar and Vocabulary as the Basic skills to learn**

Before teaching English in the remedial class, Olivia believed that grammar and vocabulary were the two basic foundations of English, which could make words into meaningful sentences. Without solid grammatical foundation, whatever students said and wrote could be incorrect. Furthermore, she indicated that, “for middle school students, I thought that grammar and vocabulary should be the main focus in class because of the educational policy in Taiwan.” (Formal Interview 2, June 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010). Thus, she firmly believed that grammar and vocabulary should be emphasized in her class.

#### **4.2.1.2 Cognition 2: Balancing between Strict and Moderate Disciplines**

Influenced by the theories in her school training, Olivia believed that being an authoritative teacher to manage a classroom was very important. However, from her prior one-to-one tutoring experience, she found that it was hard to discipline a teenager’s behaviors and strict control could not discipline students’ behaviors well and it was not the only way to maintain students’ disciplines. As a result, she sought for the efficient method of teaching and tried to find a balance between authority and moderate.

### **4.2.2 Factors influencing Olivia’s cognition**

#### **4.2.2.1 Factor 1: Language Learning Experiences**

Prior English learning experiences in middle school



During the data collection, Olivia's past learning experiences in middle school influenced her teaching in the remedial class. When tracing back to the past learning experiences of English in the secondary school, Olivia recalled that her English teachers gave the traditional teaching, teacher-centered instructions, and stressed the importance of grammar and vocabulary. The learning process was a series of notes and tests. She thought that that kind of learning was very boring but efficient because she got high scores in English in the college entrance examination. When she became an English teacher, she put heavy emphasis on grammatical patterns and vocabulary. As she maintained,

The purpose that these junior high school students came here for was to enter a public high school. They did not have enough money to pay for the tuition of private high school. As a result, my teaching was test-oriented. Grammar and vocabulary were the two major parts in the English examination, so I would like to focus on those, which could help students get good grades.  
(Formal Interview 2, June 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010)

The other influence from her previous learning experiences was the learning atmosphere. She mentioned that her high school days were full of notes and tests were boring and dull. When she had the opportunity to handle a class, she would like to create a relaxed, happy, and fun environment which could cultivate students' English learning interests. This was the reason why Olivia often distributed candies, told jokes, and tolerated some mischievous behaviors. She tried to create a friendly and lovely context for students to enjoy the process of learning.

#### **4.2.2.2 Factor 2: Prior Teaching Experiences**

##### Being a tutor in a remedial program

Olivia joined another remedial program before, which also aimed to help

aboriginal students' academic performances. At that time, she tutored a female aboriginal student. She recalled that she learnt nothing and decided to challenge the big class from then on. Since her tutee did not pay attention to her instructions and sometimes would threaten to beat her up no matter how hard she tried, she felt frustrated and did not know what to do. She said that, "if I could teach a class, at least some students would like to listen to me. Then, I would not care about those who were not concentrated on my class too much. It would be better than one-to-one tutoring." (Formal Interview 1, April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2010). Her past teaching experience seemed to result in her high tolerance for students' bad manners and disciplines. Holding this thought, Olivia implemented lenient disciplines in class.

#### Teaching remedial courses in a public elementary school

While teaching the remedial course for middle school students, Olivia also taught a remedial course in a public elementary school at the same time. At the beginning of the semester, she implemented the similar teaching style and classroom management in the both teaching contexts. After several tries, she found that it did not work. That is, she could not use the same instruction in the two remedial courses. As she mentioned,

In the elementary school, students would like to open their mouth and speak English loudly; however, in the junior high school, the teenagers were reluctant to repeat English words and sentences after me. They had their self-esteem and were too shy to pronounce those awkward sounds. [.....] In the elementary school, if students used or played with their cell-phones in class, I would seize their cell-phones. They would not rebel against my discipline. Nevertheless, in the junior high school, if they did so, I did not dare to take their cell-phones away because they would contempt of my teaching and the classroom atmosphere would become tense. To encourage their learning motivation, I at first would use stickers as rewards for both elementary and middle school

students. In the elementary school, they all liked stickers and enthusiastically participated in my class while in the middle school they apathetically looked at me. I was so embarrassed at that time. Students told me that it was too childish after the class. (Formal Interview 1, April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

According to the interview with Olivia, she relied on her teaching experiences accumulated in the elementary school when she started to teach English in the remedial program. Later, she gained some understanding of the two teaching contexts and then modified her teaching methods and classroom managements to meet the teaching goals and students' needs in the two contexts. Also, after teaching English for a period in both remedial teaching contexts, she pointed out that these two teaching experiences provided her an insight of teaching. Students with different ages preferred different learning styles and expectations. She learned related theories in textbooks before, but she realized the differences from her practice. As a result, she maintained that, "I was the type of teacher that learnt how to teach from teaching accumulations instead of from theoretical research. In my current situation, I still could not apply those theories into my teaching well. I was a little bit overwhelmed." (Formal Interview 3, June 24<sup>th</sup>, 2010).

#### **4.2.2.3 Factor 3: Contextual Factors Including the Administrator, Colleagues, and Students**

The most major factors were contextual factors, which interwove teachers' cognition and further shaped what the teacher did in class. In Olivia's case, the administrator, colleagues, and students in the remedial course mainly influence her teaching.

In this remedial program, Olivia relied heavily on the administrator's assistance in her teaching goals and teaching practices. Since Olivia was a novice teacher in the

remedial program, she still got herself accustomed to the new environment and to the students. At the beginning of the semester, she did not get acquainted with students and struggled a lot with the classroom management. As a result, she usually discussed her classroom management and students' learning conditions with the administrator after the class. She hoped to find some solutions and support from the administrator. Most of time, the administrator shared her belief about teaching and disciplines. For example, the administrator often told Olivia not to use the same standard to teach students. For some students, attending class punctually and regularly was difficult, not to mention the fact that they needed to pay attention to her teaching. For some students, sitting in the classroom quietly was a hard task for them, not to mention the fact that they needed to get high scores on tests. Receiving the advices, Olivia started to use different aspects to request students' academic performances and behaviors.

In addition, she received emotional support from the administrator in the remedial program. For example, sometimes students got noisy throughout the class and were hard to control, Olivia started to doubt her way of classroom management, lost faith in her teaching, and then got exhausted after class. Then, the administrator would express her concerns to her and encourage her to think positively and to look at the students' advantages. After the communication, Olivia got comfort from the administrator, reflected her teaching, further detected both students' and her teaching problems, and was more well prepared for the next class.

Another factor that influenced Olivia's concepts of teaching was from her interaction with other teachers in the remedial program. Given that teaching aboriginal students in the remedial program was not an easy task for teachers, the administrator would hold meetings regularly for teachers to share their teaching experiences, discuss difficulties they encountered, and brainstorm better solutions for teaching. Olivia said that she benefited a lot from the sharing. During the meetings,

most teachers said that their class was very noisy and students could not pay attention to their teaching. Olivia had the same feelings and felt better when others shared their teaching experiences. Also, they shared some teaching methods, which could draw students' attention. For example, keeping students busy in class could reduce their noises and force them to pay attention to the class. Later, she tried to implement others' teaching strategies, such as fill-in-the-blank or asking students to write down answers on the blackboard in class. As she said, "I found that some instructions worked but some did not, so after the class, I tried to find the suitable teaching to meet my students' needs in the next class." (Informal Interview, April 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010). However, from the classroom observations, Olivia did modify her teaching materials based on her colleagues' suggestions at the beginning of the semester but later her teaching practices were mainly influenced by students' opinions and then stuck on the same pattern until the end of the semester.

In addition to the administrator and other colleagues' influences, Olivia also took students' needs and ideas into consideration when teaching. Through the whole semester, Olivia was easily influenced by students' suggestions and emotions. Since students thought that Olivia was not an authoritative teacher, they were willing to express their thoughts to her. For example, students recommended Olivia not to have a quiz on vocabulary with three different versions of textbooks because school teachers did not teach those words and school exams did not include those words. It would be a burden for them to memorize new words in the different textbooks. Accepting students' suggestions, Olivia gave up her insistence and finally adopted their opinions. Another example was that students showed no interest when she gave vocabulary instruction. After that, she decided to focus on grammar only in her class, which was against her prior belief that both grammar and vocabulary were equally important.

In terms of students' emotions, Olivia tried to build a warm and happy learning environment, which could enhance students' learning motivations and interests. As a result, she liked to distribute candies to each student and allow them to eat it in class which violated the regulation in the remedial program. As she claimed,

Since students were not allowed to eat or drink in the classroom; as a result, once they could eat candies here, they would be very happy. It was easier for me to attract their attention. Thus, I would not mind violating the rule. I would ask students to clean up the classroom, so it would not cause a big problem.

(Formal Interview 3, June 24<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

To create an interesting learning place, Olivia tried to implement different teaching strategies to arouse students' learning motivations. Moreover, Olivia found that her students were willing to answer her questions even though they did not know the answers, because of her encouragement. Her students were not afraid of answering questions. Students' positive responses reinforced Olivia's belief in loose disciplines and a happy learning atmosphere.

#### **4.2.2.4 Summary of Various Factors Formed Olivia's Teaching Cognition**

Olivia's past English learning experiences in the middle school had a major influence on her teaching. She emphasized grammar heavily in her class because of the exam-oriented instructions from her high school English teachers. However, since grammatical instruction was not interesting at all, she tried to create a relaxed and friendly classroom atmosphere by distributing candy, joke-telling, and high toleration.

Additionally, her teaching experiences played a significant role in her current teaching. Since she was a little bit overwhelmed by the theoretical methods about teaching instructions in textbooks, she learnt how to teach from the accumulated

experiences of teaching. The major influence from her previous teaching was the classroom management. She treated students leniently because she believed that the direct conflict between students and her did not benefit her teaching. During the data collection, she compared and comprehended her teaching methods from the two remedial classes in the elementary and junior high schools and then learned how to teach in the different contexts.

As a novice teacher in the institution, she got the affective and teaching support from the administrator and gained some efficient instructional methods from colleagues to teach aboriginal students. Furthermore, students' suggestions would make Olivia re-think and modify her instructions. As a result, in Olivia's class, those factors influenced her teaching and cognition.

#### **4.2.2 Olivia's Teaching Practices**

##### **4.2.3.1 Classroom Managements**

##### Establishing classroom routines and maintaining classroom disciplines

The data collection was Olivia's first year of teaching in the remedial program.

She

self-reported that she was overwhelmed by classroom management in the beginning of the semester. She said,

I felt that what was difficult was not coping with all of the teaching materials, but dealing with students' issues and giving lectures at the same time. How to discipline students' behaviors and attitudes in class were the major issues, which may influence my teaching practices and processes.

(Formal Interview 1, April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

Every time before the class started, Olivia started the routines of managing general

classroom businesses, such as checking the attendance of students, reporting the absence to the administrator, distributing worksheets to each student, preparing learning materials, and waiting for students' arrival. It usually took her at least fifteen minutes before starting her class. When students were late, she asked their reasons and advised them not to be late next time. As she mentioned,

I did not want to scold them because I did not want to ruin the classroom atmosphere. If they were angry at me for bringing attention to their behaviors and felt depressed, I was certainly sure that they would be unwilling to pay attention to my course. That was not my intention.

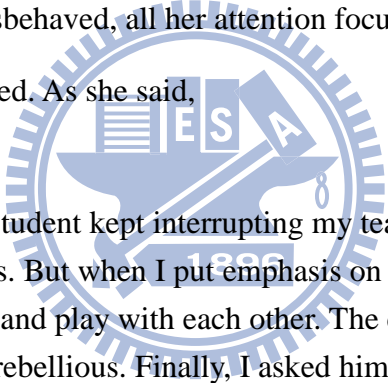
(Formal Interview 1, April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

Olivia tried to use soft management to influence her students' behaviors. However, the advices Olivia gave to students seemed seldom to show much effect until the end of the semester. For example, those students who tended to be in class late still made similar blunders. Once, when Olivia entered the classroom at 6:00pm, only two students out of the 12 showed up. She just sat there, waiting for other students' coming and talking to the two students about their daily life. During the period of time, one student left the classroom. At 6:05p.m., only one student and she were at the classroom. At 6:30 p.m., there were seven students in the class. Olivia decided to start her class. (Class Observation, April 28<sup>th</sup>, 2010). It was hard work for Olivia to discipline students to be punctual by using this type of lenient management. During the period of waiting, some students would take time to eat and drink in the classroom where the administrator did not allow students to eat dinner. Olivia did not discipline those manners, which were not allowed in the remedial program.

In addition to the classroom routines, Olivia was aware that classroom disciplines may influence her teaching and students' learning outcomes. She said that,



“students could not pay attention to my words if the class was noisy. Their learning outcomes would decrease. Also, if students spoke too loud, the noise would distract my attention on my teaching.” (After-class interview, April 28<sup>th</sup>, 2010). Therefore, Olivia tried her best to control the class. If students talked loudly or walked around the classroom, she always patiently reminded them, “Please stop talking. Please respect others. Some of you may want to study English. Don’t interrupt others’ learning.” (Class Observation, March 10<sup>th</sup>, 2010). “Go back to your seat. OK?” (Class Observation, May 5<sup>th</sup>, 2010). Sometimes, she would rearrange students’ seats to control the class. However, re-arrangement was seldom successful because students would beg the teacher not to do so. Then, Olivia would give them another chance. Once, when one student misbehaved, all her attention focused on that student and the rest of the class was neglected. As she said,



Today, a mischievous student kept interrupting my teaching. I decided to discipline his behaviors. But when I put emphasis on him, I found that other students started to talk and play with each other. The class was out of control. What’s worse, he was rebellious. Finally, I asked him to see the administrator immediately. You know, most students were afraid of her. Then, it worked. (After-class Interview, May 5<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

After one and half months of teaching in the remedial program, she felt that the classroom management was a tough task. Furthermore, she could not rely on the administrator all the time. To improve the learning environment, she thought that she ought to be firmer and more serious so that the class would not get out of control again. Nevertheless, most of the time, she ignored the noise and focused on her teaching instructions throughout the semester. As she said,

I knew students would like to talk in class. It was inevitable. I would not ask

them to be concentrated on my words all the time. For me, if students paid no attention to grammatical concepts, I did not mind. Because I knew they would encounter difficulties when they practiced exercises, I would like to teach them again. On the other hand, I would use different kinds of exercises to explain the same concept again and again so that they could learn the concept before the class dismissed. (Formal Interview 1, April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

Even though Olivia wanted to be strict to students in the middle of the semester, she still seldom harshly disciplined students' behaviors. She hoped that her teaching flow could be smooth. It wasted time if she needed to ask students not to talk as soon as she heard the voice. While teaching, she could tolerate noise. However, Olivia used to ask students to do exercises, and then she came to the mischievous students and warned them not to talk in class privately. Olivia thought that strict discipline did not guarantee high quality classroom management so she tended to maintain gentle discipline and manage a light classroom atmosphere.

#### Encouraging students' learning motivation

Olivia believed that students' language learning motivations were important and she was responsible for students' learning achievements. Compared to the students she taught in a public elementary school, those aboriginal students in the remedial course had low interests in her class and were not willing to answer her questions. As she stated,

I found that students were afraid of reading and speaking English. The reason that they did not want to study English was because they lacked confidence in learning English. I thought that getting good grades could help them find their confidence back. With enough confidence, they could have high learning motivation in language learning. (Formal Interview 1, April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

To enhance students' grades, Olivia designed worksheets from three different versions of textbooks for every class. She said that, "some students told me that worksheets helped them learn English easier. Also, they liked doing worksheets with clear instructions and lots of exercises, so I tried to design well-organized worksheets with clear formats." (Formal Interview 1, April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2010). In addition to preparation of systematic worksheets, she tried to divide grammatical structures into several parts, which made it easier for students to understand grammatical rules and for her to explain materials step by step. Then, different types of drills, such as fill-in, multiple choices, and translations would accompany immediately. When reviewing exercises, Olivia often explained grammar explicitly to make sure that most students acquired the rules. For Olivia, this was an effective way for students to learn because of students' positive feedback. Also, every time, when students got better grades on exams, this proved that her teaching method did work.

In addition to the systematic worksheets and instructions, Olivia in particular designed worksheets for low-achievers in class. As she stated,

Some students were not concentrating on my teaching. The reason may be that they could not understand what I taught. They would sleep in class, play games, and listen to music on their cell phones. I observed that phenomenon. I did not like my students coming to my class, sitting there and procrastinating. Even so, I would not force them to study because I did not want to ruin our relationship and classroom atmosphere. After teaching a few classes, I came up with some strategies which could at least let them do something about learning in my class. I started to design vocabulary puzzles which aimed to help students get exposure to English and memorize some words.

(After-classroom interview, April 28<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

Olivia tried different teaching methods with the hope to motivate her students' interest in English learning.

In terms of classroom management, she encouraged students to participate in the classroom. As she knew, many students hated English because they lacked confidence and were frustrated with low scores they got at school. In the remedial course, she used many teaching methods and strategies to help them learn English and develop their confidence and interests in English. Example 4.6 and example 4.7 showed how Olivia encouraged students to learn English.

#### Example 4.6

T: 聽不懂嗎?真的假的!你們學校教過嗎?

(Did you understand that grammatical structure? Really! Did you learn it at school?)

S: 我想睡覺 ( I almost fell asleep.)

(Olivia gave the vocabulary puzzle to the student.)

S: 老師，我們學校老師已經放棄我了! 我不想做這個

(My school English teacher had already given me up. I did not want to do that.)

T: 我還沒放棄你啊! (I had not given up!)

(Classroom Observation, May 19<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

#### Example 4.7

(During the class session, Olivia gave students candy. Those who answered questions could get more. She also gave candy to the student who was sleeping.)

S: 老師，你給我糖果是爲了怕我睡著嗎?

(Why did you give it to me? Preventing me from sleeping again? )

T: 對! (Yes!)

(Classroom Observation, June 9<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

Instead of blaming these students, Olivia used encouraging strategies to treat students' misbehaviors. As she mentioned,

My intention to give him candy was not to correct his misbehavior. I just wanted to let them know that attending my class and learning English were not boring and difficult. Also, I would not dislike you and label you as a bad student based

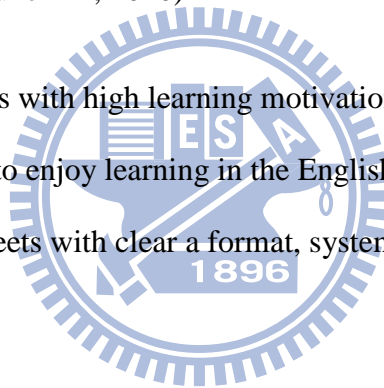
on your behaviors and scores. (Formal Interview 3, June 24<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

Moreover, Olivia gave students a lot of opportunities to get involved in the learning context. For example, she provided different patterns of questions from easy to difficult and asked students to write their answers on the blackboard. Then, students and Olivia worked together to correct answers together. From peer-corrections, students' comprehensions could be reinforced. As one of the students in her class said,

At school, I dared not to reply to teachers' questions because if I answered wrong, my classmates all teased me. I did not like that kind of feeling. In Olivia's class, I could have lots of tries until giving correct answers. She was always patient to our mistakes. I felt comfortable in her class.

(Students' interview, June 21<sup>st</sup>, 2010)

Olivia believed that students with high learning motivations could learn better. In order to assist her students to enjoy learning in the English field, she used a lot of methods, including worksheets with clear a format, systematic teaching, and encouragements.



### Building rapport relationship trust

In the beginning of the semester, believing that developing a close relationship with students was as an important aspect of classroom management, Olivia cared about her students a lot. She was not an authoritative teacher. Every time before the class started, Olivia would listen to her students' talking about their lives and share snacks or her dinner with her students. From classroom observations, she paid attention to each student's life, friendship, and learning. For example, she nicknamed a boy as Auntie based on the male student's personality in the middle of the semester. The student was not angry at the nickname. Instead, he was very happy because he thought it indicated that he and the teacher became good friends. He loved Olivia and

her teaching very much after getting along with her. So, he did not mind this nickname. (Classroom Observation, April 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010).

Although students were still noisy and were not able to concentrate in class, they gradually regarded Olivia as part of their group and started to trust her. One day, two students showed their dancing competition videos on their cell phones to Olivia. (Classroom Observation, June 9<sup>th</sup>, 2010). Since cell phones were regarded as the second life to middle school students, the event indicated that students trusted the teacher. Because of the reliance, students were encouraged to ask questions, even some simple questions in class. They were not afraid of making mistakes because they knew Olivia would tolerate them.

From classroom observations and interviews, it was found that the interaction between students and the teacher was based on mutual trust. Before teaching in the remedial program, she thought that being strict and stern was necessary to manage her class. However, her practice did not reveal this cognition. Instead, she was seen by students as their friend who they felt free to ask questions in class and could turn to when they had personal problems. She said, “I was aware of being a leader to control over students, but I observed that my teaching practice was not consistent with what I wanted to be at the beginning of this semester. Instead of being authoritative, I was more like their friend who cared about their worries and guided their learning softly.” (Formal Interview 2, June 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010). Olivia’s classroom was full of laughter and happiness.

#### **4.2.3.2 Enactment of Curriculum**

##### Teaching Objectives

As Olivia followed the textbooks, her aim of teaching was mainly to help students understand the vocabulary and grammar in the textbook. In terms of

language skills, she emphasized the grammatical rules and prepared many exercises for students to facilitate their language capabilities and further enhance their grades on exams. She thought that, “once students got good scores, they could have more confidence and interest in language learning.” (Formal Interview 1, April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2010). On the other hand, students in Olivia’s class were from different junior high school, which used different types of textbooks in each school. To deal with three different types of textbook versions, she, based on her knowledge and prior learning experiences, selected main grammatical rules and vocabulary for students to learn. As she mentioned,

There were three textbook versions with different foci for each lesson, but all students would learn those grammatical rules sooner or later. So, my work was to integrate and re-organize those for my students.  
(Formal Interview 2, June 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010)

In her class, she required students to memorize words she picked up and to understand grammatical rules.

### Lesson Planning

Before the semester started, Olivia roughly planed her course. She wrote down the dates of the students’ school exams and arranged her teaching syllabus. As she said,

In the first semester, I did not do so. Once, the administrator advised me that I could design my course in advance so that I could pace my teaching to meet students’ exams. I found that it was useful. Because this was my first time teaching junior high school students, I did not comprehend what grammatical rules they needed to learn. Through this way, I could have a whole picture about their textbooks. (Formal Interview 2, June 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010)

In Olivia's lesson plans she did not write down detailed lesson plans and activities because she thought that she did not have much time and may alter her activities based on students' learning situations in the prior class.

### Worksheet Designing

The worksheets Olivia designed were usually based on the textbooks and English learning websites. She claimed that the layouts of the worksheets must be clear and simple, enabling students to learn English easily and efficiently. One to two grammatical rules with fill-in blanks allowed students to write down the rules by themselves. Then, simple sentence examples of the grammar were followed to enhance students' understanding of the grammar. Finally, all various drills were implemented to review the concept introducing in class. In the last page of the worksheets, words with three textbook versions were offered, respectively. For Olivia, this kind of arrangement of the worksheet was useful for students' language learning.

#### **4.2.3.3 Classroom Instructions**

##### Instruction 1: Grammar-focused teaching

In practice, Olivia adopted a more traditional way to teach grammar. In her class, she spent nearly the whole class time emphasizing sentence structures. She preferred to arrange sentences by dividing them into pieces, giving rules, and providing short sentences for students to practices (see Appendix I). Secondly, she mainly used Chinese as the medium of instruction and devoted most of time translating words and sentences into Chinese (see Appendix J). In the worksheets, she always provided Chinese translations for English sentences. Olivia spent the whole class hour discussing worksheets that contained grammatical rules and various drills. She believed that teaching students grammatical rules step by step would help them learn



sentence structures. Through the intensive practices, students could connect grammar with the concrete language use.

### Instruction 2: Repetitious practices

After the explicit grammar instructions, Olivia usually provided many drills including fill-in, multiple choices, error corrections, substitution, and Chinese-English translations for students to practice. To raise students' willingness to do drills and to promote an active classroom-learning atmosphere, she offered various candies as rewards. When students did exercises by themselves, they asked Olivia those unknown words in the worksheets and she was willing to tell them those answers. As she said,

Since students did not memorize many words, it was hard for them to read the questions or translate sentences. With the teacher and peers' assistance, students could have patience to try to answer the questions. Otherwise, if you did not tell them those keywords, they would give up easily and lack interest.  
(Formal Interview 2, June 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010)

Example 4.8 showed how Olivia assisted students to finish drills.

#### Example 4.8

(After Olivia introduced the sentence structure, that-clause, students were doing Chinese-English translations and were assigning to write down their answers on the blackboard.)

S1: “贏得那場比賽”怎麼說？(How to say “win that game”?)

T : “win that game” (Write down on the blackboard)

S2: “花了”怎麼寫？(How to say “spent”?)

T : spend on

S2: “一萬元”怎麼寫？ (How to say “ten thousand dollars”?)

T : .....

S3: 10 個 1000 啊！(Ten thousand la!)

(Classroom Observation, May 19<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

As shown from the examples above, Olivia provided students keywords when they met problems. Sometimes, the students who knew answers assisted others. Also, when she reviewed the questions, she grasped her worksheets with answer keys tightly and provided only one correct sentence for students. That is, she merely translated the meanings of words and sentences into Chinese. She did not read the sentences again. Once, she only spoke five English sentences throughout the class (Classroom observation, May 5<sup>th</sup>, 2010). It showed that she indeed put emphasis on grammar and vocabulary instructions in her teaching.

### Instruction 3: Group discussion

In addition to individual work, Olivia sometimes tried to use different teaching methods, such as group discussions to trigger students' learning motivations. She observed that most aboriginal students in the remedial course were not willing to participate in class and had low academic achievement; therefore, she changed her teaching from teacher-centered to student-centered. She hoped that students could discuss and find out answers together through peer-assistance. In the class, she divided students into two groups based on students' preferences and had competitive games from modified language drills, which caused the students to become more willing to answer questions in order to get scores and win rewards. As she reported,

My intention for doing the group work was to help those who did not pay attention to the class. Through group work, students could discuss, cooperate, and figure out answers with their classmates more or less. If they knew the answers and wrote these down on the blackboard, this would be a positive encouragement for them. Also, the repetitious drills were boring, so by this way, students would like to repeat the same sentence pattern.

(After-classroom Interview, April 28<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

Most of the time, Olivia's teaching was teacher-centered which gave students few opportunities to acquire grammatical rules by themselves. By group work, the teaching shifted to students-centered which could enhance students' learning motivations and their learning outcomes.

#### Instruction 4: Assessment

Although Olivia did not teach vocabulary in class, she still thought that vocabulary was one of the basic parts in English learning. In each unit, she selected some important vocabulary items that she wanted students to memorize and gave weekly vocabulary quizzes in the last fifteen minutes of the last session. When giving quizzes, she always spoke both English words and its corresponding Chinese meanings for students. She thought that it was much easier for students to answer questions. Throughout the classroom observations, Olivia never forced students to join in vocabulary quizzes. As she mentioned,

If the students did not prepare for quizzes, it was useless for me to insist on them participating in the exam. They would not write any words down; instead, they would give me back the blank paper.

(After-classroom observation, May 5<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

She held the belief that encouragement was better than force. She liked to implement soft teaching, which made students' learn.

#### **4.2.3.4 Summary of Olivia's Teaching Implementation**

As a novice teacher, Olivia often reflected on her teaching after class and modified her teaching practices to meet the remedial context. She planned her lessons before the class. She tried to manage a warm and relaxed learning environment for

students in order to motivate their learning interests. She distributed candy and rewards to students every class and she used to do individual instruction and encourage students to practice exercises by themselves without fear. As for the teaching objectives, she emphasized grammatical patterns and repetitious exercises. The focus was to help students get high scores on exams at school. She believed that once students got good grades, their learning motivations may be triggered and they would be willing to learn English.



## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, the two teachers' teaching cognition and practices are discussed to address the three research questions. Then, the study is concluded by a brief summary of the study findings, pedagogical implications, limitations, and suggestions for future research.

#### **5.1 Discussion**

The findings of the current study are discussed to address the three research questions framed of the study.

##### **5.1.1 Question 1: How do the two teachers form their cognition of English teaching in the remedial program?**

Researchers have indicated that teachers' cognition and personal experiences of teaching and learning would have a strong impact on their classroom practices (Borg, 2003; Tsui, 2003). The result of the study revealed that teachers' prior learning and teaching experiences strongly influenced their teaching cognition and practices. According to the findings, there were three themes discovered, including teachers' prior learning experiences, prior teaching experiences, and professional coursework.

##### **5.1.1.1 Prior Learning Experiences**

Several studies have proved that teachers learn about teaching from their learning experiences in schools. As Lortie (1975) referred, "apprenticeship of observation". Both English teachers were prone to trace back to their past learning experiences when teaching English in the remedial program.

Ron comprehended all of his education in France. He had no prior knowledge of

Taiwanese educational system. Olivia; however, was educated in Taiwan throughout her life. Their different educational backgrounds influenced their teaching cognition and practices. For example, Ron believed language should be learned and taught as a whole. Although Olivia learned this from her professional coursework, in the remedial program she mainly put emphasis on grammar and vocabulary in her class. Therefore, she modified her teaching practices. The change of Olivia's practices might stem from the social expectation that academic performances usually symbolized successes as well as chances and from the educational context that grammar and vocabulary were still the two main elements on school and entrance examinations. For Olivia, the way to assist students to get higher scores was from cramming. On the contrary, due to Ron's comparative unfamiliarity with Taiwanese educational contexts, he relied on his prior learning experiences and formed his own language teaching.

The two cases indicated that teachers from different countries seem to have a different understanding of Taiwan's educational system. Their cultures shape their thinking, giving them different interpretations of teaching goals of the remedial program in Taiwan. Ron's teaching seemed not match the goals and Olivia's did. She took social expectations and educational contexts into consideration while choosing her teaching methods. Using this point of view, the study found two issues that whether foreign teachers were proper to serve as English teachers in the remedial program and that whether foreign teachers were needed to receive teaching training before they entered in a teaching context. The first is whether foreign teachers were proper to serve as English teachers in the remedial program and the second was whether foreign teachers needed to receive teaching training before they entered in a teaching context.

### **5.1.1.2 Prior Teaching Experiences**

Previous studies have indicated that the major difference between experienced and novice teachers lie in the instruction implementations in accordance with their cognition. Experienced teachers' prior teaching experiences may influence their current teaching and allow them to anticipate instructional issues and students' problems while novice teachers tend to use their learning experiences more to envision difficulties and have trouble thinking about learning issues from students' perspectives (Borg, 2006; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999).

From the accumulation of English teaching for six years, Ron found that what aboriginal students needed in the remedial program was disciplines. In his class, disciplines outweighed learning and grades during the data collection time. In contrast, Olivia highly emphasized grades at the beginning of the semester, but later she found that spending much time on handling her class was necessary for smooth teaching and efficiently learning in the remedial program. Compared with her class in the elementary school, she found that students in the remedial program lacked the sense of security so that they kept the distance from teachers before they and teachers had mutual understanding and trust. It was found that their past teaching experiences explained why they held their teaching cognition and reflected by their teaching practices. Also, Olivia's case seemed to imply that novice teachers lacked ability to transfer or modify their teaching practices into different teaching contexts.

### **5.1.1.3 Professional Coursework**

Ron did not receive professional training in language teaching prior to or during the study. He implemented his teaching based on his past learning and teaching experiences. On the contrary, Olivia had trained to be an English teacher for three years. In Olivia's case, she stated that her prior professional training had little impact

on her teaching in the real class. According to Borg, professional preparation did shape trainees' cognition; however, if programs ignored trainee's prior beliefs, the training may be less effective at influencing teachers' cognitive development.

Interviews and classroom observations revealed that Olivia lacked the ability to link theories into practical contexts. She often considered students' needs as the top priority in her teaching. When designing worksheets, she traced back to her past learning experiences and stuck in grammar-oriented instructions, which seemed to violate her prior teaching cognition. It seemed that the professional training she received failed to help her realize the contextual change. Olivia's case echoed some researchers' assertion that professional coursework may not have a major impact on teachers' cognitive development due to the short duration of the course training, teachers' knowledge of professional courses, teachers' concerns for achieving continuity in lessons, and the association with teachers' prior learning cognition (Almarza, 1996; Farrell, 1999; Kagan, 1992; Richard, Ho, & Ciblin, 1996). As Johnson (1997) contended, "Teacher educators should provide teachers with opportunities to make sense of theory by filtering it through experiential knowledge gained as teachers and learners." (p.780)

The study is showed that for successful professional coursework, it is vital to examine teachers' cognition, looking into what teachers believe teaching methodologies can bring to the classroom and how they can be integrated.

### **5.1.2 Question 2: How do the two teachers' cognition interweave with classroom practices?**

In this study, the two English teachers were found to realize many teaching cognition in their teaching practices in the remedial program. Johnson (1994) argued that teachers' beliefs could be observed from their teaching practices. In this study, it



is found that the two teachers held various teaching cognition in their teaching practices, and revealed how the two English teachers' cognition interwove with their teaching practices.

In Ron's case, he held the same teaching cognition throughout the data collection semester. His cognition was found to dominate his teaching practices. Olivia's teaching cognition was heavily influenced by her teaching practices. She often modified her teaching practices to match the situated contexts. Since Ron had taught English for six years, his cognition was formed rigidly from his past learning and teaching experiences, teaching contexts, and social contexts.

In contrast, this was Olivia's first year of teaching, so she was still forming ideas about how to be an English teacher. Her frequent modification of her teaching practices showed that her prior teaching cognition was affected by the remedial context. As Borg (2003) indicated, experienced teachers have developed rich knowledge and well-established routines about how to conduct their courses and manage their classrooms while novice teachers lacked instructional knowledge and well-rehearsed routines, which lead teaching difficulties including keeping students' attention and having a smooth teaching flow. The two teachers' cases seem to support the assertion and showed that a teachers' cognitive development was affected by their teaching practices.

### **5.1.3 Question 3: How do contextual factors influence the two teachers' cognition and practices in the remedial program?**

Connelly and Clandinin (1985) contended that a teachers' knowledge was the reflection of an individual's previous experiences and of knowledge constructions and reconstructions through different situations. More specifically, the knowledge a teacher developed was through the process of teaching, conflict, and reflection to

solve the problems occurring in the particular course with regards to the classroom context. Leinhardt (1988) referred this knowledge as “situated knowledge” which focused on how teachers developed their cognition in specific context where they operated. In this study, contextual factors, namely the general goals of remedial education, the influences of the remedial program, and students’ participation, were found to be influential to the teachers’ cognition and teaching practices.

### **5.1.3.1 The General Goals of Remedial Education**

Recently, the MOE and many foundations carried out the remedial education to minimize the large gap between high achievers and low achievers in secondary education after the implementation of the Nine-year Integrated Curriculum (Chen, 2008; Chen, & Yu, 2004; Hsu, & Chen, 2007). With the goals of the MOE in mind, teachers in the remedial program used different teaching methods to increase the equality of educational opportunities for disadvantaged minorities and improve their learning outcomes.

Ron’s teaching goal was to increase the equality of aboriginal students’ educational opportunities. He set the goal as his teaching top priority, which seemed to be less influenced by the educational context. However, in Olivia’s class, she thought that her responsibility was to help students get higher grades on school exams than they used to get before. Her teaching goals seemed to match the goals set by the remedial education program. Compared with Ron, Olivia seemed that she concerned about school work and students’ grades more than Ron. Even though Ron had taught English in Taiwan for six years, he previously did not pay much attention to the remedial education goals and social expectations. From the classroom observations, it found that Olivia was deeply influenced by the social values in Taiwan. This condition may influence her teaching, and hinder her from analyzing students’ learning

difficulties, and students' learning outcomes.

### **5.1.3.2 The Influences of the Remedial Program**

The remedial program aimed to help aboriginal students get into school contexts, enhance their academic performances, and discipline students' behaviors. Both Ron and Olivia kept those goals in mind while implementing various teaching methods.

Ron was more familiar with the goals than Olivia because of his extensive previous teaching experiences and his role as one of the chairmen in the remedial program. His full understanding of the operation of the remedial program and his involvement in the goal establishment helped him carry out goals set by the remedial program successfully. On the other hand, Olivia, teaching English for her first semester, met several conflicts among her students and the remedial program's goals. Olivia spent some time getting used to the remedial context by herself. The two cases showed that experienced teachers were able to tactically and efficiently handle classroom events and teaching contexts while novice teachers set their own criteria for success in teaching and learning (Tsui, 2003).

In addition to familiarity with the goals of the remedial program, the results found that teachers' statuses and empowerment in the remedial program also influenced their teaching cognition and practices. Unlike Ron, Olivia was hired by the administrator. She often felt uncomfortable to express her own opinions. Therefore, in her teaching practices, she made many compromises and tried to find a balance among the remedial program, students, and her goals.

Ron and Olivia had a different status in the remedial program, which influenced their interaction with the administrator and other colleagues. Ron was one of the chairmen in the remedial program, so he usually possessed more power than the administrator did. Due to his two roles in the remedial program, he shifted his roles

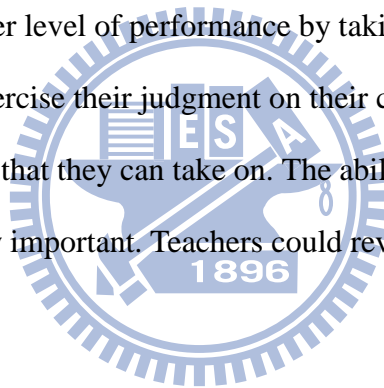
from English teacher to chairman when he discussed students' issues or the operation of the remedial program with the administration. He seldom shared his teaching with his colleagues. The lack of interaction with his colleagues may have hindered his cognitive development.

By contrast, Olivia, a novice teacher, heavily depended on the administrator and her colleagues' advice because she was afraid of being criticized. Moreover, the frequent interaction with them also limited her teaching practices. However, at the same time, Olivia was teaching elementary students in a public school, where she had high levels of autonomy over many issues of classroom instructions and management. Olivia's case showed that she was highly influenced by the teaching subculture setting. The subculture, according to Pachter (1991), represents reasonably consistent views about the role of the teacher, the nature of their subject, the way it should be taught and expectations of the students' learning. Olivia's case shows that a teachers' cognition and practices may be affected by the subculture and a teacher empowerment might be deprived in the employer-employee relationship teaching context.

### **5.1.3.3 Students' Participation**

Before teaching the 7<sup>th</sup> graders in 2010, Ron hoped that students could speak out English naturally and spontaneously, so he created an authentic language learning environment in his class. From the classroom observations and interviews with Ron's students, it is found that students' participations did not match Ron's teaching expectations. However, Ron attributed classroom atmosphere and poor grades to students' laziness. On the other hand, Olivia adjusted herself to her students' learning conditions and was sensitive to their preferences. As a result, in her class, the learning atmosphere was warm and the relationship between Olivia and her students was supportive.

From the two cases, it indicated that Ron, as an experienced teacher with no professional training, tended to stick to his own teaching styles and seldom reassessed his teaching objectives. Olivia, as a novice teacher with professional training from TESOL, often responded to students' needs by modifying her teaching plans and goals. The difference between Ron and Olivia was that Olivia responded positively to problems by seeing them as good opportunities for her to improve her teaching. Her teaching seemed to be more flexible than Ron's teaching. When Ron faced difficulties, he tried to minimize problems, which hindered further development in his teaching ability. In line with Tsui's (2003), the critical differences between experienced teachers and novice teachers are about whether they are able to reinvest their mental resources to achieve a higher level of performance by taking on challenges and whether they are able to exercise their judgment on their current level of competence and the kinds of challenges that they can take on. The ability of facing the challenges and resolving them are very important. Teachers could revitalize their teaching career.



The two teachers' cases in the remedial program reveal that both experienced and novice teachers' cognition and practices are relevant to their teaching contexts. Using Borg's framework, the study indicated the three domains, which influence a language teachers' cognition and practices. However, Borg's framework only contains the broad themes, which do not clearly explain teachers' complex teaching cognition and practices. This study adds subcategories, which stem from data to further specify teacher's cognitive development. Furthermore, the results from this study also claim that teacher training should encompass more courses related to remedial education, which could improve pre-service and in-service teachers' cognition and practices.

## 5.2 Conclusion

In the last part of this chapter, the major findings of the study are summarized. Then, pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research are provided.

### 5.2.1 Summary of the Study

This paper adopted a case study approach to explore two English teachers' teaching cognition, practices, and their embedded contextual factors influencing the relations between the cognition and practices in the remedial program. Borg's framework (2006) was adopted as the underlying theoretical and analytical framework to figure out the complexity of teacher mental lives. In the framework, three major factors were proposed to influence teachers' cognitive development in real classroom practices, including cognition and prior language learning experience, cognition and teacher education, and cognition and classroom practice. This study aimed to elicit the two English teachers' cognition, practices, and the contextual factors. Moreover, the study also examined how the two English teachers' cognition were formed and how the two English teachers' teaching practices interwove with their cognition in the remedial program. Data were collected from multiple data sources, including formal and informal interviews with two targeted teachers, their students, and the administrator), weekly classroom observations, and teaching documents (e.g. syllabus, handouts, and supplementary materials).

The results of this current study revealed that the two English teachers held not only different cognition and knowledge concerning language teaching and learning but also different interpretations of their own teaching. The individual differences reflecting in their teaching practices seemed to be relatively influential to their teaching cognition. As Borg (2006) suggests, teachers' schooling has great impact on

their cognition. As revealed in this study, the two teachers' language learning and teaching experiences played a significant role in their decision-making to their teaching practice.

In addition to the two English teachers' schooling and professional knowledge, contextual factors from the situated remedial program also influenced the two teachers' cognition and teaching practices. In the remedial program, the experienced teacher had fewer influences than the novice teacher from the context because experienced teachers were able to handle classroom events and teaching contexts. Also, they had more power to decide curriculum as well as courses. On the other hand, novice teachers needed time to get into the context. During this period, teachers relied greatly on the administrator and his colleagues' suggestions and opinions. Furthermore, she regarded students' responses and academic performances as major references for their teaching modifications and cognitive reflections.

### **5.2.2 Pedagogical Implications**

The findings of this study suggest several pedagogical implications. First, the results of the study suggest that teachers' roles in teaching contexts may influence their teaching cognition and practices. According to Borg's framework (2006), he concluded that factors which may affect teachers' cognitive development could be separated into three main domains, including schooling, professional trainings, and contextual factors. However, within the contextual factors, Borg did not further clarify this term. The current study found that the two English teachers' roles influenced their teaching practices in the remedial program. Experienced teachers who have more power in the teaching contexts tend to follow their own teaching instructions and seldom reflect what they teach while the novice teachers who have less power try to have a balance between their teaching cognition, practices and the remedial program's

goals. Novice teachers were prone to modify their teaching instructions at the beginning of the teaching period.

Second, experienced and novice teachers' different learning backgrounds and teaching experiences influenced different instructions they implemented in the remedial program and courses. For experienced teachers, they often seem to successfully accomplish teaching tasks, anticipate upcoming problems, and then deal with problems with confidence. On the other hand, novice teachers easily get lost and doubted themselves whether their teaching is suitable for students in the specific context and continually modify their teaching and classroom management. Because they lack enough competence to apply professional training into the field of remedial courses efficiently, they mostly rely heavily on others' assistances to overcome both teaching and learning problems and to avoid tension between students and her. This study showed that mentor teachers should offer to teachers who teach remedial courses in the beginning of their careers. Tsui (2003) indicated that it was important for mentor teachers to lead student teachers into the teaching field during the teaching practicum. Through such training, novice teachers would have less trouble when starting in the teaching field and would have more confidence in believing that they could lead a new class.

Third, according to the findings, the contexts where teachers were situated were the most significant factor that could either facilitate or hinder teachers' classroom practices. One of the concerns revealed in this study was the different goals set by the remedial program, the administrator, and each teacher). To solve this issue, it is suggested that remedial programs and administrators should understand more about teachers' needs and give full support to teachers' instructions and decision-making in class. Furthermore, students' slow progress in their academic performances is another concern in this current study because teachers, under parents and educators' high



expectations, would feel pressure and are obliged to teach only what was included on exams, and catch up to the public schools' progress, thus causing the teaching to become exam-orientation. Students have hard time learning so fast and they are sacrificed again. Therefore, this study suggests that parents and educators should recognize that the implementation of remedial courses for underachievers and minorities is worth it in the long run.

### **5.2.3 Limitations of the Study**

Three limitations were observed in this study. First, the data was collected in the classroom, which may limit data interpretations. In this study, two targeted teachers had interactions with the administrator, colleagues, and students out of classroom. Thus, documenting those out-of-the-classrooms observations was important for the research because those interactions may reveal teachers' anticipation of students' learning needs and their decision-making in class that were ordinarily hidden in the classroom. Second, the data collection time of the two cases was limited to only one semester-long period. When the researcher collected data, it was the second semester of the year when Ron had already taught the same class for one semester. For Olivia, it was her first semester to teach this class so she had a lot of significant changes during the data collections. Therefore, it assumed that the time period for data collections should be prolonged a complete year, which may reveal more changes in teachers' cognition and practices. Third, the role of the researcher might have imparted certain influence on the data interpretations for each participant. During the data collection, the researcher was teaching English in the same remedial program as Ron and Olivia did. Also, the researcher and Olivia studied in the same graduate school where Olivia was a senior. Thus, it was inevitable that the researcher might hold initial impressions on the participants, which may influence the data

interpretations because of their familiarity with her.

#### **5.2.4 Suggestions for Future Research**

The study investigated English teachers' teaching cognition and practices in the remedial program. The results provide insights into factors influencing teachers' decision-making in their teaching practice.

First, since the study only collected data in the second semester of an academic year, the two teachers' cognition in the first semester were undetected during the data collection period. It is unknown how the two teachers' cognition had changed when more teaching experiences were accumulated. Longitudinal studies were suggested to be conducted to observe the possible cognitive changes of experienced and novice teachers and explore factors attributing to the changes.

Second, since this study recruit both English teachers with diverse teaching educational backgrounds; recruiting participants with similar professional training can gain more understanding about the interplay between the teacher cognition and teacher professional training. Future research may find it significant to include experienced and novice teachers who receiving similar professional teacher training in the remedial program.

Third, because this study only focused on the remedial program held by a private institution, future research may conduct remedial programs in private and public school systems to investigate how different remedial contexts may influence teacher cognition and practices.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix A

#### Consent Form for Teachers

Dear Teachers,

As you know, I am a graduate student majoring in TESOL in National Chung Tung University. As a graduate student and English teacher of aboriginal students, I have the opportunity to get more understanding of their situation. Thus, I have come up with a research question that I would like to know how English teachers relate to their students in their classroom practice such as the prior learning and teaching experiences, professional backgrounds, contextual factors and so forth. I, sincerely, invited you to take part in my study and I would like to describe this study to you in detail. I hope that you will be interested in working with me on this study.

There are three parts to my research: the classroom observations, the semi-structured interviews, and the document collections.

1. The classroom observation:

It will be proceeded once a week from March/ April to June in order to understand how the English teachers interact with their students and the classroom practice.

2. The interview:

It will be conducted about three times to obtain the English teachers' interpretations of their own classroom practices. If you agree, I would like to audio-tape the interview so that I will be able to examine your comments later.

3. The document collection:

Documents including handouts, worksheets, and other teaching materials will be gathered as supplementary materials for analysis.

In this study, you may be worried that something you write or say may be used against you or misunderstood. So, I will never use your own name and all the information I collect is for the academic purpose. I will protect your privacy. In addition, you can leave the study at any time if you feel uncomfortable. I believe that you will find this study interesting and enjoying. If you want to know the result, I will provide it for you at the end of the study. If you have any problems or questions, please contact me.

★ Contact information

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Sincerely,

SHU-HUA SHIH

=====

Participant's consent

I have read the information provided in this Informed Consent Form. In addition, I understand that I can leave the study at any time. I agree to take part in this study.

Your name \_\_\_\_\_

Your signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix B

### Interview Questions for Formal Interview 1

#### A. Biographical information

1. Name:
2. Gender:
3. Nationality:
4. Date of birth:
5. Place of birth:
6. Educational background:
7. Job:

#### B. Language background

1. What is your mother tongue (native language)?
2. Did you study any foreign languages?
3. When, how and where did you learn the foreign languages?
4. What do you recall about these lessons?
  - a. What kinds of methods were used?
  - b. Do you recall whether you enjoyed such lessons or not?
5. Did you feel that your own education as a student has had any influence on the way you teach today?

#### C. The profession and development as a teacher

1. How and why did you become an EFL teacher?
  - a. Do you have any teaching experiences before teaching in Chu Tung (竹東)?
  - b. If yes, what was the subject and to whom?

- c. Were these particularly positive or negative?
  - d. What kinds of teaching methods and materials did you use?
2. Can you talk about your formal teacher training experiences? (for TESOL one)
  3. How long have you taught in Chu Tung?
  4. Can you talk about the overall teaching experience in Chu Tung?
  5. Did you feel that your previous teaching experiences have had any influence on the way you teach in Chu Tung?
  6. What are your motivations / reasons of being an English teacher of aboriginal students?



## Appendix C

### Interview Questions for Formal Interview 2

#### A. Teacher's perspective on language itself

1. Do you consider it important to learn English? Why or why not?
2. What does language (English) mean to you?
3. Do you think it is important to speak English with native-like pronunciation?
4. In your opinion, what are the most important aspects of learning English?  
(pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, interests)

#### B. Teacher's perspective on language learning

1. What are the best ways to learn a language?
2. In your opinion, what are the most important aspects of learning English for your students? (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, interests)
3. How would you motivate your students' interests in learning English?
4. What kind of attitude students hold do you prefer?
5. How do you identify students' learning problems?

#### C. Teacher's perspective on language teaching

1. Based on your knowledge or learning experience, what is good language teaching?
2. What are the most important aspects of teaching?  
(language learning, classroom management, student's affective domain)
3. In your opinion, what are the most important aspects of teaching English?  
(pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, interests)
4. How do you see your role in the classroom?

5. How do you design your lesson plan before class?
6. How do you design your worksheet? Do you have any rationale when designing it?
7. How do you deal with students with different textbook versions in the class?
8. How do you deal with students with different language proficiency in your classroom?
9. What teaching methods do you implement in your classroom?
10. How would you improve your teaching techniques?
11. How do you assess student's learning?
12. What is your approach to classroom management?

**D. Teacher's perspective on the teaching context**

1. How do you see the administrator's role in the classroom?
2. How do you interact with the administrator?
3. How do you interact with students' parents?

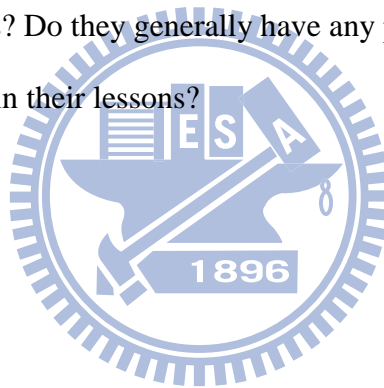
Do you think that students' background (identity, family, school) would influence your teaching instruction? Do you modify your teaching to meet students' needs?

## Appendix D

### Interview Questions for Formal Interview 3

#### A. Reflections on teaching

1. What do you feel the most satisfying aspect of teaching EFL is, and what is the hardest part of the job?
2. What do you feel your strengths as an EFL teacher are, and your weaknesses?
3. Can you describe one particularly good experience you have had as an EFL teacher, and one particularly bad one? What is your idea of a “successful” lesson?
4. Do you have any preferences in terms of the types of students you like to teach? What about the students? Do they generally have any preferences about the kind of work they like to do in their lessons?



## Appendix E

### Interview Questions for Student Interview

#### A. Teacher instruction:

1. 老師教的你聽的懂嗎?
2. 你喜歡老師上課幫你準備的講義嗎? 為什麼?
3. 你喜歡這個老師的上課方式嗎?
4. 老師說話(上課講解)你聽的懂嗎?
5. 在你心目中, 你覺得什麼樣子才是好的老師呢?

#### B. Classroom atmosphere

1. 你最喜歡這堂課的那個部份?
2. 你最不喜歡這堂課的那個部份?
3. 你最喜歡這個老師的哪個部分?
4. 你最不喜歡這個老師的哪個部分?



#### C. Learning outcome

1. 你對來這邊上課學英文的期望是什麼?
2. 你覺得這堂課對你的英文有什麼幫助呢? (學校功課的完成或考試)
3. 你想要從這堂課中學到什麼呢?



## Appendix F

### Coding Categories and Examples for Themes

Themes	Sub-categories	Examples
Schooling	Past learning backgrounds	<p><u>Ron</u> - “In England, I had many opportunities to practice English and absorbed myself into that context. Natural environment for language learning was very important.” (Formal Interview 1, May 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010)</p> <p><u>Olivia</u> - “My English class in high school was full of grammar and vocabulary.” (Formal Interview 2, June 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010)</p>
	Past teaching experiences	<p><u>Ron</u> – “In my first class, I assumed that junior high school students at least had basic English abilities [.....] Since then, I realized that they knew little about English [.....] I found that aboriginal students would not sit down quietly in your classroom, not to mention paying attention to your class.” (Formal Interview 2, June 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010)</p> <p><u>Olivia</u> – “In the elementary school, students would like to open their mouth and speak English loudly; however, in the junior high school, the teenagers were reluctant to repeat English words and sentences after me.” (Formal Interview 1, April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2010)</p>
Professional coursework	Professional coursework	<p><u>Olivia</u> – “I could not combine the theories and practices together. Although I learnt these before, it did not mean that you could apply theories into your teaching instructions.” (Formal Interview 3, June 24<sup>th</sup>, 2010)</p>
Contextual factors	Teachers’ roles in the remedial program	<p><u>Ron</u> – “Before class, Ron discussed with the administrator about students’ tuition and reference books for the next semester.” (Field Notes, June 14<sup>th</sup>, 2010)</p>

		<p><u>Olivia</u> – “Before teaching in the remedial program, the administrator, who was my supervisor during the program, and I had already built a relationship. (Formal Interview 2, June 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010)</p>
	<p>Interactions with the administrator</p>	<p><u>Ron</u> – “.....If I had any problems about students’ learning conditions, the administrator could provide me more information about the students. It was helpful for me to solve students’ problems.” (Formal Interview 3, July 1<sup>st</sup>, 2010)</p>
		<p><u>Olivia</u> – “ I benefited a lot from the administrator’s assistance. For example, she often shared students’ learning conditions to me and gave me some suggestions to deal with students’ problems in class. ” (Formal Interview 2, June 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010)</p>
	<p>Interactions with colleagues</p>	<p><u>Ron</u> – “I found that most teachers in the remedial program were not familiar with their work and students’ problems. Sometimes teachers were like students’ friends, and sometimes they were like teachers. Because of the confusing roles, students were too casual in class.” (Formal Interview 3, July 1<sup>st</sup>, 2010)</p>
		<p><u>Olivia</u> – “I benefited a lot from the sharing. During the meeting, most teachers said that their class was very noisy and students could not pay attention to the teaching. Also, teachers shared some teaching methods which could draw students’ attentions.” (Informal Interview, May 19<sup>th</sup>, 2010)</p>
<p>Teachers’ personalities</p>	<p>Teachers’ personalities</p>	<p><u>Ron</u> – “Students all knew that I was so strict that they did not dare to speak and lose attention in my class.” (Formal Interview 2, June 7<sup>th</sup>, 2010)</p> <p><u>Olivia</u> – “I was a kind and gentle person. I hardly lost my temper. Scolding students was not my style.” (Formal Interview 2, June 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2010)</p>

## Appendix G

### Ron's Vocabulary Instruction

(When teaching the new word, free, he provides three meanings to students and asks them to translate Chinese sentences into English.)

#### **Free**

- a. without restrictions or controls
  - b. if you are free, you have no work and nothing else that you must do
  - c. not costing any money
1. 我不能作我想作的 (I am not free to do what I want to do.)
  2. 每個人都可以唱歌(有自由唱歌) (Everyone is free to sing.)
  3. 你今晚有空一起吃晚餐嗎? (Are you free tonight for dinner?)
  4. 六歲以下的小孩子可以免費觀賞這部電影  
(Children under six can watch this movie for free.)

R: The meaning of free in your textbook is “without restrictions or controls.” But if one person is free, it means that you have the free time to do what you want to do. How about “for free”? If something is for free, it does not mean that it is without restrictions. It means that people do not need to pay for it.

(Classroom Observation, April 26<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

## Appendix H

### Ron's Similar Grammatical Concepts

(When teaching negative patterns, Ron puts affirmative sentences, interrogative sentences, and negative sentences together.)

Verb	Affirmative sentences	Interrogative sentences	Negative sentences
BE	(subject + BE verb + other) He is a boy.	(BE verb + subject + other) Is he a boy?	(subject + BE verb + not + other) He is not a boy.
others	(subject + verb + other)	(Auxiliary + subject + verb + other)	(Subject + auxiliary + verb + other)
	You read a book. He reads a book.	Do you read a book? Does he read a book?	You do not read a book. He does not read a book.

(Classroom Observation, April 12, 2010)

## Appendix I

### Olivia's Sentence Structure Presentation

(The worksheet of the grammatical rule, too/either)

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● There are five words for “too”, _____/_____/_____/_____/_____ and _____.</li> </ul>
<p>(1) too/either</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● _____ is for too; _____ is for either</li> <li>● Both two can be used in the end of the sentence with a comma.</li> </ul>

Ex: too (too in Chinese)

He is a student,	<b>and</b>	I am (a student), <b>too.</b> (Chinese translation)
Susan collected stamps,		Her sister did/ collected stamps, <b>too.</b>
My brother can dance,		My sister can, <b>too.</b>

➤ \_\_\_\_\_

If the previous sentence uses be verb, the following sentence also uses be verb. If the previous sentence uses verb, the following use \_\_\_\_\_.

(Classroom Observation, April 21<sup>st</sup>, 2010)

## Appendix J

### Olivia Used Chinese as medium

(Teaching the sentence structure, too...to...)

T: 第一個句型是主詞加 be 動詞，接著 too...to 的句型，後面接的是原形動詞。現在請你把答案填進去。

(The first sentence structure is that “Subject + be verb + too + \_\_\_\_\_ + to + bare verb” Please fill in the adjective in the blank.)

T: 第二個句型和上一個一樣，也是主詞加 be 動詞，接著 too...to 的句型，後面接的是原形動詞。如果你要加受詞進去，那前面要加 for。現在請你把答案填進去。(How about the second one? It’s the same. The sentence

structure is that “Subject + be verb + too + \_\_\_\_\_ + \_\_\_\_\_ + to + bare verb” Here, you can add the objective. Using “for” refers to the objective.

OK! Please fill in the blank.)

T: 讓我們來看下面的句型練習。第一題，這個小孩年紀太小了，以至於還無法上學。你可以這樣寫“the child is too young to go to school.” 請把答案寫上去。

(Let’s look at the sentences below. Sentence 1, the child is too young to go to school. So, you can write down “the child is too young to go to school.” (The underline parts are the blanks for students to fill in.)

T: 第二題，這件事太好了，好像不是真的。要怎麼用英文說“太好了”

(Sentence 2, it is too nice to be true. How do you say “too nice”? It is too?)

S1: too shit!

T: Too...? (Ignoring the student)

S2: Nice.

T: Yeah! Too nice!

S1: Too crazy!

T: No! We say it is too “nice”. So, the sentence is “It is too nice to”

S2: Be true.

(Classroom Observation, June 9<sup>th</sup>, 2010)

