

# Developing Teacher Awareness of Language Use and Language Knowledge in English Classrooms: Four Longitudinal Cases

# **Ruth Ming Har Wong**

(wongmh@ied.edu.hk)
The Hong Kong Institute of Education, PR China

#### **Abstract**

This paper presents a two-year longitudinal study of a collaboration between four researcher-and-teacher pairs. The ultimate goal is to raise the quality of English language teaching in Hong Kong by first improving teacher understanding of language knowledge and language use and, then second, guiding teachers on how to adjust their English lesson planning accordingly. Methods used to evaluate the four teachers' growth in understanding included comprehensive interviews at the beginning and end of the study, and stimulated recall interviews immediately following the teaching of the lesson. Findings indicate that teaching behaviours improved as a result of the collaboration. Areas of change included a deeper understanding of the concepts of language knowledge and language use, a better balancing of language knowledge and use in lessons, a greater use of inductive teaching methodology, and a differentiated use of error correction according to the focus of the lesson – whether on language knowledge or language use. Factors contributing to change included the focus in discussions on pedagogical and content knowledge, as well as the collaborative, immediate and long-term reflective nature of intervention.

### 1 Introduction

Hong Kong ESL teachers place heavy emphasis on addressing language knowledge in class-rooms. Indeed, language knowledge is often regarded by school teachers as the very foundation of learning English (Fullilove, 1992; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001). However, teachers are well-aware of the importance of language use during the process of teaching and learning a second language (CDC & HKEAA, 2007; Ellis, 2003; Samuda, 2001; Samuda, Johnson, & Ridway, 2000; Swain & Lapkin 2001). A teacher's ability to reflect plays an important role in bridging the gap between concepts and practice. As Knezedivc (2001) claims, "developing awareness is a process of reducing discrepancy between what we do and what we think we do" (p. 10). The present study, therefore, investigates the experience of four Hong Kong ESL teachers and their collaboration with researchers studying the development of teachers addressing language knowledge and language use in classrooms. It also aims to find out how well the collaboration will help translate what they believe into teaching practice.

The following research questions (RQs) guided this study:

RQ1:After collaborating with researchers, can teachers take their new concepts of the importance of language knowledge and/or language use in classrooms and truly implement them in their teaching practice?

RQ2:In what ways were teaching practices altered?

RQ3:What factors contribute to bringing about changes in teaching practices?

### 2 Theoretical framework

# 2.1 Language knowledge and language use

In this paper, two operational definitions were adopted. *Language knowledge* refers to the outward appearance or structure of language. Attributes are technical and practical knowledge that must be explicitly acquired by thoughts and actions, and are also transmittable. Such learning situations should not involve unpredictability, such as in the target language application – it must be predictable. According to Chomsky, "knowledge of language is normally attained through brief exposure, and the character of the acquired knowledge may be largely predetermined" (1968, p. ix). The meaning of "level of predictability" is two-fold. First, it refers to the degree to which the language is predictable. Second it also refers to the degree to which new (or predictable) messages and meanings are communicated. For example, grammar drills or question-and-answer practice involve no unpredictability because the kind of language knowledge and messages communicated can be predicted by the users. Explicit teaching of grammar, introduction of meta-language, comprehension checking and teaching vocabulary acquisition – including meaning and pronunciation – are examples of how teachers address language knowledge.

Language use, on the other hand, involves language production and the use of the physical (i.e. spoken or written) form of the target language, of which new meanings and information are conveyed by the forms in context. It involves the process of interpreting, processing incoming language data in some form for language development to take place. Such language application involves some or a high degree of predictability which requires spontaneity from learners. For example, activities like creative role-plays, group discussions or drama plays involve high levels of unpredictability because the language needed to perform the tasks and the meanings to be communicated are unpredictable.

Figure 1, modified from the work of Littlewood (2000), shows the developmental continuum of language knowledge and language use which was adopted as the theoretical framework of this study. Whether a learning activity assigned by a teacher is categorised as focusing on language knowledge or language use is determined by a) the degree to which the language used is predictable, and b) the degree to which learners use language to communicate new information and meanings. At one end of the continuum is non-communicative learning (language knowledge) and at the other end is authentic communicative practice (language use).

# 2.1.1 Types of language knowledge

Non-communicative learning refers to activities focusing on language forms such as substitution exercises. Pre-communicative language practices refer to activities that aim to practice language with some attention to meaning, but not communicating new messages with others. Examples of such are question-and-answer (Q/A) practice. Since these classroom activities do not involve any degree of unpredictability in terms of language and meaning, they are language knowledge-based classroom activities.

# 2.1.2 Types of language use

Communicative language practice refers to activities that aim to practice language in a context where it also exchanges new information, for example, information gap activities. Structured communication practice refers to activities that are intended to enable students to use language to communicate in situations that elicit pre-learnt language, but with some unpredictability, for example, structured role-play and simple problem-solving. Authentic communication practice refers to activities which allow learners to use language to communicate in situations where the mean-

ings are unpredictable – again, drama, role-plays and group discussions are good examples. All these classroom activities involve varying degrees of unpredictability in terms of language and meaning. They aim to allow students to use the language in order to exchange meaning. Therefore, they are language use-based classroom activities.

| Non-             | Pre-              | Communicative    | Structured       | Authentic        |  |  |
|------------------|-------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|--|--|
| communicative    | communicative     | language         | communication    | communication    |  |  |
| learning         | language practice | practice         | practice         | practice         |  |  |
| Focusing on the  | Practicing        | Practicing       | Using language   | Using language   |  |  |
| forms of the     | language with     | language in      | to               | to               |  |  |
| language         | some attention to | context where    | communicate      | communicate      |  |  |
|                  | meaning but not   | it               | in situations    | in situations    |  |  |
|                  | communicating     | communicates     | which elicit     | where the        |  |  |
|                  | new messages to   | new              | pre-learnt       | meanings are     |  |  |
|                  | others            | information      | language with    | unpredictable.   |  |  |
|                  |                   |                  | some             |                  |  |  |
|                  |                   |                  | unpredictability |                  |  |  |
| e.g. Grammar     | e.g. "Question    | e.g.             | e.g. Structured  | e.g. Creative    |  |  |
| exercises and    | and answer"       | Information      | role-play,       | role-play,       |  |  |
| drills           | practice          | gap activities   | simple problem   | complex          |  |  |
|                  |                   |                  | solving          | problem          |  |  |
|                  |                   |                  |                  | solving          |  |  |
| No               | No                | Low              | Some             | High             |  |  |
| unpredictability | unpredictability  | unpredictability | unpredictability | unpredictability |  |  |
| Language knowled | lge ◀             |                  | <b>•</b>         | Language use     |  |  |

Fig. 1: Developmental Continuum of language knowledge and language use

# 2.2 Content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge

This study was also grounded on the assumption that teachers need to possess content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge in order to be effective (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999). Content knowledge refers to knowledge about the subject matter being taught, which is critical for all teachers (Hollon, Roth, & Anderson, 1991; Leinhardt, Putman, Stein, & Baxter, 1991). Pedagogical knowledge refers to knowledge about how to teach. Scholars have had long debates on the value of content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge (Newton & Newton, 2001). Shulman (1987) proposed that pedagogical content knowledge is most important and pointed out that pedagogical content knowledge represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems or issues are organised, represented and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners and presented for instruction. The term pedagogical content knowledge was coined by Shulman to describe "that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding" (1987, p. 8). Pedagogical content knowledge is not the sum of content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge but the multiplication or synergy of the two factors. Using researcher-teacher collaboration, this study will examine how teacher knowledge could then be improved.

# 3 Research design and data collection

### 3.1 Design

This study adopted the qualitative paradigm principles (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2001) which help capture the fluidity of a teacher's professional development progress. This project was initiated by the research team, and the design of the study is presented in Figure 2.

To ensure the study outcomes were sustainable in the long term, this study repeated the research cycle three times from 2005 to 2007. A complete phase of the study was tried out in the pilot study, which allowed the researchers to adjust the research methodology if necessary. After the completion of the pilot study, the researchers found that the research methodology was feasible and well-set, and hence no changes were necessary.

# 3.2 Participants

Four researcher-teacher pairs were involved in the main study. Each researcher had one specific English teacher he/she observed and collaborated with throughout. That is, each researcher would work with the same teacher and observed six of his/her lessons from Phase 1 to Phase 3, i.e. two lessons per phase. The project schools were both located near the researchers' workplace, and the four participating teachers were randomly selected by the principals of the partner schools. There were three secondary school English teachers and one primary school English teacher involved in this project. The four researcher-teacher pairs conducted each phase of the project simultaneously within the same period of time.

#### 3.3 Data to be collected

Data to be collected by each researcher-teacher pair included six observed lessons, researcher's observation notes, two in-depth teacher interviews, two joint planning meetings, two e-mails, and six stimulated recall interviews. In total, there were 24 lessons observed, four sets of researcher's observation notes, eight teacher interviews, eight joint planning meetings, eight e-mails, and 24 stimulated recall interviews to be collected in the entire study.

## 3.4 Procedures

#### 3.4.1 Phase 1

In Phase 1 of the main study, two research lessons (each approximately 1.5 hours) were observed and video-recorded. Lessons were chosen based on times convenient to both teacher and researcher. The time lapse between the two lessons concerned was one month. During lesson observation, researchers would make notes as they liked. The two observed lessons were used as baseline data for future comparative analysis. Researchers did not conduct any interventions in Phase 1. After completion of the second Phase 1 research lesson, the researchers used stimulated recalls and semi-structured interviews to ask their respective teachers (N=4) how they perceived their own teaching.

### 3.4.1.1 Stimulated recall interviews

In the stimulated recall interviews, the researcher would play back the recorded lessons that the teacher had just completed. Before starting, the researcher briefed the teacher that the focus of the stimulated recall was to uncover the teacher's thoughts while she had been directing student attention to language knowledge or to language use. The teacher would take the initiative to pause the

video and recall what was in her mind at that point. The researcher could also pause the video any time and ask the teacher about her thoughts at that particular moment.

# 3.4.1.2 Semi-structured, in-depth interviews

As for the semi-structured interview, the researcher asked teachers about their general conceptions about teaching. The same questions were set for Phase 1 and Phase 3 for comparison and to ascertain any changes. The questions referred to: major considerations when planning English lessons; how to prioritise those considerations, with reasoning; teacher perceptions on language knowledge and language use; when and how to address language knowledge and language use; and what criteria to use when deciding whether to correct student errors during English lessons.

# 3.4.1.3 E-mail correspondence

After each lesson observation, in-depth interview and stimulated recall, each researcher would, via e-mail, communicate issues arising from the preliminary analysis so that the teacher could brainstorm ideas for the next observed lesson. Topics at issue could range from correcting linguistic errors to new ideas to improve content and procedures.

# 3.4.1.4 Joint planning sessions

After one month, a joint planning session was held for each researcher-teacher pair – this intervention would also be repeated before Phase 3. In this joint planning session, the researcher would co-plan content and teaching methods for the upcoming research lesson with the teacher. However, the teacher would have also prepared a lesson plan with a draft of her teaching objectives and procedures. The role of the researcher would then be to offer advice on how the teacher's concepts of language knowledge and language use could be best translated and implemented in their lessons.

# 3.4.1.5 Researcher team meetings

The four researchers also convened meetings once per month for 2.5 hours to share findings and adjust the methodology of the main study, if necessary.

#### 3.4.2 Phases 2 & 3

In Phase 2, the research procedures were in principle the same as Phase 1. Two lessons were observed. Stimulated recall interviews were also held after each lesson observation. Joint planning sessions (intervention) were conducted before the implementation of Phase 3. However, in-depth interviews were not conducted for Phase 2. In Phase 3, stimulated recall interviews were held immediately after the two observed research lessons. In-depth interviews were conducted, but these were delayed and conducted one month after the completion of Phase 3 – this allowed for the identification of perception changes in a teacher's attention focus and evaluation of the sustainability of teaching practice.

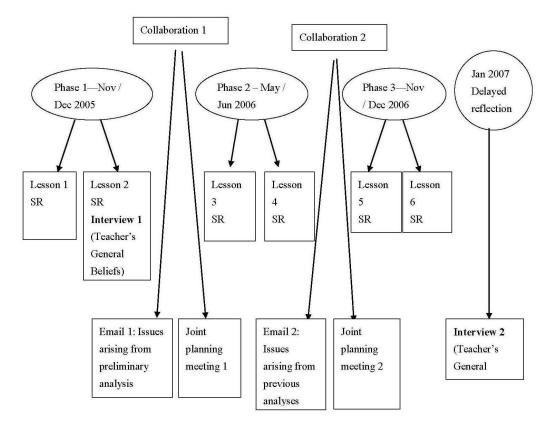


Fig. 2: Work flow of the present study

Data collected from each case's English lesson observations were transcribed by a research assistant. Students' interviews, teachers' in-depth interviews, simulated recalls and meetings were first transcribed in full in Cantonese, then translated into English by the same research assistant, and subsequently analysed qualitatively and thematically by the researcher. Data were commonly shared among the whole project team.

For their comfort, all teacher interviews were conducted in their mother tongue, Cantonese. All interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed into Cantonese, and then translated into English by the research assistant. Notes produced by each researcher from all lesson observations and from joint planning meetings with the teacher were also analysed. The author and researcher of this paper was paired with the teacher named Rose. As with all pairs, Rose's data were analysed and cross-checked with other researcher-teacher pairs for further comparative analyses. All analyses followed the thematic approach analysis approach in order to uncover overarching themes that emerged from data from individual participant teachers and across participant teachers (Daly, Kellehear, & Gliksman, 1997). The process involves the identification of themes through "careful reading and re-reading of the data" (Rice & Ezzy, 1999, p. 258). It is a form of pattern recognition within the data, where emerging themes become the categories for analysis.

To ensure the data analysis was reliable, all data (including videotaped lessons, lesson summary and transcripts) were made available to the entire project team. Data analysis relating to the way teachers addressed language knowledge and language use was shared at project team meetings to see if other researchers would interpret them in the same way.

# 3.5 Participants

#### 3.5.1 Rose

Rose (each teacher's name is a pseudonym) had been teaching for seven years. She deeply believed that grammar was the foundation to the proper learning, and effective use, of English. She admitted to spending substantial amounts of time addressing language knowledge, while also agreeing that language use was crucial to learning a foreign language. Before her participation in the study, she usually taught the grammar and vocabulary explicitly needed for that lesson, and then went through several examples as consolidation. The remainder of the exercise would then be assigned as homework and consolidation.

### 3.5.2 Annie

Annie had been teaching English for 17 years. She believed in a communicative approach, and felt that language use was the most effective way to learn. Annie pointed out that task activities were best for high achievers, while exercises were more suitable for low achievers. (For distinctions between task and exercise, see Nunan, 2004.) Annie considered good language knowledge to be foundational for performing a language task. Hence, for junior forms she emphasised grammar, while with senior forms she aimed to develop language use abilities. Thus, for this study, she aimed to focus on improving her teaching with senior form students.

### 3.5.3 Winnie

Winnie had taught in several different schools, with over a decade of service. She believed language use was more important because of its ability to help students expand their knowledge. However, she admitted that in her teaching she focused more on language knowledge. Winnie usually taught the students the specific grammar or language knowledge needed before she assigned each exercise to them.

### 3.5.4 *Mandy*

Mandy was a relatively young teacher who was in her mid-20s. She had been teaching for three years in a primary school and believed in task-based teaching and learning (TBL) because of her own teacher training. She believed TBL was the best approach to teach and learn English because being able to use the target language was the primary objective of learning a second/foreign language. However, she focused more on language knowledge in lessons and assignments because of pressure to do so from parents and schools.

### 4 Findings and discussions

All data offered and collected by the participant teachers were analysed in line with key guiding questions. The four teachers all displayed a clear attitudinal change in addressing language knowledge and language use in classroom practice.

4.1 RQ1: After collaborating with researchers, can teachers take their new concepts of the importance of language knowledge and/or language use in classrooms and truly implement them in their teaching practice?

To answer RQ1, it is important to first uncover the concepts that participant teachers held about teaching and learning – particularly in the aspects of language knowledge and language use – be-

fore the commencement of the project. Interviews from Phase 1, therefore, served as the starting point of analysis. The second step then, is to objectively examine each teacher's practice to see whether they truly follow what they believe. If not, examining whether collaboration with researchers can help teachers implement what they believe more consistently in their teaching practice will help to answer RQ1.

#### 4.1.1 Phase 1

Participant teachers all agreed that language use was more important than language knowledge in language learning in Phase 1. The representative views were expressed as follows during the indepth interview 1 (IDI1):

### Excerpt 1:

Language use is more important because it is the purpose of acquiring knowledge. (Winnie IDI1, Line 24)

# Excerpt 2:

I pay more attention to language use because I was trained to use communicative approach in my study. (Annie IDI1, Line 35)

However, three participant teachers, those other than Annie, admitted that they did not put what they believe into practice. Instead, for various reasons, they put substantial amounts of time and attention into language knowledge in their classrooms. The reasons given for focusing more on language knowledge were: time constraints (Excerpt 3); student English proficiency (Excerpt 4); and assessment (Excerpt 5).

### Excerpt 3:

It is necessary to acquire language knowledge to master its proper use ... Earlier, I considered drilling exercises to be more important than tasks. When I did not have enough time in a lesson, I often made the students finish the drilling exercises and skipped the tasks ... although the school adopted task-based teaching and learning approach. (Rose IDI1, Line 48)

### Excerpt 4:

I prefer to focus on one thing at a time. My students are not at the high level of English ability. I think they will not feel confused if I teach them step by step. If I require them to use the language without an understanding of the forms, it will de-motivate them to learn. (Winnie IDI1, Line 52)

### Excerpt 5:

I focus on teaching form more than meaning. I have to provide some revision exercises for them because I hope they can do well in the assessment. I am very worried that they will make the same mistakes in the assessment as they do in the exercises. (Mandy IDI1, Line 39)

The above teachers, i.e. all except Annie, admitted that they spent more time on addressing language knowledge in their lessons. According to Annie's own account, she reiterated her strong beliefs on employing language use in her teaching. However, based on the observation of the researcher, the opposite was found. This echoed what Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite (2001) indicated: "...despite individual diversity in the teachers' enacting of their role, as a collective there is an underlying and consistent pattern between the ways they think about their work, and the ways in which they act in the language class." (p. 496)

In Annie's lesson, she went through some new vocabulary with the help of phonics, then introduced phrases and sentence patterns used in the video before the students watched a TV programme about Hong Kong tourism. After watching the video, an error corrections task – which focused on the use of preposition, singular/plural, adjectives/adverbs and articles – was assigned to

the students after her demonstration. Finally, she assigned students to write about six Hong Kong attractions as homework (for lesson summary, see Appendix 1).

Annie's lesson in Phase 1 was largely focused on addressing language knowledge, which was non-communicative learning and pre-communicative language practice-based. This showed that teachers working in the same context might believe in a set of shared principles but implement them through diverse practices.

#### 4.1.2 Phases 2 & 3

After Phase 1 and the joint planning session with researchers, participant teachers all indicated that their awareness of addressing language use in classroom teaching had been enhanced. Rose gave a representative view of the importance of language use (Excerpt 6).

### Excerpt 6:

From my experience in planning lessons jointly with you a few times, I found that it was good to make the students do authentic activities and tasks right after I gave input to them. (Rose IDI2, Line 50)

In Phases 2 & 3, the teachers not only indicated that their awareness of addressing language knowledge and language use was enhanced, but Winnie's, Mandy's and Rose's lessons also transformed into both structured and authentic communication practices, which involve high levels of unpredictability. Rose's lesson was the most representative (for lesson summaries for Rose, Winnie and Mandy, see Appendices 2–4).

Rose asked students to plot a life chart of Jackie Chan's ups and downs after reading several pieces of news about him. In order to fulfil the tasks, students were required to read three news cuttings and translate their understanding into a chart. Student presentations also involved authentic communication and a high level of language use. This lesson involved a high degree of unpredictability.

Annie, whose teaching was largely language knowledge-based in Phase 1, had also switched to a more language use-based teaching after Phases 1 and 2. In Annie's lesson, she cited, as background information, three examples that showed students the methods for rearranging sentences. Students then worked in groups to rewrite their classmates' work. Annie's lesson could be defined as structured communicative language practice, as it required students to use language to communicate in situations that elicit pre-learnt language with some predictability (for lesson summary, see Appendix 5).

RQ1 intended to investigate whether teachers' concepts of the importance of addressing language knowledge and language use in classrooms could be translated into their teaching practices with the collaboration of researchers. The following table summarises the findings of RQ1:

|                             | Phase 1                   |         |                         |         |   |         |                         |         |  |  |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|---------|-------------------------|---------|---|---------|-------------------------|---------|--|--|
|                             | Ra                        | ose     | Mandy                   |         | Annie   |         | Winnie                  |         |  |  |
| LU is more impor-           | IDI1, 41                  |         | IDI1, 33                |         | IDI1, 35  |         | IDI1, 24                |         |  |  |
| tant than LK                |                           |         |                         |         | (Excerpt 2)   |         | (Excerpt 1)             |         |  |  |
| Admitted focused more on LK | IDI1, 48<br>(Excerpt 3)   |         | IDI1, 39<br>(Excerpt 5) |         | Did not admit but<br>was observed oth-<br>erwise (IDI1, 42) |         | IDI1, 52<br>(Excerpt 4) |         |  |  |
|                             | Phase 2 & 3               |         |                         |         |   |         |                         |         |  |  |
| LU awareness<br>enhanced    | Lesson 5 (Ph3) / IDI2, 50 |         | Lesson 4 (Ph2)          |         | Lesson 5 (Ph3)  |         | Lesson 4 (Ph2)          |         |  |  |
|                             | (Exce                     | erpt 6) |                         |         |   |         |                         |         |  |  |
|                             | Changes between Phases    |         |                         |         |   |         |                         |         |  |  |
| Type of lessons             | Phase 1                   | Phase 2 | Phase 1                 | Phase 2 | Phase 1   | Phase 2 | Phase 1                 | Phase 2 |  |  |
|                             | PCLP                      | SCP &   | PCLP                    | SCP/    | NCL &   | SCP     | PCLP                    | SCP /   |  |  |
|                             | & CLP                     | ACP     | & CLP                   | ACP     | PCLP  |         | & CLP                   | ACP     |  |  |

NCL: Non-communicative learning

PCLP: Pre-communicative language practice CLP: Communicative language practice SCP: Structured communication practice

ACP: Authentic communication

Table 1: Summary of teachers' beliefs about language knowledge and language use

# 4.2 RQ2: In what ways were teaching practices altered?

# 4.2.1 Teaching practice

This study found that changes to teaching practice by participant teachers included: *teaching* procedures; time allocation to language knowledge and language use; use of inductive methodology; and correction of students' errors and mistakes.

Language use was undeniably important in the eyes of the participant teachers, but language knowledge was still considered important in classroom teaching. However, the teaching procedures were changed. All participant teachers felt that language knowledge had to be presented before language could be used in context. Teachers believed that teaching language knowledge first provided students with the necessary language input which enabled them to perform given tasks later in the lesson. All four teachers had similar views on integrating language knowledge and language use in their lessons during simulated recall interviews (SRI) and in-depth interviews 2 (IDI2).

#### Excerpt 7:

I teach the language knowledge essential for the students to do the tasks when they are not able to do so. (Annie SRI4, Line 46)

#### Excerpt 8:

Now my teaching procedures are: language input, task, then consolidation. For consolidation, it can be workbook or worksheets. Before, the procedures were: language input, drills, then consolidation. Task, to me, is optional and let students to have fun. (Rose IDI2, Line 72)

# Excerpt 9:

I usually focus on teaching forms at the beginning of a lesson. I make students use the language afterwards ... I design the activities and tasks in such a way that the students would have an opportunity to use the language items. (Winnie IDI2, Line 50)

# Excerpt 10:

It [this project] made me aware of my teaching approach. That is, I introduced the form and gave the students an opportunity to practice it by arranging communicative activities for them. (Mandy IDI2, Line 82)

# 4.2.2 Time allocation of language knowledge and language use

After taking part in the project, one obvious change among all participant teachers was in the time they allocated to language knowledge and language use when teaching. In Phase 1, according to the researcher's observational notes, Rose spent the full lesson teaching present perfect tense in the first lesson; similarly, Winnie spent more time on language knowledge than language use. Taking Rose as an example, the researcher noted her teaching procedures, then categorised each teaching step as language knowledge or language use. The observational notes revealed that all Rose's teaching steps were addressing language knowledge (for lesson summary, see Appendix 6.) In the last in-depth interviews, Winnie and Rose reflected on their changes.

# Excerpt 11:

I will reconsider the amount of time that I spend on language knowledge before I make them use the language in the future. For example, when I taught past tenses in the previous lesson you observed, I thought that it was not enough for the students to learn the forms and do the exercise correctly. They should also be able to use the appropriate tense to write a story. I did not think in this way earlier. I think I have become more aware of language use. (Winnie IDI2, Line 73)

### Excerpt 12:

Now, I usually move the step of doing tasks before doing grammar exercises. I also felt that I became more flexible in planning a lesson. (Rose IDI2, Line 66)

# 4.2.3 Use of inductive methodology

In Phase 1, teachers used the inductive methods less. The researcher's notes indicated that when introducing tenses, Rose adopted a direct instruction approach in several teaching points (for lesson summary, see Appendix 6.) However, all participant teachers later indicated that they adopted inductive methods when addressing language knowledge instead of explicit direct teaching. This showed that the teachers' practice of addressing language knowledge had slowly evolved from non-communicative practice to communicative practice (see Table 1). During the stimulated recall interviews, Mandy, Winnie and Rose explained how they had adopted this approach.

#### Excerpt 13:

When I teach at the stage of input at the beginning of the lessons, I cite examples to teach sentence structures and form. When the students work in pairs and in groups, I focus on teaching meaning. (Mandy SRI4, Line 83)

## Excerpt 14:

I would prefer making the students explore the forms on their own because they will have an opportunity to think. Besides, they will remember the forms better if they figure them out on their own. (Winnie SRI4, Line 27)

# Excerpt 15:

I seldom show them the rules at the beginning. I often cite some examples and ask students to observe the rules. I tell them the rules afterwards. (Rose SRI4, Line 44)

# 4.2.4 Correction of student errors and mistakes

Teachers' reflective accounts indicated that they had learnt not to pay much attention to student errors or mistakes when the lesson focus was on language use. In Phase 1, teachers would correct student mistakes whenever possible. In Rose's lesson, she corrected her students' pronunciation mistakes while she was checking a comprehension exercise with the class:

Rose: Okay. So look at Part B, the first question. Not difficult, the e-mail message is about ...

What is about? It's about ...

Student: A.

Rose: A, very good, a visit to a shopping centre. Which shopping centre? Andy Chan, which

shopping centre?

Student: New ...

Rose: New ... New ... Student: New Torn ...

Rose: New Torn? Is it Torn? New Town ...

Student: New Town Pi...

Rose: Pizza? New Town Pizza? (Students laughed). Is it New Town Pizza? New Town ...Try, try.

You can say that. (wrote 'pla' on the blackboard, and showed the student 'la'). This is ...

this is ... 'la' is ...

Student: /la:/.

Rose: /la:/. (showed 'pla'.) Okay, here.

Student: .../ta:/...

Rose: Hah? /ta:/? (Students laughed). All right. 'la' is /la:/. 'pla' is /pla:/. (wrote 'za' on the black-

board.) /pla:/, this is ...

Student:  $\langle z \leftrightarrow \rangle$ .

Rose: /z↔/, very good. Say it. New ... (the student was laughing). What's wrong. Tell me, New

... (the student was still laughing and Rose let him sit down). Okay, Class, together, New

Town Plaza.

Student: New Town Plaza.

(Rose's research lesson 1, Phase 1)

Rose later explained that 'worry' was what drove her to correct student errors while teaching.

#### Excerpt 16:

Earlier, I focused more on teaching knowledge. Therefore, I dominated most of the teaching time in class and students had less opportunity to use the language in terms of speaking and writing. I worried that they made too many mistakes so I gave them a lot of drilling exercises. Now I think that I should give students an opportunity to use the language. In this way, they can really master the knowledge. (Rose IDI2, Line 69)

Other teachers also admitted that they would correct student errors if the mistake was made on language knowledge and was necessary to perform a task and/or crucial for language use. Annie and Winnie explained their reasoning.

### Excerpt 17:

I do not correct their mistakes when they discuss. In this lesson, since they wrote their ideas on transparencies and they would do another writing task, I felt that it was necessary to correct their mistakes. (Annie IDI2, Line 82)

### Excerpt 18:

I usually correct their grammatical errors, but I do not correct the mistakes that they make in preparing for oral presentation. (Winnie IDI2, Line 61)

IDI2, 77

(Excerpt 18)

Winnie Annie Rose Mandy IDI2, 72 IDI2, 50 IDI2, 82 **Teaching procedures:** SRI, 46 language input → tasks (Excerpt 7) (Excerpt 8) (Excerpt 9) (Excerpt 10) IDI2, 73 Time allocated to both LK & Not IDI2, 66 Not mentioned (Excerpt 12) (Excerpt 11) mentioned Using inductive methodology Not SRI4, 44 SRI4, 27 SRI4, 83 (Excerpt 15) mentioned (Excerpt 14) (Excerpt 13)

RQ2 aimed to examine which teaching practice would be altered. Table 2 summarises the findings.

Table 2: Summary of teachers' concepts of language knowledge and language use

IDI2, 69

(Excerpt 16)

IDI2, 61

(Excerpt 20)

# 4.3 RQ3: What factors contribute to bringing about changes in teaching practices?

IDI2, 82

(Excerpt 19)

Not to correct student errors

during tasks

Participant teachers were generally receptive to the collaboration with researchers in order to enhance their awareness of addressing both language knowledge and language use in their class-room practices. Evidence showed that teacher lessons evolved from non-communicative learning and pre-communicative language practice to communicative language practice, structured communication practice and authentic communication practice. Results found echoed previous studies (e.g. Flores, 2005; Kerkes, 2001; Lederman, 1999). The contributing factors to these changes can be attributed to the following three items.

Pedagogical content knowledge indicates how much a teacher understands the relationship between content and pedagogy, and how to blend them into a language lesson which meets the needs of learners of differing abilities. Participant teachers in this study seemed to possess sufficient content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge due to their academic training; however, pedagogical content knowledge was deemed insufficient at the beginning stage of the research. Annie was a typical example. She possessed the relevant and necessary teaching qualifications and understood the communicative language teaching approaches and methodologies gained through her training, knowledge that she also demonstrated during her in-depth interviews. However, her teaching practice, as observed by the researcher, lacked this feature (for Annie's lesson summary, see Appendix 1). The pre-, while-, and post-task were all language knowledge-based even though she emphasised the importance of language use. The development and application of pedagogical content knowledge requires the necessary subject knowledge, awareness of pedagogical issues associated with the students being taught, and the ability to bring the two together through appropriate instructional activities. As Turner-Bisset (2001) concludes, one characteristic of successful teaching is the usage of the "fullest form" of pedagogical content knowledge (p. 141). As her researcher observed, Annie's ability to bring the two together was absent in the beginning.

After joint planning sessions with researchers, participant teachers' pedagogical content knowledge was better mastered and applied in Phase 2 lessons, and especially in Phase 3. This suggested that the pedagogical content knowledge of teachers was greatly enhanced with the help of a third party. This idea was also supported by Grugeon et al. (1989). In one of Annie's Phase 3 lessons, she required students to underline the incorrect sentences in their own work individually without explaining anything first. She then stopped their work and cited some incorrect sentences as examples and pointed out some common student errors regarding verbs. Subsequently, she required the class to work in groups to find and correct four incorrect sentences, which would then be shared with the class. This lesson showed that her pedagogical content knowledge had turned a new page, as her teaching objective had become clearer and the task procedures were set to meet a variety of student needs. She knew a teacher's explanation must come after students attempted to work on their own – otherwise student learning styles would become passive and reactive. And

indeed, at the end of the lesson, the researcher observed that Annie's students were able to achieve the learning objective.

This study also found that the sufficiency of a participant teacher's pedagogical content knowledge did not depend solely on their teaching experiences, but also on their willingness to reflect and adapt to changes in classroom situations. Teachers should be motivated to self-analyse to improve their teaching practice. *Immediate reflection* after lessons is another factor contributing to a teacher's professional development, a finding which is echoed by other studies. (For recent examples, see Bullough, Jr. & Pinnegar, 2001; Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000; Lee & William, 2005; Swartz, 2004.) Reflections, according to Cruickshank & Applegate (1981), "help teachers to think about what happened, why it happened, and what else could have been done to reach their goals" (p. 553). Self-understanding in the form of reflection on one's own pedagogical content knowledge should come before improving substantial content knowledge or pedagogical knowledge. Developing a teacher's pedagogical content knowledge did not automatically occur from experience. It should be cultivated through experimental learning in combination with timely reflective practice, as suggested by Merriam & Caffarella (1999).

Immediately after their lessons, teachers participating in this study reflected on their teaching through stimulated recall interviews in which they and researchers selected and viewed episodes of the classroom teaching showing evidence of attention to language knowledge and language use. Each project teacher was prompted to reflect on *what* she was doing, and *why* she was doing it in the hope that such practice could positively influence teacher development. Teachers who frequently self-reflect are more likely to become teachers who understand diverse student needs and thus adopt appropriate pedagogical and instructional means to deliver an effective lesson. As Bartlett (2000) suggests, experience alone is not sufficient for professional growth, while experience coupled with reflection is a powerful impetus for professional development.

Teacher reflections in this study were also enabled by *collaboration with researchers*. Other studies have found similar results (see Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Fullan, 1995; Hargreaves, 1995; Lieberman, 1995; Smylie, 1995; Smylie & Hart, 1999; Zeichner, 2003). Teachers' comprehension of their own practice – such as how to address language knowledge and language use – was deepened when they shared it with a researcher who had similar values and sought similar changes. Participant teachers were invited to take part in a joint planning session with a researcher to brainstorm what and how to deliver the focus of the next research lesson. Researchers then helped teachers to translate what they believed into practical pedagogical actions in the lesson plan. These joint planning sessions also engendered a non-isolated and collaborative classroom which welcomed dynamic pedagogical inputs which could then be incorporated into classroom practice. Both Briscoe (1996) and Day (1999) believe that a teacher's professional growth was associated with teacher learning and professional development. After joining the project, all participant teachers noticed positive changes in their teaching practice.

#### Excerpt 20:

I learned to focus on a few episodes in teaching. I used to focus on content and words earlier when the students used readers as learning materials. In the lessons you observed for the project, I focused on talking about other issues, such as reading between lines. (Winnie, IDI2, Line 62)

# Excerpt 21:

The project stimulated me to think of the effective methods for helping students understand language knowledge and complete tasks. (Annie, IDI2, Line 55)

#### Excerpt 22:

In my early days of teaching, I often made the students do drilling exercise after I gave them input. For example, I asked the students to do drilling exercises to assess their understanding of vocabulary and grammar items. From my experience in planning lessons jointly with you a few times, I found that it was good to make the students do authentic activities and tasks right after I gave input to them. (Rose IDI2, Line 47)

# Excerpt 23:

It made me be aware of the two terms – language knowledge and use. That is, I introduced the form and gave the students an opportunity to practice it by arranging communicative activities for them. (Mandy, IDI2, Line 42)

Overall, it was found that the key to effective teacher development was pedagogical content knowledge combined with immediate post-lesson reflection and/or collaboration with researchers – all with the goal of enhancing teacher awareness of language knowledge and language use. Figure 3 illustrates a simple pathway to guide both novices and experienced teachers how to better reflect on their teaching skills.

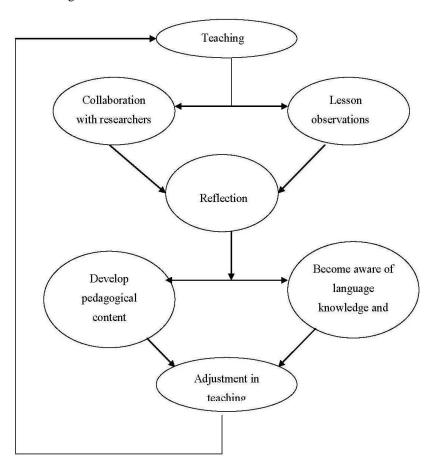


Fig. 3: Pathways to teachers' professional development

# 5 Concluding remarks

What determines how well teachers teach is based on their personal experience, the experience of their own education, and their teaching environment. Teacher expectations for their students are shaped by their own beliefs toward teaching and learning, which are projected throughout their instructional practices. However, not all EFL teachers are true to their own beliefs when it comes to their teaching practice. Thus, how closely a teacher adheres to their personal teaching philosophy is a crucial factor in the success or failure of their teaching practice. Importantly, although

teachers considered language use a crucial element in language acquisition, they could not convert their teaching beliefs and concepts into pedagogical practices. However, on an encouraging note, with various types of researcher collaboration, teaching practices can be improved.

Through a series of immediate post-lesson reflections, interviews and joint planning meetings, teacher pedagogical content knowledge was enhanced. That is, teachers were able to better self-reflect and convert their beliefs into more effective ways to address and teach both language knowledge and language use – despite constraints they felt in early stages of the study. They also became more flexible in lesson planning, and were willing to change their original plans due to contextual variations. In addition, teacher procedural knowledge was enhanced. They were more aware that they should allocate more time to language use and less to correcting student errors. An additional breakthrough was the use of inductive methods to integrate language use and language knowledge.

At last, EFL students can be led into a promising land of successful language acquisition, thanks to the critical guidance of informed researchers and reflective, devoted teachers.

#### References

Bartlett, L (2000). Teacher development through reflective teaching. In J.C. Richards & D. Nunan (Eds.) Second Language Teacher Education (pp. 202–215). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Breen, M.P., Hird, B., Milton, M., Oliver, R., & Thwaite, A. (2001). Making sense of language teaching: Teachers' principles and classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(4), 470–501.

Briscoe, C. (1996). The teacher as learner: interpretations from a case study of teacher change. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 31(6), 315–329.

Bullough, R.V. Jr., & Pinnegar, S. (2001). Guidelines for quality in autobiographical forms of self-study research, *Educational Researcher*, 30(3), 12–21.

Chomsky, N. (1968). Language and mind, Harcourt: Brace Jovanovich Inc.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S. (1999). Relationships of knowledge and practice: Teacher learning in community. *Review of Research in Education*, 24, 249–305.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2001). *Research methods in education* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). London & New York: Routledge Falmer.

Cruickshank, D., & Applegate, J. (1981). Reflective teaching as a strategy for teacher growth. *Educational Leadership*, 38, 553–554.

Curriculum Development Council & Hong Kong Examinations and Assessment Authority [CDC & HKEAA] (2007). English language curriculum and assessment guide (Secondary 4–6). Hong Kong: HKSAR Government.

Daly, J., Kellehear, A., & Gliksman, M. (1997). The public health researcher: A methodological approach. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Darling-Hammond, L., & McLaughlin, M. (1995). Policies that support professional development in an era of reform. Phi Delta Kappan, 76, 597–603.

Day, C. (1999). Developing teacher: The challenges of lifelong learning. London: Falmer Press.

Ellis, R. (2003). Task based learning and teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Flores, M.A. (2005). Mapping new teacher change: Findings from a two-year study. *Teacher Development*, 9(3), 389–412.

Fullan, M. (1995). The limits and the potential of professional development. In T.R. Guskey, T.R. & M. Huberman (Eds.), *Professional development in education: New paradigms and practices* (pp. 253–267). New York: Teachers College Press.

Fullilove, J. (1992). The tail that wags. *Institute of Language in Education Journal*, 9, 131–147.

Grugeon, E., Inskip, M., Cox, R., Scrivener, V., Shaw, H., Smith, B., & Symonds, A. (1989). Teacher development through collaborative research. In P. Woods (Ed.) *Working for teacher development.* (pp. 65–97). Dereham: Peter Francis Publishers.

Hargreaves, A. (1995). Development and desire: A postmodern perspective. In T.R. Guskey & M. Huberman (Eds.), *Professional development in education: New paradigms and practices* (pp. 9–34). New York: Teachers College Press.

Hollon, R.E., Roth, K.J. & Anderson, C.W. (1991). Science teachers' conceptions of teaching and learning. In J. Brophy (Ed.), *Advances in research on teaching, Volume 2* (pp. 145–185). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

- Karavas-Doukas, E. (1996). Using attitude scales to investigate teachers' attitudes to the communicative approach. *ELT Journal*, 50(3), 187–198.
- Kemmis, S., & McTaggart, R. (2000). Participatory action research. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.) *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 559–603). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.
- Kerkes, J. (2001). How can SLA theories and SLA researchers contribute to teachers' practices? In B. Johnston & S. Irujo (Eds.) Research and practice in language education: Voices from the field. (pp. 17–41). Minneapolis: Centre for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition.
- Knezedivc, B. (2001). Action research. IATEFL Teacher Development SIG Newsletter, 1, 10–12.
- Lederman, N. (1999). Teachers' understanding of the nature of science and classroom practice: Factors that facilitate or impede the relationship. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 36(8), 916–29.
- Lee, C., & William, D. (2005). Studying changes in the practice of two teachers developing assessment for learning. *Teacher Development*, 9(2), 265–283.
- Leinhardt, G., Putman, R.J., Stein, M.K., & Baxter, J. (1991). Where subject knowledge matters. In J. Brophy (Ed.), *Advances in research on teaching. Volume 2* (pp. 145–185). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Lieberman, A. (1995). Practices that support teacher development. Phi Delta Kappan, 76, 591–596.
- Littlewood, W. (2000). The task-based approach: some questions and suggestions. *ELT Journal*, 58(4), 319–326.
- Merriam, S., & Caffarella, R. (1999). *Learning in adulthood: A comprehensive guide* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Newton, D.P., & Newton, L.D. (2001). Choosing and judging teachers: What heads and student teachers think matters. *Research in Education*, 66, 54–64.
- Nunan, D. (2004). Task-based language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C., Gallo, P.B., & Renandya, W. A. (2001). Exploring teachers' beliefs and the processes of change. *PAC Journal*, *1*, 41–58.
- Rice, P., & Ezzy, D. (1999). *Qualitative research methods: A health focus*. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.
- Samuda, V. (2001). Guiding relationships between form and meaning during task performance. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan & M. Swain (Eds.), Researching pedagogic tasks. Second language learning, teaching and testing. (pp. 119–140). London: Pearson Education Limited.
- Samuda, V., Johnson, K., & Ridgway, J. (2000). Designing language learning tasks: A guide. Vol 1. (Working Papers on Task Design No. 1). Department of Linguistics and Modern English Language. University of Lancaster.
- Shulman, L.S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1–23.
- Smylie, M. (1995). Teacher learning in the workplace: Implications for school reform. In T.R. Guskey & M. Huberman (Eds.), *Professional development in education: New paradigms and practices* (pp. 92–113). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Smylie, M.A., & Hart, A.W. (1999). School leadership for teacher learning and change: A human and social capital development perspective. In J. Murphy & K. Louis (Eds.). *Handbook of research on educational administration*. (pp. 421–441). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2001). Focus on form through collaborative dialogue: Exploring task effects. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan & M. Swain (Eds.), Researching pedagogic tasks. Second language learning, teaching and testing. (pp. 99–118). London: Pearson Education Limited.
- Swartz, E. (2004). Casing the self: A study of pedagogy and critical thinking. *Teacher Development*, 8(1), 45–65.
- Turner-Bisset, R. (2001). Expert teaching knowledge and pedagogy to lead the profession. London: David Fulton Publishers.
- Zeichner, K.N. (2003). Teacher research as professional development for P-12 educators in the USA. Educational Action Research, 11, 301–325.

# Appendix 1: Researcher's summary of observation of Annie's Lesson 1 (Phase 1)

#### Lesson focus

Video viewing about Hong Kong tourism

#### Start

T checked answers on the worksheets about a video by helping students with the *spelling of words* (sometimes with the help of phonics), *explaining words* (sometimes with the help of Chinese) and *introducing phrases and sentence patterns*.

#### Pre-task

### Task 1

- T made Ss read the questions on worksheet
- T played the video

#### Task 2

- Assigned an error-correction task to Ss
  - Explained the four kinds of mistakes that Ss would have to identify preposition, singular/plural, adjectives/adverb, and use of articles a/the
  - o Emphasised there were no tense errors in the article provided
  - o T demonstrated the correction of mistakes in the first part of the article by using Q/A

#### Task

#### Task 1

- T introduced words with the help of phonics while talking about three Chinese cultures mentioned in the video
- T introduced the words in the vocabulary list
- Ss followed T to read aloud the words in the vocabulary list

#### Task 2

- Ss worked on the second part of the article and T allowed them to discuss
- T checked answers with Ss by using Q/A

#### End

• T assigned a homework writing task to Ss: Write about six attractions in Hong Kong

### Appendix 2: Researcher's summary of Rose's Lesson 5 (Phase 3)

#### Lesson focus

Reading

#### Pre-task

T distributed three pieces of unfavourable news about Jackie Chan to Ss and Ss read them individually

# **Task**

- T explained the meaning of 'ups and downs' and plotted a chart of the ups and downs in Jackie Chan's life on a slide by Q/A
- · Ss plotted their own charts of ups and downs individually and shared the work with their friends in groups

#### End

- Two Ss shared their work in front of the class
- T shared her ups and downs in life

# Appendix 3: Researcher's summary of Winnie's Lesson 4 (Phase 2)

### **Lesson focus**

Reading

### Pre-task

- T explained to Ss the meaning of 'reading between the lines' and three steps for helping Ss understand the hidden meaning of lines
- T introduced the background and relationship between two characters and read Conversation A between the two characters
- Ss thought about the hidden meaning of a line in Conversation A individually and T checked their level of understanding by Q/A afterwards

# **Task**

- T read Conversation B and required Ss to work in pairs to answer the guided questions and write a conclusion by following the sentence pattern given
- Ss formed groups and chose a line for analysing its hidden meaning and T checked their level of understanding by Q/A afterwards

# Appendix 4: Researcher's summary of Mandy's Lesson 4 (Phase 2)

### Lesson focus

Reading a poem

### Pre-task

- Ss read the poem aloud by following T.
- T demonstrated examples of action verbs for snowflakes and people, as well as words for body parts Ss then looked for these words in the poem and thought of others by Q/A
- T provided a sentence pattern for Ss writing their own poems and showed an example

# Task

- Ss worked in groups
- 5 groups shared their work by reading their own poems aloud, along with motions

# Appendix 5: Researcher's summary of Annie's Lesson 5 (Phase 3)

#### Lesson focus

Writing

#### Pre-task

 As background information, T cited three examples to teach Ss methods for rearranging sentences in the first two paragraphs

### **Task**

- Ss worked in groups and tried to rewrite the first two paragraphs of three essays written by their classmates
- T and Ss worked together on the three essays by Q/A

# Appendix 6: Researcher's summary of Rose's Lesson 1 (Phase 1)

#### Lesson focus

Tenses

#### Task

- Ss followed T in reading vocabulary aloud from an e-mail
- T guided Ss to do the exercise following the text of an e-mail:
  - o Tintroduced the basic elements of an e-mail by comparing it with a homepage
  - o Individual Ss gave answers for the exercise
  - o T asked Ss to point out the places of the text where they found the answers; introduced words with the help of Chinese and phonics; and corrected grammatical mistakes made by Ss
- T asked Ss two questions which were not included in the textbook to help them understand the meaning of the logos used in an e-mail, and to identify the tense used (past tense)
- T required Ss to underline the verbs in the e-mail that were in the past tense form, and the time words for the past tense; Ss performed task individually
- T required Ss to compare their work with other Ss and they did so
- T checked answers with Ss and revised the rules for the use of the simple present tense by using Q/A
- T drew a figure and demonstrated with examples to explain the time lines for using the simple present and past tense, and asked individual Ss to figure out the time words for the past tense
- T posted word cards on the blackboard and asked individual Ss to write the past forms of the verbs, and also required Ss to categorise these verbs into groups by using Q/A afterwards
- T introduced the categories of regular and irregular verb forms for the past tense
- Ss worked on the worksheet, writing the past forms of verbs
- T checked answers by asking Ss to read them aloud
- T taught Ss the methods of using an auxiliary to form negative sentences in the past tense

#### Post-task

- Ss worked on an exercise in the grammar book about the use of the past tense
- T checked answers by using Q/A

#### End

- T brought up the structure of 'verb + to be' and required Ss to read the notes in the book
- T assigned homework