Rethinking washback: The interplay of beliefs and contextual factors to mediate pedagogy

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June 2013

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy in education

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The candidate confirms that the work submitted is his/her own work and that appropriate credit has been given where references has been made to the work of others.

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To my dearest wife Min-Erh Huang, who has given all love

and support.

To my parents, parents-in-laws, and my son.

Acknowledgements

Abstract

This study addresses issues of English as a foreign language (EFL) practice in the attainment-oriented context at the tertiary level. Referring to the widespread use of testing as an instrument for the enhancement of teaching quality, the study stresses the importance of teachers' epistemological beliefs and other contextual factors to mediate teacher's pedagogical decision-making. Four EFL teachers at Air Force colleges in Taiwan were selected to participate in the present research. The EFL teachers' beliefs were collected by semi-structured interviews, and actual classroom practices were analyzed through a taxonomy of teachers' questions, a taxonomy of teachers' corrective feedback and Communicative Orientation Language Teaching (COLT) scheme analysis. The evidence of this case study generated four archetypal patterns of washback based on aligned or oppositional beliefs and its contexts. The study concludes that test designers' expectations to use a test to innovate the curriculum do not always produce the desired results. Education reform that requires pedagogical changes of practitioners but fails to provide re-attribution training and sufficient resources to effect belief changes will likely yield resistance and pressure. Finally, implications of four archetypes of washback on the teaching of English are presented in order to sustain the successful testing, teaching, and learning.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"The washback model predicts that tests may affect the goals that participants set for themselves in their learning and teaching … washback is experienced differently by participants in different contexts and with different beliefs about testing and its relation to learning (Green, 2007, p. 71)."

1.1 Socialized teacher decision-making

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relative impact of washback effects, teachers' beliefs and contextual factors on teachers' instructional decision-making. It aims to develop an understanding into the interactive relationship between mediating factors resulting in low or high intensity of washback effects in recent assessment-driven reform. In Taiwan, over the past few decades, policy-makers and educators have purposely adopted various testing systems as education reform in order to enhance learning outcomes and teaching effectiveness. Many scholars in the past also believed that a valid test correlates to a good quality teaching for learning (Vernon, 1956; Davies, 1968; Wiseman, 1961). However, teaching practice in fact is always dynamic, interacting with contextual factors in which environmental characteristics and personal beliefs affect pedagogical decision-making. The actual teaching is far more complex than those proponents of using a test to leverage the changes have suggested. Each different educational context involves social, cultural, economical and political aspects, and plays a decisive role in facilitating or hampering the success of education

reform (Cheng, 1999). In a pioneering study about the phenomenon of how a test influences teaching and learning termed washback, Alderson & Wall (1993) noted that effects of a test were evident to some teachers but not for others. Burrows (2004) purports that teachers' instructional responses to a new test, in a classroom, are complicated, rather than being a simple uniformed mechanical reaction. She strongly argues that teachers' interpretations are derived from teachers' beliefs, prior knowledge and learning experience, all of which have led to different patterns of pedagogical decisions-making. According to Green (2007), the teachers play an important role in washback effects and adjust their teaching in response to contextual features and personal concerns. However, a significant number of studies have assumed the key role of teacher, whereas a limited body of research has presented the empirical evidence from classroom observations on a link between the process of implementing a test and the role of teachers in different contexts.

In contrast to perception that only the classes at high schools will focus on test preparation, higher education in Taiwan has also encountered the same issues that high-stakes testing procedures have interfered with English teaching and learning. An idea of curriculum alignment from the West, which heavily relies on the outcomes of achievement tests, namely the ideas of using test-standards to promote teaching quality, have been introduced into the field of English teaching. Recently, tertiary English teachers throughout Taiwan islandwide are required to administer a variety of

international standardized English language examinations (e.g. TOEFL, GEPT, IELTS, and ECL) to students in their classrooms. Teachers at military institutions are no exception and need to be gauged by test-takers' scores on English tests for the effectiveness of instruction. The English Comprehension Language (ECL) Test designed by the U.S. Defense Language Institute (DLI) is widely used at Taiwanese military institutions in order to meet the new requirements of English language proficiency for the training at overseas bases. In addition, Taiwan's Ministry of Defense (TMOD) also requires military institutions to teach the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) for the purpose of cadets' international exchange programmes. Standardized international English tests are often regarded not only as tools used to screen test candidates but also as a means to control a school system. Under the learning outcomes being judged by tests, the TMOD overwhelmingly reinforces the alignment between assessment and instruction from testing to teaching as a goal of teaching, despite some teachers' objections to examination preparation dictating the curriculum. These testing systems have caused teachers to teach to the test that is apart from the original role they are supposed to do in a university (Shih, 2010). English classes are taught with more structured but may be less entertaining (Cheng, 1999; Qi, 2004). School leaders also impose pressure on teachers to improve students' test scores leading to anxiety owing to the reports of student performance relating to school's reputations (Hsu, 2009; Shohamy, et. al., 1996). However, although it is undeniable that tests have often resulted in deleterious impacts, these tests have

induced beneficial effects for some teachers. From a constructivist perspective, teaching an integrated skill test may emphasize the role of learner in the process of organizing and restructuring knowledge (Cheng, 2005). Performance-based test may encourage learners' authentic language use. Thus, different tests have created a wide spectrum of test impacts on teachers and schools. Whether international English tests may hinder or promote teaching and learning needs to empirically be examined. Furthermore, previous washback studies have suggested washback is far more complex than the simple one-dimensional manipulation. Alderson & Wall (1993) and later Alderson & Hamp-Lyons (1996) propose that the effect of washback is not to the same degree or kind from teacher to teacher. The test cannot fully explain teachers' practices, for the actual teaching and learning situation is dynamic in the complicated context. The previous linear ideas of levering the changes in teaching and learning by changes in testing have been widely debated in perspectives of teacher beliefs. Regarding education innovation and change, as Fullan (2007, p. 11) suggests "large-scale reform is about shared meaning, which means that it involves simultaneously individual and social change" it would necessitate the focus on the level of individual teachers and their problems needing to be solved. Bearing in mind the complexity of washback, the present study continues this line of enquiry in washback research, but aims to explore mutual relations between test design and teachers' beliefs for stronger or weaker washback intensity. Since teachers' beliefs and the context are inevitably related, contextual factors should be addressed simultaneously.

1.2 Washback

In practice, Taiwan's education has been examination-led, where learning tasks and activities are largely dedicated to test items and formats. Most teachers prepare their junior high school students to pass the Senior High School Entrance Exams, and then the University Entrance Exams. Assessment is the primary tool for schools to select their students. Therefore, the role of schools can be regarded as a selection device and the role of students as a scoring machine. Recently, however, socially conscious teachers have protested against this examination-led system. Their beliefs, such as those concerning learning equality, disagree with schools, which give up low-performing students in placement tests used to determine entrance to elite high schools and colleges. Once in a while these teachers' actions will become a newspaper headline to trigger discussion in society. However, it cannot be denied that the majority of school teachers are still influenced by the tests.

The term washback is frequently used in language studies to address the influence of testing on teaching and learning. Although an older term backwash is used by some education scholars in a different sense manner, the discussions of this phenomenon in British Language Testing have tended to use the term "washback" rather than "backwash." The notion of 'washback' or 'backwash' is used to describe the types of influence of a test on teaching and learning, and recent studies have expanded its impact on broader areas such educational policy, society, and school (Bailey, 1996).

Therefore, it is important to describe the complex relationship between assessment and instruction within the objectives of the mandated national English curriculum. I propose a wide range of impacts on education from a test:

1. Reforming school curriculum. The examination dictates the activities in schools.

2. Reshaping course syllabus. Syllabus design is usually based on the past examination papers and is administered with similar a type and content year after year.

3. Regaining accountability. The examinations are regarded as useful and desirable to improve the effectiveness of teaching.

4. Reinforcing test validity. Good tests are educationally beneficial and thus take washback for granted. Therefore, curriculum changes must be started through changes in testing.

5. Resetting learning outcomes. Thus the examination standards define students' learning content and performance objectives.

6. Changing teaching content and methods. Teachers' teaching methods and learning tasks can be improved because of washback.

Thus, a change to a test can influence the school curriculum, monitor teaching quality, measure students' learning, and steer the teaching. Washback effects that teachers perceive and enact will be explored in more detail in chapter 9.

However, I will focus particularly on the aspect of the effect of washback on "changing teaching content and method" to refer to how washback might influence teacher decision-making. There is a need to propose the typology of the impacts of the test on teachers in terms of content and method. This, therefore, is a pedagogical rather than an overall impact of the typology. The above classifications of the washback effect conceptualize the influences of a test on overall educational organization, while it is likely that washback on teaching is more complex. Indeed there may impact on a range of teaching situations. To enhance our understanding of how washback may occur in English teaching and learning, I propose the following categories:

- Language skills – traditionally isolated skills that are taught independently of one another; or innovatively integrated skills that are combined with other language skills.

- Teaching approaches – teaching that focuses on communication with student-centred methods; or focuses on rote knowledge with teacher-centred methods.

- Tasks and activities – arranging teaching for test practices; or including other higher-order cognitive tasks such as critical thinking, problem-solving, information gap, etc.

- Materials used – the use of mock tests and test taking techniques; or the use of topics to bring learning content from daily life.

- Content focused – teaching largely test-related content; or academically curricular English courses.

Thus the washback effects on teacher decision-making may involve issues concerning the approaches to teaching language skills, whether they exhibit high degrees of integration for communicative competence; or whether they isolate skills, separating reading, writing, listening or speaking into different classes. Similarly, washback will influence whether teachers carry out assessment-led tasks or academic-based learning processes for study skills. These categories are likely to demonstrate the extent to which washback has influenced teaching. The above categories of washback effects on teaching might help us to clarify our thinking if we attempt to apply Alderson & Wall's (1993) Washback Hypotheses. The point they are making is that Washback Hypotheses make assumptions about how people are influenced. The assertion is that a test forces people to do certain things. Some possible Washback Hypotheses:

1) A test will influence teaching.

2) A test will influence learning.

3) A test will influence <u>how</u> teachers teach.

4) A test will influence <u>what</u> teachers teach.

5) A test will influence what learners learn.

6) A test will influence how learners learn.

7) A test will influence the <u>rate</u> and sequence of learning.

8) A test will influence the rate and sequence of teaching.

9) A test will influence the <u>degree</u> and <u>depth</u> of learning.

10) A test will influence the degree and depth of teaching.

11) A test will influence attitudes to the content, method, etc. of teaching / learning.

12) Tests that have important consequences will have washback.

13) Tests that do not have important consequences will have no washback.

14) Tests will have washback on all learners and teachers.

15) Tests will have washback effects for some learners and some teachers, but not for others. (Alderson & Wall, 1993)

Washback Hypotheses include variables of the content of the test, the content, rate, sequence, degree, depth, methodology of the teaching / learning, and the importance of the consequences of performance on a test. However, Alderson and Wall in their last hypothesis remind us to look at other variables operating within individuals, since tests have washback effects for some learners and some teachers but not for others. This implies that washback does not work uniformly on a variety of people in different contexts. This is truly what we are arguing about taking the context and the role of teacher into account on teacher decision-making. The problems of the use of language assessment tests in Taiwan and in its military institutions are discussed below to argue that there are other factors mediating teachers' practices.

1.3 Problems of teaching to the test in Taiwan and its military institutions

The goal of establishing rigorous standards with achievement measured through testing has triggered an intense debate about educational reform in Taiwan. This has been the biggest issue since the government initiated its first curriculum reform in 1987 after abolishing martial law. In 2003, the Taiwan Ministry of Education (TMOE) stated that "In keeping with the 21st century and the global trends of educational reform, the government must engage in educational reform in order to foster national competitiveness and the overall quality of our citizens' lives." Though the TMOE has changed the curriculum, the teaching, and the textbook, one thing that has never changed is the emphasis on high-stakes testing. According to two famous English education writers,

> Such outcomes-based approaches have, in particular, attracted a large political following from those seeking "accountability" for educational investment … as we enter a new millennium, the business of improving learning competencies and skills will remain one of the world's fastest growing industries and priorities (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.l48).

Examinations continue to play an important role in the whole education and the whole curriculum. TMOE has launched a series of policies regarding higher language proficiency for quality enhancement of higher education. In the Enhancing Global Competitiveness Plan 2003, the aim is to foster students' foreign language capacity. Colleges have adapted international standardized language assessments as yardsticks to measure academic performance. In other words, scores on achievement tests

represent students' learning, and inevitably, many current English teachers overwhelmingly emphasize the teaching for examinations.

Assessment-driven English education at the Taiwanese military institutions is no exception. Order 0990000167 of the TMOD adopted in July 2010 stipulates in regard to English learning at military institutions that "The military institutions should adhere to the provisions of the defense readiness … promote levels of cadets' English proficiency so that they are qualified for overseas military training with other countries." Attention from the TMOD to the number of qualified candidates for abroad-based training led to changes of education policy towards the satisfactory achievement of English proficiency. Most commonly, this has involved setting short-term and long-term goals in English teaching for students in order to pass a minimum score threshold on a proficiency test like the ECL or TOEFL.

In reality, although many departments of foreign language teaching planned academic English study, test preparation for the ECL and the TOEFL remained the unavoidable mission in teachers' practice at military institutions. As the date of an official ECL test came closer, English teaching with the pursuit of score attainment had been enacted differently from the original role teachers were given for academic purposes. While teaching to the test is a phenomenon that is not limited to the military institutions, there is a confrontation with perceived formal teaching that has not been approved in Taiwan Higher Education sector. The tensions occur when the TMOE imposes

accountability on schools through students' test scores on standardized international English tests but not allow test preparation courses at schools. A gap between educational policy and actual teaching is evident in the real world of Taiwanese institutions. (The details of the context are discussed in the next chapter.)

A second dimension of the debate is specific to the assessment in terms of norm-referenced and criterion-referenced paradigms. Norm-referenced tests are designed to examine individual performance in relation to the performance of a representative group. From the past to the present, all public examinations in Taiwan are norm-referenced in the format of multiple-choice tests for effective administration and quicker scoring. Weir (1979) pointed out the distinct advantages of traditional norm-referenced English testing are that they produce data which are easily quantifiable, as well as a complete coverage of structural rules in language. These traditional tests focusing on assessing linguistic items are efficient and have a good indication of reliability associated with objective scores. The characteristics of structuralist testing have been accepted as an efficient way to assess students' English ability and are still used for current public or external examinations in EFL contexts. However, traditional linguistic testing faced the defects of the measurement of proficiency because crucial properties of language are lost. The criticism is that linguistic proficiency cannot measure sufficient component skills for communication.

Criterion-referenced tests document individual performance in relation to a specific

set of skills. Knowledge of an individual's performance on a criterion-referenced assessment provides explicit information as to what a student can or cannot do, thereby providing an index of competence that is independent of the performance of others. Kelly (1978) argued that applied linguists should be more interested in the development and measurement of an ability to take part in specified communicative performance, the production of and comprehension of coherent discourse, rather than in linguistic competence. This was echoed by Spolsky's (1989) point that perhaps instead of attempting to establish a person's knowledge of a language in terms of a percentage mastery of grammar and lexis. We would be better employed in testing that person's ability to perform in a specified socio-linguistic setting. Today, most international standardized English language tests are based on criterion-referenced measurements.

Nevertheless, the transformation and transition of language testing from a means of memorizing vocabulary and grammar into a means of promoting and assessing the interactively integrated ability to foster learners' active communicative competence does not occur without obstacles. In the past, test designers seemed to believe they could control teaching and learning through an exam without providing sufficient training on how to teach the materials to be tested on the exam (Shohamy, 1993). Test developers were merely concerned with face, content, construct and criterion validity and the various aspects of reliability. They assumed a valid and reliable test would generate great effects on school curriculum and teaching practice. Although criterion-referenced

assessment has been embraced with enthusiasm by large sections of the English teaching profession, it is not without critics. For instance, there is no guidance available to help teachers to elicit students' creativity and critical thinking, but most test preparation textbooks focus on test-taking strategies.

Ideally, all teachers expect their students to be able to develop all essential skills to solve problems with what they have learned in the classroom. This goal is reflected in many education systems in which teachers are expected to develop students' critical thinking and life-long learning skills. In Taiwan, however, high-stakes tests, including public exams, institution entrance exams, and international standardized exams have interfered with these goals. Washback of such high-stakes exams produces a powerful influence on teachers and the whole education system. Teaching to the test is largely a consequence of the high-stakes testing, which is widely seen as being controversial in schools and universities. Thus, while some teachers are opposed to norm-referenced assessments because they claim the norms are inappropriate, other teachers tend to prefer to use them; and while some teachers feel criterion-referenced assessments is better, most teachers may feel it is difficult to teach them and disagree with the specified criteria (Chan, et. al., 2006). It seems that teachers' beliefs and their specific contextual features might predominate over their decisions in classroom practice. It is in this context that this study was conceived.

1.4 Theoretical framework

The thesis will incorporate the knowledge about the role and nature of washback in teacher's practice by making reference to variations in education reform which generally involves mediating factors, specifically in terms of test design, teacher's beliefs and contextual factors. It is helpful at this stage to briefly review the various definitions of washback, intended/unintended effects, and previous washback models. Studies of washback were fruitful, but often made inconsistent conclusions about washback. There are however, critical types of positive and negative washback effects that appeared in certain types of testing systems, and in certain contexts.

1.4.1 Similar terms to washback

In light of the changes that occurred owing to high-stakes testing or reformed assessment, researchers have tried to bring new perspectives to the concepts about how a test will influence teaching and learning. In education, terms like test impact (Backman & Palmer, 1996; Davies, 1968), systemic validity (Fredericksen & Collins, 1989), curriculum alignment (Biggs, 2003; English & Steffy, 2001), and assessment-driven instruction (Popham, 1987). However, the notion of washback (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Messick, 1996; Shohamy, et. al., 1996) or backwash (Hughes, 1989) is prevalent in applied linguistics.

Though there are different assertions between these terms with specific definitions, their fundamental concepts are similar to the description of how a test will become an influence on education. These terms are sometimes used interchangeably because of

sharing common parts. Davies (1968) defined test impact as testing instruments had become teaching tools, while test impact was generally referred to nothing but negative consequences. Systemic validity is the introduction of a test into the education system with the aims of improving teaching and learning (Fredericksen & Collins, 1989). Tests or examinations can and should drive teaching, and hence learning is called measurement-driven instruction (Popham, 1987) or curriculum alignment (English & Steffy, 2001). In English education and applied linguistics, backwash or washback is renowned by Alderson & Wall (1993) "teachers and learners to do things they would not necessarily otherwise do because of the test" and Hughes (1989) "the effect of testing on teaching and learning." Later, Shohamy, et. al. (2001) present an refinement on washback with a broader definition as "a test will bring curricular and instructional changes in education."

Table 1-1 Definitions of washback and other synonymous terms

Washback
    Teachers and learners to do things they would not necessarily otherwise do because of the test.
Backwash
    The effect of testing on teaching and learning.
Test impact
    Testing instruments had become teaching tools.
Systemic validity
    Introduction of a test into the education system with the aim of improving teaching and learning.
Curriculum alignment
    Tests or examinations can and should drive teaching, and hence learning

Though the distinction between washback and other synonymous terms is based

on implicit approaches, I agree with Bailey (1996), Shohamy, et. al. (2001), and Wall

(2000) who assert that washback is expecting "levers for changes via a test" should be

regarded as one of education reforms, which will have greater impacts and involves

more mediating variables.

1.4.2 Intended and unintended washback effects

Any test is designed with its intended washback effects, but it inevitably produces

some unintended washback effects simultaneously. Intended washback effects include

the promotion of learning goals (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Cheng, 1997, 2005),

accountability (Shohamy, et. al., 1996), and time allocation and resources (Ferman,

2004). However, there are plenty of unintended washback effects including narrowing

curriculum (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Cheng & Curtis, 2004; Cheng, 2005; Qi, 2004),

negative attitude, pressure and anxiety (Shohamy, 1996), and overuse of test scores

(Cheng, 1997; Green, 2007). Thus, the notion of washback is far more complex than

previous researchers' simple definition. Alderson (2004) proposes that washback

studies need to take careful account, not only of the context into which the test is

introduced, but of all the myriad forces that can both enhance and hinder the

implementation of the intended change. Thus, my thesis argues that washback is an

innovation practice, and other variables to influence how teachers teach cannot be

ignored.

1.4.3 Washback interplaying with a combination of factors

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More recently, studies of washback have expanded to take into account other mediating factors, since washback effects are complex and change due to teachers' practices in different settings. Studies have progressed from a linear stimulus-response model, to a black box model, and advanced to a multi-faceted model (Burrows, 2004). The traditional view of washback is as a liner stimulus-response mode which proposes that a good test will out of necessity bring good results as uniform response. However, positive and negative washback effects from evidence-based studies have shown there are other factors other than the test to influence teachers' practice in test preparation for students. For instance, we can no longer take teachers' classroom practice for granted, rather their beliefs, conceptions, and attitudes have played an important role in the classroom context. Nespor (1987), Pajares (1992), Johnson (1994), Fang (1996), Borg (2001) and Peacock (2001) in teacher education research show that teacher beliefs have profoundly influenced teachers' instructional behaviours and these beliefs are largely associated with their past learning experience and knowledge. Teacher beliefs precede the behaviours employed in teaching and can provide the explanations for their own classroom practices. Studies on teacher belief (Borg, 2003; Freeman, 1996; Johnson, 1994; Kagan, 1992; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Peacock, 2001; Tardy & Snyder, 2004) have shown the great implications for classroom teachers.

Regarding contextual factors, Cheng (2004), Choi (2008), McNamara & Shohamy (2008), and Sasaki (2008) have mentioned the importance of social and cultural

components to mediate teachers' teaching. Whether teachers are provided appropriate support is important to the uptake of innovative curriculum (Wedell, 2008). Gradually, researchers have begun to realize that other operating forces within the context also facilitate or hinder the washback effect in the process of teaching and learning (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Cheng, 1998; Wall, 1996; Watanabe, 1996).

Much of the washback literature embodies the view that a test in association with other factors may determine teachers' pedagogical decision-making. Contemporary researchers have begun to acknowledge that teachers are individuals, who have different beliefs and work in different contexts. Therefore, referring to washback as if it was a unitary concept having identical influence on every classroom is simplistic. The simple effect of a test on teaching and learning was often assumed in previous studies, but recent studies suggest that other factors such as beliefs and contextual factors might mediate washback effects. In reality, neither norm-referenced testing, nor criterion-referenced testing completely generates their intended washback effects. Teachers have responded differently toward any kind of testing, which therefore resulted in positive and negative washback effects. Some teachers might have aligned their beliefs with the requirements of pedagogical reform, but some teachers might struggle with contradictory beliefs of acceptance and discomfort. Such complex feelings cannot be ignored, since studies over the past few decades have confirmed the relationship between beliefs and behaviours. Thus, individual teachers have their own

decisions to make about whether to focus heavily on the test techniques or to foster students' core abilities. Washback effect of a test will vary according to teachers' beliefs and contexts. This needs to be understood before policy makers can validly say that the introduction of a new test will have positive influence on the classroom. The present research will investigate the important role of teachers' individual beliefs, skills, knowledge, and their work contexts in producing different types of washback effects.

1.5 My own background

My daily teaching for students at the tertiary level and my work experiences in an English Language Teaching Centre have led me to reflect upon the attitudes that English teachers have within our education system. As a teacher of English in Taiwan, I have been devoted to the improvement of teaching skills through the study of postgraduate programs. When I completed a M.A. degree in English Language Teaching in England, I began to consider teaching from a different perspective that I previously had not considered. To develop my understanding, I pursued my research in Scotland and came to perceive the truths that I had been previously blind to and developed insights into the qualities of good teaching practice. I was eager to know the characteristics of effective teaching practices. Such reflection has led me to explore all possible factors that might mediate teacher instruction, such as teacher development and training, teaching resources, education policies, employment contract, salary and bonus, teacher beliefs, etc. I want to know why some teachers can make their teaching

vivid, whilst other teachers fail to engage their learners. In particular, I personally disagree that teaching to the test is a shortcut to learning a language well. It is an educational mistake if the teacher does not foster students' ability, but stays in a comfort zone to muddle through the teaching year after year. Nevertheless, my experiences and much of my subsequent reading have led me to believe that washback is not the sole factor influencing classroom practice.

From knowledge of language acquisition theories and experience of English teaching for college students, I have developed my interests in tertiary English teaching and in the factors that mediate teachers' decision-making on their instruction. This study can be explained in terms of its pioneer spirit in education to explore possible factors mediating teachers' classroom practice, and the importance for higher education in terms of English education reform, national English standards, local university syllabus development, test preparation programs, and teacher evaluation. University teachers, administrative staff, and test writers may also find the research outcomes concerning the administration of English placement tests useful. The study as a whole reflects my own personal values and interests; ultimately these have shaped the form that the study has taken.

1.6 The study

The study aims to investigate the role of washback and other possible causational factors mediating washback effects on teachers' instructional behaviours in the context of major international standardized English test systems. The ECL and the TOEFL iBT have been widely implemented in recent years across the military colleges in Taiwan for the purposes of overseas study and training. As two quite different tests have been introduced in military colleges, these may have a variety of washback effects and fresh teachers' beliefs on language teaching. Inevitably, it is important to know whether teachers have changed their teaching methods as the result of ECL tests or TOEFL iBT tests, to allow me to compare test design, teacher characteristics, and contexts. Using pairwise comparison, the ECL test as a norm-referenced test was taught by a teacher from the Air Force Academy and by a teacher from the Air Force Institute. As well, the TOEFL iBT test as a criterion-referenced test, which focuses on language competency, was taught at the two different military colleges. The present research investigates the extent to which congruence between test goals and teachers' beliefs, and other contextual factors affect test washback.

1.7 Research questions

The research questions for this study were:

1. How does washback of ECL (norm-referenced) test and washback from TOEFL iBT (criterion-referenced) test impact on teachers' practices of test preparation courses and academic English teaching at two Taiwanese Air Force colleges?

2. To what extent are washback of ECL (norm-referenced) test and washback of TOEFL iBT (criterion-referenced) test moderated by teachers' beliefs and other contextual factors at two Air Force colleges?

3. What is the interactive relationship between tests (e.g., norm-referenced ECL, criterion-referenced TOEFL iBT) and mediating factors (e.g., teachers' beliefs, contextual factors) resulting in low or high intensity of washback effects at two Air Force colleges?

1.8 The contributions of the study

The first contribution of the present study may be of significance to test writers. It is hoped that they may gain a deeper understanding of important issues in a test's influences. For instance, how EFL teachers interpret and respond differently to test items, language standards and skills to be included in the tests, and how EFL contexts have influenced positive and negative washback effects. The outcomes of the research may allow test writers to apply the study findings of washback effects to adapt the test to be more appropriate for EFL contexts. The difficulties for EFL teachers in accepting new communicative tests or criterion-based tests will be understood by test writers who may be equipped to promote more positive washback for teachers.

The second contribution is to provide a thorough understanding of these aspects which will allow educational authorities to make informed decisions about

standards-based schooling. The understanding of teachers' beliefs about washback and possible causal factors could be employed to eliminate negative effects of tests in schools and promote positive effects. It is expected when the educational authorities announce school accountability using test scores on the international English tests, they should be aware of the extent to which teacher behaviour is reflective of tests, and the degree that washback will promote students to meet the rising benchmarks. Perhaps contextual constraints might decrease the weights of washback in teaching.

The third contribution is that college teachers who are responsible for academic English and test preparation have an opportunity to look at themselves and others tackling the problems of the washback effect, including the alignment of curriculum, instruction, and assessment, positive/negative washback on their teaching, and the needs of teacher development. With its emphasis on a group of college EFL teachers, the present study will offer deep insights directly relevant to their needs in terms of teacher development, material resources, school policy, etc.

Last but not least, the contribution with the provision of understanding in psychological and ecological factors to play in mediating washback will allow ELT centres to develop better teacher development to cultivate positive teacher beliefs, to introduce teaching techniques and strategies, to deal with the relationship between instruction and assessment, and finally promote English language acquisition for students. The findings ultimately provide data to enable us to gauge the extent to which

testing does or does not change teaching, which will inform better alignment between tested standards and enacted curriculum. Thus, teacher development programs need to prepare in-service teachers to be aware of, and to be sensitive to the issues between teaching and testing. This study will supply valuable information to assist the people in charge of teacher development programs in providing the necessary teaching skills, test guidance, materials and syllabus design which can change teachers' beliefs and practices.

1.9 Structures of the dissertation

This dissertation consists of 9 chapters. **Chapter One** is an introductory overview of the present research to include the purpose of study, issues of washback, research questions, and the contributions of study. **Chapter Two** presents the profiles about the research contexts – military colleges and their English language teaching. **Chapter Three** begins with a literature review of teaching and testing theories to compare the grammar approach and the communicative approach. Secondly, washback definitions, negative and positive washback effects, teacher beliefs mediating washback and other possible causal factors influencing teacher decision-making in teaching are discussed. **Chapter Four** describes the detailed design of the present research: rationale of using a qualitative methodology, justifications of employing a multi-case study, justifications of settings and participants, and data collection procedures and instruments. **Chapter Five** reports the research findings of EFL teacher "Tina" including her age, previous

learning experience, educational background, motivation, attitude, self-efficacy, workload, taught materials, school resources, school policy, contract type, teacher development programs, beliefs about English teaching and learning, beliefs about washback effects, actual classroom practices including type of test preparation course, language skills developed, classroom practice pattern, activities and tasks used, and teaching materials used. **Chapter Six** reports the research findings of EFL teacher "Andy." **Chapter Seven** reports the research findings of EFL teacher "Mary" and **Chapter Eight** is the research findings of EFL teacher "Lee." **Chapter Nine** is the conclusion, which includes the summary of research findings, teachers' beliefs influencing the teaching to promote or hamper washback effects, contextual factors influencing teaching to promote or hamper washback effects, understanding individual variety in responses, contributions to the related literature, implications of the study for classroom practice, and future research needed.

CHAPTER II

THE CONTEXT OF THE PRESENT STUDY

2.1 Introduction

Education in Taiwan is shaped by a multitude of social, historical and cultural factors. The purpose of this chapter is to explain these factors, in order to place my study in its context. Starting with the macro-context and working toward a micro-context, this chapter begins with a brief introduction of the general context of education in Taiwan including key aspects of educational policies, Taiwanese culture-based teaching traditions, and characteristics of Taiwanese teachers and students. It should be noted that students that I have discussed here are EFL students in Air Force colleges, but issues also apply to students in other fields in similar situations. Current EFL education policies impacting on teaching include high-stakes testing, curriculum alignment and 'iron-rice-bowl', or permanent employment, policies that have been considered to influence teachers' day-to-day instruction. In terms of cultures in education, it is not an exaggeration to say that Taiwanese society expects "success in competitive examinations" to lead to a prosperous future. From past to present, scholars who succeed in fierce competition have always been given riches, fame, and social status. Thus, Taiwanese students and teachers see the strong instrumental utility of examinations as a prevailing characteristic in education.

Part 2 focuses more specifically on EFL practices including the relationships between teaching theories and actual teaching programmes available at Air Force colleges. For instance, the grammar-translation approach tends to focus more on receptive skills such as reading and listening, but communicative teaching on the contrary has its focus on productive skills, speaking, writing, and integrated skills. The practices of communicative teaching and testing may be considered reasonable and make intuitive sense to many ELT specialists, educators, and practitioners in the west, but some of the theoretical components represent radical conceptual changes for Chinese teachers of English. Some assumptions of innovative teaching methods are in conflict with traditional Chinese beliefs about and attitudes to teaching and learning in education. In PART 3, context of military institutions and curriculum of two Air Force colleges are presented to help describe issues such as lack of resources, leadership, cadets, teachers, and English curriculum. It becomes important to point out that other than simply being influenced by washback effects, different teachers employ different teaching approaches that might fit their own beliefs and contextual factors.

2.2 General context of education in Taiwan

2.2.1 Educational policies relative to teaching

Every country has its own education policies, resulting in different outcomes, both in teaching and learning. Taiwan is no exception. Recognizing the importance of global competition and collaboration, the Taiwanese government and its TMOE have paid a

great deal of attention to English education for the purpose of internationalization. To improve students' language proficiency, recently the policy of curriculum alignment has been given to teachers with curriculum specifications. However, the curriculum of English education has not been changed in a timely manner to follow the communicative approach to develop students' real-life competence in language use. As a result, because of the high-stakes assessment of students, teachers have shifted their attention to the assessment, and have begun to tailor their teaching to the assessment instrument, hoping students' test scores allowed them to gain admissions to top universities. Such results of language tests are even used as an important criterion for employment in Taiwanese society. In turn, principals require their teachers to improve students' performance on the tests. New policies have played a big role in English education, but one of the ironies is that monitoring under the policy has actually restricted the individual teacher freedoms previously enjoyed by those who embrace the advantages of the 'iron-rice-bowl' contract, which has guaranteed job security. Curriculum alignment, high-stakes testing, and iron-rice-bowl contract have become three key influences upon education in Taiwan to mediate teachers' daily instruction in the classroom. Therefore, it is necessary to give more attention to these growing issues under the context of education in Taiwan.

1. Curriculum alignment in Taiwan

    A major effort to upgrade the Taiwanese educational system was made through the

policy of curriculum alignment introduced during the 1990s through top-down educational management processing. Among all school curriculum innovation and renewal, the English language teaching (ELT) curriculum in Taiwan has always received the greatest amount of attention because of its perceived importance in an era of globalization, when languages play a more important role than ever in world affairs. As often stated, since World War II the English language has become the lingua franca of the world (Crystal, 1997). A billion and a half people speak English for international communication, according to the linguist David Crystal. Similar to most non-English speaking countries, Taiwan considered English as the most important second or foreign language that students should learn in schools. Thus, intentional alterations were conducted to change and update the ELT curricula based on a variety of theories, and the theory of curriculum alignment was accepted in the field of ELT to align curriculum, instruction, and assessment consistently and congruently.

The theory of curriculum alignment coined by F. English (1992) considered the proper connection of curriculum, instruction and assessment to consistently improve achievement both in actual proficiency and the test. Professional curriculum educators including Biggs (2003), and English & Steffy (2001) found that 'what is taught' (curriculum) is more important than 'how it is taught' (teaching methodology) for the enhancement of students' achievement (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Madaus, 1991). They suggest that teachers build their lesson to align standards with standardized tests. Over

the previous fifty years of educational experience and knowledge, there has been a growing body of evidence supporting the idea that what and how much students are taught is associated with, and likely influences, what and how much they learn (Anderson, 2002). Curriculum alignment has been recognized as the most important factor to enhance students' achievement in education in recent years from the perspectives of the western education specialists (Buckendahl, et al., 2000).

Therefore, the TMOE following the trends of education announced its "General Principles of Educational Curricula" for the policy of supporting conscious and deliberate alignment of curriculum objectives and assessments in September 1998. In March 2000, "The Temporary Principles of Curriculum Alignment: First Phase" was released to begin the implementation of curriculum alignment. The overall curricular alignment policy was planned to be actively initiated in all schools in 2004 (TMOE, 2006). Despite the efforts and resources expended, numerous Taiwanese teachers of English until now do not seem to have gone through any essential changes in their practices towards the goal of effective language instruction and in actual classroom practice. Indeed, there has existed a resistance to the implementation of curriculum alignment into the ELT programs. The necessity, appropriateness and effectiveness of adopting curriculum alignment in Taiwanese schools remains a controversial issue today and the Taiwanese government's uncritical approach towards adopting curriculum alignment as an education policy is undergoing vigorous debate.

While government's expectations were high, the overall achievement of students in learning English was deemed unsatisfactory. Even though educational authorities required Taiwanese teachers of English to follow the curriculum guidelines, but teachers' practices varied in certain different levels of resistance (Chen, 2002). Although some English teachers claimed to be followers of curriculum alignment, this was often a matter of paying lip-service. When curriculum alignment was launched in 2000, the curriculum of English was not well written or effectively linked to teaching. Neither was assessment procedure changed in curriculum alignment, though when the curriculum is changed, clearly assessment should correspondingly be reformed. Under such a circumstance, teachers remained with their traditional teaching methods. Invariably, learners are taught test strategies such as recognizing hints from the questions and the format of the test items. Some conscientious teachers argue the alignment with high-stakes testing, because the stereotyped tests of grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension remain dominant in Taiwan today (Su, 2008). Thus, more concerns should be given to whether EFL teachers believe that they are capable of and willing to implement innovative tests to foster higher-cognitive learning, rather than memorizing words but do not know how to appropriately use them.

2. High-stakes testing in Taiwan

Education in Taiwan has been formed by the nation's political and military history. The move from the Mainland China to Taiwan in 1949 required a major reconstruction of

all social and government services, including the schools. In the 1950s, an authoritarian education system was operated on the basis of national needs in science and technology to be able to cooperate with developed countries, e.g., United States and Britain. Babcock (1993) notes that the Nationalist leaders had a relatively good opportunity to achieve the goals they set for education. Since 1950, the central administration of Taiwan has decided to focus on fostering an elite rather than investing in the overall, or even the average student population in order to advance the national interests. Achieving scores on national examinations and international English language tests is a critical factor for entrance into high schools and colleges and for most governmental positions the applicants must show excellence in test scores. Major international businesses and companies have demanded even higher requirements in test scores than local and small companies. In addition to the evaluation of students' language proficiency, the results of tests today have multiple purposes such as the evaluation of school, teacher and teaching. Thus, Chinese teachers of English are under extreme pressure as institutions compete for entrance rates (Burnaby & Sun, 1989), and testing is high stakes.

Wall (2000, p. 499) suggested that high-stakes testing serves a number of functions in students, teachers, and society, ranging from "encouraging higher levels of competence and knowledge" and "checking patronage and corruption" to "measuring and improving the effectiveness of teachers and schools." Teachers and schools'

reputations can be strengthened or weakened with the publication of test results. The impact of high-stakes testing is not only on students' admissions and employment, but also on teachers' accountability, which may lead to anxiety or other negative effects in the classroom. The major high-stakes English language examinations used in Taiwan have been high school and university English entrance examinations and international standardized English tests, e.g., TOEFL, GEPT, IELTS, and ECL.

At the tertiary level, college and university students usually take international standardized English tests such as TOEFL. Recently, the TMOE requested colleges and universities to set the thresholds and standards in language proficiency to promote students' language ability. As to the colleges and universities, English classes have been required to support students to be able to pass international standardized English tests. The impacts of admission and graduation decisions on students are both crucial and controversial. The debates include whether high-stakes test are valid and whether decision-makers should entirely use the test results. Learning at schools under high-stakes testing systems has become narrowed rather than based on a comprehensive syllabus. Alderson and Wall (1993) were aware of this phenomenon and used the notion of 'washback' to investigate the influences of a test on teaching and learning. Almost immediately, educators and researchers in the world claimed that tests and specially high-stakes tests have created both negative and positive washback. The positve effects include a specification of the standards that students should learn, and a

requirement for teachers to cover their subjects, and to judge students' progress. The negative impacts are claimed to be that teaching becomes biased towards the specific content and skill to be tested and to the past tests, and this limits teachers' freedom to teach subjects in their own way.

Popham (1987) advocated using high-stakes tests to influence the curriculum. He argued that when tests were properly designed and implemented, then teachers' teaching would be improved as a positive outcome. However, teachers are diverse in ability and preference about their teaching. Not all teachers agree with rote-based tests and not all teachers can teach communicative tests based on the integrated skills. As many research studies have shown, high-stakes tests produce different effects on teachers and contexts (Alderson and Wall, 1993; Cheng, 1997, 2003; Shohamy, et. al., 1996).

3. The 'Iron-rice-bowl' contract in Taiwan

Iron-rice-bowl contract means a guaranteed job security, simple put a job for life. Teachers have been protected by this favorable contract for decades in Taiwan. For teachers who try to develop students' communicative competence, the system meant they could continue to use their own comprehensive syllabus for students, rather than use a narrowed curriculum. They could experiment with the new teaching methods without fear of being fired. However, the other side of the coin is that conservative teachers are reluctant to learn new teaching methods or new innovations. Their

teaching has hardly changed regardless of the circumstances. Such security may have led to some stagnation in professional development: as Cheng (1997) found, teachers tend to change teaching content, but not change teaching methods. Despite its controversy, the iron-rice-bowl contract is an important factor, allowing teachers to teach as they wish. However, little attention has been paid to this contract that could seriously advance or stagnate teachers' practices in the classroom.

2.2.2 Chinese teaching traditions

The "washback effect" can be traced as far back as one thousand four hundred years ago in China when the Tang Dynasty began national examinations to evaluate candidates' competence as officers. This "Imperial Examination System and Policy" became the first high-stakes test in the East, which drove all Chinese teachers to give "measurement-driven instruction" or so called "exam coaching" for students. Private cram schools were established in towns and villages to teach the topics students were assessed on the examinations. Thus, the phenomenon of 'teaching to the test' has prevailed in Chinese society not just for decades but has been deeply rooted in the culture for thousands of years. A common proverb "To be nominated in national examinations is the path to a rich and prosperous life" was commonly embedded in the minds of the Chinese people. The results of test scoring became the most important goals in schools and teachers had to make use of all possible ways to facilitate student score improvements. Given the traditional importance placed on public examination, the

Taiwan educational system therefore is characterized as an examination-led system, where what goes on in the classroom is largely dictated by what happens in the public examination. English language teaching departments in schools and colleges have no exemption from the inevitable influence of testing programs. With such an examination-driven culture, the importance of testing is apparent in schooling in Taiwan.

Culturally, Chinese (Taiwanese) practices in pedagogy have been influenced heavily by Confucian disciplines. The typical features of Confucian thought internalized throughout Chinese society, and relevant to education are 1.) the hierarchical relationship between teacher and student; 2.) teaching without distinction of classes; 3.) being humble. For Confucians, education is always the highest priority and is a means of human development. All Chinese still strongly believe that "schooling is superior to all" or "everything is second to academic development" due to the pervasive influence of Confucian ideas (Wang, unknown). Although admirable in many ways, these Chinese educational traditions may become cultural barriers interfering with innovations and changes of curriculum in school foreign language learning.

Firstly, consider the maxim that education requires a hierarchical relationship between teacher and student. Confucius used relative positions in hierarchical orders to manage and control a nation (Kelen, 2002). The relations such as ruler/subject, father/son, teacher/student are recognized as the ultimate root of the social order. Students are expected to give their highest respect to the teacher. One of the famous

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sayings in Chinese is that "Being a teacher for only one day entitles one to lifelong respect from the student that befits his father" to illustrate the prestige being a teacher in Chinese society (Wang, unknown). Presumably, it explains the centrality, domination, and power of the teacher found in Chinese classrooms. As a result, students are not allowed to challenge their teachers, as well as not criticizing a teacher's teaching.

Even though integrated skills should be the goal of language learning, traditional teaching has seriously hindered this goal (Harvey, 1985; Rao, 2002). Constructivists advocate the role of teacher, who is not simply as an intellectual worker but as a transformative intellectual (Biggs, 2003). Teachers should be concerned in their teaching with fostering empowerment – the ability to think and act critically. Nevertheless, most Taiwanese teachers of English have focused on the stereotype of teaching, which is called the "feeding-duck' or 'duck-stuffing' approach in Chinese society, likening the process to the force feeding or 'stuffing' of ducks. The philosophy of traditional teaching is characterized by the demonstration of delivering knowledge. Drawing on Chinese scholarly orthodoxies, traditional Taiwanese teachers of English have focused on academic study of grammar, literature, and in-depth analysis of literary texts. In terms of language there is always a right word for a particular place or moment, and therefore the teacher cannot teach a language or any skill, without modeling and showing the correct practice. Chinese educational strategies are inclined toward memorization, through habitual practice without understanding (Kelen, 2002).

Secondly, education was to teach without distinction of classes. A fundamental belief in teaching and learning underlying the Confucian tradition of education is "everyone is educable" (Lee, 1996). Innate ability does not play an essential role for academic success or failure. Confucius and his disciples were willing to teach anyone who wanted to learn. Confucians assert that intelligence and ability are not determinants of educational achievement. "Effort, determination, perseverance, and patience are said to be able to redeem stupidity" an old Chinese saying describes the importance of diligence (Wang, unknown). It implies that a good teacher is able to give "a full bucket of water" if the students need "a bowl of water" for teaching and learning.

The philosophy of traditional teaching is characterized by the demonstration of delivering knowledge. Drawing on Chinese scholarly traditions, teaching English has focused on academic study of grammar, literature, and in-depth analysis of literary texts. Chinese educational strategies are inclined toward memorization and grammar-translation. In fact, the traditional teacher-dominated, knowledge-transmitting, and grammar-based pedagogy are still prevalent in ELT paradigms in Taiwan and affect the learners' higher order language skills.

Thirdly, education should foster a humble manner. The characteristic of humility is important for Chinese social recognition and material rewards. For Confucians, education not only concerns intellectual development but also the cultivation of moral qualities. The emphasis on moral education encourages utilitarian and collective

orientations, but discourages individuality, fulfillment of personal needs and self-expression. Only the distinguished scholars and the elders are empowered to criticize or judge the arguments. Students are taught to listen to authoritative opinions but not to use critical judgment. Thus, independent critical thinking is difficult for Taiwanese students whose society and culture have asked their manner to be silent, patient, conservative, and not to criticize or argue (Kelen, 2002). Criticism and arguments are regarded as inappropriate conduct in traditional Chinese cultures. Born with these local cultures, Chinese students are seldom inclined to think critically, and creatively to show their viewpoints on issues.

2.2.3 General characteristics of Taiwanese learners and their teachers

1. Taiwanese learners of English

The traditional learning strategies for most Chinese students are the triple R's of retention, repetition, and review. To begin with, learning is fundamentally a process of retention. Students are expected to receive and retain the knowledge instructed by their teachers. Memorization is regarded as an efficient strategy in learning in the hearts of Chinese. Studies of the way memorization is carried out and used by Chinese learners suggest that it is a part of a deep and instrumentally effective approach to learning (Hu, 2002). Through cramming and memorizing for tests, students are able to improve their grades in exams. Second, learning is a process of repetition. To acquire knowledge, students need to repeatedly study and practice. Third, learning is a process of review.

Students review what they have received to deepen understanding. Students are expected to be able to accurately reproduce the transmitted knowledge. If students fail to learn through the process of retention-repetition-review, it is an indication of lack of mastery of required knowledge.

2. Taiwanese teachers of English

The most serious constraint comes from the lack of qualified English teachers. A qualified English teacher should be capable in all four skills. But out of 550,000 middle school teachers in Taiwan, only a small percentage of teacher are professionally qualified (Liu & Gong, 2000). Most EFL teachers know only basic English grammar and vocabulary. For them, teaching grammar is the most acceptable because the majority of English tests in Taiwan have been designed to measure learners' ability in understanding grammar (Yu, 2001). Because of the elitist education policies, Taiwanese teachers of English must prepare their students to be able to pass stringent examinations for high school entrance and university entrance. EFL teachers therefore are under greater pressure in competing with the rate of student passing examinations. Most Taiwanese teachers of English believe they do not have sufficient competencies to speak English naturally in the EFL classroom under communicative principles (Gao, 2001). Furthermore, as mentioned above, the Iron-Rice-Bowl policy has guaranteed a secured teaching job for a lifetime. Teacher-education programmes to improve teaching methods seem to be not important in teachers' career.

2.3 Brief introduction of EFL teaching approaches in Taiwan

2.3.1 Grammar-translation approach in Taiwan

The first major attempt to reform English language education in Taiwan was semantic and syntax oriented. The grammar-translation method was the dominant teaching approach in the curriculum based on classical humanism. In the 1960s and 1970s, the goal of English language education was to develop students' ability in reading English texts and documents. The need of technology specialists was to understand written technical orders and instruction to correctly use equipment and facilities. English teaching, therefore, focused on introducing grammar and vocabulary. Grammatical error analysis and reading comprehension were the major learning activities in the classrooms. Liming Yu (2001) refers to classroom practice being characterised by rote learning and teacher-centred instruction in the Grammar-translation approach. Since traditional Chinese scholarly practices and strategies were inclined towards memorization and teacher-dominated, the result of these influences is that teachers have tended to view the foreign language teaching as grammar-translation or listen-and-repeat. This concept has lasted in Chinese society for many decades, and even still exists in today's language education in Taiwan (Hu, 2002). Mackey (1965) commented that although there has been a preference for particular methods at different times, methods often continue in some form long after they have

fallen out of favour. This observation is still true today, with grammar translation still alive and well in some parts of the world. Cortazzi & Jin (1995) argued that the use of such styles not only oppressed students' critical thinking and creativity, but also shaped teachers' stereotyped teaching and conservative ideology.

2.3.2 Communicative teaching approach in Taiwan

In the 1980s and 1990s, thousands of Taiwanese college students were being encouraged to study abroad. The businessmen, scientists, technology specialists, diplomats, and tourists had to communicate face-to-face with native English speakers. Therefore, communicative competence in English language teaching became the major core of education reform in Taiwan. Hymes proposed that language learning involved an overall communicative competence; not only linguistic competence, but also sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence (Hymes, 1978). Linguistic competence is the knowledge of how to use the grammar, syntax, and vocabulary of a language. Sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge of how to use and respond to a language appropriately, given the setting, the topic, and the relationships among people communicating. Discourse competence is the knowledge of how to interpret the larger context and how to construct larger stretches of language so that the parts make up a coherent whole. Strategic competence is the knowledge of how to recognize and repair communication breakdowns, how to work around the gaps in one's knowledge of a language, and how to learn more about the language and in the context it is being

presented.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), focuses on the process of language use, became the dominant method to develop learners' second language acquisition in the curriculum based on learners' communicative competence. Unlike the traditional grammar-translation approach and the audio-lingual approach, the CLT was student-centred, process-oriented, and notional/functional with activities that involve real communication to promote learning (Littlewood, 1981). Yalden (1987) has classified a number of communicative syllabus and curriculum types in terms of functional-notional. According to Wilkins (1976), only a syllabus that covered both functional (and modal) and conceptual categories would be a fully notional syllabus" (p. 24). The meaning of an utterance is based on the situations in which language is used. Thus, the communication is facilitated through authentic teaching and learning activities that require students to complete tasks by engaging themselves in communicative processes (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Widdowson, 1978).

The communicative approach therefore has drawn the attentions of test writers such as TOEFL iBT and other new language assessments to design task-based measurements. Test candidates must demonstrate a balanced skill in order for communication. Language skills are no longer taught in isolation, but integrated. Nevertheless, according to TOEFL reports, Taiwanese students do not perform as well as students from Hong Kong, Malaysia and Singapore where English is an official

language. It seems that communicative teaching was not easily introduced into Taiwanese schools. The next section will introduce English programmes available at two Air Force colleges.

2.4 General context of Taiwan's military institutions

2.4.1 Quadrennial Defense Review (QDR) and Military Academies-Streamlined System (MASS)

Despite economic recession, Taiwan's public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP has continued to grow from 2.85% in 1980 to 6.71% in 2010 (Lee, et. al., 2010; TMOE, 2012). Based on this comprehensive spending review from the year 1980-2010, Figure 1 below looks at trends in the United States, the United Kingdom, and Japan, and implies a cut in the proportion of GDP spent on education, while Taiwan has reached even higher levels in the years during the economic recession from 1997 to 2007, exceeding the U.S. and the U.K. from 2005 to 2010.

Figure 1 The trend of Taiwan's public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP compared to the US, the UK, China, and Japan
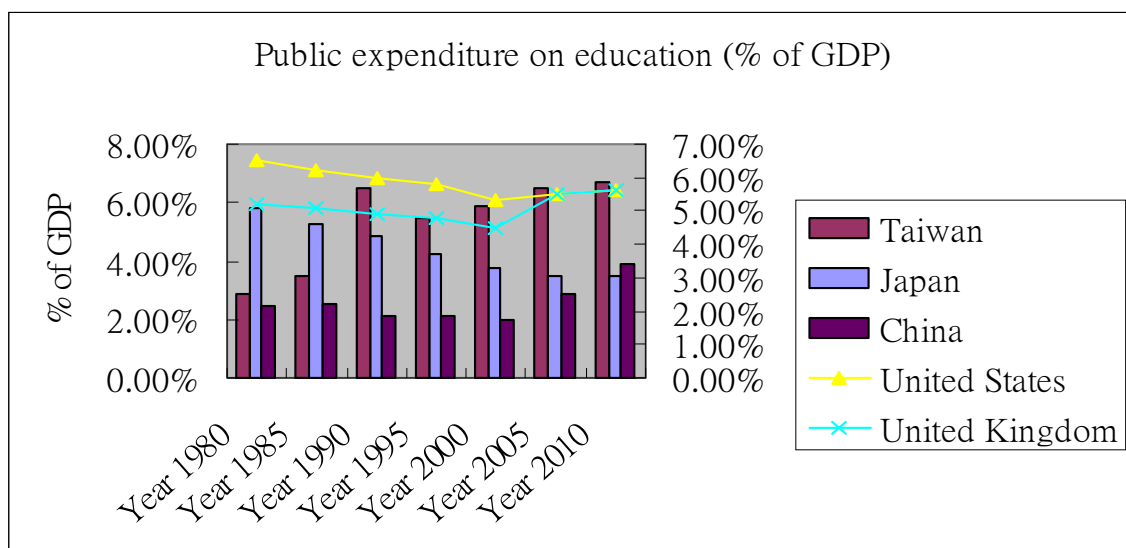
Public expenditure on education (% of GDP)							
Year	Year 1980	Year 1985	Year 1990	Year 1995	Year 2000	Year 2005	Year 2010
Taiwan	2.85%	3.52%	6.50%	5.49%	5.91%	6.51%	6.71%
Japan	5.81%	5.24%	4.83%	4.21%	3.74%	3.52%	3.51%
China	2.48%	2.51%	2.11%	2.13%	1.95%	2.89%	3.90%
United States	6.50%	6.20%	6.00%	5.80%	5.30%	5.50%	5.60%
United Kingdom	5.20%	5.10%	4.90%	4.80%	4.50%	5.50%	5.60%

(Source from UNDP-Human Development Index, Lee, et. al., 2010; MOE, 2012)

However, the expenditure of military education had been kept at as low as 1.65% from 1996 to 2009, and it has been even decreased to 1.18% in the total expenditure of TMOD in 2011 (Liu, et. al.,2010). Besides, military institutions have not enjoyed the privileges that the government gives to the Ministry of Education, because they belong to the TMOD. The military education seems as not important as higher education, though an often-ignored fact is that most military education programmes are the equal to and follow the basis of higher education. The central focus of *QRD* was on budget cuts through organizational downsizing.

Arguing budget cut and lack of resources, many studies warn us that a large class size and the lack of resources could harm the quality of teaching and therefore harm students' learning at schools as well (Hu, 2002; Liang, 1991). Unfortunately, the impoverished military institutions inevitably have to arrange a large class with 40-50 students. After considering a balance between national security and defense expenditures, the TMOD decided to lower the rate of expenditure to 15.8% (approximate 220 billion NT dollars) in 2012, which was much less than the 22.76% (approximate 260 billion NT dollars) total public expenditure in 1995 (Guo, 2010), which

is shown in Figure 2 Relations between TMOD budget, public expenditures, and of

GDP.

Figure 2 Relations between TMOD budget, public expenditures, and percentage of
GDP (Unit: 100 Million NT Dollars)
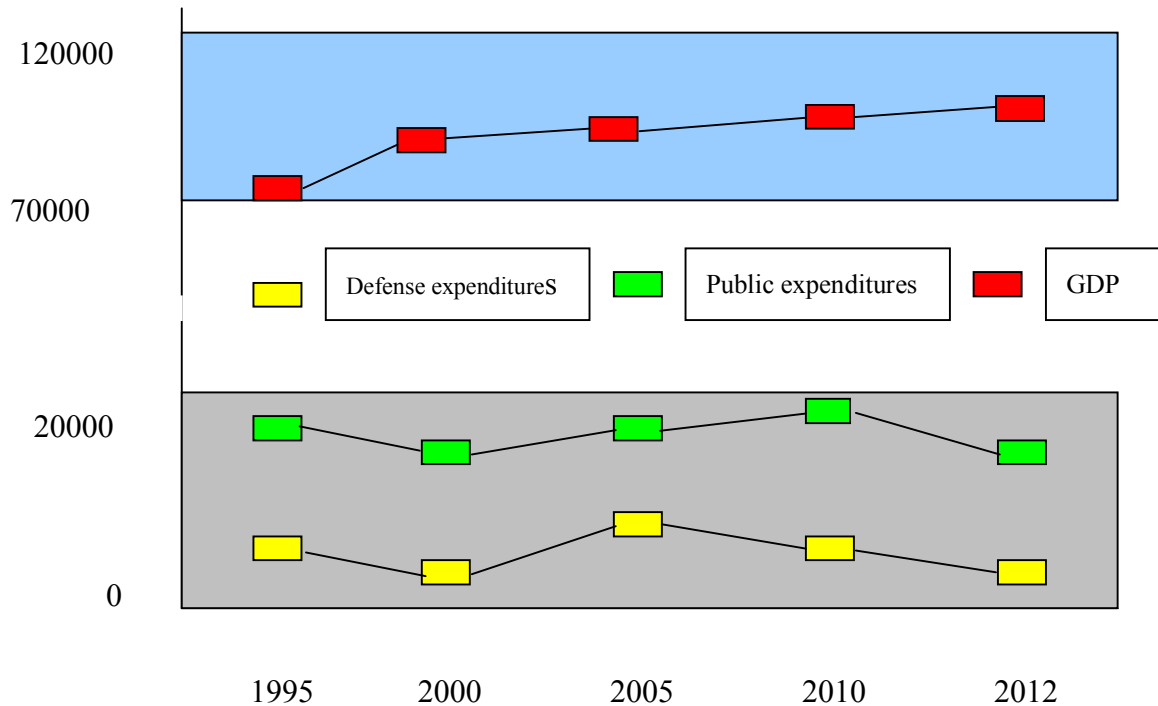
Year	Year 1995	Year 2000	Year 2005	Year 2010	Year 2012
GDP	72527	100320	105801	109449	115218
Public expenditures	15907	15503	15916	16083	14718
Expenditure on TMOD	2540	2272	2641	2586	2205

(Source from Directorate-General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics, Executive
Yuan, R.O.C. Taiwan, 2012)

In this diagram, Guo's team (2002) illustrates that economic impact was the most

influential factor on TMOD's budget, and they also confirm the declining trend of

expenditures. If we look into the distribution of the TMOD'S budget items in Figure 3, it

can be seen the scarcity of military education budget at only 1.18% in 2011. In a

competition of fighting for the budget, the TMOD chose to cut the expenditure on

military education.

Figure 3 Scarcity of military education resources in TMOD's budgets

Expenditures of Defense

- Security
- Environmental compensation, recruitment activity, TV programmes, conferences
- Military education
- Retirement
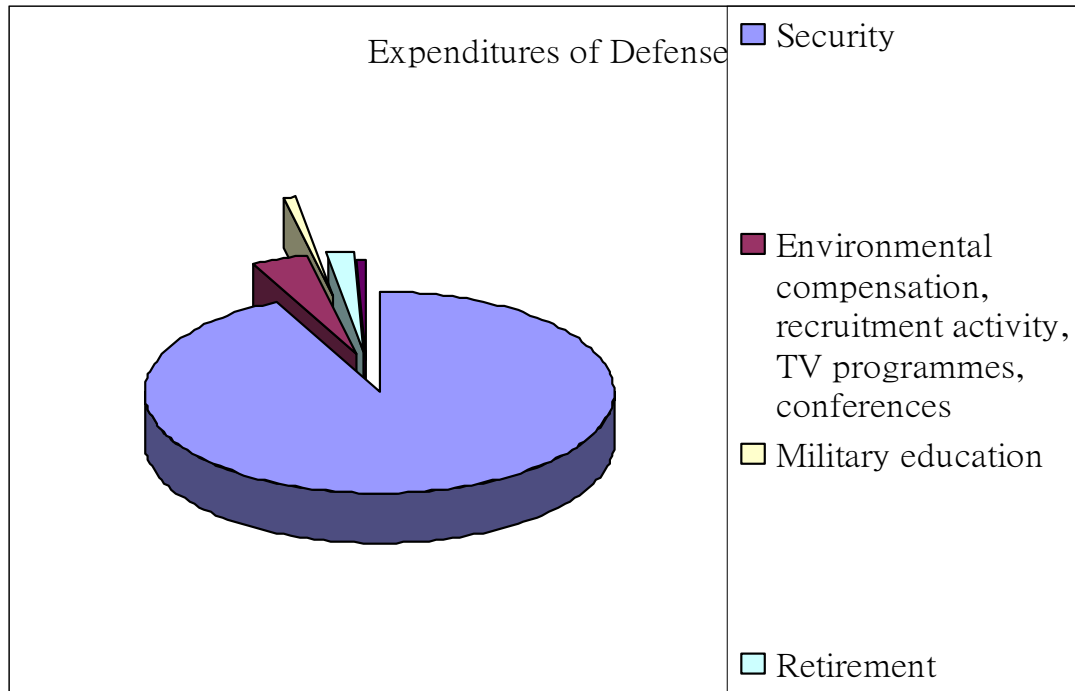
(Source TMOD 2011)

The lack of resources has become one of the biggest issues to affect teachers' practices. Despite the problem of insufficient resources in military education affecting teachers, the TMOD determined to carry out the *Plan of MASS*. With respect to the *Plan of MASS*, according to Yi et. al. (2011), officials of the Control Yuan (The supervising body of Taiwan), noted that "the Defense Minister acknowledges the adoption of *MASS* in education failed to consider the different goals of the military institutions so that it needs to ensure whether the strict control of the expenditures to educational resources is appropriate" (Yi et. al, 2011, p. 121).

2.4.2 Military education system and leadership culture

As officials Yi, et. al. (2011) observed in their investigation into military educational system and its effectiveness, the goal of military education is to cultivate officers'

autonomy in learning for their advanced areas (Yi, et. al., 2011, p. 2). However, "since the complexity of military educational system has increasingly interfered the achievement of learning goals" (Yi, et. al., 2011, p. 123), the confusion of educational development for a school with multiple missions between troop training and academic education has become increasingly evident.

Figure 4 The disparity between military and non-military educational system
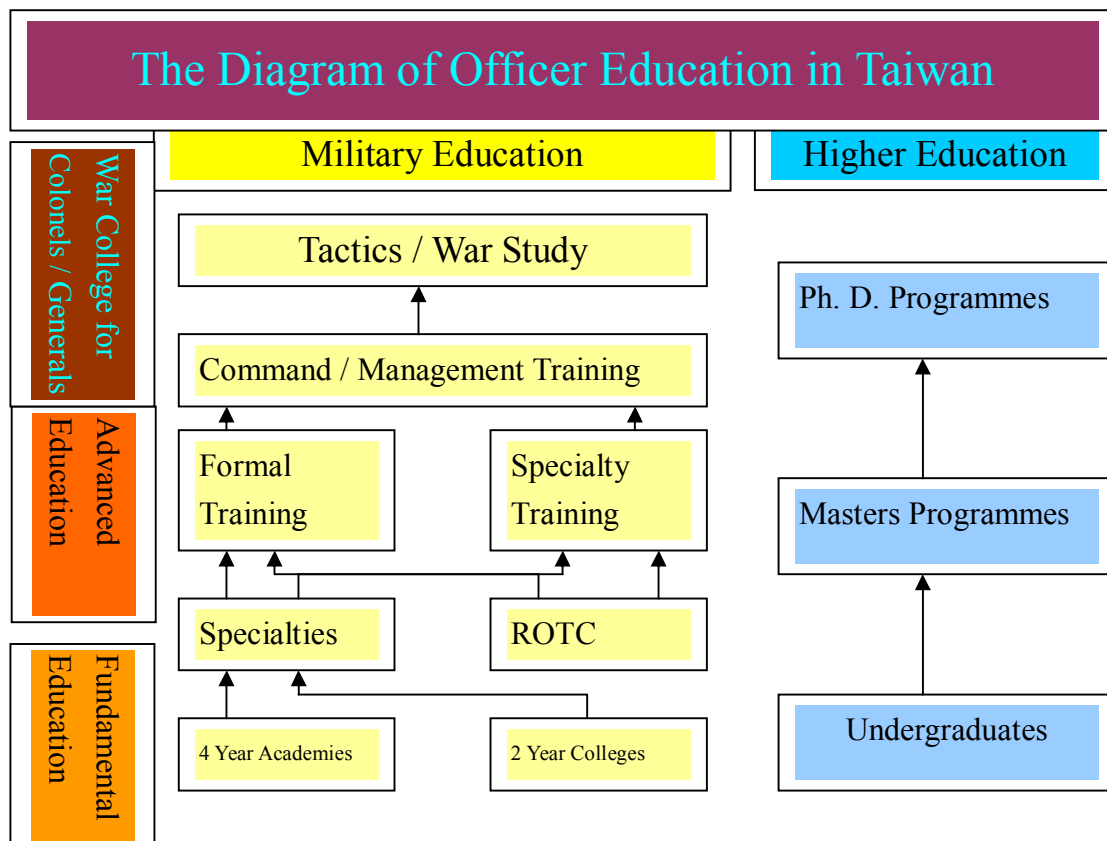
(Source from Yi, et. al. 2011. *The investigation of Taiwanese military education*, p. 6.)

The disparity showed in Figure 4 is obvious between military cadets who participate in military education programmes and other non-military college students in terms of teaching and learning. This diagram clearly illustrates two contrasting approaches between military education and higher education: Masters and doctoral degrees are developed for higher education, whilst War College, Army, Navy, Air Force Command

and Staff College are developed for professional military education. Besides obtaining a degree from higher education, completion of these advanced military programmes is a prerequisite for most military positions. Accordingly, a diploma of military education is more important than a diploma of higher education for the officers.

Similar to a university curriculum, the academic programmes consist of 43 credits in general education and 85 credits in professional subjects (Table 2-1).

Table 2-1 Credits required for a bachelor degree

General Education		Professional Education	
Compulsory courses	Elective courses	Compulsory courses	Elective courses
31 (24%)	12 (9%)	64 (50%)	21 (17%)
43 (33%)		85 (67%)	
Total credits: 128			

The minimum total of credits for a bachelor degree is 128 credits. Therefore, English is only taught in the first year of military education for cadets, unless the institutions offer other English courses with more teaching hours which are not counted in the academic record. As far as I know, most superintendents require non-credit English courses in order to improve students' test scores.

However, Kennedy (1987) used the term 'outsider' to describe a situation that directors of the institutions as a change agent traditionally initiates the decisions about the change, and teachers have to implement. It is because leadership is a social construction for a person using power to command subordinates to complete a task, so the role of a leader, such as the superintendent, will influence the outcomes and efficiency of events. In reality at most military institutions, the superintendent-teacher

relationship is in terms of power-coercive strategies, while the role of the superintendent is authoritative, centric, and decisive, but the role of teachers is passive, latent, and pressured (Deng, 2010). Deng distributed questionnaires to 514 military and civilian teachers and the results indicate that most superintendents employ top-down leadership and results in more conflicts between superintendents and teachers.

With respect to cadets, in recent years, the statistics between Class 2010 and Class 2014 shows that military colleges have successfully attracted a significant number of high school students showed in Figure 5 Cadet enrolment report. It was evident that both the needed and enrolled cadets were decreased before the Class of 2010 as they were recruited before the global financial crisis erupted in 2007.

Figure 5 Cadet enrolment report
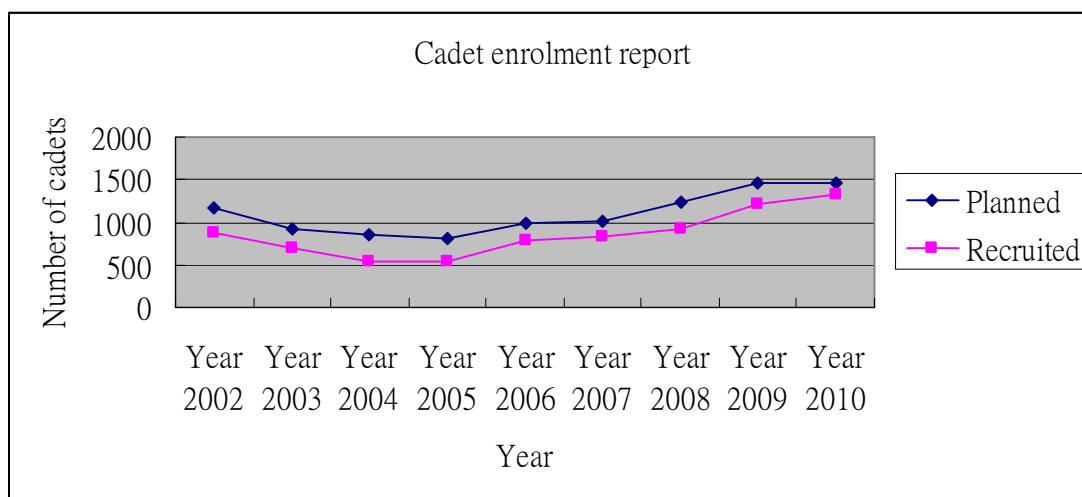
Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Planned	1161	916	861	816	978	1002	1226	1470	1468
Recruited	874	688	544	542	784	842	929	1211	1323

(Source from Yi, et. al. 2011. *The investigation of Taiwanese military education*, p. 46.）

The diagram above clearly indicates the number of students in the Class of 2014 is twice of that the students in the Class of 2008 and 2009. The increased enrolment caused a sudden demand for teachers. However, the insufficient provision of resources has reduced 1/3 of manpower including teachers.

To summarize, the military education system has skewed its teaching to military professions, rather than academic subjects. However, after the economic recession, an increasing number of high school students with better academic grades have studied at military institutions (Yi, et. al., 2011, p. 1). As the nature of the intake to military institutions with higher quality students, it seems the adequacy of the existing school facilities, the curriculum, and teachers' syllabus begins to be questioned. The following sections discuss the introduction of ECL test and TOEFL test for monitoring teaching effectiveness and cadets' overseas programmes, and then the curriculum of English teaching at two air colleges.

2.4.3 Introduction of ECL and TOEFL test at military institutions

The ECL test and TOEFL test are extremely relevant to military education and cannot be ignored in the military context. As such, this section presents the introduction of the ECL and TOEFL test within the Taiwanese military.

2.4.3.1 High stakes of English language tests

The Taiwan Relations Act passed by the United States Congress in 1979 to continue mutual relations with Taiwan in aspects of business, culture, and military, caused English to become the first foreign language to be focused on at Taiwanese military institutions. TMOD offers cadets, sergeants, and officers the opportunity to expand their educational as well as military horizons. These exchanges necessitate

attachment of an official language test report as an admission requirement. Therefore, the Departments of Foreign Language Teaching at military institutions are responsible for academic English teaching and test preparation for students.

As a result, the ECL test was organised by the TMOD to meet the requirements of the U.S. military training for foreign soldiers and officers. However, the TOEFL test is utilized by the military institutions, to send their cadets to overseas military colleges. The test design of ECL is norm-referenced and its tasks are generally multiple-choice questions, isolated skills, and linguistic-based content. Question items of ECL include sections on listening comprehension and reading comprehension. One hundred questions are written to measure test-takers' ability in English listening and reading. Listening comprehension has two parts: Part One for questions 1- 56 is to listen to a sentence and then answer what the sentence means; and questions 57-67 consist of listening to a short conversation and answering a content-based question. Part Two for questions 68-100 is reading comprehension and includes vocabulary, phrases, and a very short passage (Refer to Appendix 1). The long term goal of the ECL is to help cultivate the cadets so that they could be able to pass the minimum requirements of English language proficiency of the ECL in order to work or have training at foreign airbases, after graduation. U.S. National Defense linguists have prioritized listening and reading for the spontaneous needs in war missions since World War II and this belief has strongly influenced the design of the ECL (USDLI, 2012). The importance of the

ECL test is growing in the military colleges' English syllabus. However, the multiple choice tasks often do not measure test-takers' real performance in using English, therefore the simple selection of A, B, C. or D answer items has been gradually replaced by performance-based questions in recent years.

The other important English test in military education is the new TOEFL iBT, which is considered the most important English language test for foreign students who want to study in the United States. More than 5,200 colleges and universities require foreign candidates to take the TOEFL test for admission. The new TOEFL iBT test has a new format that requires test-takers to have an integrative skill in reading, writing, listening and speaking. During the test, test-takers may be asked to read text and listen to a lesson, and then write or speak their response (ETS, 2012). Thus, tasks in the new TOEFL iBT are criterion-referenced to be mainly designed with open-ended questions, integrated skills, and competency-based content.

2.4.3.2 ECL and TOEFL test preparation conflicting with higher education

Attention from the TMOD to the number of qualified candidates for abroad-based training led to changes of education policy towards the satisfactory achievement of English proficiency. Most commonly, this involved setting short-term and long-term goals in English teaching for students in order to pass a minimum score threshold on a proficiency test like the ECL or TOEFL. One of the benefits resulting from supervision in English education was the proliferation of English syllabus and curriculum at the military

institutions. The superintendents and superior officers urged teachers of English to create more test preparation courses.

However, the committee of high education sector had conflicting opinions in regards to test preparation and how to bring it into a formal curriculum and effective teaching for the students as well. Despite the demand of using students' test scores as learning outcomes in universities, attitudes of the Higher Education sector still called for the pursuits of professional subjects and research among universities. Tensions appear between students' marks from testing systems and the objectives of higher education. In reality, although many departments of foreign language teaching planned academic English study, test preparation for the ECL and the TOEFL remained as the unavoidable mission in teachers' practice at the Air Force colleges, and other military institutions. As the official ECL test came closer, English teaching had become revised from the original role teachers were given for academic purposes.

2.4.3.3 English teaching at military institutions in Taiwan

Traditionally Taiwanese ELT was Grammar-translation method (GTM) employing the learning strategy of memorization. The GTM has also been widely adopted at military institutions because it more or less has fitted the existing cultural norms, such as teacher-dominated, lecture-based, and form-focused approaches. However, many military instructors of English now have studied in the U.S., and DLI training emphasizes a more CLT oriented approach. After receiving overseas teacher training at

the DLI, these teachers' practices find them using more interactive tasks, to enhance students' communicative competence, critical thinking skill, and creativity. However, whether these teachers could employ CLT depends on the degree of support from the context of the military institutions.

2.5 The new curriculum of English teaching at Air Force colleges

2.5.1 Brief introduction of Air Force colleges

The R.O.C. Air Force Academy

The R.O.C. Air Force Academy is a four-year, tuition-free military college to educate young men and women for service and leadership in the Air Force. The four-year program includes an academic education along with leadership development and athletic participation. Graduates receive Bachelor of Science degrees and commissions as Second Lieutenants in the Air Force. Medically qualified and selected graduates may enter pilot or navigator training. The academic curriculum aims to develop innovative, analytical and resourceful Air Force officers. Cadets will complete a balanced sequence of prescribed courses in the basic and engineering sciences. Intensive instruction in English classes prepares selected freshman cadets for the TOEFL tests required for entrance into the U.S. military colleges. All cadets are taught for the ECL tests and academic English required for the future training in the U.S.

The R.O.C. Air Force Institute of Technology

The R.O.C. Air Force Institute of Technology is the Air Force's two-year school of engineering as well as communication technology. The Institute is committed to providing defense-focused college education to sustain the technological standards of Taiwan's air and space forces. Graduates receive Associate Bachelor of Science degrees and commissions as Second Lieutenants in the Air Force. The English Training Center provides intensive instruction in English prepares cadets and officers for the ECL test preparation and TOEFL test preparation required for future career and training in the U.S.

In Table 2-2 below, it can be seen that characteristics of two Air Force colleges are quite similar, except teachers' positions and their ages. The Academy employs more civilian teachers and they have taught more than 15 years. On the contrary, the Institute recruits military officers who excel in English studies, though they are less teaching experience. These talented officers have an opportunity to attend teacher education courses at the U.S. DLI. Meanwhile, English is taught each semester with 2-3 hours a week at the Academy, and the Institute employs intensive programmes.

Table 2-2 Comparison of characteristics of Air Force Academy and Air Force Institute of Technology

	Air Force Academy	**Air Force Institute of Technology**
Admissions	General Scholastic Ability Test 35 Credits	General Scholastic Ability Test 35 Credits
Years of the programme	4 years	2 years
Number of the students	700	500
Ages of the students	18-25	18-25
Departments of the Academics	Department of Aeronautics and Astronautics, Department of Avionic Engineering, Department of	*The two-year college:* Aircraft Engineering, Aviation Communication Electronics, Military Meteorology Engineering

	Aeronautical and Mechanical Engineering, Department of Aviation Management	*The two-year junior college:* Aeronautical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Aviation Communication Electronics, Aero-Electronics Engineering, Aero-meteorology Engineering
Number of the teachers in English teaching	4 civilians 1 officers	5 officers 1 civilians
Ages of the teachers	40-60	25-45
Types of teacher education	Local teacher education and training	Local teacher education and the U.S. Defense Language Institute
Hours of time allocation	Freshmen–Sophomores 3 hours a week Juniors–Seniors 2 hours a week	English is taught only one semester but 15 hours a week

2.5.2 Brief introduction of EFL curriculum at Air Force colleges

This section presents the new curriculum implemented at the Air Force Academy and the Air Force Institution of Technology. The approaches to the curriculum were various at these two colleges. The Academy's curriculum focused its syllabus on reading and the practice of past tests, but the Institute's curriculum emphasized language skills including reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

ECL Test Preparation Courses

The first category of teaching programs, ECL Test Preparation Courses, is the set of undergraduate English program designed for cadets and military officers of R. O. C. Air Force Academy and R. O. C. Air Force Institute of Technology. Each semester in the Taiwanese Air Force Academy is to include American Language Comprehension Placement Tests (ALCPT), a multiple choice test of listening and reading comprehension, which is similar to the ECL test. Because ECL is provided to authorized US Government users only, the DLI makes available the ALCPT for English language

programs conducted outside of DLIELC. Achievement testing of American Language

Course (ALC) objectives is conducted using book quizzes and performance tests, which

can be obtained with the course materials. Using test materials, four ALCPT tests are

taught and tested each semester and therefore there will be 32 tests taught in four years

of English education in the Air Force Academy (Table 2-3).

Table 2-3 R.O.C. Air Force Academy's and Institute's ECL test preparation course syllabus

ECL Test Preparation Course Syllabus at Taiwanese Air Force Academy	
Freshmen	ALCPT 1-8 R
Sophomore	ALCPT 9-16 R
Junior	ALCPT 17-24 R
Senior	ALCPT 25-32 R

(sources from Air Force Academy 2009 Curriculum Planning)

ECL test items have been adapted into the mid-term and final exams to motivate

cadets to study ECL. At the end of semesters, official ECL tests are administrated for

cadets in order to judge their progress and enhance teachers' teaching. Students' tests

score reports on ECL refer to the Table 2-4 below. Teachers need to teach effectively,

since the majority of cadets have insufficient English language proficiency. It should be

noted that there has been a decline in final year results over time. Test taking strategies

and practices might inflate students' scores on the simulated tests, but students remain

less proficient. As tests get harder, students perform more unsatisfactorily.

Table 2-4 R.O.C. Air Force Academy's ECL test score reports

Academy's ECL reports							
Year	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010

Class2006	56.7	56	58.3	62.5										
Class2007	54.2	57.3	60.1	70.5	63.7	59.6								
Class2008	51.2	52.6	50.6	52.3	55	55.9	58.2	56.4						
Class2009			51.2	54	56.7	50.8	54.1	59.2	60.2	55.9	51.6	50.2		
Class2010					483	48.3	51.1	47.6	50.3	52.7	47.6	47.4	50.2	48.7
Class2011							48.5	48.2	45.8	44.1	46.4	45	52.3	54.8
Class2012									50.1	48.5	47.1	48.7	50.4	51.6
Class2013													46.6	52

(Source from Department of Foreign Language Teaching Section, Air Force Academy)

TOEFL Test Preparation Courses

The second category is TOEFL Test Preparation Courses which are designed for the potential cadets to study abroad as exchange students. Each year, freshman cadets who pass the minimum requirements of TOEFL score will have opportunities to earn an Air Force fellowship. To deal with the changes in the new TOEFL-iBT test that are reflected in an integrated listening, reading, speaking and writing examination, the new TOEFL Test Preparation Courses are designed to develop the ability of candidates to perform 'real life' communication in English. Very different from the previous TOEFL CBT courses that focused on the format of multiple-choice items, the new TOEFL iBT test preparation put its emphases on participating fully in language interactions, and carrying out tasks by using different integrated language skills. Table 2-5 below shows commercial textbooks in the Academy's TOEFL test preparation included TOEFL Official Guides, TOEFL Reading Strategies, and Interactions 2 Unit 1 – Unit 10.

Table 2-5 R.O.C. Air Force Academy's and Institute's TOEFL test preparation course syllabus

TOEFL Test Preparation Course Syllabus at Taiwanese Air Force Academy

Listening	*TOEFL Official Guides*
Reading	*TOEFL Reading Strategies*
Writing	*Interactions 2*

TOEFL test preparation at the Institute is usually not scheduled in the curriculum unless the training requires it. Since the TOEFL test becomes important for many cadets and officers to study overseas, recently Institute's teachers have demanded to teach TOEFL test preparation in their lesson plans. Teaching materials are dependent upon teachers to create by themselves.

English Academic Courses

The third category of teaching programs is academic English courses, which consist of topics on reading, writing, listening, and speaking. English language is taught for academic purposes for the minimum of two years for cadets. Like other universities, English curriculum in selected military colleges is allocated 2 credits each semester. Cadets must take 8 credits in English courses for the requirements of college graduation. However, though the goal of academic English courses is to develop all four skills, the emphasis is only on reading ability without any writing and speaking program, according to the new syllabus. While the present study was being conducted, the Academy has introduced a simple reading syllabus based on published course books and intermediate English readers (Table 2-6). Although the Institute's English Language Training Centre is responsible for English teaching, the Centre has no free-standing academic courses which are not primarily test preparation programmes.

Table 2-6 R.O.C. Air Force Academy's and Institute's syllabus for academic English

Syllabus for Academic English at Taiwanese Air Force Academy	
Freshmen	Panorama 2, Selected articles.
Sophomore	Panorama 3, Selected articles.
Junior	Reading Pass 3, Selected articles.
Senior	Reading Pass 4, Selected articles.

(sources from Taiwanese Air Force Academy 2009 Curriculum Planning.)

The differences of curriculum design between the Academy and the Institute have resulted in different teaching activities, which will be discussed in the next section.

2.5.3 Syllabuses used at the Air Force colleges

English curricula followed in each college are quite similar, as required by the TMOD and the TMOE. Due to this centralized education, variations between the colleges are relatively small. In the Air Force colleges, there are three separate syllabuses, namely ECL syllabus, TOEFL syllabus, and academic English syllabus. ECL syllabus and academic English syllabus have been implemented for decades since 1970s, but the new TOEFL iBT was introduced in 2005 and its test preparation courses were updated in September 2006 for cadets.

It was apparent that the Academy had narrowed down language learning to mainly a focus on raising the scores on the tests. English study at the Academy was mainly in reading and listening to match the content of ECL which consists of reading comprehension and listening comprehension. The core curriculum at the Academy included ECL using ALCPT placement tests to train students' listening ability, and including regular reading courses using a variety of textbooks in spring and fall semester for each grade of university students. Textbooks are shown in the tables:

Table 2-7 2009 Spring semester textbooks used in the Academy

2009 Spring Semester Textbooks used in English Classes in the Academy					
Grade	Course	Textbooks	Author	Publishing Co.	備考
senior	English（8th semester）	ADVANCED READING POWER		東華書局	
		Longman Selected Articles	馮景照等	文鶴出版有限公司	
		ALC-PT 29R-32R	美國防語文中心	黎明文化公司	
Junior	English（6th semester）	MORE READING POWER		東華書局	
		朗文名人演講-精選&技巧解析	馮景照等	文鶴出版有限公司	
		ALC-PT 21R-24R	美國防語文中心	黎明文化公司	
Sophomore	English（4th semester）	Read and Think4	Ken Beatty	東華書局	
		朗文名人演講-精選&技巧解析	馮景照等	文鶴出版有限公司	
		ALC-PT 13R-16R	美國防語文中心	黎明文化公司	
Freshman	English（2nd semester）	Read and Think3	Ken Beatty	東華書局	
		勵志英文選粹	Karen Casey	文鶴出版有限公司	
		ALC-PT 5R-8R	美國防語文中心	黎明文化公司	

Table 2-8 2009 Fall semester textbooks used in the Academy

2009 Fall Semester Textbooks used in English Classes in the Academy					
Grade	Course	Textbooks	Author	Publishing Co.	備考
senior	English（7th semester）	Reading Pass 3	Andrew E. Bennett	文鶴出版有限公司	
		Longman Selected Articles	馮景照等	文鶴出版有限公司	
		ALC-PT 25R-28R	美國防語文中心	黎明文化公司	
Junior	English（5th semester）	Reading Pass 2	Andrew E. Bennett	文鶴出版有限公司	
		朗文名人演講-精選&技巧解析	馮景照等	文鶴出版有限公司	
		ALC-PT 17R-20R	美國防語文中心	黎明文化公司	
Sophomore	English（3th semester）	Panorama 3		敦煌書局	
		朗文名人演講-精選&技巧解析	馮景照等	文鶴出版有限公司	
		ALC-PT 8R-12R	美國防語文中心	黎明文化公司	
Freshman	English（1st semester）	Panorama 2		敦煌書局	
		勵志英文選粹	Karen Casey	文鶴出版有限公司	
		ALC-PT 1R-4R	美國防語文中心	黎明文化公司	

The curriculum at the Institute focused on American Language Courses for its English training programmes. Basic English training employed lower levels of ALC

textbooks and advanced English training for intermediate levels or above employed higher levels of ALC textbooks. Therefore, ALC textbooks with communicative tasks become core learning materials at the Institute, while the Academy's syllabus focuses more on reading and ECL test papers.

2.6 Chapter summaries and conclusions

This chapter has introduced Taiwanese educational policies relative to teaching. High-stakes testing, curriculum alignment, the 'iron-rice-bowl' contract are three key policies which mediate teachers' instruction in the classroom. The impact of high-stakes testing has both positive and negative effects. Curriculum alignment has been chiefly (and wrongly) used to manipulate a quick jump in test scores. Meanwhile, Chinese teaching traditions are also introduced to provide a background to current educational cultures in Chinese society. Characteristics of Chinese learners and teachers are profiled to help explain the typical habits in teaching and learning. In Part 2, teaching methods used in Taiwan are introduced and it has been suggested that grammar-translation method is still acceptable to most Taiwanese even though some teachers appreciate that such methods are not conducive to the development of communicative competence. Similarly, although communicative teaching is recognized as an admirable goal, it has proved difficult to implement in Taiwanese classrooms. I then went on to summarize the EFL programmes available at Air Force colleges. It has been found that when language examinations like ECL and TOEFL are introduced,

washback effects are not predictable unless all teachers and contexts display constant characteristics, which is impossible. A growing number of English teachers of Air Force colleges have realized that language examination innovations will help them "learning by doing" to face the challenges of new language testing programs. Nevertheless, not all English teachers agree or are comfortable with the new TOEFL testing program or even the ECL testing program because of the pressure to achieve score gains and the consequences of test scores. Many researchers have found that teachers' attitudes to change are the major factor in the success of curriculum development. For instance, Kelly (2004) talks of the teacher's 'make or break' role in any curriculum innovation. Cohen & Fass (2001), Hu (2002), Ramsden (1992), Scott (2001), Stenhouse (1975), Taba (1962) and Yu (2001) have noticed 'teacher resistance' to describe the phenomenon of rejecting innovation in teaching.

There have been immense efforts by language educators and teachers in trying to enhance the effectiveness of foreign / second language teaching and learning (Brown, 1994). However, enhanced understanding of language acquisition and enlightened methodological proposals need to be put into effective practice. There sometimes remains a conflict between what teachers believe and how teachers actual teach. Hence the significance of systematic investigation into teachers' beliefs and contextual factors for teachers' practices is obvious. However, many research studies and their findings about the effect of communicative teaching on improving language learning in

Chinese (Taiwanese) EFL classrooms have been inconclusive (Anderson, 1993; Liao, 2000). As a result, issues surrounding teachers' beliefs and contextual factors connected with the washback effect of language tests have attracted educators' attention. The next chapter will review washback effects, teachers' beliefs, and contextual factors.

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

Alderson (2004) argues that researchers have been surprised to discover that the impact of the introduction of a new test is often much more limited than expected, forcing researchers to re-examine their beliefs about washback. This argument implies that there are other factors mitigating and mediating the process of teaching and learning, besides the nature and scope of washback. Thus, washback by itself is not the only variable to influence teachers' teaching in various contexts. Reasons determining the way teachers teach are complex and interplay with considerations of success on a test. Recent empirical studies have investigated the essential questions of if, how and why tests affect teachers and students, and thereby affect teaching and learning with regards to washback. Therefore, the first section reviews possible interpretations and definitions of washback, causes of washback and then the effects of washback. The review allows me to foresee various variables impacting upon teaching and allows me to use researchers' typology mentioned later in the chapter.

The second section reviews other mediating factors in washback and teacher pedagogy. Very often, an improved test cannot guarantee what is taught and what is learned in actual classrooms. At present the research in the field indicates that

washback effects do exist but are highly complex. There is no clear relationship between assessment and instruction, but only a partial explanation of how they interact in a causal manner. Amongst various findings over the past few decades, it has become relatively well established that other mediating variables should also be taken into account, besides washback. Thus, I will review various aspects of washback models present by contemporary researchers including Alderson and Wall (1993), Bailey (1996, 1999), Hamp-Lyons (1998), Messick (1996), Shih (2009), Wall (1996, 2000), Watanabe (1996, 2006) and others who attempt to use new tests to influence teaching via extra variables. These findings identify primary components of mediating factors: test factors, teacher factors, student factors, contextual/structural factors and cultural factors. This leads in turn to the assumption that washback and other forces involved in the process of teachers' pedagogy impact decisions in a very complex manner.

The third and fourth sections review teachers' beliefs and contextual factors respectively. Noting that even a well planned test could cause unexpected consequences or incur resistance, Wall's (2000) typology reminds the researchers to take the role of teacher and contextual factors into account in all educational reform phrases. Especially, the rooted beliefs that teachers hold and school conditions where teachers work are obvious to mitigate and mediate pedagogical content and method (Alderson & Wall, 1993, Bachman and Palmer, 1996; Bailey, 1996, 1999; Hughes, 1989). Like many of these studies, this paper recognizes that the sources of teachers'

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decisions are extremely complex, but particularly highlights the significance of teachers' beliefs and identifies possible contextual variables observed from educational and ELT studies. The examination looks into the practice and expression of individuality by English teachers. It reflects on different education contexts to suggest considerations necessary when attempting to harness positive washback through innovation in testing.

3.2 Washback

The definitions, causes, and effects of washback will be discussed in detail and in depth in this part.

3.2.1 Definitions of washback

Washback in applied linguistics (or often termed 'backwash' in education) relates to the influence an assessment test has on the teaching that precedes it. Tests, beyond dispute, are held to be powerful determiners of what happens in classrooms in different contexts. With researchers' varying personal experiences and contexts studied, the definitions of washback have had contrasting emphases in the literature. Some take a narrow focus on teachers and learners in classrooms, while others stress tests' influences on educational systems and even on society. Some descriptions are in favor of tests as levers for changes, while others criticize tests due to the unintended consequences of the tests.

Assertions about Washback have been put forward since the 1950s, when

educators encountered a growing demand to provide the public with evidence of improved student achievement (Nolen, Haladyna, & Haas, 1992). Studies assuming test impacts can be traced back to Vernon (1956), Davies (1968) and Wiseman (1961). Vernon (1956) considered tests as having nothing but negative consequences for teaching and learning. From Vernon's observations, teachers either distorted the curriculum or tended to ignore the subjects that did not contribute the passing rate on the examinations (p. 166). Davies (1968) stated testing instruments had become teaching tools. Effective teaching and learning were wrongly dictated by past examination papers, narrowing the educational experience. Furthermore, Wiseman (1961) claimed that classroom activities became test preparation, because students were learning test-taking techniques rather than language learning strategies. Smith (1991) perceived effects of the external testing on teachers and asserted that scores from the state-mandated tests were *"routinely inappropriately used"* to evaluate teachers (p. 8). From the 1970s to the 1990s, education studies in Taiwan also argued that public examinations carried too much influence and the abandonment of the Joint University Entrance Examinations (JUEE) was even suggested by Education Vice-Minister Kirby Yang at a conference on the reform of education (Yang, 1994).

Although washback is often perceived in a negative light, Alderson (1986), Pearson (1988) and Hughes (1989) remind us that tests can have profoundly positive effects with important implications for curriculum reform. For example, Alderson (1986, p. 104)

argued that *"the potentially powerful influence of tests can be harnessed in the cause of independently justified, or justifiable innovation"*. Hughes (1989) challenged Davies' belief that *"the good test is an obedient servant since it follows and apes the teachin*g (1968, p. 5), *stating that testing should not only follow teaching but should also "where necessary, exert a corrective influence on bad teachin*g (1989, p. 2 cited in Wall, 2005, p. 46).*"*

No matter whether these assertions claim positive or negative effects, all indicate that tests create a powerful influence on teachers and learners in a wide range of contexts (Spolsky, 1994). It is generally accepted that motivation, attitudes, and behaviours of teachers and students are strongly related to the perceived significance and worth of examinations (Pearson, 1988). Frequently, a test may influence attitudes, and in turn attitudes have a great impact on behaviours. These relationships between the examination and teaching/learning have been widely discussed with researchers examining the effects and implications of washback for individual teachers and learners at the classroom level to implications and also for society at a macro level. The concept of washback has been described differently to underscore its dimensions. My intention is to highlight a concept of washback rooted in synthesized interpretations and a historical overview along with current researchers' work (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Bailey, 1996, 1999; Cheng, 1997; Hughes, 2003; Shohamy, 1993, 2001).

While washback is a commonly used term in applied linguistics, measurement-driven instruction, curriculum alignment, systemic validity, and consequential validity also refer to the influence of testing on teaching and learning in education. The notion that tests or examinations can and should drive teaching, and hence learning is called measurement-driven instruction (Popham, 1987). When the policy requires the content and format of curriculum to match the content and format of the test, it is generally called curriculum alignment. Thus, this alignment between instruction and assessment in fact is equal to systemic validity (Frederiksen and Collins, 1989) and consequential validity (Messick, 1996) that refers to the introduction of a test into the education system with the aim of improving teaching and learning. Nevertheless, though these terms have been used to refer to the same concept, the distinction between washback and other synonymous terms is based on implicit approaches (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Bailey, 1996,1999; Shohamy, 2001).

Bachman and Palmer (1996) have highlighted washback at a micro-level on individuals, but tests also impact at a macro-level on social and institutional levels. Shohamy (2001) distinguishes washback from Frederiksen and Collins' (1989) systemic validity. Shohamy defines systemic validity by saying that a systemically valid test will bring about curricular and instructional changes in an educational system, but washback is more narrowly concerned with teachers and learners between systems. Thus, washback is an intentional exercise of power over educational institutions with

the standards of tests influence teachers and students. Similarly, Alderson & Wall (1993) insist that washback can only be indirectly related to a test, when a test **interacts** with teachers and students in an educational system. Though Messick (1996) suggests a valid test is more likely to produce a positive influence on teaching, Alderson and Wall argue a valid test still may have negative effects because of features of an institutional system. Alderson and Wall's statement explain a potential conflict between washback and validity considerations, and of other mediating variables.

One of the most influential thoughts pertaining to the impact of a test on teaching was defined by Wall & Anderson (1993) after reviewing empirical studies in various contexts including Ireland, Ethiopia, Netherlands, Turkey, Nepal, and Sri Lanka. Their definition stresses the aspects of a test's impact to demonstrate the complexity of washback on various education contexts. They propose 15 Washback Hypotheses as a result of their own extensive work for English teaching in Sri Lanka and in reviewing case studies conducted in different countries (Refer to chapter 1).

Watanabe (2004, p. 130-131) contends "tests have impact on what teachers teach but not on how they teach …tests will have different amounts and types of washback on some teachers and learners than on other teachers and learners." Furthermore, Bailey (1996, 1999) agreeing with Alderson and Wall (1993), broadly defines washback as not being limited to affecting helping students to prepare a test, but may include the effects on an individual actually sitting the test, of feedback received and of decisions taken on

the basis of test scores. Likewise, Shohamy et. al. (1996, p. 299) stress that "washback is connected to a whole set of variables that interact in the educational process." Emphasizing public examinations and classroom teaching, Cheng (1997, 1999) describes washback as an intended direction and function of curriculum change by means of a change of public examinations on aspects of teaching and learning. Nevertheless, it is noted that unintended effects have happened when public examinations are used as instruments for levering any curriculum change. Any attempt to manipulate or understand washback effects therefore needs to consider the given education context (where), the time to carry out the assessment policies (when), the reasons (why), and the designated approaches (how). Messick (1996) asserts that a poor test may produce positive effects because of other variables in the education system. Gradually, researchers have begun to realize that other operating forces within the context also contribute to the washback effect and the process of teaching and learning (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Cheng, 1998; Wall, 1996; Watanabe, 1996). Nevertheless, few washback studies continue investigation into the in-depth relationship between teaching and other factors under examination systems.

Indeed, different individuals see the same washback subject in different lights. In brief, most researchers associate washback with the influence of a test on teaching and learning such as test preparation and teaching to the test, yet some researchers have paid attention to interactions with other factors. These definitions highlight two important

perspectly: firstly, washback intensity is strongly dependent upon test use, score use, placement decisions and other possible causes; and secondly, there is little research to investigate mediating factors in washback related to the process of teaching.

3.2.2 Causes of washback

Based on above the historical overview of washback literature, the major causes of washback have been identified as political accountability, high stakes, the movement of curriculum alignment, social values and cultural traditions, and anxiety (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Cheng, 1997; English & Steffy, 2001; Messick, 1989; Shohamy, 1993; Weir,1979). I will discuss these issues individually below.

Political accountability

In terms of the nature of washback, the public's demand for accountability from public examinations strongly encourages and stimulates the occurrence of washback. This assumption is that accountability pressure is needed to drive instructional changes (Messick, 1989; Shohamy, 1993) with the quality of teaching linked to the score publications on standardized examinations. Practice validates the suggestions of Messick (1989) and Shohamy (1994), who argue language assessments have been widely employed as effective tools for controlling educational systems. School principals and administrators use assessment outcomes to make decisions about curricula, the commissioning and approval of new textbooks, and new teaching methods. Authorities

believe that assessments will generate beneficial washback effects through setting meaningful standards, and promoting accountability of teaching. In the field of language teaching, the perceived importance of language tests can be seen from the extent to which policy-makers make crucial decisions to set educational policies on the basis of test results. Not only are students required to achieve a satisfactory score on the test, but school programs are also evaluated by the results of student achievement on that test. Being taken as reliable data for making policy assessments are used to make high-stakes decisions at a variety of levels. They impact on entry and career progression in the teaching profession and very often the publications of test score data are used by the politicians to set laws for evaluation of teachers (Shih, 2010).

High stakes

The accretion of high values and stakes by tests has become an immense engine to control teaching and learning towards its quantitative demands. Internationally, as in Taiwan, the degree of the (test) stakes is often regarded as a strong indicator of the degree of teaching to the test (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Cheng, 1997; Frederiksen, 1984; Shohamy et. al., 1996; Wall, 1996; Watanabe, 1996; Wall and Alderson, 1993; Weir, 1979; and among others). Choi (2008) found that virtually all universities in Korea adopt a policy where students are to fulfill graduation requirements by obtaining a certain range of scores on some of the standardized EFL tests (e.g. TOEIC, TOEFL, TEPS). Prapphal (2008) also describes a new mandate calling for exit

standards to be met at different stages in Thai education. Because of importance of individual life chances related to test scores, washback therefore is in a state of growing abundance in most societies.

The movement of curriculum alignment

One of the most influential tendencies linking assessment and teaching has been curriculum alignment (Biggs, 1996, 2003; Elia, 1994; Frederiksen, 1984; Hamp-Lyons, 1998; Kendall, 1999; Leitzel & Vogler, 1994; Schmidt and McKnight, 1995; Short, 1997; English & Steffy, 2001; Webb, 1999). The objective is ostensibly to integrate the test components with the learning activities occurring in classrooms. However, some researchers describe this movement as teaching to the test. According to Leitzel & Vogler (1994), alignment is rooted in the belief that instructional plans are established through outcomes-based content goals and the goal of assuring that delivery and assessment are congruent. However, English & Steffy (2001) found that the implementation of this innovative curriculum alignment still falls far behind the expectations of curriculum educators and policy-makers. The solution is not simple. For instance, in Hong Kong, Cheng (1998) describes the difficulty with which the policy to shift from norm referencing to formative assessments has been accepted by teachers. Cheng (1998) illustrates that teachers reacted positively to the new HKCEE when there was only a small gap between the policy of the exam change and perceptions of the teachers within the Hong Kong context. Using tests to control the curriculum may

interfere with the teaching methods and students' learning approaches. In many Asian contexts including Taiwan the curriculum remains chained to the grammar translation based examinations, and the policy of curriculum alignment for integrative assessment will not lead to innovations and development in the teaching of practical language skills.

Social values and cultural traditions

The fourth area of the cause of washback is the pervasive effects of social values and cultural traditions. Traditional pedagogy was mainly teacher-centred and passive. In Chinese societies today and even in Taiwan, Japan, Korea, Singapore, and Thailand, students are still used to learning through memorization. Language learners are taught in this way and build up an inventory of memorized structural items. Weir (1979) pointed out the distinct advantages of traditional English testing are that they produce data which are easily quantifiable, as well as a complete coverage of structural rules in language. These traditional tests focusing on assessing linguistic items are efficient and have a good indication of reliability associated with objective scores. This explains that linguistic knowledge based traditional tests have greatly caused washback in most Asian countries today.

Anxiety

Anxiety can be regarded a cause of washback (Green, 2007). Concern, pressure and anxiety could drive students and teachers into action. Their actions may take many

forms to facilitate or impede washback when high-stakes tests have raised the anxiety level of everyone. Since the road to prepare for high-stakes tests is long and hard, some teachers and students may experience negative emotions, loss of esteem, feelings of shame, guilt, anger and alienation from publications and consequences of test scores (Haas, Haladyna and Nolen, 1989; Smith, 1991). Anxiety definitely is a cause of washback, but in different aspects, both debilitating and positive. Investigating anxiety, Shohamy et. al. (1996) and Ferman (2004) found the lower the students' ability level, the higher the extent of learning focused towards the test. In the case of weaker students, obviously, more work needs to be invested by both teachers and by students in order to ensure success. Indeed, many causes have contributed to the existence of washback and the next section will discuss how the mechanisms of washback work to understand what constitutes both positive and negative washback in education contexts.

3.2.3 Effects of Washback

Washback effects have emerged from recent research into foreign and second language teaching and learning. Assessing language proficiency with an assessment will influence matters of teaching or learning, especially, when the tests have decisive consequences on the test-takers, including high school entrance, university admissions, and job opportunity (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Cheng, 1997; Choi, 2008; Qi, 2004; Shih, 2009; Watanabe, 1996; Wall and Alderson, 1993). Studies found that

investigating washback is not as simple as previously thought, but rather it is a very

complex concept and becomes even more complex when involving interpretations of

various parties such as administrators, test writers, authorities, teachers, students, and

parents in various contexts. Perceptions to positive or negative effects therefore are

dependent upon who perceives them, as well as where and when is happened. Though

Messick (1996) expects a test's validity to manifest positive washback for teachers and

students, unintended or other side-effects can also occur. Thus, Messick acknowledges

washback may *advance or inhibit* language learning. Wall & Alderson (1993) also claim

the nature of washback, to have positive and negative outcomes on what happens in

classrooms. Inevitably, washback involves a wide range of causes and effects. What is

to be tested on the examinations has different impacts on different educational parties,

particularly teachers in lieu of classroom practices. Morrow (1979) warns us that tests

should be designed to reveal not simply the number of items which are answered

correctly, but to reveal the quality of the candidate's language performance. It is not safe

to assume that a given scores on the grammatical testing necessarily allows

conclusions to be drawn about the communicative testing. Therefore, washback on

teaching is not simple but rather complex, particularly when the test scores have

serious consequences for individuals and programs in terms of high-stakes and

accountability (Shohamy, 1996). Meanwhile, other forces operating within a unique

context may also contribute to and ensure the washback effect on teaching and learning.

Studies have demonstrated these variables very often not only mediate washback

effects but also block out the implementation of a new teaching method (Bailey, 1996, 1999; Green, 2007).

Teachers and students are most immediately affected by the test, when the government has "expectations" of them in the test as a reference of achievement. The more teachers and students perceive a test to reward the success and to punish the failure with sanctions, the more likely they will change their behaviours to do things because of the test that they would not otherwise do (Alderson & Wall, 1993). In turn, teachers and students spend time and energy on standardized tests which influence and control accountability in teaching. However, establishing accountability generates both positive and negative washback effects, and these unintended consequences are not the view taken by education authorities and even test writers.

Accordingly, Bailey (1996, 1999) argues there is a pressing need to conduct more empirical studies to document the exact nature and mechanisms, while also to identify what constitutes both positive and negative washback effects. Generally speaking, aspects of washback effect in the process of teaching and learning including teaching pedagogy and teaching content for student outcomes and are discussed in the following section.

On Teaching Pedagogy:

What happens in the classroom offers evidence as to the extent to which washback

influences teaching and learning (Alderson & Wall, 1993). Empirical washback studies have identified phenomena affected by the test. Tests have led to some positive and negative washback, and even unconscientiously created unintended behaviours in the classroom. Andrews (1995), Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, (1996), Shohamy *et al.* (1996) and Cheng, (1997, 1999) illustrate the narrowing of the curriculum to the areas most likely to be tested. Teachers and students engage with testable content, but they neglect subjects that will not be tested. The worst-case scenario of washback on content of teaching is by neglecting skills and kinds of text types and activities that remain a common phenomenon in classrooms. Smith (1991) contends multiple-choice testing leads to multiple-choice teaching, and the methods that teachers have in their arsenal become reduced, and teaching work is de-skilled. Morrow (1986), who first spoke of 'washback validity', described the quality of the relationship between a test and teaching. Ferman (2004) identifies that classroom practice has been transformed to examination coaching for students, intensive drilling with weaker students, along with individual coaching. In China, teachers still emphasize the teaching of linguistic knowledge, even though the NMNET test is nominally based on communicative theory (Qi, 2004). In Japan, Watanabe (1996) found that teachers oppose teaching writing and listening because of a mismatch between teachers' ability and standards of high-stakes testing. In Hong Kong, which I believe to be similar to Taiwan, Cheng (1998) found that washback led to a change of teaching materials, but not daily teaching methods. Fullilove & Wong (2002), and Wall & Horák (2008) found that teachers displayed little

change in methodology, which is consistent with Cheng (1998). The inclination of teaching to the test is not changed. These studies have confirmed what Alderson and Wall (1993) found about test impact in Sri Lanka that looking at the types of examination questions did not help them address how they should teach. Even highly experienced teachers still struggle to plan classes dealing with new tests (Alderson and Hamp-Lyons, 1996).

Washback on teaching in Asian countries seems to support Smith (1991) that the most apparent sort of washback represents a very superficial level of desired learning outcome: familiarizing with the exam format, practicing exam-specific strategies and memorizing test contents. Ross (2008) also warns us when educational policies overemphasize language testing policies, they will unintentionally induce negative washback on the way that language education is conducted and using tests to control the curriculum may interfere with the teaching methods and students' learning approaches.

However, other studies are different. In some cases, performance-based, criterion-referenced, standards-based or communicative tests have supported more interactive teaching, instead of fact-based knowledge such as grammar and vocabulary. Cheng (1997) observed reading aloud being replaced by role play and discussion. Adair-Hauck (2006) claims an IPA project has led to teachers adopting integrated language skills. Ferman (2004) found that the introduction of an oral test had affected

the teaching-learning activities in class by focusing teachers' and students' attention and efforts on the oral skills. Most of the students (66%) reported that there had been an increased focus on learning the oral skills. Most of the teachers (88%) reported spending 2 hours per week preparing for the test. Preparing students for the test can be an effective way to alleviate anxiety. Andrews et. al. (2002) found teachers use more explanative techniques. Consistent with Shohamy et. al. (1996), Read & Hayes (2003) found intensive and extensive IELTS programs. Intensive models were narrowed to the test, but extensive ones were devoted to the different language skills. Stecher, Chun, and Barron (2004) confirm that assessment plays a key role in signaling priorities among standards and in help to form student performance expectations into more concrete. Wall & Horák (2006, 2008) found TOEFL iBT has indeed had the desired effects on the content of TOEFL preparation classes, in that much more emphasis was now placed on the teaching of speaking abilities, there was an increase in the attention paid to writing and on integrated skills work. Jigsaws, brainstorming, role-play, and other communicative tasks have been widely used in performance assessments.

On Teaching Content:

Wall and Alderson (1993) were the first to describe the relationship between the exam and the textbook in English teaching and learning. The examination team established a syllabus for the textbook series. The syllabus of these textbooks was much greater than a single exam covered. Under such a circumstance, teachers could

not rely on teaching the test, but were obliged them to cover the whole textbook series.

Hamp-Lyons (1998) randomly selected TOEFL books and found typically the books contain practice tests, exercises, grammar exercises for selected key grammar points, a tape and tape script, and an answer key, and score well on the features able to self-score and contain answer key. Hamp-Lyons also found that the skills promoted by the textbooks generally consist of (a) test-taking strategies and (b) mastery of language structures, lexis, and discourse semantics that have been observed on previous TOEFLs. Another influential washback study that looked at test impacts on textbooks was conducted by Cheng (1997), who found the HKEA informed the textbook publishers of the examination change immediately after the decision was made. However, not all test preparation textbooks have been written to be test-oriented. IELTS textbooks provide basic coverage of language skills and are good on types of task to be expected, strategies for difficulties, and timing (Saville and Hawkey, 2004).

In short, Cheng (1997) and Read & Hayes(2003) have found the textbooks changed, while Shohamy et. al. (1996) found more publishing accountability occurring. Watanabe (2000) found some teachers created their own authentic materials in an attempt to distance themselves from being exam slaves, but the majority of classes still focused on exam preparation books. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) compare teachers' and students' views to materials. Student attitudes may also come into play, as teachers may prefer to focus on learning activities, students want to familiarize

themselves with the test format and strategies. As a result, attitudes and experience influence teachers' decisions on how to use the teaching materials. Indeed, washback effects on teaching materials seem not to have been changed too much since 1993, the year Wall and Alderson conducted their empirical study of Sri Lankan classrooms. Their observations have evidenced long test preparation period with the materials reflecting content of exam, yet most teachers still hold the key role in determining what and how to teach language skills. Teachers tend to give more attention to high-stakes tests than to low-stakes tests (Shohamy, 1996).

Hence, high-stakes testing cannot always produce the intended washback effects as well as test writers may have wanted. It also should be noted the same effects may appear negative but could be considered "beneficial" by other people. In fact the influence of a test on teaching and learning is limited and determined in terms of who, when, where, and how (Alderson & Wall, 1993). Inevitably, these factors interact with each other. Frequently, teachers' pedagogical decisions are not all dependent upon washback, but teachers' own beliefs, teacher resources, school management, social values and other factors. The next section will be the literature review that is relevant to mediating factors.

3.3 Relationships with Other Mediating Factors

I have discussed above how examinations may lead to unintended consequences and how we need to appreciate that there are many other factors operating within any

educational context which determine washback effects. The test interacts with other

forces to influence teachers' practice. An increasing number of studies has focused on

other variables such as motive (Cheng, 1998), teacher factors (Shih, 2009; Watanabe,

2004), school systems (Andrews, 2004; Bachman, 1990, 2002; Wall, 1996, 2000), and

contextual factors (Cheng, 2008; Wier and Milanovic, 2003; Wall, 1996, 2000;

Watanabe, 2004). The subsequent research demands that a holistic view in washback

should take these variables into account when we interpret washback effects and

distinguish from other mediators.

3.3.1 Washback Models

One of the first articles to stress the interaction of washback and other variables

was written by Alderson and Wall (1993). Their paper "Does Washback Exist?" acts as

a milestone in washback research. Alderson and Wall drew attention to the need for

more empirical studies with other variables, which had not been looked at before. The

authors in that paper pointed out the complexity of test impact from observations of

teaching and learning, evidencing impact in terms of large-scale assessment at school

level, of how tests are held to be powerful determiners of what happens in classrooms

in different contexts.

Researchers address different issues on washback studies on the basis of different

consequences of testing they have encountered in all parts of the world. Some of the

areas have more intended washback to lever the curriculum reform, but some have

more unintended or deleterious effects to hinder the innovations and changes. When the new assessments are introduced in schools, the researchers' interests have been to explore tensions that teachers encounter. They discover the existence, the type, and the function of the washaback of these tests, and the interactions between language pedagogy and achievement test in various contexts. The progress of washback studies is not overnight, but instead has taken a half-century according to the assertions of the empirical evidence, and from the relationships with other mediating factors.

Meanwhile, various models of washback considering extra variables have been presented by Alderson and Wall (1993), Bailey (1996, 1999), Hamp-Lyons (1998), Messick (1996) and Wall (2000). The empirical evidence indicates washback of the test varies in different settings and to different participants. More researchers have also suggested washback interacts with contextual factors and participants' responses. The period of washback research focusing on other forces has been begun with the changes in washback models presented by Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) and others, based on Alderson's and Wall's hypothesis.

Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) elaborate the washback model on the basis of washback hypothesis coined by Alderson & Wall (1993). They call for more research to reveal how tests interact with other factors in the testing situation. Applying innovation theory into washback, Wall (1996) explores the weights of factors in washback such as communication between test writers and teachers, expectations of policy-makers, the

lack of qualified teachers, the conflicting demands, and the economic and political environment. Wall emphasizes the importance of communication from the testers to others, and the importance of communication from the trainers back to the testers. Innovation theory provides the policy-makers and exam designers with a better understanding of the risks they were running when introducing change on a large scale over a short period of time. Watanabe (1996) then focuses on teacher teaching experience, personal beliefs and educational background that may outweigh the possible effect of the examination. The suggestions in Watanabe (1996) to conduct more research on teacher factors are consistent with Alderson and Wall (1993) and Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996). Based on previous research results, Watanabe (2004) then suggests various factors mediating the process of washback. The factors may include the following: test factors, prestige factors, personal factors, micro-context factors, and macro-context factors. Thus, washback exists as a phenomenon and washback is extremely complex. Besides the test, washback varies according to participants' responses and contextual factors.

Wall (2000) proposes a model of washback including antecedent component, process component and consequence component. The Antecedents component includes the conditions in place in the educational context or environment before the introduction of an innovation. The Process component includes factors, which are in operation when the innovation is being implemented, some of which may facilitate the

implementation and some of which may hinder it. The Consequences component includes the types of outcomes that may occur as a result of the interaction between the factors in the Antecedent situation and the Process. Wall applies various aspects of this model in a detailed analysis of an attempt to use new tests to influence teaching in Sri Lanka. The analysis indentifies factors including teacher ability, teacher commitment, teaching experience, teacher beliefs, teacher training, teacher monitoring, test design, materials design, students' needs, poor classroom conditions, time allocation, teacher shortages, communication between schools and testing agency, tuitions, geographic, economic, and political factors. Wall concludes successful educational innovations require both concerted system-wide reform and extensive support from those affected. Indeed, it is worthy to investigate these factors which might have significant influence on teachers' practices in various contexts.

3.3.2 Mediating Factors on Washback

English language testing programmes are one of the fastest-developing phenomena in education today. However, the effects of tests often extend further than planners envisage; the washback from testing programmes is complex and can cause teachers and institutions to change their instructional practices. The administration of language tests might introduce a host of complex issues into a school community, while it cannot be denied that the features in a school community might also mitigate washback effects. Obviously, teachers' practices have not only been influenced by

assessment-oriented learning environments but other specific areas such as test format, lack of resources, and teacher beliefs, all of which need to be investigated. For instance, whether teachers' practices can become more constructive due to the format of a test, and how lack of resources has influenced negative or positive washback. With reference to recent empirical research in the field of washback, I shall attempt to classify these mediating factors below. A model contains test, teacher, student, micro-context, and macro-context factors to track the sources of mediation in views of washback.

Test Factors

In terms of test factors, when the gap between the test content and the teaching content is small, teachers would express a positive attitude to test preparation (Bachman 1990, 2002; Qi, 2004). However, several studies suggest that the degree of test difficulty also significantly influences teachers' decisions about what to teach or not (Watanabe, 2004). This is consistent with Choi's (2008) study, which suggests that traditional teachers tend to place more emphasis on the grammar test, in particular, rote memorization of all grammar rules.

Concerning suggestions concerning the positive effects of washback, Cheng (2004) refutes Messick's claim that a test can directly improve the teaching, arguing that a test does not automatically enable teachers to employ a new teaching method. Ferman (2004) contends that a lack of validity in assessment can result in unfairness and bias, which eventually hinder learning. Prapphal (2008) found valid and fair methods of

assessment (authenticity, interactiveness, direct performance-based proficiency) can grow washback, but such literature has not offered specific evidence in areas where English is used as a foreign language. Neither has the literature offered clear explanations for how and why some teachers transform their instructional practices.

Teacher Factors

Part of the reason for the lack of explanatory power in washback studies is that the majority of studies have been devoted to the formats and functions of tests, while ignoring the fact that teachers' practices are often influenced by teachers' knowledge and their beliefs about teaching and learning. Teacher beliefs and classroom practices can be in conflict with institutionalized testing and washback practices. Abrams, et. al. (2003) found state-mandated testing programs may lead to instruction that contradicts teachers' views of educational practice.

Studies of how washback has influenced teaching and learning have noted the importance of teachers' past teaching experience, ability, attitude and beliefs. For example, grammar focused behaviors might result from the combination of past teaching experience and washback from prior testing experience. These factors are treated as separate variables whose effects contribute in various magnitudes to the practice of individual teachers. Recent scholarship on teachers' pedagogical decisions has shifted the focus from teachers as isolated individuals to the settings in which teachers live in. Shih (2009) illustrates contextual factors over time, test factors and

teacher factors to form the new washback model on the basis of Shohamy et. al. (1996), stressing that the intensity and dimension of washback varies significantly according to settings. In this view, teachers' classroom practice is socialized and their beliefs are associated with interactions of the environment among teachers.

Student Factors

Similarly, student factors provide a powerful contribution to washback effects and, as Green (2006) suggests, teachers' goals and expectations concerning teaching may be very different from those of students. Cheng & Curtis (2004) found that students and parents very often require teachers to focus heavily on the test content and format, even when teachers are reluctant to do so. Thus, negative washback occurs because of student and parental pressure on teachers to teach to the test on the basis of past test papers.

Cheng (2004) also points out how student factors mediate the process of washback. His results show that students' English level can impede positive washback. Prapphal (2008) identifies the uneven current assessment systems and levels of accountability among rural and minority ethnic students. Learners' social-economic status is crucial to their chance of learning, since the rich would pay for the tutors and private schools, but the poor have no choice about who teaches them.

Micro-context Factors

Micro-context refers to the context within the school community in which teachers teach. Institutional factors might profoundly shape the meaning of teachers' practice (Cheng, 2004; Cheng & Curtis, 2004; Muñoz and Álvarez, 2010; Shih, 2010; Wall, 2000). They found that school management including teacher monitoring, training, resources, and technology support have directly mediated teachers' performance in teaching. Spratt (2005) confirm the influence of school resources and teacher training on the dimension and intensity of washback. Shih (2010) acknowledges that the way in which testing policies are exercised in schools and societies can mediate the effects of high-stakes tests. School cultures may also be involved as a mediating factor (Watanabe, 2004). Prapphal (2008) points out the positive influence of stakeholders calling for desirable skills, competencies, and qualifications. Wall and Horák (2008) found that the impact of the test itself was much less direct, and was clearly mediated by coursebooks. Muñoz and Álvarez (2009) showed that constant guidance and resource supports may create positive washback.

Macro-context Factors

Macro-context refers to social, cultural, historical, political, and economic components that provide the perspective of washback as socially situated and distributed in specific contexts that have been developed under historical and cultural conditions. Cheng (2004) found social and cultural influence on washback in Hong Kong could be traced back to imperial examinations in ancient China as discussed

previously.

Teachers and students tend to aspire to culturally defined futures that motivate their learning tasks and goals. Sasaki (2008) reviews 150 years of English language assessment and suggests the application of Wall's (1996) innovation theory framework to look at how such governmental policies as popularization and centralization affect washback. In attempting to understand washback in exam-oriented environments, these sociocentric perspectives (Shohamy et. al., 1996) draw upon social theory to take into account teachers' practice by coordinating their beliefs with the expectations of social and institutional cultures. This theoretical perspective recognizes that social and cultural contexts mediate teachers' teaching and help us to understand the how and why teachers teach in different ways for their students.

These empirical studies have confirmed Watanabe's (2004) work identifying several distinct sets of factors, including test factors, teacher factors, prestige factors, micro-context factors, and macro-context factors, which are hypothesized to affect the process of washback. However, more relevant factors mediating washback can be found from empirical evidence in the most recent studies (Green, 2007; Qi, 2004; Shih, 2009; Tsagari, 2011). It should be noted that the majority of papers (e.g., Burrows, 2004; Cheng, 2004) have focused attention on teachers' beliefs and teacher training because of their direct influence on teaching practice and the success of intended washback. Thus, I have decided to focus on the role of teacher belief in washback and the resulting

impact on teachers' instructional decisions (See section 3-4 in this chapter). Looking at washback as a lever of change, I identify teacher training as an essential component in any curriculum reform and I assume that the mediation of contextual factors, particularly teacher training, plays a key role in the success of intended washback. The identified typology consisting of test factors, teacher factors, prestige factors, micro-context factors, and macro-context factors, is shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6 Factors mediating the process of washback
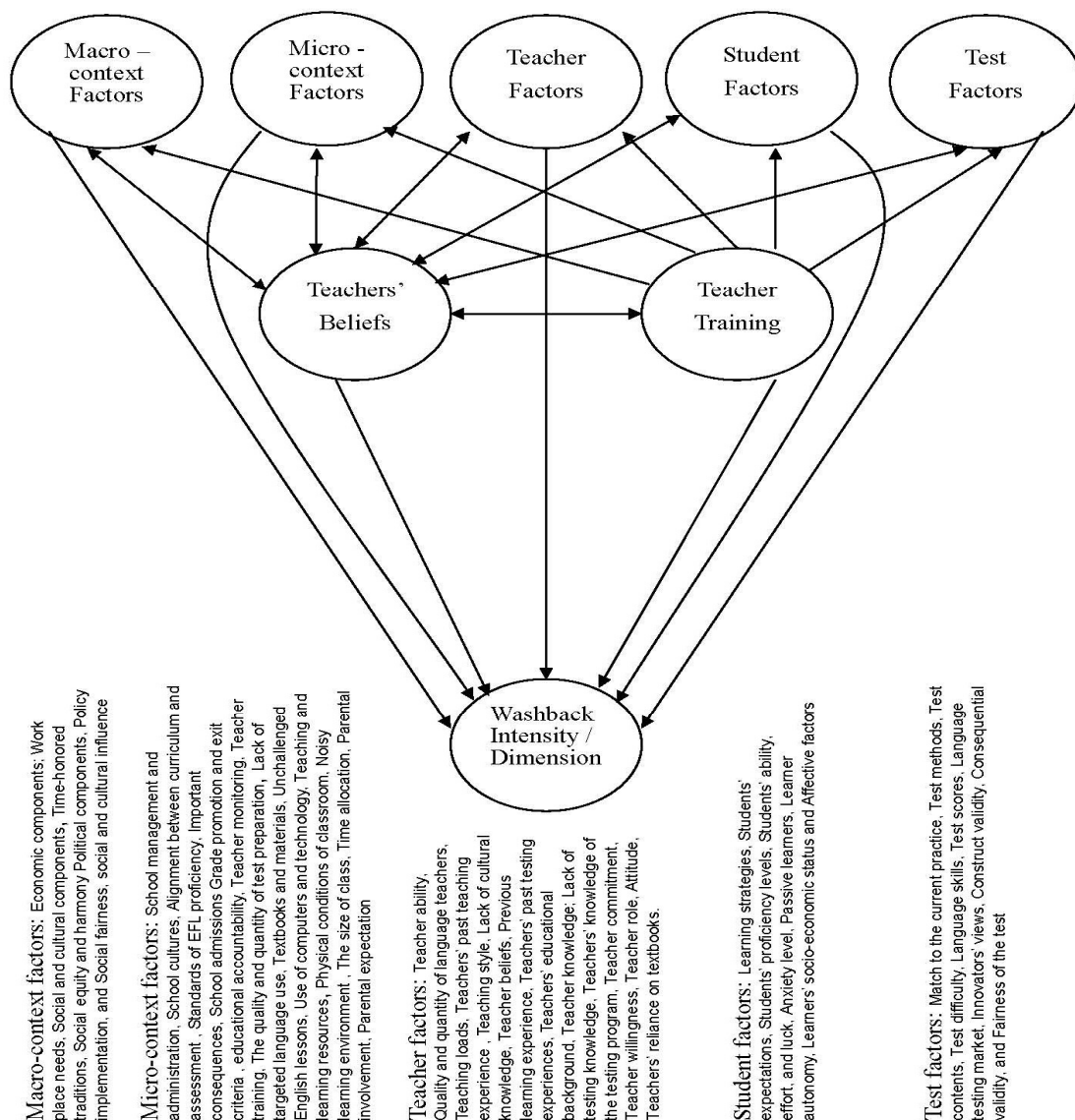
3.4 Teachers' Beliefs

Research into washback has consistently shown that tests are not, of themselves, necessarily effective as "levers for change" (Bailey, 1996; Hughes, 1993; Wall, 1996, 2000). Consistent with education theories, it is now clear that washback involves complex interactions between tests, teachers, learners, and contexts which determine whether individuals will embrace or reject intended innovations. Even new tests reflecting current theories about communicative language testing have not guaranteed the positive effects. The congruity between assessment and curriculum related objectives, authenticity of tasks, detailed score reporting, teachers' and students' understanding of the assessment criteria, learner self-assessment, and similarity between instructional and assessment tasks need to be considered when designing tests in order to produce beneficial effects in the classroom (Bailey, 1996; Hughes, 1989; Messick, 1996; Morrow, 1979; Shohamy, 1993). It not only varies according to the test, but also in terms of teachers' beliefs and attitudes. Messick (1996) also argues that factors other than the test itself might prevent the intended washback from happening. It should be noted, however, that some previous washback models (Hughes, 1993; Bailey, 1996, 2000; Wall, 1996, 2000) do not point out the influence of teachers' beliefs as part of the washback investigation process. Cheng (1998), Messick (1989), Ross (2008), Shih (2009), and Shohamy (1993) argue that teachers have felt increasingly disempowered and professionally marginalized due to education reform

through the assessment. However, much of the reform activity of the last few decades has neglected the beliefs of teachers concerning reform initiatives. So there is a need to consider teachers' beliefs about teacher delivery of content that enter into the dynamic social and cultural change. How teachers' beliefs interact with contextual influences present in classrooms represents a major component in the mechanisms and effects of washback.

Many of the studies indicate that examinations have effects on teachers' beliefs, attitudes and perceptions, and conversely teachers' beliefs, attitudes and perceptions can mediate washback which can range from positive to negative. How teachers' beliefs and attitudes influence their classroom behaviours and teaching practices have also become an important issue in washback research. According to Borg (2001), teacher belief is a key concept but is relatively neglected in contemporary ELT literature. Teachers' theories and beliefs about teaching and learning are believed to make up an important part of the prior knowledge through which teachers perceive, process, and act upon information in the classroom (Munby, 1982). Donaghue (2003), Peacock (1998, 2001), and Urmston (2003) suggest that understanding teachers' beliefs can be used to eliminate any detrimental beliefs, to foster positive beliefs, and leads to successful instruction. Peacock (2001) argues it is important to work on mistaken teachers' beliefs because that could influence their teaching and their future students' language learning for decades. Lamb (1995) suggests that vey few of the ideas presented on a teacher

training course were taken up in the way anticipated by instructors, mainly due to the mediating effects of the participating teachers' own beliefs about teaching and learning. Studies have proposed that teachers organize their instruction according to a conceptual framework, which influences the nature of their classroom. A conceptual framework for adopting teaching methods and contents consists of key facets of theoretical orientations and explanations about language learning, teaching, and testing (Cohen & Fass, 2001; Duffy & Anderson, 1984; Johnson, 1990; Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, & Son, 2005).

Indeed, the new testing programs adequately based on language teaching and learning theories for initiating curriculum innovations can influence the efficiency and effectiveness of teaching. In other words, teachers' beliefs condition the acceptance or the rejection of new approaches, techniques, and activities, and therefore should be regarded as necessary component in ELT programmes taking into account existing parameters of syllabus, examinations and other practical constraints. Tests cannot force changes in education, when test writers have failed to see the importance of teacher beliefs and their influences on the acceptance and uptake of new approaches and techniques. The gap between test writers and teachers impedes teacher progress in using higher-level skilled teaching, without having the guidance to test contents.

Likewise, teachers' beliefs and attitudes can either promote or hamper the influence of washback on teaching and learning. Beliefs of "*a better testing program will*

enhance teaching quality," "*score gains will increase learning motivation*," "*passing the examinations guarantees students a prosperous life*" have strengthened washback effects. However, beliefs that "*the scores cannot represent the language proficiency*," "*more test practice can corrupt the capacity of the test to serve as an accurate measure of achievement*," "*test negatively impact morale and motivation*," and "*raising scores without increasing the skill or knowledge level of students*" have mitigated the washback (Qi, 2004; Watanabe, 2004). These common statements can be used to highlight the importance of the role of belief. Some teachers whose approach does not correspond to the contents of mandated testing express their resistance to the concept of teaching to the test. They may defend for their teaching on other grounds they believe in. However, other teachers may heavily rely on test materials. To understand the reasons for tests failing to produce intended washback effects, Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), Watanabe (1996) and Cheng (1997) found the large differences in the way teachers teach toward the exam. Herman and Golan (1993) also reported a study undertaken in nine different American states that revealed serious effects of standardized tests on teachers. Teachers believed that testing created a great deal of pressure on them to improve test scores and placed equal pressure on their students as well. On the contrary, teachers' perceptions in another research indicated that performance assessment had a positive impact on teachers' practice, and their design of future assessment (Adair-Hauck et. al., 2006). These teachers cited that the assessment served as a catalyst to make them more aware of the need to integrate communicative

tasks into their lessons on a regular basis. Burrows (2004) looked deep into teachers' beliefs and knowledge as to examine the washback effect of a classroom-based assessment in the Australian Adult Migrant English Programme. She found that the test effect varied from teacher to teacher depending on the teacher's beliefs and attitudes. When teachers' belief was "*the implementation was of no benefit either to themselves or to their students*," their teaching modes were not changed in their lessons. Nonetheless, if teachers believe in "*changes caused by the implementation and responsibility for teachers*," these teachers will largely employ the past tests as learning materials. Qi (2004) analyzed intentions between test constructors of NMET and teachers. While test constructors' intention is to de-emphasize formal linguistic knowledge, teachers concern the teaching of linguistic knowledge. This is consistent with classroom observations to indicate teachers emphasizing on grammar. Ferman (2004) quotes teachers' remarks "*I want my pupils to be ready for the test.*" and "*I choose to teach texts. This seems to me that best way to help the students.*" Evidence shows that unintended washback effects including narrowing of scope and content to be tested, and intensive drilling with weaker students are related to teachers' beliefs. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996, p. 295) point out the extent to which teachers think about appropriate methods for test preparation, and the extent to which teachers are willing to innovate decide different amounts and types of washback. Two teachers observed in this study had interestingly different views. Teacher 1 whose teaching practice mainly focused on the structure and test practice since he believed grammar to

be great importance. Teacher 2, whose endeavor was to teach interactively, considered teaching TOEFL as communicative and was more creative.

Another washback study to investigate teachers' perceptions and their practices was conducted by Cheng (2004), who argues that there are other forces to mediate washback. Interview data indicated that teachers seemed to agree with the major principles of the HKEA intended washback effect, but textbooks they taught were reading-based, rather than integral-based. Teaching methodology remained unchanged in relation to examination change. Green (2006) compares teaching beliefs between IELTS teachers and non-IELTS teachers. Interestingly, he found that non-IELTS teachers rated significantly higher in items of student learning academic writing techniques, but IELTS teacher did not consider themselves to be preparing learners for university study. Reflecting IELTS scoring criteria, IELTS teachers provided explicit instruction in grammar. Likewise, Shih (2009) investigates washback of GEPT and found that some university teachers did not teach the test when they believed teaching and test preparation were two different things. Shih argues that teachers' perceptions of the test and their teaching philosophies affected their teaching. Some prefer the formal teaching curriculum, while others tailored their teaching with test-taking strategies. Hence, teachers' beliefs have directly mediated or mitigated the overall Washback Hypothesis addressed by Alderson and Wall (1993): that "teachers and learners do things that they would not necessarily otherwise do because of the test".

It can be summarized that some teachers believe and feel comfortable to choose the test with the focus on accuracy of grammar and the meaning of vocabulary. On the other hand, others stress the importance of communicative competence and choose the test with the emphasis on communicative-based tasks and all four language skills. Though it is generally agreed the behaviours of teachers are based on their "personal conceptualisation of the teaching-learning process" as intentions translated into actions, few studies interested in washback effects as outcomes of curriculum alignment in education reform have been conducted to verify teachers' beliefs through classroom observations. In a real schooling system, sometimes teachers' beliefs may have little practical impact when pedagogy is not supported by changes in assessment (Orafi & Borg, 2009). Without teaching resources, sometimes a traditional test is much easier for teaching than an innovative test for the evaluation of language proficiency. It may be that teachers would rather teach the easier one, though they know that new tests are beneficial to students. Beliefs are not always consistent with their practice in some situations. Social structures towards the use of test scores have influenced attitudes and beliefs. The result of Borg's study (2012) highlights that instructional changes rely on teachers' collaborative beliefs and a clear understanding of the context. Morrow (1986) suggested the future investigation into other forces within society, education, and schools that might prevent washback from appearing. Therefore, it is vital to consider the factor of context in which teachers' existing beliefs and testing programs interact to impact on practice.

3.5 Contextual Factors

The literature indicates that teachers' beliefs sometimes might not be consistent with the implemented classroom practice, since in reality contextual factors could also affect teachers' pedagogical decisions. Multi-levels of social systems, cultural diversity, and traditions consist of the system of sources that have consistently influenced teachers' behaviours in classroom. Henrichsen (1989) provides a useful synthesis of many of these ideas in his Hybrid Model of the Diffusion/Implementation Process. Regarding contextual factors, Henrichsen creates the term "The Antecedents" component to emphasize the importance of the conditions in place in the educational context or environment before the introduction of an innovation. In Wall's (2000) model in a detailed analysis of an attempt to use new tests to influence teaching in Sri Lanka, the research found there was not enough teacher support material, there was too little teacher training, and there was not enough time for most teachers to cover the syllabus. There were too few links within the user system (between teaching associations, training colleges, universities, teacher, publications, etc.) to provide for effective exchanges of information and expertise. Rea-Dickins & Scott (2007) agree washback can be viewed as a context-specific shifting process, unstable, involving changing behaviours in ways that are difficult to predict. Wall and Horák (2007) have pointed out the value of studies in informing test designers of contextual factors. Micro-level and the macro-level effects (Weir & Milanovic, 2003) provide the explanations to variation in the

construct of language 'ability' across different cultural contexts to suggest how teaching

has been adapted for scholastic, economic, and social stratification purposes. For

instance, Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), Shohamy et al. (1996), and Read and

Hayes (2003) found different schools provide greater or lesser time allocation. Time

available affects teachers' decisions to choose teaching methods and contents. So

teachers teach more commercial exam-related publications (Lumley and Stoneman,

2000). Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) also found the factor of class size to influence

pedagogy.

Prapphal (2008) explores economic components, work place needs, social equity

and harmony, political components, and policy implementation as primary determiners.

Cheng (2004), Choi (2008), McNamara & Shohamy (2008), and Sasaki (2008) have

mentioned the importance of social and cultural components to mediate teachers'

teaching. Social and cultural influence on washback can be traced back to imperial

examinations in ancient China. Time-honored traditions play a key role in the process of

innovations in education (Choi, 2008). Finally, Sasaki (2008) reviews 150 years of

English language assessment and suggests applying Wall's (1996) innovation theory

framework to look at how governmental policies such as popularization and

centralization intensified washback effects. However, little research has focused on

relationship between testing as a teaching tool and socio-political contexts.

In the context of Taiwan, Shih's (2009) GEPT research indicates Taiwanese

teachers of English could not adopt a task-based approach to instruction for the development of language proficiency. Liu & Gong (2000) also found that only a small percentage of teachers were professionally qualified among all middle school teachers in Taiwan. As Xiao (1998) pointed out that the grammar-translation curriculum still overrides the programmes that meet the social-cultural and cognitive needs of students. Xiao asserts whether teachers can accept new teaching methods is largely dependent upon the degree of provision in new teaching when they were taught as students. Many studies have suggested the importance of teacher education in EFL areas (Bailey, 1999; Cheng, 2004; Messick, 1996), but there is no new system in Taiwan to ensure that teachers are trained appropriately.

Performance on national examinations is a critical factor for entrance into top high schools and universities. Ross (2008 p. 6) assets that meritocracies have become the standard model in industrialized societies – tests in all domains are used to govern access to education and employment, and now more than ever language testing plays a central role. As a result, overuse of test publications has been a serious problem leading to unintended outcomes in schooling. Culturally, due to the invasive power of Confucian ideas, the role of teachers is viewed as knowledge controllers. Teachers deliver their knowledge based on their own planning, but not based on the curriculum." Learning strategies by Chinese people due to the rooted concept of learning "Four books and five classics" are inclined toward memorization and repetition. With respect

to the professional status, traditional syllabi including grammar, literature, and linguistic analysis are maintained in teaching English at the tertiary level. Traditional teaching carries greater prestige than teaching students to speak the language for communication (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Wu & Fang, 2002). A large class size and the lack of resources could harm the quality of teaching and therefore harm students' learning at schools as well (Hu, 2002; Liang1991).

In other contexts where English is a foreign language, Chile, Brazil, Egypt, Saudi Arabia, and Hungary also give little thought about providing teachers with appropriate support (Wedell, 2008). The implementation of existing English reform is problematic, and this identifies teacher education as an issue. An expectation of teacher autonomy to adapt their teaching to the classroom situation is likely to be challenging for the millions of English teachers worldwide still working in what remain largely teacher-fronted and transmission based education cultures. In Shohamy's (1993) terms, the impact that had been achieved was "instrumental" rather than "conceptual" to mediate teachers' decisions in teaching. After reviewing the literature relevant to relationships between washback and other factors, it can be seen that we should not assume that a `good' test will automatically produce good effects in the classroom, or that a `bad' test will necessarily produce negative ones. All of the factors mentioned above will have some part to play in the process of trying to create change. We must be aware of structural factors that may facilitate or hinder teachers including school

systems, teaching resources, classroom facilities, traditionally scholarly practices, and the demand of the attainment. According to Alderson & Wall (1993), we should first investigate the whole educational context in which a test is introduced, as other factors are available within the society and the educational system that might prohibit washback from appearing (p. 116). When washback is used as "levers of changes" in education, the political, social, and economic factors can also be considered as the key societal forces to transform the pedagogy. These contextual factors should be addressed simultaneously since their relationships have interplayed with washback and teachers' beliefs. If I intend to analyze mediating factors for both teaching and learning, the educational context in which the teaching takes place needs to be fully understood. However, there is still relatively little research in language education to explicitly describe teachers' pedagogical beliefs about the potential washback within their unique contexts for hindering or facilitating the implementation of those pedagogical beliefs. Though there are some studies looking at the contexts, the findings are scattered and isolated. This will require a thorough analysis of the context that the tests are going to be introduced into and dedicated monitoring of the process once the test is in place. Therefore, this study sheds light on how different teachers' beliefs and contextual factors impact upon teachers' pedagogical decisions to deal with externally initiated "test score" policy. My viewpoint, consistent with Watanabe (2004), suggests teachers have capacities but whether they can achieve the innovation depends on the interactions of both capacities and ecological conditions. I want to explore the practice

which in turn is affected by contextual issues –e.g., accommodation to cultural factors and the extant social structure – that are often beyond the control of those seeking to lever the change through the assessment. The findings of my study might provide suggestions to educational practitioners and researchers about how teachers' pedagogical beliefs and contextual factors interplay with each other to affect the effective of washback and different viewpoints on how to carry out education reforms to create more positive washback effects in reality.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH METHODS

4.1 Introducing my research project

On the basis of the literature review in the previous chapter, I found that researchers proposed various mediating factors in relation to teachers' instructional decisions (e.g. washback models by Alderson & Wall, Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, Bailey, Wall, Watanabe, and others). Their results indicated washback effects have differently influenced to teachers and schools. Cheng (2004), also asserts, "in order to further our understanding, we need to look at the phenomenon in a specific education setting by investigating in depth different aspects of teaching and learning." As a result, my emphasis is on learning the most about both the individual case of EFL teachers and the phenomenon of washback, especially the latter because the special circumstances may yield insight into EFL testing programs.

The purpose of this study was to look at other variables (e.g., beliefs and contexts) which might result in various forms and degrees of washback. To profile thoroughly EFL teacher behaviours mediated by factors such as the rooted beliefs and the circumstances of examination-based education, the present study focused on the language testing programs EFL teachers taught, e.g., ECL and TOEFL. I would like to distinguish between 2 types of EFL tests, where ECL is a traditionally linguistic-based

test and TOEFL iBT requires effective communication (ETS, 2013, p. 5). Under the contexts with potentially different types of washback, I compared and contrasted traditionally oriented and communicative oriented EFL teachers. In their work for the departments of foreign language teaching, participating EFL teachers from Air Force colleges in Taiwan coped with the issues brought by the design and content change of current standardized language proficiency assessments for English language teaching. In particular, the study methodology was guided by interactionist strategies (Denzin, 1989) in which I obtained data on the actual and attitudinal experiences of the individual within the context, in this case, of high-stakes testing. Interactionism is the study of investigating individuals and how they act within their contexts. Its aim is to provide an authentic picture of the problem being investigated through thick descriptions contextualized from EFL teachers who have lived the phenomenon under investigation. In the case of EFL teaching, teachers encountered difficulties in accommodating new TOEFL testing systems with their cognitive beliefs in the aspect of pedagogy. The methods of data collection included classroom observations on the basis of a one-year participant observation study, as well as the semi-structured interviews based on theories and field work to elicit perspectives of EFL teachers. Interview data were balanced by observation of what EFL teachers actually instructed. The records were analyzed interpretively to reproduce and rearticulate the processes of EFL teacher instructional decision-making grounded in given patterns of EFL context.

The washback researchers (e.g. Alderson and Wall, 1993) strongly suggested a

methodological basis for empirical evidence from direct classroom observations and other methods of data collection. Thus, this chapter deals with the methodological issues to find out teachers' beliefs and their practices listed in research questions, and to further outline research methods to collect and generate empirical components. The chapter will start with 1) the aims of the research, 2) remind the readers of my research questions before I describe the design of the study, and 3) present the justifications of the chosen research methods and instruments in the light of the discussion of the previous chapter. In particular, I will refine the observation schedule with coding terms, describe the 'data generation' and 'data analysis' procedures used in the study, and operationally summarize ethical issues.

4.2 Research aims

I hope that the study could help test writers, researchers, and teachers understand the different types of washback from TOEFL and ECL while taking into account other mediating factors such as context, beliefs, and teacher background. The present study aims:

a. To understand the extent to which washback generates its impacts on EFL teachers at the tertiary level (military colleges) in Taiwan, and how they respond to the standardized language tests, such as TOEFL iBT and ECL.

b. To understand the extent to which teachers' attitude and beliefs have influenced their teaching approaches, methods, and contents.

c. To understand the extent to which contextual factors have influenced teachers' pedagogical decisions.

d. To understand enormous individual variety in responses to make it easier for test writers to lever the change in education.

With these aims I needed to stay contextually embedded in selected schools, without an attempt to generalize washback effects for all schools. Discovered beliefs and practice from an in-depth and holistic study would support my research findings to understand the processes of teacher instructional decisions. Despite the context specific nature of this study to make the short of generalization, it is possible to enhance transferability by giving a thorough work of describing the research context. The findings from the colleges I was researching in may be transferable to other settings, as they provide insights into how EFL teachers from different cultural backgrounds deal with different types of test.

4.3 My views on research questions

From my perspective, the key element in this chapter is to answer these questions in the theoretical framework of the trend of washback studies that focus on the relationships between the test and other mediating factors, with particular attention paid to the interactions between the intrinsic side as teacher beliefs and the extrinsic factors. Thus, since teachers' beliefs and context are inseparable, the present study looks contextually at teachers' practice from both macro and micro level factors in order to

evaluate the reciprocal influences between the context and the beliefs of each individual teacher. My first firm belief is that, not less than before, high-stakes testing is to occupy an important role to influence teacher practices in classrooms. The first research question is to address the extent to which that washback effects have influenced teacher practices in classrooms. The second question stems from the awareness that most recent washback models (in the section 3.3.1) indicate the complexity of washback, rather than a simple effect of a test on teaching and learning. Then, it is important to find out what factors have resulted in the intended washback effects and what other factors might have contributed to the unintended washback effects. My second question therefore is presented to discover teachers' beliefs in teaching and learning and the contextual factors that have profoundly influenced teachers' practice in classroom in Taiwan. The last question is to compare washback effects in these four case studies. Exploring individual teachers, I want to see in what circumstances stronger washback, or stronger teachers' beliefs, or stronger contextual factors might have influenced teachers' instructional decision-making. This issue is the third research question of the study. This will contribute to a more sophisticated understanding of the concept of washback.

4.4 Research questions

My research addressed the following questions:

1. How does washback of ECL (norm-referenced) test and washback from TOEFL iBT

(criterion-referenced) test impact on teachers' practices of test preparation courses and academic English teaching at two Taiwanese Air Force colleges?

2. To what extent are washback of ECL (norm-referenced) test and washback of TOEFL iBT (criterion-referenced) test moderated by teachers' beliefs and other contextual factors at two Air Force colleges?

3. What is the interactive relationship between tests (e.g., norm-referenced ECL, criterion-referenced TOEFL iBT) and mediating factors (e.g., teachers' beliefs, contextual factors) resulting in low or high intensity of washback effects at two Air Force colleges?

4.5 The design of the study

During the research, I was problem-oriented in my thinking in order to examine how certain things get done and motivated by a commitment to the data and to understand that the teacher belief-practice interaction, which is interpretive and context-bound was most likely to achieve success. My design of such research through participant observations involves a range of methods: 3 sets of semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and field notes. Using multiple ways to collect data for me is to enrich the evidence. Silverman (1993, p. 158; 2005, p. 121) argues the value of multiple methods is to reveal detailed accounts and behaviours. The study was undertaken over a period of time from spring 2009 to winter 2010. Two years of observations allowed me

to obtain more detailed and accurate information about the EFL teachers I was studying.

Observable details (including daily time allotment, classroom practices, etc.) and more

hidden details (including behaviours responding to the reform) were more easily

observed and understood over time. They allowed me to discover discrepancies

between what these EFL teachers believe and what actually does happen when they

cope with 2 types of EFL tests, namely TOEFL iBT and ECL with potentially different

types of washback. Different beliefs of EFL teachers have never been neglected and I

had a great determination to use different methods for data collection.

4.5.1 Rationale of using a qualitative multi-case study

I use a qualitative paradigm for this study because I have tried to discover how my

research participants interpret the phenomena, e.g. the influence of testing on teaching

and learning occurring in a context and how it influences their actions. In an educational

context where several testing programs were used to evaluate students' language

proficiency, EFL teachers as the practitioners in teaching might hold different viewpoints

and attitudes which consequentially influence their practices.

Patton (1990) asserts that a multi-case study was more appropriate to understand

particular cases – unusual successes, unusual failures, or dropouts in educational

programs. The case study allows an investigation to retain the holistic and meaningful

characteristics of real-life events to understand complex social phenomena. Thus, case

studies in this research were used to understand some critical cases through collecting

each teacher's in-depth perceptions in relation to correspondent classroom behaviours due to testing programs implemented. Stake (2000) and Stark & Torrance (2005) point out that the strength of case study is to take an example of a subject or an activity and use multiple methods and data sources to explore it and interrogate it. Thus, it can achieve a rich description of a phenomenon in order to represent it from the participants' perspectives. Merriam (1998) defines that the interest of a case study is "in process rather than outcomes" as a major characteristics. Unlike traditional evaluation methodologies which focus on outcomes, the case-study approach describes the participant, the situation, and the resulting interaction. Its primary focus is the participant experiencing the situation. Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2007, p.253) remark that case studies opt for analytic rather than statistical generalization, that they develop a theory which can help researchers to understand other similar cases, phenomena, or situations.

Thus, naturalistic multi-case studies were employed to explore EFL teachers' beliefs towards English language teaching and learning, their beliefs about testing programs, and their actual teaching practices within two military colleges in Taiwan. This study obtained insights into beliefs from a perspective of Taiwanese EFL teachers in the Air Force Academy Foreign Language Teaching Centre and the Air Force Institute of Technology English Language Teaching Centre in Taiwan. The nature of my study in fact focused on discovering in how EFL teachers, when experiencing two types of

testing programs (TOEFL iBT and ECL), interpret English teaching and learning, how they view washback effects and authentic classroom practices. Two types of EFL test based on different paradigms of learning were compared to reveal its impacts on pedagogical responses which potentially vary in heterogeneous classrooms. Since case study is descriptive, inductive and ultimately heuristic, it becomes an appropriate approach to illuminate readers' understanding of an issue.

4.5.2 Overview of the research

The procedures of the research consisted of 3 distinct phases:

1. The first phase was to explore teacher attitudes and beliefs in general towards language teaching and learning administrated language tests, and military school and language centre cultures.

2. The second phase was to observe all classes taught by participating teachers and explore the issues that arose in classrooms.

3. The third phase was follow-up site visits to clarify teachers' interpretations on the issues and confirm the distinct process of the teaching.

For this study I decided to adopt multiple methods comprising basic quantitative and qualitative analyses of classroom observations, qualitative analysis of semi-structured interviews and field notes, and other data from the case study schools. The basic quantitative analysis in classroom observations was to weigh components of teaching

tasks and activities. It was complementary to count teachers' questions and Initiate-Respond-Feedback (IRF sequences) in the classroom to give me to understand what EFL teachers do in the classrooms. The qualitative analysis would provide the detailed, deep, and holistic views of discourses between the teacher and students to give me an account of structure and meaning from within that perspective. The mixed approach could be best viewed to make better sense of the other in the context-boundedness of accounts, enabling me to collect useful rich data.

My rationale behind choosing interview questions from the BALLI questionnaires written by Horwitz (1985, 1988) includes these features:

- BALLI questionnaires are designed to elicit a rich description in the interviews. The themes from the BALLI were adapted to fit my own research questions, and linked to features of EFL teaching and learning, mainly GTM and CLT at military institutions.

- Since my research investigated teachers' beliefs in teaching and learning, I needed an instrument to explore language learning as well as teaching methodology. Belief inventory in the BALLI contains language aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, learning and communicative strategies, and expectation and motivation. As a result of revising Horwitz's instrument which combines Johnson's (1992) teachers' beliefs, the following six themes referring to beliefs teachers hold were developed: teachers' background and ability, the

difficulty of language teaching, approaches and methods of language teaching, students' learning and strategies, impacts of washback and impacts of contextual factors. Horwitz's comprehensive inventories have been used to explore aspects of language learning, and many researchers (Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006) have claimed the inferential applicability of the BALLI as a suitable tool for research on language learning in various socio-linguistic settings.

● In addition to beliefs about teaching, I went further to teachers' perspectives about the contextual factors which might have influenced teachers' practice. Thus, questions asked in an interview address my Research Questions.

Adapting the BALLI can be useful to produce participant description, identify difficulties of English teaching, bring out stories of each case study and deep conceptions in teaching.

My rationale for choosing the COLT observational scheme is to measure the extent to which teachers' practices have shown the features of communicative teaching. The COLT framework indicates the proportion of English taught communicatively in aspects of activity type and content, participant organization, skills involved and materials required. The COLT scheme was used in my research so that I can identify what, i.e. teaching and learning process, whom, i.e. interaction, and how often, i.e., frequency of the activity (Genesee & Upshur, 1996). The following methods were used to generate data:

1. *The Semi-structured Interview of Teacher Backgrounds and Teacher Beliefs about Teaching and Learning*. These interviews based on the BALLI questionnaires (Horwitz, 1985) enabled me to discover teachers' prior educational experience and meanings that teachers give to language teaching and learning. In order to interpret the real world beliefs of pedagogy, the semi-structured interviews were adopted because "certain information is desired from all the respondents" (Merriam, 1988, p. 74). This format also allowed me to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging view of the respondent, and to new ideas on the topic (Merriam, 1988, p. 74). Furthermore, a semi-structured interview allowed "interviewees' maximum freedom, ample and perhaps unexpected information might emerge" (Ferman, 2004, p. 195). In other words, with the themes I set interview questions pertaining to how the testing program might be affecting teaching, in which I allowed the respondents freedom of expression, instead of leading the respondents with focused questions.

2. *The Semi-structured Interview of Teachers' Beliefs of Washback of Language Testing Programs*. To enrich research data, the second form of the semi-structured interview was designed to collect teachers' statements about testing programs, classroom practice, and teaching context. The method focused on beliefs how the traditional ECL testing program and the communicative TOEFL iBT testing program has affected English teachers' beliefs on teaching and assessment, respectively. The interview questions were adapted from the questionnaires originally written by Abrams, Pedulla and Madaus (2003) as well as Choi's (2008) study concerning the

impact of EFL testing on education. In interview inquiries, I collected data pertaining to teachers' perspectives on how testing programs have influenced their teaching. The major themes were types of skills mainly taught, types of materials mainly used, kinds of activities mainly used.

3. *COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) – Classroom Observations.* This method allowed me to build a richer picture of the processes of teachers' decisions in pedagogy. It was to give a holistic interpretation working together with the interview data to better understand EFL teachers' behaviours in English teaching for developing students' communicative competence, for developing lexical and grammatical ability, or other approaches for developing skills in EFL Classrooms. In addition, I closely examined the interactions between students and teachers. In order to capture potential pedagogical differences that students receive in their EFL classes, an observation scheme focused on the communicative orientation of L2 teaching. Thus, it was adequate to use the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) (Fröhlich, Spada, & Allen, 1985) as an instrument for probing pedagogical activities. The COLT observation scheme has been used primarily in classroom research to investigate relationships among instructional input, interaction, and second language acquisition. My study employs the COLT observation scheme Part A, which describes classroom events at the level of activity, includes the categories of activity type, participant organization, content, student modality, and materials. This process helped me to build rapport or

even trustful friendships with teachers in each department, facilitating open discussions later in follow-up interviews.

4. *Follow-up Interview.* To find out why the teachers conduct certain classroom activities or made particular choices recorded during the observations, a follow-up interview was conducted with each participant teacher. It was also an important way to check the accuracy of – further to validate or to disprove - the interpretations the researcher made through observation (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 455) by checking contradictory statements and exploring the relevance between teachers' beliefs and practices. It was important in conjunction with baseline interview data gathered to triangulate with classroom observations about practice done by EFL teachers and some follow-up accounts from EFL teachers of why they perceived and reacted differently.

5. *Analysis of Relevant Documentations.* I jotted down some notes and if possible gathered artifacts about classroom facilities, learning resources, bulletin boards, authority supervision, department meetings, school policies, student learning activities, and interactions in the classroom. They could truly reflect contextual factors around teachers and were encountered daily.

Hence, interviews and observations conducted in present study would help me find out how teacher beliefs systems and the washback effects interact to affect classroom practices. The in-depth interviews and observations would help me compare and

contrast the stated beliefs and classroom behaviours of the teachers. It was interesting to see whether teachers adhere to the standards of TOEFL/ECL and their reasons for their decisions. Finally, the differences between what teachers believe and how they react under the washback effects could be interpreted on the basis of the sufficient data subjected to qualitative analysis. It stressed the important factors of individual background, experience, motivation and attitude influencing teachers' beliefs in dealing with teaching when mediated by contextual pressure of testing innovations. Therefore, the identified differences would greatly improve my knowledge and understanding of what happens in these two colleges and help me understand what happens more generally in tertiary level language training.

4.5.3 My role as researcher

In this section, I will address how I was vigilant about potential risks as the role of insider status that I played in the research (while nothing that insider status does not make research inherently unreliable). Persons with research or enquiry expertise can take on a variety of roles in real world research (Robson, 1993, p. 450). Therefore, conscious self-awareness of the researcher's roles relates to the validity of qualitative research. My role in this study and the potential influences are discussed as follows.

I positioned myself as an insider in consideration of the access of rich data for me since I have familiarity with professional knowledge and am a member of a studied group. As Robson (1993, p. 453) points out, insiders have an advantage in knowing the

environment of the study that the setting and context will take place. Admittedly, I could communicate well with those participants who were from the same place as me. I worked for the Academy but I was also trained for military officer education at the Institute for several months while this study was conducted from 2009-2010. We shared the same identity as an English instructor at Air Force colleges.

The emergent concern about interview data is one that cautions against the privileging of voice, typically conceptualized as words and perspectives of participants, in qualitative inquiry (Trainor & Graue, 2013). Indeed, my role in the research as an insider affected the decisions to choose the participants as key informants from my colleagues who can help me to gather thick and rich descriptions of their beliefs in teaching and learning. Meanwhile, I also invited a teacher who was a friend of mine from another college and he invited his colleague who is motivated and honest person to be the best interviewee. Other teachers who are not willing to provide their perspectives were not selected for the purpose of answering the research questions. For these participants, they might treat me as a professional scholar or even a threat (Tina and Mary seeing me as a senior colleague) so that they might be selective about what they said or presented an over positive view of their teaching that was inaccurate. Thus, I utilized sufficient interviews and spent an extended time in classroom observations to capture holistic phenomena and see the real contexts. I always asked myself during the research, Are the included participants sufficient and willing to answer the research questions? Thus, my role as an insider facilitated the positive relationship

over time in the study between me and my two colleagues, and all of four participants were ready to provide rich information on my research questions.

Rubin & Rubin (2005) point out that people are likely to be more willing to participate in an interview with someone with whom they are acquainted or someone they know well. Thus, interviewing involves an appreciation for the interactive process of establishing a relationship with another person for the purpose of constructing meaning. These relationships between me and participants were not something to be avoided and quality of interviewing is indicated through the establishment of ethical relationships that foster familiarity and contingency with participants (Trainor & Graue, 2013). Therefore, I have followed guidelines of ethical research, dealing with the interpersonal relationships between researchers and participants. Mutual trust was the basis for the development of rapport in interviews. However, while I might prefer progressive teachers, I realized that limiting rapport is essential, and I objectively analyzed the interview and behavioural data with validated tools including the BALLI, the COLT scheme, and taxonomy of teachers' feedback. Despite my preferences in innovative teaching as acknowledged, these methods for semi-structured interviews and observations employed in my research would reduce my relationships, positions, and biases that might limit the collection and analysis of interview and observation.

4.5.4 Setting and Participants

The data were collected to investigate teachers' beliefs on English teaching and

learning, their interactions with washback effects, and to explore how EFL teachers responded to communicative principles of teaching and testing in the classrooms.

1. Settings

The research sites were the R. O. C. Air Force Academy and the Air Force Institute of Technology. Generally speaking, I chose these two colleges because of my professional interest in military colleges and lack of existing research. Both Foreign Language Teaching Centres at these two colleges were investigated to find out the influence of testing programmes on teachers' beliefs and behaviours. The Academy had a class size of 30-40 students as well as the Institute had a large size with 40-50 students. English programs were similar to other military colleges.

Justifications of settings selected included these factors:

• pragmatic

• permitted

• typical

• informative

Stake (2000, p. 105) argues "By comprehensively describing the program case, the researcher should help the reader draw naturalistic generalizations." The design of the study was heavily influenced by the serious problems of communication and information gathering in Taiwan. There were several reasons to select Air Force Academy and Air Force Institute for this study. The first reason was pragmatic. Given the Taiwanese

military college context and the nature of educational sampling, I had no alternative than to base the study on my work places. Both the Academy and the Institute are located in southern Taiwan where I could access both of them with the best contacts. A closer distance made it possible for me to conduct a qualitative study with naturalistic inquires including individual interviews, group interviews, classroom observations, documents and field notes. Ethnographic action was also feasible so I could stay in two language teaching centres at schools as natural settings for a longer period to observe contextual features.

2. Participant selection

Understanding the critical phenomena depends on choosing the case well (Patton, 1990). Merriam (1988) also asserts the sampling is used in purpose to discover, understand, and capture the phenomena completely as the foundations of a new theory. A case study is to understand 'the case' through long-term immersion in the field rather than to generalize to a population at large. My goal was to select cases for gaining a deeper understanding of the processes of decisions, and I believed these cases allowed me to access different perspectives and beliefs. My position was to be objective to all participant teachers. It allowed me to understand how these cases construct their point of view to represent their own reality. Thus, their 'thick descriptions' facilitated the development of concepts relevant to the relationship between teacher beliefs and pedagogical actions for my research. This was consistent with the views of other

researchers who developed a theory throughout the research process. For instance, social phenomena are always complex and require sensitive and dense theory to account for as much variation in the data as possible (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). David Silverman (2000, 2001) also argues that qualitative research follows a theoretical, rather than a statistical logic. Transferability is not the major concern in qualitative inquires. The selected teachers were by no means to represent all types of EFL teachers in Taiwan colleges. As the participants were few and unique, it was appropriate to look at each teacher as an individual case (Patton, 1990).

The main selection criteria I set were:

1. The teachers of English taught test preparation courses, as the key characteristics.

2. It was essential that teachers employ various teaching approaches based on their educational backgrounds and teacher training.

3. Teachers had widely disparate language levels. Emphatically, it was to highlight the ability to teach using communicative teaching principles that requires more confidence and higher ability of the teacher in the target language.

4. Teachers' attitudes to curriculum reform were either positive or negative.

5. Teachers who could be conveniently accessed by the researcher were willing to participate in the study.

6. There should be equivalent stability in the number of participating teachers to

provide rich information in both the Academy and the Institute.

In their work for the Department of Foreign Language Teaching, these teachers coped with the issues brought by the design and content change of current standardized language proficiency assessments. I identified the four participating teachers as Tina, Mary, Andy and Lee. Among four teachers, two (Tina and Andy) teachers are responsible for ECL testing and two (Mary and Lee) teachers are responsible for TOEFL iBT testing. All teachers participated both in the interview and observation sessions. The population of colleges was that the Air Force Academy and the Air Force Institute of Technology were the only two Air Force colleges in Taiwan. Both Air Force colleges were similar in characteristics of students, facilities, and missions. However, it should be noted that some military instructors of English were sent to the US Defense Language Institute (DLI) teacher education. The population of teachers in the departments is 5 teachers at the Academy and 6 teachers at the Institute. The present study is made to explore how assessment tests, teachers' beliefs and accompanying contextual issues mitigate or mediate teacher professional decision-making on test preparation courses at two Air Force colleges. A brief biography for participating EFL teachers at the time of the study is summarized in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1 Setting and participants

	Academy		Institute	
	Mary	**Tina**	**Andy**	**Lee**
Test program taught	ECL Test Preparation	ECL/TOEFL Test Preparation	ECL Test Preparation	ECL/TOEFL Test Preparation
Age	60s	50s	30s	40s
Gender	Female	Female	Male	Male

Degree	MA	MA	MA	MA
Years of Teaching	20 ↑	20 ↑	5 ↑	10 ↑
Student Level	Lower	Intermediate	Lower	Intermediate
Class size	25-40	25-40	35-40	35-40
Teacher training	None	Seldom	Regularly	Regularly

4.6 Data sources

To address a broader range of historical, attitudinal, and behavioural issues, Yin (1994) suggests an approach to collect evidence for case studies through the use of multiple sources of evidence. The most important advantage presented by using multiple sources of evidence is the development of converging lines of inquiry. As explained, the present study employed a range of data generation methods. Table 4-2 shows how these methods relate to the research questions.

Table 4-2 The design of the study

Research question	Methods	Sources of data
Research question 1: Washback effects	a. *The Semi-structured Interview of Teacher Backgrounds and Teacher Beliefs about Teaching and Learning.* b. *The Semi-structured Interview of Teachers' Beliefs of Washback of Language Testing Programs.* c. *COLT-Classroom Observations.* d. *Follow-up Interviews.* e. *Analysis of Documentations.*	1. EFL teachers 2. COLT coding sheet 3. Field notes
Research question 2: A combination of factors	a. *The Semi-structured Interview of Teacher Backgrounds and Teacher Beliefs about Teaching and Learning.* b. *Follow-up Interviews.* c. *Analysis of Documentations*	1. EFL teachers 2. School and department documents 3. Field notes
Research question 3: Factors resulting in forms and intensities of washback	a. *The Semi-structured Interview of Teacher Backgrounds and Teacher Beliefs about Teaching and Learning.* b. *COLT-Classroom Observations.* c. *Follow-up Interviews.* d. *Analysis of Documentations*	1. EFL teachers 2. COLT coding sheet 3. School and department documents 4. Field notes

4.6.1 Phase one - Interviews

The first stage in the research consisted of two interviews including *Teachers' Background and Beliefs.* Four EFL teachers were interviewed in 2009. Baseline interviews were conducted at the beginning of the data collection. Each teacher was given the interview questions several days before the formal interview to obtain their consent and to see if they have any questions about this interview. The main reason to give all interview questions to respondents in advance is to obtain trust. To avoid the disadvantage of giving interview questions, I employed observations and documentaries to validate the data. The uncertainty of their interviews will increase the respondents' worries about what kinds of questions will be asked that will seriously threaten the conduct of my research. Given all questions to them, the respondents can express if any questions are potentially harmful. Thus, all respondents accept my interviews as a result of knowing what being asked in advance. To let the respondents express all their opinions and feelings freely, their mother tongue Chinese is used in the interviews. However, if any respondent wanted to speak in English in the interviews it was also welcome.

A few weeks after I conducted the baseline interviews, teachers' beliefs about washback interviews were conducted in the same manner as the baseline interviews. Interview questions were given to the teachers before hand, so they knew the questions being asked and could see if they agreed to being interviewed.

1. The Semi-structured Interview of English Teachers' Background and Initial Beliefs towards Teaching and Learning

The baseline interview (refer to Appendix 2) conducted in April 2009 adapted questionnaires from Johnson (1992) and Horwitz (1985) to include teacher background, beliefs about teaching, and description of teaching context. As shown in Figure 7, the interview questions were concerned with years of teaching, degree and major, ways of being taught, courses, and motivation. The second category was to understand English teachers' beliefs towards teaching and learning. Questions were asked about how they perceived EFL teaching, and their responses were analyzed to find whether or not there are any differences in beliefs of EFL teaching between traditional teachers and those teachers on communicative lines.

Figure 7 Main features of baseline interview

3. Contextual characteristics:
social and political
school culture
education authority
external pressure
resourcing

1. Individual characteristics:
background
learning experience
ability/ commitment
testing knowledge

Baseline Interview

2. Theoretical beliefs:
students' ability
course design
teaching methods
learning strategies
assessment
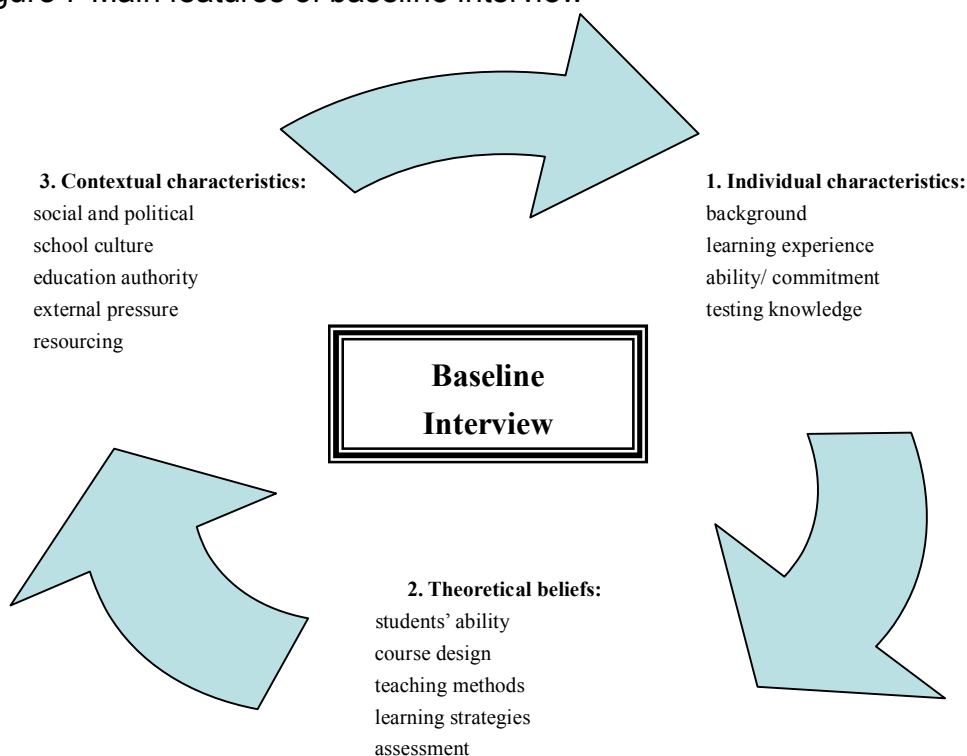
The themes in the second part included English teaching methods, designing an

English course, the role of an EFL teacher, language skills taught, and teaching process.

The third part asked the teachers about contextual factors such as social culture,

political power and policy, school administration and management, resources, and

teacher professional development.

The Semi-structured Interview of English Teachers' Beliefs of Washback of Language
Testing Programs

Likewise, the second interviews of EFL teachers were conducted in May or June,

almost a month later than the baseline interview. The purpose of second interview (in

Figure 8) was to collect data relevant to the influence of a test on teaching and learning.

A list of pre-specified questions was used to lead the conversations with the EFL

teachers, and went into further discussions. The themes in the second interviews were

focused on language skills, materials, and activities in relation to language exams

(Refer to Appendix 3).

Figure 8 Main features of teachers' interview about the assessment

Language skills:

The paradigms of assessment (e.g. criterion-based or norm-based) and contents of assessment (e.g. isolated skill or integrated skills) are likely to mediate teacher's pedagogical syllabus. What are your views on this?

**Interview 2:
Teacher's responses
to assessment**

Textbooks / materials:

Describe current provision of textbooks and materials used to match the assessment, including academic textbooks, test preparation textbooks, mock tests, placement tests, etc.

Tasks / activities:

Describe current teaching of English and test preparation courses to match the assessment, including goals, purposes, methods, tasks, activities, resourcing, etc.

4.6.2 Phase two – Classroom observations

Phase two took place from spring 2009 to autumn 2010. To implement school-based research, I observed each teacher's classroom for one hour, one lesson per month over a 2-semester period, making a total of 24 observation sessions (4teachers×3months×2semesters). For both school cases, I had an opportunity to stay on each campus at least for six months to know the whole school systems, participating in various academic activities and conversations. Teachers became familiar with the nature of my research. During the period of observation, rapport and trust were built to assist the implementation of research methods. In addition to general English courses

in these two colleges, the teaching of EFL teachers in both semesters under ECL Test

Preparation Courses and TOEFL Test Preparation Courses were observed. Three

different sets of ECL test preparation courses were observed for traditional teachers

and three units of TOEFL test preparation courses were observed for communicative

teachers. It focused on the difference of teaching methods, activities and contents

between TOEFL and ECL courses. All observations were videotaped for data analysis.

Portions of the transcribed data were translated into English to enable the use of direct

quotations from the transcriptions. The transcriptions allowed me to obtain the pictures

of the lessons observed, thus helping me explain in detail the classroom interactions

and discourse. Four sub-questions that I observed were:

a. What types of skills are mainly taught?

b. What types of materials are mainly used?

c. What kinds of activities are mainly used?

d. Which communicative features are chiefly presented in those activities?

In order to answer these questions, I used classroom observations, the primary

research method employed to address the four sub-questions pertaining to skills,

materials, activities, and features employed in the classroom. This gave me a better

understanding of how teachers actually teach in the classrooms. Robson (1993) points

out that "As the actions and behaviour of people are a central aspect in virtually any

enquiry, a natural and obvious technique is to watch what they do, to record this in some

way and then to describe, analyse and interpret that we have observed (p. 190). The rationale of using observations includes: (1) allow the researcher to gather 'live' data from naturally happenings, (2) enable the researcher to have a reality check, (3) can offer an insight into everyday behaviours, relationships, teaching practices, interactions, physical construction of institutions, and contextual situations (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

Furthermore, Alderson & Wall (1993) suggested that it is increasingly obvious that we need to look closely at classroom events, in particular, in order to see whether what teachers and learners say they do is reflected in their behaviour. Ellis (1996) also stated classroom observation views the classroom as a place where interactions of various kinds take place, affording learners opportunities to acquire the second language. Allwright (1984) argued interaction was the fundamental fact of classroom pedagogy because everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of live person-to-person interaction. Interactions in a language classroom include those between the teacher and the students, between textbooks and students, and between activities and students. Therefore, the type of my observations was mainly based on interactionism (Silverman, 1993) which is concerned with the creation and change of symbolic orders via social interaction. Denzin (1970) uses the term "participant observation" to describe the practice of interactionists. Such a method involves taking the viewpoint of those studied, understanding the situated character of interaction,

viewing social processes over time, and can encourage attempts to develop formal theories grounded in first-hand data. Participant observation was suitable for this study because of my ability to gain access to events or groups that are otherwise inaccessible to field investigation, my ability to perceive reality from the viewpoint of someone "inside" the case study rather than external to it, and my ability to manipulate interviews and observations (Yin, 1994).

My approach was a "methodology for listening" to centrally concern myself with "seeing the world from perspective of my participants." In this respect, I accepted assumptions about the "authenticity" of "experience" of my participants as other interactionists do. I used methodological principles of participant observation to explore behaviours of EFL teachers in the presence of testing programs, to learn everyday conceptions of reality in their own environments, to gather data in naturally occurring situations, and to examine how pedagogical decisions vary during the period of time of research.

Since the potential contradictions between teacher beliefs and new teaching ideas (Lamb, 1995), the findings of the classroom observations were used as the recalls to stimulate more perceptions in teaching and learning. Silverman (1993) also expressed concerns about how informants may distort social reality when interviewees are not fully moral or not intellectually up to scratch. Through the examination of video-taped lessons in classrooms, I was able to see where EFL teachers confronted their own

routine practice and the value it is intended to serve. Observations were conducted in

Table 4-3.

Table 4-3 The detailed contents of practice observed

Name	First Observation **Date** **Content**	Second Observation **Date** **Content**	Third Observation **Date** **Content**	Fourth Observation **Date** **Content**	Fifth Observation **Date** **Content**	Sixth Observation **Date** **Content**
Tina	March 2009 ALCPT ECL	April 2009 ALCPT ECL	Sept. 2009 Reading	Oct. 2009 ALCPT ECL	Nov.2009 Reading	Jan.2010 Reading
Mary	April 2009 TOEFL	May 2009 TOEFL	Sept. 2009 TOEFL	Oct. 2009 Reading	Nov.2009 Reading	Dec. 2009 Reading
Andy	March 2009 ALCPT	April 2009 Reading	May 2009 ALCPT	Sep. 2009 ALCPT	Oct. 2009 ALCPT	Nov. 2009 Reading
Lee	Sept. 2009 TOEFL	Oct. 2009 TOEFL	Nov. 2009 Reading	Jan. 2010 TOEFL	Feb. 2010 TOEFL	March 2010 Reading

The present study then was identical with those of the research studies that

concentrated on teachers with the survey. I went to the classrooms to know how English

teaching actually took place. The use of observation was to find out teachers'

instructional behaviours which were compared with teachers' beliefs collected in

previous interviews. It was to understand whether EFL teachers accommodate new

ideas in TOEFL iBT test.

To take good notes, I prepared the questions I wanted to explore and went to class

faithfully. I reviewed the notes from the previous class and I looked at parts I had

marked. In the class, written records were done systematically. Ways employed to record notes are as follows:

a. Keep a separate notebook for each teacher so I could review them easily.

b. Date each day's notes.

c. Record whatever each teacher puts on the board. Record exams and quizzes that were announced as well as assignment that the EFL teachers gave. Write down events, activities, and interactions in the classrooms.

d. Use signals and listings. For instance, "OB" to indicate that the material was written on the board. "The four steps in the lecture process are …" was a listing. "R" to indicate the teacher repeated a point. "ex" to show an example of classroom practice.

After the lecture and leaving the field, I read over the notes and edited them. I clarified with the EFL teachers anything I did not understand. In turn, I analyzed the documentation and added labels where needed.

4.6.3 Phase three Follow-up Interviews

As the procedures that I employed for the earlier teacher interviews, follow-up teacher interviews (refer to Appendix 4) were conducted at teachers' convenience within a few months of the first observation. The purpose of follow-up interviews was to provide teachers with opportunities to clarify my questions regarding beliefs and

practices showed in later observations. Meanwhile, I could add more questions relevant to my research study, such as teachers' opinions about the context and its constraints. It was a very important process, because it helped me to understand why they did certain activities in the classroom. The present study explored the differences not only between traditional English teachers and communicative English teachers, but also the differences between their beliefs and their instructional behaviours. What teachers said perhaps could be quite different from what they did. Therefore, it was important and necessary that the present study validated teachers' beliefs through actual classroom behaviours found in classroom observations.

Follow-up interviews gave more attention to the relationship between teacher beliefs and learning experience, the relationship between the context and the decision-making, and consistency across all interviews and observations. At this stage, it was to enrich the data needed, and all follow-up interviews were recorded and transcribed.

4.7 Data analysis

In this qualitative case work, all my data analysis followed the *interpretive* analytic method addressed by Stake (2000) to emphasize the production of meaning and to learn the local meaning. I accessed reality through shared meanings that people assign to them for the understanding of phenomena. Interpretive analysis that focuses on the full complexity of human sense making was employed to know the context of innovative

reform, and the process whereby new testing programs influence and is influenced by the context. With sensibility to data, I typified qualitative casework to code the data and continuously interpreted again and again. Through reflecting and revising meanings, my analysis sought to perceive what was natural in happenings, in settings, in expressions of value. In the analysis, I modified initial assumptions and theories because themes emerged from the data. The analysis was for intrinsic interests in the cases, rather than a contribution to generalization. Intrinsic case study would help me toward understanding of what is important about each EFL teacher within his or her own world, so that I could develop issues, contexts, and interpretations. With the thick narrative, readers could vicariously experience these happenings and draw their own conclusions. The general analysis procedures have been implemented through the typical techniques including putting information into different arrays, making a matrix of categories, creating data displays, tabulating the frequency of different events, and examining their relationships.

These were important techniques, for instance, to count the various phenomena and to induct thick narratives. A complete case description has been developed for organizing each case study in later chapters (from chapter 5 to chapter 8) of the dissertation. These chapters cover a range of topics relevant to EFL teachers' learning life, school context, teaching beliefs, attitudes to testing programs, and their actual teaching practices at colleges. A descriptive approach may help to identify a type of

event and an overall pattern of complexity that ultimately was used in a causal sense to "interpret" why EFL teachers made their instructional decisions. However, such abundant data made it difficult to proceed in the analysis without analytic strategies. The strategy of analysis is introduced in detail in the following sections.

4.7.1 Pattern-coding

Pattern-coding strategy is used to identify and to relate to the different behaviours or variables. I applied this concept to the tracing of events in educational systems for intended learning outcomes. These analyses allowed me to classify the typology with emerging phenomena. My attention was given to classify so-called pedagogical decisions by EFL teachers (refer to Appendix 5). Schommer (1990) points out possible sources such as thoughts, actions, motivations or changes in context to influence the belief systems. Thus, I must explore predictors of epistemological beliefs about teaching and learning. Traditional cases were seen to use the traditional teaching methods such as translation and audiolingualism. Innovative cases were seen to integrate all language skills with interactive activities. New codes were applied to the data and revised codes after case studies were re-examined to their original transcripts to see if they shed any additional light on the data. I ought to stress that this coding form was narrowed down to what we were looking for. In analysis of interview data, I did not hear interview responses simply as true or false reports on reality. Instead, I treated such responses as displays of perspectives. Analysis of interview data was mainly

focused on the functions of EFL teachers' accounts. I would show how interview

accounts could be investigated in terms of the factor categorization devices (FCDs)

employed by my respondents. It seemed that an EFL teacher's way of teaching was

systematically related to test factors (like content), student factors (such as proficiency

levels, motivation, etc.), micro-factors (school culture, school management, etc.) and

macro-factors (Chinese culture, high-stakes, education policies, etc.). Table 4-3

indicates perceived important factors that imply common expectations in association to

teaching and learning. According to Silverman (1993), tabulating many cases can avoid

a danger of depending on short extracts to use them to support a preconceived

argument rather than to test it. I overcame such a danger by using a tabulating strategy

as follows in Table 4-4

Table 4-4 Factor categories for EFL teacher decision-making

Categories	EFL teachers' beliefs toward teaching
Teacher factors	
Student factors	
Test factors	
Micro factors	
Macro factors	

Likewise, observational data which represented typical academic classes and test

preparation classes were analyzed with original coding in the COLT scheme (refer to

Appendix 6). After re-examining videotaped data, COLT analyses will explore the

degree of communicative teaching in classroom. For instance, participant organization

(see Table 4-5) discovers the pedagogical process being teacher-centred or

student-centred. Content (Table 4-6) indicates the teaching focusing on conveying

meaning or on linguistic form. Learning content is taught with narrow topics from textbooks or broad topics from extensive sources. The section of content also illustrates classroom management by the teacher. Student modality (Table 4-7) refers to language skills taught in class. The section in COLT Part A (Table 4-8) examines the types of materials e.g. texts, audio, or visual. Furthermore, it codes the materials in class, e.g. L2 as second language, NNS as non-native speaker, NS as native speak, and NSA as recording of native speaker authentic. For instance, L2 NS means that teacher is speaking and he (she) is a non-native speaker. The emphasis throughout the data analysis phase was to group the factors and to extrapolate themes from the data.

Table 4-5 Participant organization

Programmes	T→S/C	Group same task	Individual same task
Academic			
ECL			
TOEFL			

Table 4-6 Content

	Managing Procedure	Managing Discipline	Language Form	Language Function	Narrow Topics	Broad Topics
Academic						
ECL						
TOEFL						

Table 4-7 Student modality

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Academic				
ECL				

Table 4-8 Materials

Type				Sources			
Text							
Minimal	Extended	Audio	Visual	L2-NNS	L2-NS	L2-NSA	Student made

The evidence of teaching styles was analyzed on the basis of Long & Sato (1983)

taxonomy of teachers' questions and Lyster & Ranta (1997) taxonomy of teachers'

corrective feedback. By using the COLT scheme, my analysis will identify classroom

episodes which will be timed. For each episode, specific features are recorded by check

marks in the appropriate boxes. This is combined with analysis of class transcripts to

identify teachers' questions and feedback methods. The analysis yielded a total of

teacher's questions sequences and teachers' questions (Table 4-9) were coded as

comprehension check, clarification request, confirmation, display, expressive, rhetorical,

and referential question. The proportion of teacher questions could reflect whether the

teacher's practice was analytical (corresponding to a traditional approach) or

experiential (corresponding to a communicative approach) learning. Allen et. al. (1990)

assert that analytical features include the pedagogical focus of form, use of minimal text,

and relatively more time spend on whole class activities and however experiential

features include broad range of reference, use of extended text, and use of group work.

In other words, the communicative teachers are more likely to react to the message but

the traditional teachers are more likely to react to the language code such as

vocabulary and grammar. This step-by-step method of information-gathering was aimed

at building a solid body of data that would provide a clear picture of the context of

teachers' behaviours.

Table 4-9 Teacher's question types

Question Type	
Comprehension check	
Clarification request	
Confirmation	
Referential	
Display	
Expressive	
Rhetorical	

Table 4-10 allowed me to objectively justify teachers' teaching styles through using teachers' questions and corrective feedback to compare their practice. Thus, I was able to find the interplay between practice and prior experience, teachers' beliefs and contextual factors.

Table 4-10 Form to compare teachers

Question Type	Tina	Mary	Andy	Lee
Comprehension check				
Clarification request				
Confirmation				
Referential				
Display				
Expressive				
Rhetorical				

4.7.2 Analyzing embedded units

Another analytic strategy was to analyze embedded units through maps of teaching. The transcripts were closely analyzed. For instance, by relating the item on the language skills to the item teaching activities, I was able to see differences between traditional EFL teachers and others. This coding scheme was divided into the "episode" as the unit of analysis. As noted in the *Second Language Classrooms: Research on teaching and learning*, Chaudron (1988, p. 180) claimed that units of observation were often unreported and led to the distorted results. Therefore, to have an appropriate measure, an episode, the basic unit of analysis in classroom observation, was operationally defined to count the frequency with which different kinds of behaviours were observed in the classroom. The ultimate objective was to explore correlations between different types of teacher and student behaviour. Constituent episodes occurred within each activity (e.g., drill, translation, discussion, game, and so on). In reading class, the teacher might introduce dialogue, teacher reads dialogue aloud, and students repeated dialogue parts after teacher (three episodes of one activity). In test preparation class, the teacher might go over tests question by question (each episode as one question). For instance, Table 4-11 indicates two episodes drawing from Tina's teaching 2 questions. The evidence from Tina's transcripts indicates the emphasis of vocabulary explanation containing 6 word items in 2 questions. She defines and translates these words (percentage). She makes a constant use of rhetorical question

such as "right?" occurring 5 times to check for understanding with no expectation of response from the students. I therefore followed the COLT schemes that segment an event or activity into units, and each unit will need to be coded. Video tapes and transcripts provided opportunities to identify topics, presentation methods, themes, events, and categories.

Table 4-11 Examples of the unit of analysis

Tina is ready to go over the questions.	T: Let's go one question after the other. Raise your hand if you have questions.
Students heard the audio.	(Students heard "2. What is the size of the particle?")
Tina translates key word.	T: Particle … is a stuff, an item, an article called particle, so when we say particle is talking about the size. Regarding its measurement ... the unit of the measurement. It is the unit… the unit of measurement. "Chan-Duo" means length, right? "Kuan-Duo" means the width, w..i..d..t..h, width. Speaking of size, size… small, medium, and large size. Which one is the correct answer? Answer A or B?
Student answers.	The student gave a wrong answer.
Tina explains the answer.	T: Because it is "size" so it is "small", right? B is wrong because it is the "length", right?
Students marks the answer.	(Students marked the correct answer.)
Tina goes to the next question.	T: Any question about Item 2? (Playing the recording.)
Students heard the audio.	(Students heard "3 Who can best answer a legal question?")
Tina explains the answer.	T: Legal, legal is the law. Law, who is the best, who is the best person to answer the law? The answer should be… Lawyer, right? Lawyer, right? Okay, next question.

4.7.3 Examining relationships and building explanations

After coding themes, I noted regularities, patterns, explanations, and propositions. When I read the data, I linked themes with theories previously discussed. This was what Silverman (2005) termed "data-driven" analysis. My theories came out slowly because I continuously asked myself "what" and "how" questions. It also took time to look at EFL teacher behaviours in the context. For further discussion from my explorations, I divided my data into different sets and compared them against some theoretical propositions. Again, I revised the statement and compared more cases. Finally, I thoroughly describe individual variety in responses with belief and contextual components. To evaluate my interpretive case study, I followed the fundamental principle of the hermeneutic circle, the principle of contextualization, the principle of interaction between the researcher and the subjects, and the principle of multiple interpretations. Thus, data analysis informed development of concepts, generation of theory, drawing of specific implications and the directions for the future study with new questions I found in the study.

4.7.4 Creditability and dependability

In terms of creditability and dependability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), I employed several strategies: first, to present the findings with multiple sources of evidence,

second, to confirm all the interpretations fit their understanding of the experience under investigation, and third, to use an auditable decision trail including all data-reduction products, data interpretations, and all data reconstruction products. Thus, any finding was likely to be much more convincing and accurate if it was based on several different sources of information. Most importantly, my participants confirmed interpretations and reports which have made sufficient citation to the relevant portions of the case study database by citing narratives. In addition, my immersion in the field and the role of participant observer enabled a large enhancement in credibility for reflecting the reality of the life experiences of participants more accurately than work in more contrived or laboratory settings.

4.8 Ethics

Since the present study was working with a large sample of a small population, all reasonable efforts and care were made to ensure the privacy, confidentiality, considerations of possible risk exposure and embarrassment, limits of accessibility, the right of withdrawal, agreements, oversight of protective system, rules for protection of human subjects, and a strict code of ethics. The primary principles in my research were that the participants and I must feel that they have not been harmed or their privacy infringed by the research. I provided necessary personal and institutional context for the account, yet there was no indication of real identification. The use of pseudonyms was

useful in minimizing the risk of identification of participants, but total anonymity is not possible given their numbers and location. Therefore, I paid attention to any risk posed to the participants, and I was sensitive about reporting opinions and reproducing transcripts that might be controversial or place the participants at risk. These protections were effective because they were happy after they saw my presentation in the conference to report this study. It was because when dealing with some potentially contentious data, I shared my writing with the participants, and obtained their suggestions and permissions. My responsibility was to make sure that the participants did not object to what I wrote about what they actually said, and they felt no additional burden on them. Without exceptions, I adhered to a concept of informed consent otherwise my participant observations would never be conducted from each person interviewed and observed.

All teachers had the right to withdraw from the study at any time. The value of the present study was not likely to outweigh injury to a person exposed. The purpose and methods of the study, agreements and ethics statement were written clearly in the consent form. I especially highlighted ethical statements in the consent form to draw all participants' attentions. I confirmed that the research was undertaken in accordance with British Educational Research Association's Revised Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research (2004). Furthermore, it was important for all informants to receive summaries of how they were presented, quoted, or interpreted, and for me as the

researcher to listen well for EFL teachers' concerns. Such steps enabled my

participants' safety in volunteering.

4.9 Summary of methodology

In summary, when designing and conducting this research I have reinforced the

necessary engaged participation of the researcher in the setting being documented, not

only for data gathering but for interpretation. To interpret the data I had gathered, I have

reaffirmed and clarified my role in the participation in the research. My participation

allowed me to examine and extend the interests and ideas I came with as well as to

observe and interview those that the EFL teachers brought. When I began documenting

the schools' testing programs, I had priorities based on theoretically semi-structured

interviews, renowned observation tools, and my teaching experience. I knew

Taiwanese EFL teachers had difficulties finding various ways of integrating

communication and other activities into their classrooms. In this process my

engagement was deepened, so the tasks of documenting have described and made

various understandings, points of view and EFL practices visible. I accessed the field

and concentrated on interactions. A sense of the whole has been essential for me to

observe and think over EFL teachers' pedagogy. With thickened observation, I had

seen all activities and patterns EFL teachers acted and thus became aware of new

possibilities for relationships within the school. These steps ensured the collection of all

relevant evidence for analysis. Interpretations of documentation were no longer

personal opinions, but corresponded with the context and with the phenomenon. Seeking the most significant aspect of my case study, I came to a view of interpreting data collected as a process of seeking "reflecting" by reading between lines again and again. Looking openly at everything, I became more knowledgeable about EFL teachers' instructional decisions mediated by other significant factors and more capable of bringing range and depth to the interpretation. Finally, essential themes and variations were identified to discover how specific lived experiences shape the phenomenon being studied.

CHAPTER V

EFL TEACHER'S BELIEFS AND PRACTICES:

A CASE STUDY OF TINA

On the basis of a comparative investigation, the structure of data presentation (Figure 9) consists of four chapters representing each case study separately. My rationale is to depict four types of washback consequences that might happen in different classes and different schools. The first two cases (Tina and Andy) explore washback effects of norm-referenced ECL at two different colleges. The latter two cases (Mary and Lee) unveil washback effects of criterion-referenced TOEFL iBT at these two different colleges.

Each chapter from chapter 5 to 8 begins with data from the baseline interview, commencing with personal stories: each individual teacher's educational background, major prior learning experience and the test that he or she teaches. The second section in these chapters reports the classroom observational data as the evidence of washback effects on teaching and learning.

Figure 9 The structure of data presentation
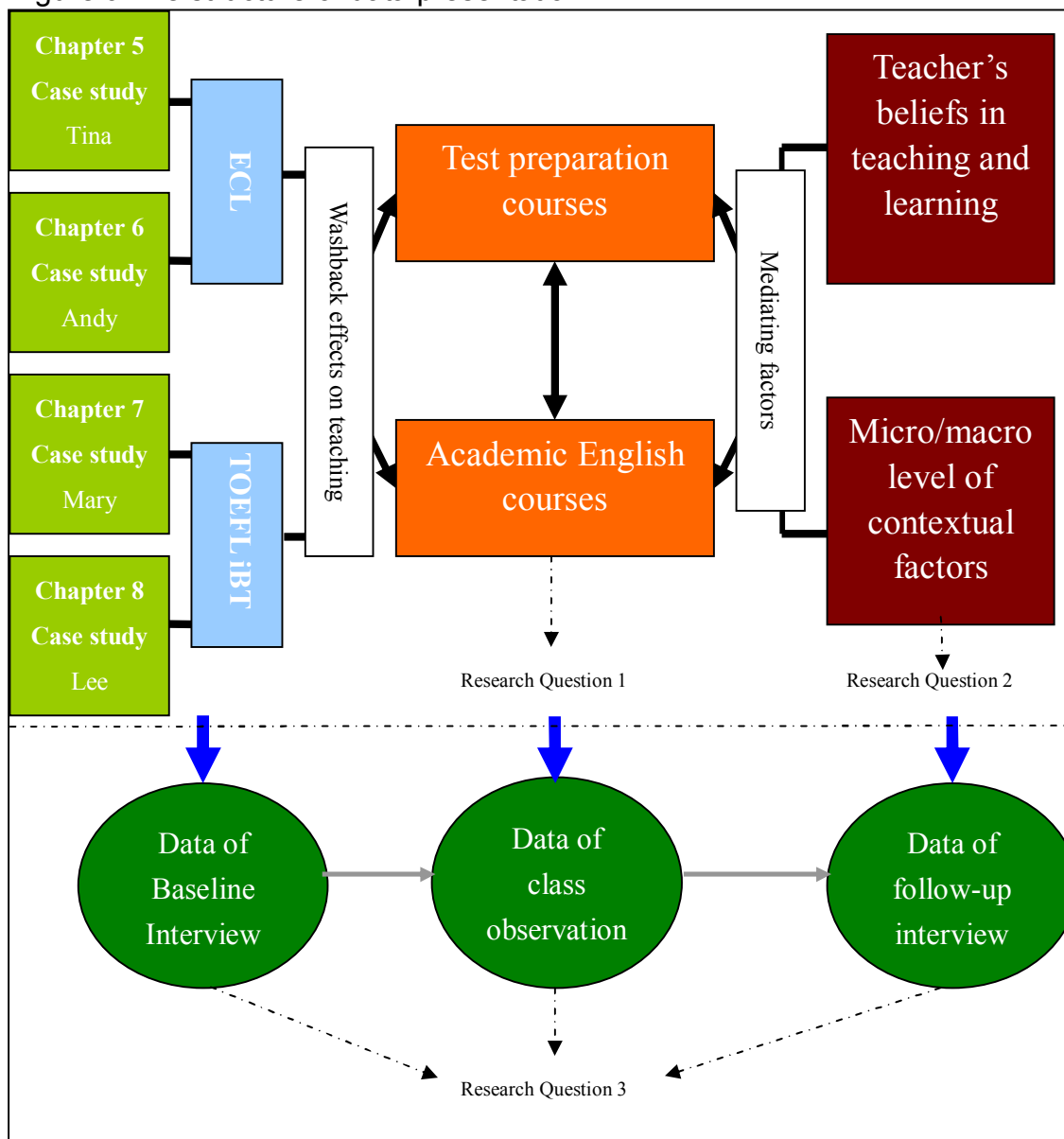
The third section in these case study chapters explores the extent to which teachers' beliefs and / or their working context influence test washback on their classroom teaching. Now I am going to look at the first case, that of 'Tina'.

The structure of Chapter 5 can refer to the structure of all of the chapters 6, 7, and 8. The findings from both interview data and observational data will be presented in four parts related to my research questions. Sections include a biography, an overview of approaches to teaching, a case analysis consisting of impact of washback, beliefs,

contextual and other factors. Finally, conclusions are drawn on the basis of the supporting evidence, derived from the analysis of his teacher's questions, corrective feedback methods, and COLT analysis on teaching.

5.1 Teacher biography - Tina

In this section, the narratives of biography, educational background, and learning experience will be presented to understand how previous experiences have shaped Tina's practices at the institution in which she is a faculty member.

Tina began to learn English at junior high school at the age of 13. The syllabi of English textbooks were based on the structure of the English language. Tina explained a typical lesson in her first year in junior high about forty years ago was based on the grammar-translation pattern involving drilling and repetition (Tina's Interview on Oct. 15, 2009). The role of an English teacher was that of a lecturer who provided students information on linguistic knowledge. In class, teachers read sentences out loud, and students repeated after them. Teachers introduced specific structures of language (e.g. this is a…) and added lots of new words to the structural sentences. As students moved to higher grades, more complicated sentence structures and vocabulary were taught. The concept of language learning according to Tina was memorizing vocabulary and structure in classes.

At the age of 20, Tina entered a private university in the Department of English

Literature and Linguistics in Taiwan, based on the result of the National University Entrance Examination. She worked very hard to catch up and gradually felt competent enough to teach English. In order to prepare for her career, she applied for the position of teaching assistant in a university. She began to apply her own theories of teaching and learning rooted from her prior experiences into practice. According to Tina, "my first teaching class was similar to what I was taught before to instruct the students in English grammar and translation." (Oct. 2009). It was evident that Tina's teaching was based on the learning behaviours and experiences of her youth. After that, she got an opportunity to work in her current school and she has taught English there since 1985.

In her thirty years of English teaching, Tina never took part in any teacher training or professional development. She expressed that she was terrified by her American teachers. Since then, she avoided participating in any forms of teacher training as much as possible and she explained

> [1]"Students felt that dictation was the most difficult activity, because you had to listen and write immediately. So it is very difficult. My writing teacher was very strict. Every time he would give different topics in writing classes … He would use his ideas to talk about the topics and then he asked all students to come up with their topic sentence for each paragraph …and he did the collection immediately … if he found your topic sentences were not relevant to his topics, he would throw away your papers … so in his classes we were very stressful."   (Interview with Tina on Oct. 15, 2009).

Upon finishing postgraduate education, Tina obtained a teacher certificate issued

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[1] All interviews were conducted in informants' mother tongue, which is Mandarin. In considerations of the majority of my readers, who are non-Chinese speakers, I have translated all texts into English. To ensure the authenticity, however, I have included a sample of original Chinese interview transcript in Appendix 5.

by the Ministry of Education. This certificate allowed her to teach at colleges and universities in Taiwan. Because of such a discouraging experience in her postgraduate program, Tina no longer attended teacher education programs because she did not want to take any risk of being humiliated and embarrassed by her teachers. Tina was complacent about her own teaching and she portrayed herself "as the most experienced teacher who need not attend professional development in her respective field (interviewed on Oct. 2009)." For Tina, she obtained a teaching position because she matched teaching qualifications governed by the Ministry of Education, such as possessing a university degree with transcripts. More training seemed unnecessary for Tina to keep her current teaching job. Although the school she has been teaching at requires that teachers attend relevant professional development, this policy was not closely monitored or actually put into practice. As a result, Tina never attended any formal teacher training.

5.2 Overview of approaches to teaching

While the present research was conducted, Tina taught ECL test preparation for listening comprehension and other general English courses focusing on reading. She had to teach almost four different grade levels from the freshman to the senior. She prepared different lesson plans with several textbooks used in classes and she used the seat arrangement in-rows for her lecture. Table 5-1 briefly shows Tina's classroom characteristics.

Table 5-1 Tina and her classroom characteristics

Tina (School: The R. O. C. Air Force Academy)
Age: 58   **English Teaching Experience: 30 years**
Class size: 30-45   **Teaching Courses: ECL (Listening), Regular Course (Reading)**
Duration of classroom observations / Interviews: April 2009-Febuary 2010
Seat arrangement: in rows
Student: freshmen, sophomore, junior, and senior
Total Interview time recorded: 100 minutes
Total Observation time recorded: 110 minutes

5.2.1 Classroom observational data

Classroom observational data were collected via academic English class and ECL class observations in semesters in 2009 and 2010. Tina's characteristics of teaching will be identified through the detailed description of qualitative analysis on the basis of Long & Sato's (1983) teachers' questions, Lyster & Ranta's (1997) teachers' corrective feedback, and Spada & Frohlich's (1995) COLT – Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme. Each characteristic articulates the way in which the concepts of teaching are enacted in the school for learning. Tina's characteristics are listed below including three major themes as 1. Analytical teaching with the focus of language form, 2. Rote-learning and transmitting essential content, and 3. A narrower enacting curriculum for isolated skill and assessment-driven instruction.

Theme 1. Analytical teaching with the focus of language form

Observations of Tina's classroom practice indicated the predominant feature appears to be a form-focused, analytical-based drawing students' attention to grammatical, phonological and morphological rules and mistakes. Tina demonstrated the direct teaching of language form with predetermined discrete-point linguistic knowledge and reactions to students' errors with corrective feedback. These teaching techniques have been associated with a traditional grammar-translation teaching method to interpret the words and phrases of the foreign language.

● *Focusing on phonology*

The pattern of interaction in Tina's academic English sessions was nomination of students to perform and she highlighted students' errors with immediate provision of recasts. In the following examples, incorrect segments in four paragraphs read aloud by four different students were corrected for their phonological and morphological mistakes. The observational data found recasts made by Tina to correct phonological errors.

S1 reads: … When Hubble finished high school, he won a scholarship [won ə ˋskulɚˌʃɪp] to the university …. cham   [ˋtʃæm….]
T: won a scholarship [wʌn ə   ˋsk ɑ lɚˌʃɪp] … champion boxer [ˋtʃæmpɪən ˋ   bɑksɚ]

S2 reads: Hale's work in astronomy [???] inspired Hubble … mathematics [???] …
T: astronomy [æs ˋtrɑnəmɪ] … mathematics [ˌmæθə ˋmætɪks]

S3 reads: …. Oxford University   [???]…
T: Oxford University [ˋɑksfɚd ˌjunə ˋvɝsətɪ]

S4 reads: …Rhodes [???] …

T: Rhodes [rodz]
(Data collected on September 22, 2009)

Recasting[2] with a special feature of over-enunciation of a word was the most common form of Tina's corrective feedback with a notable number of occurrences. Tina's direct provision of a correct reformulation of all students' ill-formed utterance accounted for all her feedback while students were exercising read-aloud activities.

- *Focusing on translating words and phrases*

Besides phonology, Tina focused on semantics to understand the meaning of a word or sentence. When Tina's practice included use of the mother tongue, the implementation was consistent with her early learning experience in formal education, where the value of learning through translation was emphasized by teachers. Like Tina's previous EFL teachers, translating English articles was the key element in Tina's approach as illustrated below:

> Tina: Okay, field (Tina spells f, i, e, l, d.) field is his area, and range … When Hubble finished high school, he won a scholarship. "Won" means earned or get, he earned, he got. He helped pay his expenses by tutoring. "Expending" is spare. What does tutoring mean? Tutoring is teaching at the private place. "By" means the way or through … freshman, sophomore, junior, senior… "Goo-Chung" is junior high school, "Kaoh-Chung" is senior high school.
> (Data collected on September 22, 2009)

As unveiled from the data, the use of L1 is exaggeratedly used by Tina. Tina translated from English into Chinese (e.g. field, won, expending, as well as) or from Chinese into English (e.g. freshman, sophomore, junior, senior, Goo-Chung,

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[2] Recast refers to teacher's corrective feedback of a student's utterance.

Kaoh-Chung). Tina focused on the meanings of words to carry information in practice as the primary characteristic of her language in the classroom. The role Tina adopted was to cover the phonological, syntactic, and lexical components according to her theory of language learning – predominantly translation.

Tina's academic English class focused on vocabulary explanation and article translation. "I pride myself on making my class knowledgeable in learning English through translation activities," said Tina. "I want to show them how I had been taught and where they can be." Tina's statement about her teaching from my field note in April 2010 explains how she implemented her teaching. Drawing from her prior learning experiences and her current achievement, Tina embraced the philosophy of the grammar-translation method. It is evident that the way Tina had been taught before not only shaped her practice but also had become a rooted belief in her teaching. In Tina's beliefs, the results of learning reading through grammar-translation teaching had led to her success as an English teacher and she told her students this role model can also be replicated with them. Thus, it can be seen that Tina as an informant delivered her knowledge by confidently undertaking grammatical tasks and translating texts.

Besides qualitative analysis, the evidence of Tina's teaching styles in language form can also be found in quantitative analysis via the COLT scheme, analysis of teacher's questions and corrective feedback. In Tina's academic English class, Table 5-2 Participant organization of COLT analysis shows that the characteristic of Tina's

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practice was to utilize a fairly traditional teaching approach.

Table 5-2 Participant organization[3] in Tina's academic class

Activities Academic Class	T→S/C	Individual same task
Time on task (percentage)	50 mins./50 mins. (100%)	50 mins./50 mins. (100%)

During observations in academic English (50 minutes), Tina applied a teacher

monologue approach *(100%)* in which individual students *(100%)* sat and listened to

teacher-led translation.

As a result, Table 5-3 indicates that 96% (48 minutes) of academic English

teaching focused on language form explaining the code of syntax and semantics. Note

that there were 4% (two minutes) of language function in order for classroom

management but not for language acquisition.

Table 5-3 Content[4] in Tina's academic class

Lang. content Academic Class	Language Form	Language Function
Time on task (percentage)	48 mins./50 mins. (96%)	2 mins. /50 mins. (4%)

A closer analysis of teacher's questions provides more evidence of Tina's

traditional teaching. Table 5-4 shows the taxonomy of question types utilized by Tina

containing display 31 (57%), comprehension check 15 (28%), referential 4 (7%),

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[3] Participant organization refers to classroom activity under the distinction with the category of Class, Group work and Individual work. In case of Tina, her class activity was mainly the teacher to students, and individual student doing the same task.
[4] Content refers to the differences in L2-development.

rhetorical 3 (6%), and expressive 1 (2%). As can be seen, the proportion of teacher questions reflects an analytical teaching with the focus of language form on whole class activities. Display questions occurred frequently in my data from her academic English class, specifically 31 (57%) counts of all Tina's questions, which resulted in a high proportion of Tina asking and answering by herself. During or at the end of translation, Tina frequently utilized display questions via wh-questions to which she already knew the answers and to which she did not expect students to respond.

At the pragmatic level, display questions were often used for pedagogical purposes in Tina's practice to display her knowledge of factual content. It is evident Tina did not elicit her students to express their opinions. Similarly, when Tina asked the rhetorical question "Isn't he excellent?" its function was as a strong alternative to the saying "He is excellent." Tina also used rhetorical questions (6%) to ask for effect only, without students' response. In Tina's practice, comprehension checks were used 15 times (28%) in class of all Tina's questions. These distinguishing characteristics of teacher questions that do not anticipate a student response have shaped Tina's primary teaching traits.

Table 5-4 Tina's academic teaching – taxonomy of question types

Type of Questions and Counts (frequency)	Examples
Display questions 31 counts (57%)	T: Tutoring means? T: What is "junior"? T: Which department are you majoring? T: What is the third year called? T: What is the fourth year called?
Comprehension check questions 15 counts (28%)	T: Understand? T: Is it clear? T: Right? T: No problem? T: Do you have any question?
Referential questions 4 counts (7%)	T: Who wants to read this paragraph? T: Who wants to read it? T: What do we know from Hubble?
Rhetorical questions 3 counts (6%)	T: Isn't he excellent? T: What do we know from Hubble?
Expressive questions 1 counts (2%)	T: I really don't know what "big bang" is?

Tina's teaching ECL test preparation

In the ECL class, Tina taught via the focus of analytical teaching as well. Classroom observation indicated that Tina highlighted the language system such as meaning and synonym in the teaching of listening with a large class.

● *Focusing on translating word and phrase*

In the ECL class, Tina's practice over the whole class involved the use of full-text supporting scripts. Tina used Chinese exclusively and the vocabulary within the scripts

was translated into English as follows.

> T: Particle … is a stuff, an item, an article called particle, so when we say particle is talking about the size. Regarding its measurement ... the unit of the measurement. It is the unit… the unit of measurement. "Chan-Duo" means length, right? "Kuan-Duo" means the width, w..i..d..t..h, width. Speaking of size, size… small, medium, and large size …Legal, legal is the law. Law, who is the best, who is the best person to answer the law? Lawyer …at last, means final, eventually. Inspect means check ... Do you know what is property? Property means features, characteristics. Water can transform into sea, can transform into ice …

Such practices defined the meaning (e.g., particle, size), matched near synonym (e.g., legal, inspect, at last, property), showed variations (e.g., size, width, length), used words (e.g., transform) and translated words (e.g,, Kuan-Duo, Chan-Duo). Tina embarked her traditional practice, replicating her prior experience which does not provide students opportunity to communicate for functional language purposes in class.

- *Focusing on grammar*

Another important aspect was to focus on grammar for teaching and learning of ECL. Tina's selection of items to be taught and her lesson plans were largely based on preparing her students for an ECL examination. Analysis showed that Tina established grammatical expressions for students to analyze and label in grammatical terms. Tina's classroom indicated

T: These are directions. Go north, north is adverb. Go north then turn left, so the direction is he walks toward west. North, east, west, south are all adverb to describe modifier, the verb, the west ... Was repairing. This is a passive sentence. Repaired is passive. .. It is being repaired. It is being repaired.

Tina adopted a traditional method to teaching grammar by explaining abstract

concepts such as the functions of adverb. These grammar rules were introduced in

class because they appeared in transcripts of ECL. In this way, students were drilled in

grammar rules.

From perspectives of quantitative analysis, during classroom observations in ECL

class (60 minutes) Tina applied a teacher-led approach *(100%)* in which individual

student *(100%)* in Table 5-5 simply sat and listened to translation. The method was

completely based on semantic and syntactical analysis and explanation.

Table 5-5 Participant organization in Tina's ECL class

Activities ECL class	T→S/C	Individual same task
Time on task (percentage)	60 mins./60 mins (100%)	60 mins./60 mins. (100%)

Table 5-6 Content in Tina's ECL class

Lang. content ECL Class	Language Form	Language Function
Time on Task (percentage)	25 mins./60 mins. (42%)	35 mins./60 mins. (58%)

Table 5-6 showed there was 42% of language form taught in ECL class, while it

should be noted that 58% functional English were audio recordings which differed from

the purpose of communication. The emphasis on phonemics, phonics, comprehension

and translation became the primary characteristics of Tina's routine instruction reflecting the approach which was popular in English teaching in the 1960s and 1970s.

A closer analysis of Tina's teacher talk revealed frequent use of comprehension checks 32 times (58%) and display questions 21 (38%). In this ECL class of all Tina's questions related to her analytical teaching style in which mostly focused on the form. This analysis suggests teacher's questions were used exclusively to see if students knew the answers. Vocabulary explanation was almost always by definition in L2 or translation, and feedback was direct.

Table 5-7 Tina's ECL class – taxonomy of question types

Type of Questions and Counts (percentage)	Examples
Comprehension check 32 (58%)	T: Understand? T: Is it clear? T: Right? T: No problem? T: Do you have any question?
Display questions 21 (38%)	T: What is "check in"? T: What does "part" mean? T: How can we say "take an umbrella"? T: When do we need a flashlight? T: What is "blink"?
Rhetorical questions 1 (2%)	T: Why do I say that?
Referential questions 1 (2%)	T: What should we do?

Comparing Tina's academic English and ECL (language form)

Similarities and differences between the academic English class (non-exam based) and the ECL class (exam-based) in teaching language form are shown in Table 5-8.

Table 5-8 Similarities and differences in teaching (language form)

	Tina's academic English class / ECL class
Similarities	● Focus of language form ● Use of traditional translation teaching method ● Telling the meanings of words ● Use a huge amount of display questions and comprehension checks ● Use students' mother tongue as medium of instruction ● Lack of communicative tasks
Differences	● No grammar teaching in academic English class ● No phonology teaching in ECL class ● Taxonomy of teacher questions ● More language functions in ECL class (audio recordings)

The evidence shows that Tina focused on language form including syntax and semantics as an analytical teaching method – translation ($T{\rightarrow}S/C$) in both classes. Tina taught vocabulary traditionally in the academic class and key words in the ECL class by stating the meanings and spelling. Display questions and comprehension checks were frequently used as rhetorical functions in both classes. By and large, the L1 was the primary means of medium to class discussion in Tina's English teaching.

However, the evidence also shows differences between the two classes. For instance, in the academic English class Tina speedily translated paragraphs but she ignored grammar. She gave numerous recasts in phonological errors in her academic English class, but she did not give any such recast in the ECL class. She displayed

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more factual knowledge in the academic class, and she made sure the accuracy of answers via more comprehension checks in the ECL class. Tina utilized more functional English from ECL audio recordings for students, but they merely listened to these, rather than responding to questions.

To sum up in teaching language form, Tina utilized a traditional grammar-translation method involving comprehension of a textbook paragraph that reflected her prior learning experience. In line with what she was taught in the past, Tina's pedagogical decisions reflected the features of teacher-fronted teaching overwhelmingly focused on the delivery of phonological, syntactic, and semantic explanation. Her approach involved severely constrained whole class activity and teacher controlled learning.

Theme 2. Rote-learning and transmitting essential content

<u>*Tina's academic English teaching*</u>

Tina structured her lessons around her authority as an English language teacher. The establishment of authoritativeness was related to Tina's belief as revealed by her comment: "I feel students should … obey to the teacher," said Tina (Interviews on Oct. 15, 2009). Due to curricular demands and time constraints, Tina had to defer to the textbooks, and the authoritative discourse they contained, which further contributed to teacher-controlled tasks.

● *Rote-learning*

The focus of Tina's academic English teaching was rote-learning, rather than critical thinking or problem-solving. Learning of language form has explicitly highlighted verbatim memorization in foreign language texts. The role of Tina's students was to memorise a list of words without understanding how to use them properly. She presented word lists from paragraphs and students were expected to resort to the simplistic model of rote learning to memorize the concrete and literal aspects of the word. As can be seen, a dull and uninspiring process of learning results for students. Tina's teaching task was very similar to the characteristics of Chinese traditional teaching of Feeding-duck pedagogy. The outline of Tina's academic English teaching resulting in students' passive rote-memorization is shown in Table 5-9 as follow:

Table 5-9 Map of Tina's academic English teaching – paragraph to paragraph

Tina begins class:	Tina: Do you have any question this morning? Any questions? We have done all. Today, we begin … Who can tell me? From line 15, okay.
Assigns student to read paragraph aloud:	Who wants to read this paragraph? Chian reads paragraph 3.
Student reads paragraph:	(Student Jian** read the assigned paragraph with a very low volume.)
T. covers problem vocabulary:	Tina: Okay, field (Tina spells f, i, e, l, d.) field is his area, and range… it's not a good example. It should be like our department, which department are you majoring in? Okay.
T. translates	When Hubble finished high school, he won a scholarship. "Won" means earned or get, he earned, he got. "Expending" is spare. What does tutoring mean? Tutoring

	is teaching at the private place. "By" means the way or through. And also he picked some part-time jobs, in his junior year. What is junior year? In a four-year university, what is the first year called? Freshman. What is the second year? Sophomore, sophomore, sophomore. What is the third year? Junior. What is the fourth year? Senior. junior and senior can be used in different ways. For instance, "junior" is used if the son and the father have the same name. Father is William, his son also called William. How can we distinguish them? The son is called William Junior, and father is William Senior…In schools, young students and newcomers are called junior. The elders, experienced people are called senior. In the military, high ranking officers are called senior…So, here the senior is the third year, junior is the third year. Senior is the fourth year, in junior he earned a scholarship in physics, he also worked as a teaching assistant in the lab, in the university, "as well as" means also. Scholarship means money for study. And also, he was a good student and a good athlete, athlete means doing sports ….no one expected he became an astronomer and he had an outstanding future, astronomer is human beings in space …Actually, he was a champion boxer…champion is the winner … in boxing…people in the boxing field hoped that Hubble would become a professional boxer. Professional means experts.
T. assigns student to read paragraph aloud:	Okay, next paragraph.

This traditional learning style represents the pervasiveness of rote learning.

Students learn a language in an age-old way which neglects any attention understanding and using language appropriately in social situations. In arbitrary teacher talk, Tina recalled from her memory so that students learned via repetition of verbatim translation. Hence, Tina's class can be attributed to the decontextualised rote learning ways highlighting the behaviorist theory with a focus on structural patterns through memorization and repetition.

Furthermore, the evidence of rote-learning and lack of critical thinking was found in class when students' responses were wrong answers, but Tina simply ignored them and sought for a correct answer. From my classroom observational data source, it has been found only S7 and S8 students were questioned with Tina's follow-up corrections (2 counted). However, Tina intentionally ignored students' incompetent or wrong answers or gave direct feedback to them, instead of inviting them to identify and recast their utterances.

"T: Let talk about these four contributions written in this paragraphs. S7 tells us what are four findings? What is the first finding?
S7: ….
T: Every body tells me, together. In Chinese. What are they?
S8: (give the wrong answers.)
T: No, the first finding is there were galaxies outside of ours. "

As students were not able to answer correctly, Tina kept focusing on seeking the answers from the texts and finally she gave direct feedback. Exclusively based on texts, Tina utilized a limited range of language inputs in practice for foreign language acquisition. Indeed, the more verbatim retrieval memorization the less time students will

enjoy creative language use. The evidence shows that Tina did not acknowledge the students as active learners, e.g., no expectation for students' response, use of direct feedback, and with no attempts at elicitation.

The deeper analysis of teacher's questions from Table 5-9, a Map of Tina's academic English teaching – paragraph to paragraph also reflected a rote-based class taught by Tina. When teaching the first paragraph, Tina employed as many as seven display questions to which the questioner already knows the answers and has no expectation for interactions between the teacher and students. She emphasized rote-learning by presenting vocabulary explanation in a paragraph (14 items). For 7 items (50%), she translated and also spelled the items; for 5 items (36%) she gave examples; while for 2 item (14%), she gave definitions in L2. Meanwhile, COLT analysis in Table 5-10 has found that the characteristic of Tina's practice could be seen as less enjoyable for students since she had to manage student disciplines (lack of attention or even napping in 2% of class time) while Tina dwelled on instruction with a large amount of teacher talk. Moreover, Tina demanded students recall from their memory what they had been taught last time (managing procedure 2% of class time).

Table 5-10 Content of Tina's classroom management

Activities / Academic Class	Managing Procedure	Managing Discipline
Time on task (percentage)	1/50　(2%)	1/50　(2%)

● *Transmitting essential content*

Drawing from past learning experience, Tina's teacher talk within her teacher-centered approach was associated primarily with transmitting essential content areas. As mentioned above, Tina held traditional behaviourist views that teaching is chiefly the process of telling – focusing on offering students with factual information instead of critical thinking. While such old ideas of teaching might have been successful at helping lower-order skills e.g., memorization and comprehension, they have hardly developed abilities in integrating other skills. A mastery of the content became Tina's priority in teaching and a transmission-oriented curriculum was evolved accordingly. Table 5-9 and Table 5-10 indicate this traditional content-matter transmission model has produced a long oral lecture positioning students as passive recipients in instruction.

Tina's teaching ECL test preparation

● *Rote-learning*

Repetition as the vital characteristic of rote-learning also frequently appeared in Tina's ECL class. Tina repeated the same structure of explaining scripts in teaching ECL. Vocabulary explanation for memorization is cited in Table 5-11 Map of Tina's ECL teaching - Question by question as follow:

Table 5-11 Map of Tina's ECL teaching - Question by question

Tina is ready to go over the questions.	T: Let's go one question after the other. Raise your hand if you have questions.
Students heard the audio.	(Students heard "2. What is the size of the particle?")
Tina translates key word.	T: Particle … is a stuff, an item, an article called particle, so when we say particle is talking about the size.

	Regarding its measurement ... the unit of the measurement. It is the unit… the unit of measurement. "Chan-Duo" means length, right? "Kuan-Duo" means the width, w..i..d..t..h, width. Speaking of size, size… small, medium, and large size. Which one is the correct answer? Answer A or B?
Student answers.	The student gave a wrong answer.
Tina explains the answer.	T: Because it is "size" so it is "small", right? B is wrong because it is the "length", right?
Students marks the answer.	(Students marked the correct answer.)
Tina goes to the next question.	T: Any question about Item 2? (Playing the recording.)
Students heard the audio.	(Students heard "3 Who can best answer a legal question?")
Tina explains the answer.	T: Legal, legal is the law. Law, who is the best, who is the best person to answer the law? The answer should be… Lawyer, right? Lawyer, right? Okay, next question.

Similar to teaching paragraphs, Tina highlighted verbatim memorization of key words and phrases in ECL questions. Decontextualized scripts were used for the teaching of listening skill via the rapid asking of somewhat randomly linked questions.

The evidence shows Tina was very focused on vocabulary explanation (6 items over the 2 questions). For 3 items (50%), she gave definitions in L2, for 2 items (33%), she translated and also spelled the items, while for one item (17%), she gave examples. These explanations were almost always followed by the rhetorical question "right?" (5 occurrences) to check for understanding with no expectation of response from the

students. For the single response she did ask for, the answer was incorrect and the feedback move that followed was direct feedback. It is evident that Tina taught ECL class with the emphasis of repetition and memorization which lead to less inspired in learning.

- *Transmitting essential content*

In her ECL class, the provision of accurate answers was Tina's primary responsibility, rather than elicitation. Tina's arbitrary teacher talk thus mainly focused on explaining the content. As a result, the pauses between questions and feedback were rather short in practice. The excerpt of a transcript from observation illustrated that Tina often transmitted essential content and she ignored the lack of response from the students.

1'24" T: The answer should be… Lawyer
1'30" T: Right?
1'32" T: Lawyer
1'37" T: Right?
1'40" T: OK, next question

From above short transcript excerpt, it is noteworthy to mention Tina did not ask for information but simply provided and confirmed the answer herself whilst students quietly waited for more explicit translation. Table 12 shows that students had slightly less discipline problem (1.6% of class time), while Tina spent more time to explain the procedure of ECL pre-test (5% of class time). Table 11 and 12 indicate that teaching

completely focused on transmitting content for the correct answers and inevitably this

teacher transmission model will lead to assessment-driven instruction in ECL class.

Table 5-12 Content of Tina's ECL class

Activities / Academic Class	Managing Procedure	Managing Discipline
Time on task (percentage)	3/60 (5%)	1/60 (1.6%)

Comparing Tina's academic English and ECL

There are many similarities and differences between academic English class

(non-exam based) and ECL class (exam-based) in less enjoyable teaching shown in

Table 5-13.

Table 5-13 Similarities and differences in teaching

	Tina's academic English class / ECL class
Similarities	● Verbatim Memorization of words and phrases ● Literal aspects of the word ● Decontextualized ● Traditional content matter transmission ● Less successful, less enjoyable.
Differences	● More word lists in academic English class ● Ignorance to students' responses in academic English class ● Short pauses hindered students' responses in ECL class.

To sum up, the evidence shows that both classes practiced verbatim memorization

of words and phrases and Tina merely explained literal aspects of the word. Students'

learning was decontextualized by Tina's Feeding-duck teaching method. She preferred

traditional content-matter transmission rather than constructive learning such as critical

thinking. Therefore, students have discipline problems in academic class (2%) and in ECL class (1.6%), thus rote-learning and teacher transmission resulted in little class engagement or interaction. Differences were found between two classes. For instance, academic English class contained much more word lists (14 items in the first paragraph) than ECL class did (7 items). Instead of elicitation, students' responses to academic English were ignored and Tina gave direct feedback in students' wrong answers. Short pauses in Tina's initiations and feedback have seriously hindered students' responses in ECL class.

Theme 3. A narrower enacting curriculum for isolated skill and assessment-driven instruction

<u>*Tina's academic English teaching*</u>

- *Non-integrative skill*

Beyond dispute, Tina totally focused on reading in the academic English class and she ignored other skills. This was consistent with the interview data provided by Tina on October 2009, where transcripts showed that she replied "reading was the most important language skill for her students and she chose reading textbooks and novels as a learning environment to allow her students to learn at their full capacity." Tina hoped to challenge her students for the purpose of becoming a skillful reader. Tina offered these cycles of reading activities – students read aloud and she translates the text into Chinese - for students to learning English. She suggested that students

establish a broad range of reading and more rigorous levels of vocabulary.

Tina's teaching ECL test preparation

● *Assessment-driven instruction*

Different from academic English reading classes, the other half of Tina's syllabus in English teaching focused on teaching the American Language Course Placement Tests (ALCPT) that resembled the content of ECL tests. The ECL test is the primary instrument used for measuring the English language reading and listening proficiency (see the context chapter). As a result, Tina frequently required students to take a pre-test and she went over these questions in ECL test preparation classes. Classroom observational data indicated the use of past exam papers in Table 5-14.

Table 5-14 Map of Tina's ECL pre-test

Tina prepares a pre-test for students.	T: You will have an ECL test. Let practice it.
Tina gives the hints to answer ECL test.	T: The intermittent between the questions is very short. You have to act quickly. Look the choices quickly.
Tina arranges the table.	T: Sit in the area.
Tina plays the recordings. Students have ECL test.	Audio: One. Which is the liquid? Two... S: (practice the test)
Tina announces a break.	T: Ok, we have done the test and it is time to take a break. Next, I will go over the questions.

It was evident that Tina taught the test directly with the use of past exam papers. The purpose of Tina's pretest was not to measure students' ability, because she did not grade the score. The function of pretest was to let her students familiarize themselves

with test questions. After students had taken the pre-test, she showed the test questions on the screen through the projector and played the voice button on the multiple-media software of ALCPT for students to listen to and in turn she explained the questions.

- *Non-integrative skill*

Tina's isolated teaching did not allowed students to integrate skills in their learning. It needs to be pointed out that although Tina claimed to be teaching listening, she actually utilized methods based on translation. Techniques of listening skill were not used such as listening to the gist and listening to the details. Tina indeed changed her teaching content in light of ECL past tests, however, she did not change her methodology for developing the listening skills that ECL test-writers require. Her students were never asked to practice the conversations related to what the speakers said in the recordings. Tina sought for the answers and in turn her students responded with answering A, B, C, or D rather than taking opportunities to convey communication.

Thus, Tina had actually practiced "teaching to the test," "backward curriculum alignment" or "backwash" and only focused on the contents of the test. In my observations conducted from April to November in 2009, it was evident that Tina has not changed her method, despite ECL strongly suggesting that teachers to do more listening tasks. Students' listening ability was not established properly through listening training. I will provide more evidence through the results of quantitative COLT analysis. According to Table 5-15, it was found the majority of topics were narrowed to follow the

booklets (96% and 92% respectively). Note that broad topics were teacher's disciplinary talk to students in L1 which lacked communicative purpose (4% and 8%).

Table 5-15 Content about topics

Class ＼ Topics	Narrow Topics	Broad Topics
Time on task (percentage) Academic	48/50 (96%)	2/50 (4%)
Time on task (percentage) ECL	55/60 (92%)	5/60 (8%)

The characteristic of Tina's practice was also found a narrower enactment of the curriculum which can be seen in Table 5-16 Student modality. The evidence shows that listening and reading were the primary skill objectives in the classroom. Language skills were isolated in the process of learning. ECL focused on listening exclusively (100%) and academic English emphasized reading activity (80%) with 20% of read-aloud as speaking activity.

Table 5-16 Student modality[5]

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Academic	0	10/50 (20%)	40/50 (80%)	0
ECL	60/60 (100%)	0	0	0

As shown in different teaching materials in Table 5-17, in ECL class students listened to Tina *(42%)* and audio recordings spoken by native English speakers *(58%)* as text sources. Therefore, Tina's materials in ECL courses were minimal texts from mock tests *(42%)* and she spent lots of time on listening to audio test questions *(58%)*. In academic English classes, Tina was highly dependent upon the reading textbooks

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[5] Student modality refers to different skills practice and if the focus on skill areas has any influence on students' use of the same skill.

(100%) and translation as a L2-NNS *(100%)*. The minimal texts were found equivalent with a narrow curriculum when Tina focused on language form. A desire of enhancing performance in assessment was to make Tina utilize past exam papers so that she altered the course content to be as test-driven and concise as possible.

The notion of washback is that a test will influence on teaching and learning, however, it is clear that Tina merely used the content (texts and scripts) and she did not change her teaching methods, accordingly as Cheng (2005) points out, the changes produced by tests were seen to be superficial rather than substantial. This superficial washback means washback may influence teachers on what to teach, but not how to teach it.

Table 5-17 Tina's teaching materials[6] used in EFL teachers' classes

	L2-NNS	L2-NS
Academic	50/50 (100%)	0
ECL	25/60 (42%)	35/60 (58%)
	Minimal Text	Audio
Academic	50/50 (100%)	0
ECL	25/60 (42%)	35/60 (58%)

Comparing Tina's academic English and ECL (A narrower enacting curriculum)

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[6] Teaching materials refer to how L2 is spoken by native speaker or non-native speaker. Minimal text refers to isolated sentences and word lists.

There are many similarities and differences between academic English class (non-exam based) and ECL class (exam-based) in terms of a narrower enacting curriculum shown in Table 5-18.

Table 5-18 Similarities and differences in teaching (a narrower enacting curriculum)

	Tina's academic English class / ECL class
Similarities	● Isolated skill ● Reading task – translation
Differences	● Reading in academic English class, but listening in ECL class ● Assessment-driven instruction in ECL class ● Lack of listening tasks in ECL class

To sum up, the evidence shows that both classes practiced isolated skill. Tina focused on reading in academic English and listening questions in ECL class. Nevertheless, listening skill was taught through transcript translation but not listening to general ideas or to specific information. Another characteristic of Tina's practice was attainment-driven instruction, the evidence shows that under urgent pressure from the authorities, Tina's students engaged in lots of practice on ECL past test questions in order to achieve score gains. Such as focus limited her practice to the teaching of ECL test questions. The notion of washback is that a test will influence teaching and learning, and therefore educators can use tests to improve learning. Apparently, washback affected Tina to change the content to be taught, but as far as I found washback has not affected Tina's methods for teaching that content. It seemed Tina's pedagogical decisions must be in association with other variables such as beliefs in teaching. Thus,

it is worth investigating their rooted beliefs in teaching and learning for a thorough understanding of intrinsic factors which shape a teacher's pedagogy.

5.2.2 Teacher interview data

Knowledge of teacher's beliefs helps to illuminate the complicated decision making process in teaching. Tina held positive views on the value of using a behaviourist approach to teach language. The beliefs in teaching had rooted deeply into Tina's mind, and her teaching methods remained the same throughout her teaching career. It has been widely accepted that teachers' practice reflects their own mental creations (Alexander & Dochy, 1995). Tina's beliefs in English learning include: (a) *English learning means knowing language rules.* (b) *English learning means memorization.* (c) *English learning means learning the test.* (d) *Students are responsible for lacking of English learning.* I will discuss Tina's beliefs about teaching and learning in turn in order to understand how these beliefs have influenced her teaching.

English learning means knowing language rules

Tina expressed her view of language learning - language should be learned structurally during learning, both as a typical phenomenon and specifically in relation to the episodes already described above. For Tina, English language learning is

> "Knowing the rules of target language was the most effective way to learning English … Language is learned behaviourally according to the syntax and semantics of that language, by imitating, repeating, and practicing." (Tina's interview, October 15, 2009.)

Tina believed it is important for a language learner to master the grammar of the target language through a behaviourist approach –imitation, repetition, and practice. First and foremost, she believed that knowing the grammatical rules of English was the most effective way to learn that language. Apparently, Tina's beliefs towards learning were based on her own experience of learning and were thus consistent with the assertions by Borg (2001) and Peacock (2001). They suggested how teachers think will influence their instruction, and how they think is based on previous experience. Tina passed down her professional belief to her students that the ability to read and understand written English is the most important skill in English learning. According to Tina, students seldom had a chance to speak English in Taiwan, but they absolutely had a lot of chances to read English. The control of knowledge acquisition in reality has influenced Tina to believe the prime importance of the reading skill. Her epistemological persuasions in the delivery of reading are likely to relate to constraints and lacks of communicative opportunities. She believed her first priority in teaching is to develop students' reading skill to make them feel comfortable in understanding written English. It is evident that Tina's epistemological beliefs affect her with an absolute commitment towards traditional teaching. Contrary to the trend of language learning which focuses on communicative competence, Tina's beliefs about learning grammar were concordant with the requirements of ECL tests and she was concerned with score gains rather than students' communication ability. Thus, it is reasonable that Tina preferred to teach towards the ECL test which requires test-takers' basic ability in vocabulary and

grammar for reading comprehension. Besides, the lack of professional development in her teaching methodology might predispose Tina to this grammar-translation method that she had been taught in schools when she was a student.

English learning means memorization

Tina's second professional belief toward language teaching suggested that "Memorization is the key to help students get better at learning language." (Tina's Interview on Jan. 15, 2010.) Data have revealed that Tina believed the way to learn English was to memorize the vocabulary, grammar, and recite assigned reading passages. Tina further contended that "The reason that students fail in English is they don't know the meanings of key words … they don't know how to spell … so their English is poor." (Interviewed on Feb. 8, 2010) Field notes also indicated Tina encouraged students to memorize all vocabulary for a [7]Spelling Bee contest. She believed that through memorization, language learners could familiarize themselves with the use of the target language. Using grammar-translation method, Tina memorized all key words, phrases, grammar, and contents so that she could deliver to her students. Drawing biography, Tina experienced a lot of memorization in her learning periods within traditional Chinese education cultures. This is consistent with Abelson (1986) and Schommer (1990) who stressed that beliefs permeate individual's perceptions of the world around them and influence the process and outcomes of

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[7] Spelling Bee Contest was held at the Academy to encourage students memorize written vocabulary.

learning. Tina espoused the belief of extensive memorization to equip students to use the language. However, it is called dead memorization if students recite speeches, articles, and reading paragraphs, without understanding. It seemed that Tina's students were memorizing facts to store information since they did not have an opportunity to transfer their knowledge to communicative tasks requiring strategies and problem-solving in Tina's class. Her beliefs about recitation as a tool for language learning were rooted in her prior learning experiences. The lack of teacher development as a source of knowledge might have resulted in a certain epistemological persuasion which is permanent to Tina. Teaching methods to Tina are unchangeable rather than dynamic and flexible. Furthermore, traditional language assessments such as the ECL test which is based on the accuracy of answers have fostered this traditional view of learning. Students are encouraged to practice and memorize test's answers and its relevant tested knowledge. Other important knowledge which is not tested in the exams is usually ignored in the process of learning.

English learning means learning the test

Tina's third professional belief toward teaching was the necessity of teaching to the test to help students achieve higher scores. Tina expressed her approval toward teaching to the test for ECL. She pointed out the need that English teachers at her school should focus on preparing test questions for cadets in order to increase their scores on the exams. She believed students' priority in language learning was the

scoring. Comparing the importance of real English ability and student score, Tina believed student score was more important than real ability. She said people do not know how well a student can speak, listen, write or read, but they can only judge the student from the score. People will always believe if a student has a poor score, it means that student does not have a firm grasp in his/her learning. Thus, the score represents an indicator of students' achievement in the circumstances of Chinese society. Tina suffered the pressure of improving students' scores as she said "Education authority in the military and parents want me to raise students' scores. I have done everything to gain the scores including practicing simulated tests." (Tina's interview on Feb. 8, 2010) "The scores on ECL have been widely used for the purpose of comparing students' achievement between several specialized colleges in Taiwan" said Tina. (On Feb. 8, 2010) Tina justified her belief about raising scores in teaching which is consistent with the school culture being exam-oriented.

Thus, Tina's teaching has been influenced by the belief that a good score / grade on the exams is the priority of language learning. In addition to academic English, she spent all her time in ECL classes on preparing students to pass the exams. In test preparation courses, Tina's pedagogy and content focused on test materials for score gains. Beyond dispute, her beliefs about how education authority and others judge students' performance and her teaching have also influenced her implementation of teaching to the test. Raising scores in Tina's belief can match the expectations of peers,

authority, and society.

Students are responsible for lacking of English learning

This is Tina's belief about students and she perceived it was students' own responsibility to acquire the adequate language skills they needed in the future. Because the ECL test measures listening and reading separately, she argued that integrated tasks in speaking, writing, listening, and reading was not a goal to be accomplished by any EFL teachers in classes at her school. On Interview of Oct. 15, 2009 Tina acknowledged

> "In fact, we don't need to teach all four language skills to students I believe it is impossible to teach all skills in school. Students must use the basic ability to develop their English by their own outside school… to continue studying. Students can go to the private cram schools, private language institutes, or intensive language courses to improve their English, to make their English better." (Tina's Interview on Oct. 15, 2009)

Perhaps Tina was in mainstream education and had to teach to an exam. Private language schools did not have to do this part. Tina regarded student needs in English learning at the basic level of her students. Somehow, students' achievement was not significantly improved after four years of English learning at her school. How to improve student achievement is a complicated question, but field notes indicated that EFL teachers in her department talked for only about 5 minutes in the department meetings about teaching programmes and materials used. Instead of seeking a better teaching method, these teachers felt disengaged when teaching students with low English

proficiency. In the interview, Tina was asked about her explanation to students' poor scores. She said

"I have nothing to say. Students' proficiency levels were already low when they came here. You can't blame me. I don't want to discuss how to improve students' scores. The department head should give the professional suggestions to the superintendent. Or, let the superintendent tell me what I should do to improve students' scores."   (Tina's Interview on Oct. 15, 2009).

It was evident that Tina did not agree with the Academy's superintendent and the primary reason she argued was students' low proficiency level. The interview data implied that hierarchical system in school demanding the attainment was given Tina a great deal of pressure. The pressure to raise at-risk students' scores has led to Tina's negative views to those students who were low in achievement and motivation. She attributed the poor performance to students themselves, for they entered school with low English proficiency and probably low motivation in English learning. In her view, no matter how much effort teachers put in working with low proficiency level students, these students could hardly improve their English ability. Drawing on the empirical evidence, Tina never attended any teacher training and this might hinder the commitment of other plausible teaching approaches. However, she believed there was no effective way to teach students of lower ability. She explained it was the way her students were. "No teacher can make a genius student out of a poor one," she explained on Jan. 15, 2010. Apparently, Tina believed there is no need for remedial instruction for low level students. She continued

"Their motivation was not very high, and they did not want to study too hard, because doing so may hurt their eyesight, which is critical for their career. As a result, it is impossible to instruct to students." (Interview of Jan. 15, 2010 with Tina).

The above statement indicated Tina's belief that "students are responsible for their own <u>lack of</u> learning." According to Tina, students' poor performance could be attributed to their own low motivation in learning. Instead of integrated language skills, Tina chose to give dry reading programs that included lots of passages and lots of translations for her lecture. Because Tina believed her students were not interested in learning all language skills, she therefore reasonably (in her view) narrowed her syllabus to the content tested.

5.3 Within case analysis

5.3.1 Impact of washback

The first issue to draw my attention is that washback from the ECL did change Tina' teaching content, but washback did not successfully change her teaching methods. Observations indicated that Tina used more past test papers, but she did not spend more time to develop students' listening ability. In a listening class, students were not predominantly listening to the spoken language, but they were taught in the way of translation. Tina showed the scripts to students and explained the meanings of key words. Washback should change teachers' teaching as intended outcomes, but as a matter of fact they were not being changed. Therefore, various factors besides washback might affect teachers' decision-making in their instruction.

In the eyes of Tina the levels of high-stakes tests for students become the decisive factor to influence what she would teach for her students. New standards required students pass ECL tests at certain levels in which all cadets must pass the score of 45 on ECL test for college graduation, and cadets who obtained the score of 85 or higher will receive an honorary degree. Tina must teach ECL test preparation for her students in order to pass the new requirements of school-exit in English ability. Besides, even she might not want to teach ECL. The Academy's authority has given much pressure to her to teach more ECL. The reasons were corroborated in the interview data that she uncritically accepted the decision to implement the ECL test for teaching:

"I feel threatened when the superintendent requires us to improve students' ECL scores. Our superintendent usually compares the ECL scores of our students with their counterparts in other specialized schools… all English learning has been done to improve students' ECL scores, but not their proficiency. We have put the ECL test questions into the mid term and final exams. We teach the ECL test questions in classes. We have adapted the majority of syllabus focusing on the ECL tests. We use the ECL test questions as the major teaching materials. English teachers can survive in the school if they teach ECL well." (Tina's Interview on Jan. 15, 2010)

The extract of data illustrates Tina's views on the importance of ECL, and it also shows how she believed it has impacted her classroom practice. Tina's use of the ECL reflected her pressures from hierarchical authorities and administrators to pursue students' test score gains. Launching new standards was the way that school authority required teachers to focus on closing the achievement gap on ECL and would help school move from low achievement to a modest improvement. She was forced to deviate from normal university English curriculum and spent time on preparing students

for answering test questions.

Furthermore, the characteristics of Tina's practice as discovered were attainment-driven and transmission of essential content. Despite the primary drawback of ECL, Tina had to accept ECL as a major teaching material. The president of Tina's school often required teachers to meet students' yearly progress goals. It perhaps could explain why language skills were taught by Tina merely to focus on reading and listening that were tested skills on ECL. Furthermore, the characteristic of Tina's practice of emphasis on language form matched the types of ECL test questions. As a result, Tina could teach the ECL content to demonstrate her capacity in linguistic knowledge. To develop students' ability in reading English text and listening to spoken English, Tina mostly used the grammar-translation method in her classes. Though Tina disagreed with the policy using student growth on standardized tests as a part of the new evaluations, she understood the place she taught has a motto: "when students are succeeding, teachers are successful, too." To match students' needs on passing the ECL test, Tina inevitably taught ECL test materials in classroom. As classroom observations indicated, Tina has repeated the same teaching methods and content year on year.

Another impact due to washback was the accountability system at Tina's school. Students' achievement has influenced the allocations of budget to departments at Tina's school. Tina's department needed the budget from the school to build the new labs, and

to hold the conferences. As a result, high-stakes accountability pressure made Tina increase her teaching and testing of ECL in class which is evident from both classroom observation and interview. The purpose of Tina's practice became to pursue higher scores on ECL. Subsequently, Tina's practice was towards to the teaching of the test. The ECL has changed Tina's lesson planning and to lead her to where she is going to. She stated

> "If we aren't concerned with the improvement of students' ECL scores we will miss the goal…… students will be unprepared in their learning. We have to agree that ECL has its own test design flaws and cannot represent students' true English ability. The problem is that our society and culture have evaluated the success or the failure by the score." (Tina's Interview on Oct. 15, 2009)

Therefore, Tina has much higher pressure to prepare her students for the examination due to the school system being highly measurement-oriented in education. Tina followed the school's policies relative to the student attainment. Year after year, Tina believed that students expected to improve their scores on ECL test and in turn she used the ECL tests as core courses for students. She decided to teach the test to meet school's policies. The data have also indicated there are commonalities in Tina's teaching style between teaching academic English and teaching test preparation. It is evident that Tina taught the content of ECL through grammar-translation method, but not skills of listening and reading for conveying the meaning. The results were consistent with Cheng's (2005) ideas concerning superficial washback – that a test influences what to teaching but not how to change. Drawing from her prior experiences

and current context, what Tina believed might have affected what she did. Hence, it is necessary to look into Tina's teaching beliefs.

5.3.2 Impact of beliefs

From classroom observations during the academic years 2009-2010, Tina narrowly focused on the content and skill tested. Teacher's beliefs from Tina have evidenced how she is thinking of teaching to influence how she conducts the teaching. Tina believed it is impossible to learn all language skills in this school, so students should only learn the isolated skill. Tina was firmly convinced "we don't need to teach all four language skills to students (on Nov. 23, 2009). She believed that "students are responsible for the success of language learning." Furthermore, with a belief that "language learning means learning a test," Tina's rationale for such isolated teaching includes "scoring on the exams has become the priority in language learning" and "their (students') motivation was not high, and they did not want to study too hard (on Jan. 15, 2010)." As a result of her belief systems, Tina's pedagogy only focused on reading and listening skills that were tested on the exam.

The way that Tina dealt with higher score gains was to provide the tests in her teaching. Tina was emphasizing test-taking strategies in order to a score jump. Students might not truly improve their proficiency for real language use, but they need to reach the score requirement for the overseas college enrolment. How to help students score higher became her primary job in teaching, and she had to use exercises taken from

past exam papers.

Tina pointed out that the "school authority judged the quality of teaching by student scoring reports. (on Oct. 15, 2009)" She has to prepare more relevant testing materials in order to achieve students' passing exam rate. She decided to teach more ECL, because she realized ECL has higher stakes in the military. Tina was proud of herself by "my teaching is totally matched to the contents of the ECL test (on Oct. 15, 2009)." She adapted her teaching to the ECL test in order to reflect her belief in "the importance of passing the exam with a flying color."

5.3.3 Impact of contextual and other factors

Contextual factors have also affected the process of Tina's practices in the classroom. Society, community, and school environmental factors can influence the outcomes of teaching. Culturally speaking, it is very true for the schools within Chinese society, which emphasizes the pursuit of success through testing and test scores. For thousands of years, schools in Chinese society were established to teach what students were assessed in examinations. The results of test scoring became the most vital goals in schools and teachers should ensure all useable tools to facilitate student score gains. Given the cultural value placed on passing examinations, Tina therefore reflected her cultural belief system in her classes by giving more test preparation. Like most EFL teachers in Taiwan, Tina considered that teachers are responsible for students' success in competitive examinations which are employed to screen the test-candidates for

education and employment. Her practice therefore was exam-based for students.

Dealing with pressures from policies that require student achievement on the test, Tina

was like most teachers who were forced to teach EFL tests that mainly encourage

students to learn test-taking strategies in class. She used the ECL to assess students'

English learning and to assess her curricular focus. English language teaching and

learning focused only on testing items and provided few opportunities for students to

acquire all language skills.

Traditional cultures in China have also affected the ways of teaching in Tina's

classes. Pedagogy conducted by Tina has been much influenced by some Confucian

disciplines. To maintain a hierarchical relationship between teacher and student, Tina

must demonstrate her power to dominate the class. Students were not allowed to

challenge their mentors. Thus, Tina remained the stereotype of teaching, Feeding-duck

teaching approach, to her students. Grammar-translation method was used by Tina to

suit teacher's authority. "I felt students should be disciplined and obedient to the

teacher," said Tina in the teacher interviews (on Oct. 15, 2009). She had the highest

respect at her school from Chinese cultures. Her teaching has long been auto-piloted

year on year with repeating same teaching methods and content.

Furthermore, the traditionally educational culture of Confucianism emphasized

rote-learning of "Four books and five classics" to recite books could have affected Tina

to give more memorization work for her students. Her mid-term and final exams

required students to recite paragraphs. In ancient China, people were taught to memorize all books in order to pass the Imperial Examination. Multiple-choice item of ECL demanding a great deal of memorization consistent with Chinese conventional exams is the influential factor that allows traditional EFL teachers to successfully exist in the world of English teaching (Cheng, 1997). Thus, Tina accepted the belief that language ability means re-utterances from what they had recited. As a result, Tina confessed that her students need to memorize all test materials. This is possibly that teacher's practice is also teacher's culture. Inevitably, Tina prepared her students for ECL multiple-choice item exams.

The current school system has also constrained the practice of Tina and the learning of students. In the follow-up interview on Jan. 15, 2010 after the ECL test result was released, Tina commented on students' poor performance. She stated

"Students did not have enough time to review their work. The commander did not set the time for playing ECL recordings every Wednesday for students to listen to and practice their listening. Students spent too much time on physical exercises and other chores." (Tina's Interview on Jan. 15, 2010).

Students generally lacked time to study at Tina's school, because they all have a prescribed schedule. In the meeting, Tina complained it was students' low proficiency levels that prevented students from getting a decent performance, and the lack of resources for students such as time, labs, and materials, also contributed to their low score. When she responded to interview questions, Tina seemed to be reluctant to talk

about ways to improve students' scores, for she believed the lack of resources has

threatened both her teaching performance and students' learning. However, she denied

her teaching was problematic, but attributed students' poor performance to the lack of

resources and lack of students' own learning. She pointed out the library needed to

provide more e-resources for students. "Autonomy was not possible if the school was

unable to offer proper resources," said Tina in the interview (on March 17, 2010). Tina

believed that her teaching methods could be improved if the school provided videos of

teacher education programs.

5.4 Conclusions

Wall's (2000) teaching model suggested that teacher's prior learning experience,

teacher's beliefs, and contextual factors that may affect the process of teaching.

Looking back to Tina's growth, discouraging learning experience and lack of interest in

English learning have discouraged Tina from attending further teacher education, and

therefore she could only use traditional teaching methods to focus on rote-learning like

decades ago. Another vital element to predict Tina's teaching is teacher's beliefs in

teaching and learning. According to Nespor (1987), it has become accepted that

teachers' ways of thinking and understanding are vital components of teacher decision

making. Tina realizes that each student had his own interest in learning English but she

chose to think of them as being readers who needed plenty of vocabulary and

translation ability. Conceptualizing her students in that way, Tina saw teaching reading

as a gateway for them to obtain language ability. Therefore Tina began to require more memorization from her students as she emphasized linguistic knowledge and lexical analysis. The functions of described beliefs and specific behaviour patterns are correlated in most of cases. However, sometimes there are discrepancies between teacher's beliefs and practices. For example, Tina seemed to imply she agreed with communicative teaching, but later classroom observations indicated this was not her conceptualized beliefs to motivate her to move on.

To Tina, washback effects at Tina's school were apparent such as high-stakes testing, accountability, and students' expectations. Test scores were overused for various purposes. Teachers and schools' accountability, students' grade promotion and exit, employment and overseas study were based on ECL test scores. It was necessary for Tina's school to be accountable in school evaluations. Pursuing test score has become the culture of school where teachers' instruction becomes assessment-driven.

Next, teacher education is an element to decide teacher's practice. The less professional education that a teacher participates in, the fewer teaching methods he or she will likely employ. Tina obtained little knowledge about teaching and therefore her teaching might be likely to reflect her previous learning experience. As a result, previous knowledge has directly reflected Tina's capacity in teaching.

Accordingly, these patterns used by Tina were shaped by her teaching beliefs and contextual factors at work. Students' success in the examination has been the most

important responsibility of teachers in Chinese society. We cannot overlook Chinese traditional culture such as Feeding-duck teaching that Tina experienced as a factor contributing to her conservative teaching of verbatim memorization. Tina's reading program and ECL test preparation program were mostly literal translation, balancing teaching to the test and academic English, the value of traditional teaching from her previous experiences, and enhancing students' motivation. Both of the wider culture and the organizational culture in the context were surely the main determinant that transformed and influenced Tina's teaching.

CHAPTER VI

EFL TEACHER'S BELIEFS AND PRACTICES:

A CASE STUDY OF ANDY

6.1 Teacher biography – Andy

In this section, the narratives of biography, educational background, and the learning experiences presented aim to understand how previous experiences shaped Andy's practices at the institution.

Andy was born in the 1970s, and raised in Tainan, located in southern Taiwan. He graduated from the Air Force Institute of Technology in 1996, ranked a second lieutenant. While he was majoring in Aeronautics at the Institute, he took English Literature as his elective course. Since graduation, his interest in English and western culture has continued to grow. Obtaining a degree and certificate in English teaching was the goal that Andy strived for. According to the Air Force regulations, officers should be deployed to repair the aircraft, or to serve on airbases in shifts unless they excel in academic performance. This privilege was similar to today's performance-pay policy to encourage teachers' devotion to teaching. The better your ability, the better job you do, and the higher pay you get.

Andy determined to work hard and transformed himself into an extraordinary

teacher. He justified the need of new teaching by stating that a foreign language learner should not only know how to use English correctly, but also have the competence in language to use it for various purposes. In 2004, he went to a university for a summer session to improve his knowledge in teaching English. He expected, to improve himself, his knowledge, and conduct, teaching at a satisfactory standard. In September 2008, Andy successfully applied to the English Teaching Center, at the Institute, to become an English instructor. Because of teaching needs, he returned to the university where he studied for his master degree in The Department of Translation and Interpretation Studies (DTIS), receiving the recognition of 'excellent academic'. As a result, Andy experienced a variety of teaching courses in his postgraduate study. These exemplary teacher programs might have potentially shaped Andy's pedagogy towards innovative English teaching. It is likely due to these vital educational backgrounds that Andy was able to develop his professional practice and equip himself to teach in an innovative manner.

Furthermore, he benefitted from a different English learning experience at the Institute, where English courses strengthened his speaking and listening skills. The importance of learning experiences, in communicative tasks, was evident from this statement, Andy expressed:

> "Learning English, at the military schools, was different. We had more speaking
> and listening comprehension in English. (Andy's Interview on Nov. 13, 2009)."

Andy explained when he studied at the Institute, one of his English teachers used

American Language Courses to improve students' English speaking and listening ability. The knowledge taught by a communicative teacher was useful. Andy's abilities and motivation equipped him well, so he was interested in learning English and how to teach it. Andy's specialty was linguistics, sociolinguistics, and dialectology. As can be seen in postgraduate programs, Andy's studies offered him a broad knowledge in teaching methods and approaches. The theoretical knowledge allowed him to construct his own classroom, as he wished.

6.2 Overview of approaches to teaching

The present research was carried out in Andy's fifth year in teaching English at the Institute. Without a so-called 'Iron-rice-bowl' contract, providing a secure lifelong teaching job, regardless of the performance, Andy as a military officer, had to perform very well in teaching, otherwise he could be posted to other units. In addition to obtaining a teaching certificate and degree, Andy always attended the seminars to improve his teaching skill and knowledge. Working at the Institute, he followed the curriculum set by the English Teaching Center and focused on ECL test preparation for listening comprehension and for ECL written comprehension. His students are mostly college students but sometimes he had trainees from airbases looking forward to having an opportunity to work overseas. Table 6-1 shows the summary of Andy's brief profile and the characteristics of his classroom.

Table 6-1 Andy and his classroom characteristics

Andy (School: The R. O. C. Air Force Institute of Technology)

Age: 30s   **English Teaching Experience: 5 years**

Class size: 30-40   Teaching Courses: ECL and English grammar

Duration of classroom observations: April-May (spring semester),

            October-November (fall semester) 2009

Date of Interviews: October 2009-Feburary 2010

Seat arrangement: in-rows

Students: freshmen, sophomores, & trainees

Student English Proficiency Level: Lower Intermediate

Total Interview time recorded: 110 minutes

Total Observation time recorded: 200 minutes

6.2.1 Classroom observational data

Classroom observational data was collected in both academic English and ECL classes, between April 2009, and February 2010. The characteristics of Andy's teachings, listed below, include three major themes: 1. Balanced teaching with form and function, 2. An emphasis on pedagogy for learning rather than for delivery, and 3. A broader enacting curriculum for integral skills and performance-driven instruction. The research on factors mediating instruction, suggests that Andy was at the transitional place in his change process, which manifests teacher's beliefs, contextual factors, and others might facilitate or hinder teacher's ability to transfer innovative teaching strategies into classrooms, given the school contexts.

Theme 1. Balanced teaching with form and function

Andy's academic English class

- *A dual approach to balance form and function*

A form-function mixed component has been the primary focus of Andy's pedagogy, in which English teaching integrates linguistic knowledge into a communicative approach. The data indicated Andy decided to teach English grammar as academic English for his students. Andy made teaching English grammar like all other aspects of language, to be functional. There were various instructional strategies, used by Andy, to meet students' diverse needs, including linguistic ability and communicability. He often used examples from real life to explain the rules of English sentences. Sentences might be extracted from e-mails, letters, blogs, websites, reports, newspapers, magazines, and textbooks. All Andy's grammatical tasks have a communicative purpose and a target audience. Although the rules might be the same, but expressions can be different, depending upon the situations. Andy made the English language usage in the classroom interesting, and more communicative. Andy conceived that second language learning, in the perspective of grammatical, phonological, and morphological rules should be paralleled with learners' prior knowledge with meaningful contexts. In his classroom practice, Andy connected language forms of discrete-point linguistic knowledge with socioculturally communicative inquires. He was a negotiator and an authority to apply these teaching techniques of cooperative language learning, to be compatible with students' autonomy in practice. To avoid learning without effective correction, Andy made students aware of the existence of errors. Structures of the language were provided in form-focused instruction, and at the same time communicative instruction was employed in class. It is evident that Andy made an effort

to teach grammatical rules and to develop the ability of students to communicate successfully. The illustrative examples of a dual approach are shown below in Table 6-2. The evidence shows that Andy utilized a teacher-fronted lesson to introduce grammatical topics discussed with students. However, the central role was students in the learning process and Andy gave students more opportunities to talk (n=12, 30% of class time). The model of practice was the most commonly used, in spite of the pressure of student attainment on English test. To Andy, a genuine student-centered classroom organization was still too ideal and not feasible for learning. Andy realized that traditional methods did not support students to develop communicative skills, and he therefore initiated many questions from real-life for students to practice.

Table 6-2 Map of Andy's academic English teaching – A dual approach

Andy begins class:	Andy: Today we are going to talk about the simple present tense. Can anyone tell me how to use the simple present tense? For example, how can we say 我每天早上七點吃早餐 in English. John?
Student responds:	John: I eat 7 o'clock.
Andy gives feedback:	Andy: We should say I eat my breakfast at 7 everyday. Right? John. You should pronounce "eat" not "ea" and be careful about the last consonant sound "t" in your pronunciation.
Andy initiates a question for practice:	Andy: If I ask you "How many hours do you study everyday?" How do you reply?
(Students murmured.)	
Andy assigns a student to reply.	Andy: Tom, can you tell me what to say?
Student responds:	Tom: I study two hours everyday.
Andy initiates another question for practice:	Andy: If I ask "When is your evening roll call?" How do you reply?
(Students discussed.)	
Andy invites a volunteer to reply.	Andy: Do you have the answer? Who wants to tell me?
Student responds:	Jimmy: Our evening roll call is at 9 o'clock.
Andy assigns practice.	Andy: Thank you, Jimmy. That's right, because it happens every day. So, you have to use the present tense. Can you write many present tense sentences? Write these sentences in your notebook…These are all present tense sentences. Any questions?
Student gives his answers. (Students practice the questions.)	Mike, please show what you write on the chalkboard…
Andy explains the structures of grammar.	These are all present tense sentences… Any questions?

Drawing above examples, when students felt challenged to speak in the correct form, he nominated some advanced students to oversee the practice. Starting with a simple statement, students exercised the structure several times, and then the more

complex statements, were established from other basic ones. For instance, Andy asked his students John, Tom, and Jimmy to practice communication with simple present tense using a few principles. After all the students had built up an understanding of using present tense, he assigned even more grammatical practice. He normally had to review what he already had taught, to introduce new topics, to explain or clarify grammatical concepts, and to sum up the sentence structures studied and give feedback.

Instead of memorizing grammatical rules, Andy required students' to orally produce the language through usage. In Andy's viewpoint, language learning can be a combination of a natural approach of first language and a process of habit formation. In other words, both accuracy and fluency are important (refer to Table 6-3).

Table 6-3 Participant organization in Andy's academic class

Activities / Academic Class	T→S/C	Individual same task
Time on task (percentage)	25 mins./40 mins. (62.5%)	15 mins./40 mins. (37.5%)

Since form-focused classroom activity was usually not so real, Andy taught language form with the approach, maintaining a focus of meaning (fluency) and natural communication. I drew the above examples from one episode of teaching simple present tense, and students' oral productions were essential components of communicative grammar teaching. For instance,

John: I eat at 7 o'clock.

Tom: I study two hours everyday.

Jimmy: Our evening roll call is at 9 o'clock.

Andy planned the lesson in a different way, giving students an opportunity to speak English by asking questions, which required them to use their thinking processes and encourage the use of the English language. The more students use oral production, the more they will understand how to use a language, naturally. Andy allowed interactions between student/students and their teacher for participation and involvement of the students.

Andy's academic English classes were based on a balance between teaching grammatical rules and authentic communication. "Knowing grammatical rules is the best way of learning a foreign language, for adult learners," said Andy. "Grammatical skills are highly developed, but Chinese students usually are deficient in communicative skills". Andy's statement about his teaching experience, from interviews in April 2010, revealed why he emphasized the importance of communicative competence and implemented a mixed approach—communicative grammar method in teaching. Drawing from his prior learning experiences in high schools and his overseas teacher education, Andy replaced traditional error correction activity, and he has shifted the teaching by focusing on meaning and authentic communication. Table 6-3 illustrates Andy and 6-4 demonstrates the most class time devoted to language function, for natural communication, under the pattern of initiations and responses.

Table 6-4 Content in Andy's academic class (form and function)

Academic Class / Lang. content	Language Form	Language Function
Time on task (percentage)	10 mins./40 mins. (25%)	30 mins./40 mins. (75%)

Andy's dual approach can be justified by the taxonomy of question types utilized by Andy shown in Table 6-5 below. It included 31 counts of referential (77%) and 8 counts of comprehension check (19%). The proportion of teacher questions, reflects an experiential teaching, with a focus on meaning for communicative activities. Referential questions occurred frequently in my data source in the academic English class. Referential means that Andy devoted more than half of his class time on initiating students' responses. After communicative activities, Andy deducted grammatical rules and checked students' understanding by utilizing comprehension checks.

Table 6-5 Andy's academic teaching – taxonomy of question types

Type of Questions and Counts (frequency)	Examples
Referential questions 33 counts (77%)	T: Can you tell me how to say it? T: Who wants to tell me? T: How can you reply? T: In the past or now? T: How can we say?
Comprehension check questions 8 counts (19%)	T: Understand? T: Is it clear? T: Right? T: No problem? T: Do you have any questions?
Rhetorical questions 2 counts (4%)	T: Isn't it funny? T: What's your feeling?

Andy's teaching ECL test preparation

In the ECL class, Andy also employed a balanced teaching approach in his English

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grammar class. Classroom observation indicated that Andy highlighted benefits of communicative tasks, such as listening for the gist and the detail, in the teaching of listening comprehension.

● *A dual approach to balance form and function*

Andy did not undertake an absolute mechanical exercise, nor, on the other hand, did he use entirely use a communicative practice of the process of listening and understanding. He attempted to bridge the gap between two approaches: listening for meaning and looking at language form for successful English listening comprehension. In addition to coping with the vocabulary and structures of the language, Andy's students had to develop language skills through listening tasks. In listening practice, Andy insisted, and he highlighted the functionality of language learning. Students did not merely hear the sound to perceive a spoken expression, in a passive way, while their listening involved an active analysis of spoken utterances.

Table 6-6 Map of Andy's ECL teaching – A dual approach

Andy begins class:	Andy: This is a listening class, so we have to do more listening tasks. You can't rely on the transcripts because the texts are easy. I feel that…Anyone want to share their learning experience in English listening skills? Do you have top students in English?
Student responds:	S1: Listen to key words…most of time I listen to key words.
Andy gives feedback:	OK. So S1 thinks it is important to listen to key words, it is important to listen to key words…OK, we can practice it later. However, I want to argue the point. I think it is important to understand general information…You first listen to general ideas then you catch key words… Sometimes it is difficult to catch key words immediately, right?
Andy initiates a question for practice:	Let's practice. We listen to the general ideas and key words. What is this question talking about?

Andy plays the recording.	Students heard authentic recording.
Andy initiates a question:	Any of you understand this statement? What have you heard?
Students respond:	Students raised their hands...
Student answers:	S2: how many.
Andy gives feedback:	A student heard "how many students"...so this question is talking about how many students doing something...Have other students heard more?
Student responds:	S2: ...last summer
Andy gives feedback.	Last summer. OK. A student heard "last summer" last year ... what happened last year?
Discussion.	Students discussed...
Andy invites responses.	Last year in the summer...what happened? Hi, S1, your key words? Did you hear any key words?
Andy plays the recording.	Let's listen to it a second time... if you listen to it a second time you get the number. Raise your hands...(Students heard again).
Student responds:	S3: Thirty.
Andy gives feedback.	You have heard thirty.
Andy invites responses.	Another student what you have heard? You also heard 30 (S4). (Students cheered...) Any different answers? Any different answers?
Andy plays the recording.	Let's listen to it again. Is it "30 students"? (Students listened to).
Andy gives feedback.	Thirty students went to the coast. Coast means 海岸 (sea shore). So you have to listen to the general ideas...You must use you ears to listen to what happens...then find key words.

Table 6-6 shows that Andy utilized a teacher-fronted lesson to govern what

listening topics were discussed with students. The central role was students in the learning process, which provided more opportunities to talk. Drawing on the above example, when students felt challenged to understand, the spoken content, he did not give the answer but allowed students to listen to it again. Thus, it can be seen in Andy's teaching listening skills, he included: discriminating and recognizing the words (form), identifying expressions in a context to create meaning (function), and using prior knowledge and students' background to predict meaning or recall important words (function). Language form and function were balanced to build up communicative skills as well as lexical/syntactic capacity.

- *Oral production to develop natural communication*

Another characteristic of Andy's ECL practice was to develop oral production, as an interactive process, in which language function is built by receiving and producing adequate feedback, to understand the meaning of a foreign language. This method is based on listening comprehension and the integrated skill of oral production. Students listened to the authentic language from the recordings (American Language Courses) many times, and Andy collected the information from students through interactions between the teacher and students. Eventually, students were able to comprehend the whole meaning and showed comprehension of the whole sentence(s). In Andy's ECL class, students had to use English so that they could develop their own language use and confidence. It is evident that Andy did not show the scripts to students but wanted

them to listen to the authentic language carefully. Students were motivated to contribute pieces of information for the meaning. Table 6-7 and 6-8 illustrate Andy spent little time on explaining grammar and students were encouraged to interact with the topics as a communicative feature.

Table 6-7 Participant organization in Andy's ECL class

Activities ECL class	T→S/C	Individual same task
Time on task (percentage)	13mins./50 mins (26%)	37 mins./50 mins. (74%)

Table 6-8 Content in Andy's ECL class (Form and function)

Lang. content ECL Class	Language Form	Language Function
Time on Task (percentage)	8 mins./50 mins. (16%)	42 mins./50 mins. (84%)

A closer examination of Andy's classroom practice shows in Table 6-9 that referential questions (40 counts, 38%) and comprehension checks (10 counts, 58%) is used frequently in ECL class. It is evident Andy's experiential teaching style, using this means of communication, is the focal point of teaching. This analysis suggests that teacher's questions are exclusively addressed to a communicative classroom.

Table 6-9 Andy's ECL class – taxonomy of question types

Type of Questions and Counts (frequency)	Examples
Referential questions 40 counts (78%)	T: Who is it? T: What have you heard? T: What else have you heard? T: Who has heard "little by little"? T: What does that mean?
Comprehension check questions 10 counts (20%)	T: Understand? T: Is it clear? T: Right? T: No problem? T: Do you have any questions?
Rhetorical questions 1 counts (2%)	T: Do you want to sit here?

Comparing Andy's academic English and ECL: A dual approach

There are many similarities and differences between Andy's academic English class (non-exam based) and ECL class (exam-based) shown in Table 6-10.

Table 6-10 Similarities and differences in a dual approach

	Andy's academic English class / ECL class
Similarities	● Balancing of form and function ● Use of communicative tasks ● Using a huge amount of referential questions and comprehension checks
Differences	● Grammar-focused academic English class ● Listening-focused ECL class ● Producing longer utterances in academic English class ● Collecting pieces of information (from audio recordings) in ECL class

Data shows that Andy relied on a dual approach, paying attention to form including syntax and semantics, and also focusing on meanings for authentic communication. Andy taught academic English and ECL through communicative tasks. This dual approach is proved from the aspects of teacher's questions. Referential questions and comprehension checks frequently used act as initiations in both classes. However, the data also reveals differences between his two classes. For instance, Andy used topics in grammar teaching but had no time to cover reading skills. In ECL class, students' utterances were much shorter because of the activity of collecting pieces of information from recording. Andy utilized more functional English from audio recordings for students, but they merely listened to, rather than responded to questions.

Theme 2. An emphasis on pedagogy for active learning rather than for delivery

<u>Andy's academic English teaching</u>

Andy structured his lessons, as active learning, to change a teacher-centered into more student-centered approach to English language teaching. Andy abandoned the traditional pedagogy, for delivery, to transmit the content, and he adopted the communicative pedagogy for active learning to foster a conducive learning environment for students.

● Active-learning

The focus of Andy's academic English teaching was that the student has an active role in learning, using brainstorming and critical thinking. Learning of a language in a functional way has explicitly highlighted the assumptions of an active learning approach, suggesting that it will increase students' learning and, will permit students to more easily achieve language comprehension abilities necessary for communication. The traditional role of students cramming/memorizing a list of words, without understanding, is not associated with students taking over responsibility for concept development. Normally a traditional teacher presents word lists from paragraphs, and students are expected to resort to the simplistic model of rote learning, to memorize the concrete and literal aspects of the word. However, Andy utilized the communicative methods for accomplishing independent learning, via active learning (n=42, 86% of class time). The

typical examples are as follows:

> T: Who wants to tell me (how to say it in English)?
> S1: I have eaten my lunch.
> S2: I have studied for 3 hours.
> S3: He has been posted to the Taipei squadron.

Rather than giving linguistic practice by rote-learning, Andy focused on the importance of inspiring students to speak and negotiate meaning in a foreign language. Andy made efforts to support an emphasis on the importance of communication, and he taught English as if he had a real audience. His students then practiced communicating with real audiences to develop their skills in speaking and listening. This could allow Andy to use the real language usage to analyze English grammar, instead of lecturing the decontextualized rules. Andy used meaningful, realistic, and relevant learning tasks, based on his students' needs and interests. He designed individual tasks based on what they needed to learn. Often, he assumed that his students are working at the U.S. airbases. In addition, Andy demonstrated how he uses English appropriately, to whom, when, and where. Andy's teaching practice, like this, can provide valuable authentic context and motivation.

● Allowing conceptual construction

The main distinction between traditional teaching and Andy's teaching is that traditional teaching requires students to memorize all relevant information, and recall different test schemes, whereas Andy's teaching is giving only essential information, as

the tool, to allow students to make associations with the information, to experience

conceptual development. The teacher is no longer a teller, offering factual knowledge, in

helping lower-order skills and permits students to construct their own higher-order

concepts. The following examples indicate this conceptual construction model has

supported students to acquire the missing language skills.

> T: What kinds of situation can we use in the perfect present tense?
> S4: Past to now.
> T: Give me an example. 吃飽了. How do you say it in English?
> S4: I have eaten my lunch.

As can be seen, a conceptual development process of learning has been given for

students (n=12, 24% of class time). Andy's teaching task was based on critical thinking.

As I shall justify below, students learned a language through contextualized expressions,

which were uttered by active learning highlighting the cognitive theory, with a focus on

an internal learning process of language acquisition.

Andy's teaching ECL test preparation

● Active-learning

Andy's students, while listening, were being an active processor of language, had

to go through processing sounds, processing meaning, and producing knowledge and

expression orally. In processing sounds, students detected the word boundaries,

vocabulary, sentence and clause boundaries, intonation, and other language-related

features. In processing meaning, students reflected the translated speech, into

meaningful expressions. They had to think ahead to anticipate what would be happening. Thus, the atmosphere of Andy's classes was livened up, vivid and interesting.

(Students responded immediately after listening to the recording.)
S5: Yes
S6: Here
S7: Me..
S7: Saturday night
T: Saturday night, to do what? Anyone hear what happened?
S8: Subway

Students were more engaged in learning since Andy increased his focus on interactive tasks, employing various materials. Andy's students actively learn English through authentic topics and events. It is not ECL tests, but Andy's broad topics allow Andy to use a variety of teaching methods to draw out the attention of the students. Table 6-11 demonstrates the activities of listening to the main ideas, and specific information, based on the content of recordings, and therefore the topics were narrowed (90%). However, Andy taught grammar by using real life situations to explain the structures. Students came up with different utterances, which consisted of their own learning for topics were broad (55%). Inevitably, Andy instructed explanations of main structures, in which narrow topics were contained in lectures (45%).

Table 6-11 Content about topics

Topics / Class	Narrow Topics	Broad Topics
Time on task (percentage) Academic	18/40 (45%)	22/40 (55%)
Time on task (percentage) ECL	45/50 (90%)	5/50 (10%)

● Allowing conceptual construction

In Andy's ECL class, the teacher's primary responsibility was to elicit, to allow critical thinking, instead of the provision of accurate answers. Andy's teacher talk, mainly fostered conceptual construction of students. As a result, the pauses between questions and feedback were rather long in practice. The following excerpt of a transcript, from observation, illustrated that Andy attended to all responses from the students, while they conceptualized their learning.

17'25" S9: little by little…
17'33   T: Besides little by little, what else have you heard?
17'35" S10: He gets to understand the story.
17'50"   T: OK, he gets to understand the story. Wait. Let's listen to it
          again.
18'20" S11: Little by little, I begin to understand the story.
18'30"   T: Completed correct. We have sufficient reactions and
          interactions … Good.

Student engagement, as the vital characteristic of cognitive construction, frequently appeared in Andy's ECL class. Furthermore, the analysis of teacher questions shows that Andy was very focused on listening skills, including for the gist and the details (6 items over the 2 questions). For 5 items (83%), he elicited students' responses, and for 1 item (17%), he gave explanations of words which students had difficulty with. It is evident that Andy taught ECL classes with the emphasis on communicative purpose, which leads to more inspiration in language learning. As Table 6-12 shows, lots of

minimal texts, consist of short sentences, and vocabulary were used in Andy's classes.

For a communicative purpose, long dialogues and texts are vital elements, however, these minimal texts are helpful for students to understand how communication is built up. Academic English used more non-native speaker material, which might make it easier to understand grammatical rules.

Table 6-12 Andy's teaching materials used in EFL teachers' classes

	L2-NNS	L2-NS
Academic	40/40 (100%)	0
ECL	15/50 (30%)	35/50 (70%)
	Minimal Text	Audio
Academic	40/40 (100%)	0
ECL	25/50 (30%)	35/50 (70%)

Comparing Andy's academic English and ECL (Active learning)

There are many similarities and differences between academic English class (non-exam based) and ECL class (exam-based) in active learning shown in Table 6-13.

Table 6-13 Similarities and differences in teaching (Active learning)

	Andy's academic English class / ECL class
Similarities	● Using communicative tasks, e.g., brainstorming, critical thinking ● Active conceptual development ● Little transmission, more attention to students' responses ● More successful, more enjoyable.
Differences	● More conceptual construction of grammar in academic English class ● More difficulties in conceptual construction due to sounds, intonation, and meaning ● Long pauses produced more students' responses in ECL class.

To sum it up, the evidence shows that both classes practiced communicative tasks, using brainstorming and critical thinking. Andy designed activities to facilitate active conceptual development for language acquisition. Relatively less transmission is used in class, and more attention is paid to students' responses. As a result, Andy's classes were more vivid and interesting for students. Differences are found between the two classes. For instance, academic English class contained much more grammar and there was less time for cognitive construction of reading skills. Students might have had some difficulties in conceptualizing meaning in spoken form due to sounds and intonation. However, teacher's long pauses (allowing so called 'wait time') encouraged students' responses in listening and speaking.

Theme 3. A broader enacting curriculum for integral skills

<u>*Andy's academic English teaching*</u>

- *Integrated skill*

For the development of real communicative competence, many skills of language acquisition taught in an integrated way are practiced together. During classroom observations, Andy adopted the communicative pedagogy that was not taught by other teachers, and that has made all the difference. Andy appeared to be knowledgeable about English content and its teaching methods. Observed lessons were well planned, enacted, and the activities provided by Andy, contributed to foster communicative

behaviors and the courses' objectives. Andy's teaching style was content-based emphasizing learning process through language. In Andy's class, the content involved skills for basic social, cultural, and interpersonal communication. In different grammatical themes, Andy integrated the introduction of verb tenses with daily events, which encouraged students to use a variety of language skills such as speaking and reading. This was the most useful pattern of grammatical theme-based instruction in class. This approach exposed students to language use in terms of authenticity, and challenged them to interact naturally in class. Students rapidly responded to the richness of language use as employed in English conversations. Andy stressed that the integrated skills were not just for passing ECL test but a real means of interaction. After giving language forms, the integrated skills can be highly motivating students with a variety of proficiencies in English.

Working at the Institute, Andy followed the curriculum set by the English Teaching Center, but he taught differently. His students are mostly college students but sometimes he had trainees from local airbases, looking forward to having an opportunity to work overseas. Andy wrote topics that he was going to discuss on the whiteboard and explained in Mandarin. He tried to draw students' attention as much as he could to the overseas experience, cultural difference, and humorous speech. Beyond dispute, Andy denied segregated skills teaching and adopted an integrated teaching approach. This was consistent with interview data, with Andy in January 2010,

showed in the interview transcripts that he replied: "when I stayed on the US airbases, I spoke English to Americans and our conversations were similar to the interactive tasks I learned in the classroom…it is better to use a communicative model in classes." With overseas experience, Andy hoped to challenge his students to use integrated skills for the purpose of developing communicative competence.

Andy's teaching ECL test preparation

- *Integrated skills*

The classroom observations indicated that Andy's test preparation was far from sole focused on teaching to the test. Data shows that the classroom culture, of Andy's classroom was based on an attempt to balance language skills through with the use of communicative tasks. Similar to his communicative grammar teaching, students were encouraged to actively take part in tasks, and activities for lesson learning and there was valuable respect for students' responses, opinions, and contributions. The focus of Andy's test preparation courses was to enhance language proficiency, rather than raising test scores. ECL test preparation was taught in integral skills and content being critical thinking, or communicative, or to connect other language skills for real language use.

The process of teaching was in tune with Andy's pedagogical values of communicative teaching. Even though speaking ability was not tested in ECL, Andy

planned his ECL lessons with many pair/group work sessions and discussion tasks for the development of communicative behaviors. Andy expected his students to interact with each other via pair/group work and discussion that might help students who were reluctant to express their ideas in public. "To put old wine into new bottle" can best describe Andy's teaching which was innovative with a variety of communicative activities. This attempt to teach more listening with the integration of other skills for ECL test preparation was different from traditional ECL test preparation that teaches the isolated skill in listening and reading.

Table 6-14 Student modality

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Grammar
Academic	0	10/40 (25%)	2/40 (5%)	0	28/40 (70%)
ECL	32/50 (64%)	18/50 (36%)	0	0	0

The characteristics of Andy's practice are found in an integrated curriculum, which can be seen in Table 6-14 Student modality. The data suggests that he attempted to make sustainable change in his pedagogy, moving to innovative teaching strategies, including integrated skills and communicative teaching. However, practical activities suggest that language form remained an important component in the process of teaching reforms. Andy was at transition from old to new in the change process. This result suggests that he saw the visions of how communicative teaching will support students' learning, and he focused on giving a more active role in a natural learning environment. However, the research consistently found that no single factor accounted for this teacher's ability to move forward with a successful change in teaching.

Authority's attitude, school policies, professional development, and students' motivation might have prevented Andy from traditional teaching based on transmission, memorization, and testing. Thus, a more student-centered approach to teaching and learning could be translated into practice.

Comparing Andy's academic English and ECL (An integral curriculum)

There are many similarities and differences between academic English class (non-exam based) and ECL class (exam-based) in terms of integral enacting curriculum shown in Table 6-15.

Table 6-15 Similarities and differences in teaching (An integral enacting curriculum)

	Andy's academic English class / ECL class
Similarities	● Using communicative tasks, e.g., brainstorming, critical thinking ● Active conceptual development ● Little transmission, more attention to students' responses ● More successful, more enjoyable.
Differences	● More conceptual construction of grammar in academic English class ● More difficulties in conceptual construction due to sounds, intonation, and meaning ● Long pauses produced more students' responses in ECL class.

To sum up, the evidence shows that both classes practiced integrated skills. Andy focused on grammar and speaking in academic English, and listening and speaking in ECL class. Nevertheless, minimal texts with vocabulary and short sentences were used

in both classes. ECL classes learned more listening to recordings, while Andy taught more grammar with realistic examples in academic class. The use of examples from real life referred to broad topics, and the use of tape recordings introduced narrow topics. Thus, two classes in this case study proved to be a balanced approach combining traditional teaching and more communicative teaching. Andy apparently denied the approach towards teaching to the test on ECL or past test questions, in order for score gains. On the contrary, student-centered teaching and active learning were the focus of Andy's practice. The notion of washback is that a test will influence teaching and learning. However, washback of ECL has not mediated Andy's decisions in making changes in the classroom. My findings suggest that pedagogical changes in education innovations are more complex involving numerous factors other than just the introduction of a testing system. Andy found the balanced points of engagement in teaching, between communicative tasks and traditional pedagogy, and advantages and disadvantages, of his context. Nevertheless, changes in pedagogy appear in association with a number of other factors from teacher's beliefs, of teaching and learning, to appropriate leadership, and to educational resources.

6.2.2 Teacher interview data

In teacher interviews, Andy explicitly addressed his beliefs about teaching and learning based upon his past and current experience. Andy's beliefs towards English teaching and learning are identified as follows: (a) Learning strategies are essential in

the process of learning. (b) To learn efficiently, an adult language learner should be well acquainted with the grammar of the target language. (c) Interactive tasks could help students to deal with the real-world setting. (d) Knowledge should be the focus of the teaching, instead of test taking.

Learning strategies are essential in the process of learning

He points out the lack of teaching to help students to achieve learning strategies and therefore he expressed that he preferred to use communicative tasks for active learning, and using strategies to support communication. Andy believed that on the path of learning students unavoidably have to develop their own learning strategies. He was concerned that the dangers of memorization lead students to incompetence in autonomous learning. This issue made Andy design tasks for students, to learn how to communicate successfully with speakers of other languages. Students then need to employ strategies available to make sure they improve their communication skills.

For Andy, English language learning is based on students' motivation and their learning strategies, which are shown below:

Interviewer: How can students learn English well?
Andy: First of all, it is motivation. Assume I am a student, and I think students should know their needs first. When they understand their needs, they will spend more time and energy to learn English … Students will keep pressing forward after they graduate from the school. Ten or twenty years later, you will see their progress and the difference … Secondly, students should know how to learn (learning to learn effective language proficiency).
Interviewer: Learning strategies?

Andy: Yes, they should have learning strategies. They are very important to students, but only a few know how to do learn.
(Interviewed with Andy on Jan. 10, 2010)

Thus, using interactive activities became Andy's aim to respond, in part, to students' lack of motivation. Moreover, Andy felt students should know how to learn successfully, but most lack in-depth understanding of learning strategies. He exhibited a deficit view about students' lack of learning strategies. Schools should introduce as early as elementary school, or junior high school, a basic autonomy in the context, of Taiwan's education system. According to Andy, his junior and senior high school English classes were overwhelmingly memorization-based (also refer to the context chapter and refer to case study of Tina). However, Andy changed this concept about language acquisition after his overseas teacher education and experiences taught by communicative teaching. He adopted the communicative approach such as problem solving activity and critical-thinking activities to enhance language skills and help students monitor their own learning.

An adult language learner should be well-acquainted with the grammar of the target language

Meanwhile, Andy believed, it is vital that a language learner should acquaint himself well with the grammar when learning the target language. He believed that the most effective way to learn English is through the introduction of the patterns of language use. Especially, with his success in English learning, he agreed with that adult learners develop their analytical processes to promote communicative skill. Teachers

then can take advantage of this by providing explanations that give students declarative

knowledge on each point of grammar. Through the accurate and appropriate examples

in grammar instruction, students gradually learn the English forms and structures.

However, the ways Andy taught grammar were different from traditional teachers such

as Tina, who transmitted essential tested content and necessitated students

memorizing such content. Traditional grammar teaching focused on grammatical error

analysis, which is decontextualized, but Andy focused on language use in real contexts.

He believed that there is nothing wrong with teaching grammar, but the method used is

the key issue. In these interviews he explained his teaching:

> In addition to grammar lessons, I usually add more grammatical concepts for
> students. I think … Grammar is needed for adult learners who want to learn well in
> a short time. When learners know a lot of grammar, they will feel easier to orally
> express themselves and to read, and they will feel it saves a lot of time … However,
> I tolerate students' grammatical mistakes. After all, students cannot avoid
> committing mistakes, when they use a foreign language. After the activity, I will
> remind them of the mistakes they have … unfortunately, many teachers are against
> me.
> (Andy's Interview on Nov. 13, 2009)

> My classes are interactive. More interactions … I don't encourage my students to
> memorize articles, but I encourage them to read a great range of reading material.
> When the quantity increases, students will learn more. Reading is not homework
> anymore, but it is the tool for students to obtain more knowledge.
> (Andy's Interview on Jan. 10, 2010)

In his beliefs, Andy has balanced his classes between a communicative approach

and grammar teaching. Andy especially believed that students should be better served

by the ALC grammar programs, which provide the learning of basic structures of the

English language. His belief was that the understanding of grammar would benefit these lower level students to learn effectively.

Interactive tasks could help students to deal with the real-world setting.

Andy defended his belief in the importance of reducing the overwhelming passive sit-in learning style and providing more interactive tasks for language learning. This action caused concerns among many teachers who considered Andy's action would hurt their students' learning, and Andy's action would be futile. Nevertheless, Andy used communicative grammar learning to replace structural grammar learning for students, as a response to criticism that students were communicatively "incompetent" in using a target language.

With a precious experience in overseas study, Andy believed in the essentials of communicative teaching, engaging the students and making classes similar to real life situations, and he expressed:

"I remembered my personal experience when I stayed in the US airbases 10 years ago and I spoke English to Americans and our conversations were similar to the interactive tasks I learned in classroom… Of course, it is better to use a communicative model in classes".   (Andy's Interview on Jan. 13, 2010)

In addition to knowledge of grammar, Andy also articulated the significance of communicative practice providing an alternative in the classroom. An interactive model was recommended by Andy involving group-study and cooperation. The relationship between teacher and student could be described as resembling teacher as a host, and

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students as performers in a show. Students practiced conversations or participated in the discussions and the teachers followed along to identify mistakes, but not correct them right away. After this practice, the teacher pointed out the mistakes and gave the correct language usage. Andy argued it is the way to excite students about learning English and a principled technique to offer feedback in teaching English.

Andy tried to teach grammar with a different method, adopting a weak version of the communicative approach. Andy's belief about teaching appeared to be well-received by students. It is a very unique case across the military colleges. Many students would agree that poor teaching could decrease their motivation in learning. No wonder communicative teaching is "expected" among students, because they were taught by other teachers in the way of rote-learning. In Andy's heart, perhaps he believed, teachers should try to gain favor with students, while the value of traditional grammar teaching was not necessary. The diverse learning needs of students had challenged Andy, but he believed that the teaching related to a student's abilities and background could help bring about success in the classroom. To promote students' abilities, Andy suggested that teachers should understand their students individual needs and provide them with engaging authentic communicative activities.

Knowledge should be the focus of the teaching, instead of test taking.

Andy strongly urged that knowledge should be the focus of the teaching, instead of test taking. Teaching activities based on developing authentic communicative skills is

much more motivating than the teaching of test taking techniques, even though designing teaching tasks for genuine use is very time-consuming and students might not be able to see their scores jump quickly. Andy acknowledged that in the beginning, students might doubt they obtain knowledge, because their scores were not improved as quickly as with the instrumental training in test taking techniques. Nevertheless, he frequently warned of the drawbacks of test taking in learning and teaching, and Andy saying: "Personally I believed knowledge is more important than test taking. When students have sufficient knowledge, they pass the tests easily. Students will not pursue the score gains … Students will not have a solid foundation of knowledge if they only prepare for the test. Students will not study anymore if there is no exam. They will not actively learn English." (Interviewed with Andy on Jan. 10, 2010)

> **Interviewer:** Do you want to give up when the score pressure rises?
> **Andy:** Personally, sometimes I want to quit …The average classes are 3 hours a week … it is hard to achieve the goal if they are not taught intensively … but authority thought students could do well in English if teachers teach the mock tests … I feel it is difficult to communicate with the authorities who blame me if my students' scores are not satisfactory … that is all my fault.
> **Interviewer:** Do you change your teaching for the score gains?
> **Andy:** I don't, because I know students can do well only after they learn all the courses they need. Students should have enough vocabulary and listening training. Practicing all mock tests is not enough.
> (Interviewed with Andy on Dec. 14, 2009)

Andy said "teachers should present lessons that students feel are fun and challenging." The primary job for Andy was to provide contexts and information to encourage students to communicate with each other, and this was especially important

when bridging the gaps among students' listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The interview data indicated that Andy expected learning outcomes in which students were able to integrate their skills together, but not necessarily show score gains. Andy believed the necessity of academic skills and concepts. Rather than teaching numerous mock tests, he took his jobs seriously offering the knowledge and contexts that students needed. No matter what their English level, students deserve a solid foundation of language skills.

6.3 Within case analysis

6.3.1 Impact of washback

Andy had serious concerns about students' learning English in relation to the language assessment tests. It indeed appeared a problem that students would not be able to demonstrate what they knew on a multiple-choice test. Students do not learn language skills, but they cram the test taking tips. Andy worried about the problem of overusing test scores, and said in a follow-up interview:

> "Somewhat, the overuse of ECL is unbridled. We use the ECL tests too often …
> even American Institutes warns, no more than an ECL test every three
> months …newly recruited teachers do not receive teacher training or new
> programs, and they have to teach immediately … As a result, they teach the ECL
> tests directly …ECL tests cannot evaluate students' true ability because students
> memorize the answers. My opinion is that teachers must abandon the use of ECL
> test in their teaching, but should develop integrative skills. Students obtain
> language skills and then achieve well on the test. (Andy's Interview on April 12,
> 2010)

Since test scores have been used widely in the military, Andy worried that some teachers intentional taught English to meet the instrumental demands of the test. When pressures of raising test scores came to Andy, his priorities in teaching were different from other teachers who taught for the attainment. Apparently, Andy was against the direct use of testing materials in his classrooms and he decided to align the described curriculum for all language skills. Washback has not influenced too much on the practice of Andy. The importance of integral language skills overrode the attainment. Andy emphasized once students have sufficient ability, then they can pass any test. Thus, he supported abandoning of the use of ECL test and abandoning test-based memorization in his teaching.

6.3.2 Impact of beliefs

From classroom observations during the academic years 2009-2010, Andy balanced his teaching with the whole curriculum and skills covered. Andy's beliefs have evidenced how he is thinking of teaching to influence how he conducts the teaching. The belief of Andy's "interactive tasks to foster real-life abilities to meet students' needs" is manifested only when a teacher prioritized students' needs, so that teaching could be fruitful. For example, the design of ECL is to measure the test candidates' listening and reading comprehension respectively. However, for the sake of students' needs for communicative competence, Andy connected the reading skills with speaking and listening in ECL test preparation. Moreover, the belief "students' needs should be

prioritized in teaching (Andy's Interview on Jan. 10, 2010)" led to more fulfillments for

students in classes, to spark students' interest and motivation. Meanwhile, in the face of

most EFL teachers teaching to the test everywhere, Andy's belief that "language skills

should be inseparable (Andy's Interview on Jan. 10, 2010)", still held a key place in his

heart. With a belief of "obtaining knowledge but not preparing for tests", he argued

English teachers must go beyond the format of ECL for test preparation (Andy's

Interview on Nov. 13, 2009). Andy's mixed pedagogy with grammar and interactive

tasks might come from his beliefs about the nature of the adult Chinese learner, who

expects to learn a language effectively by learning grammar. This is what he taught –

communicative grammar, where he made his classes become more interesting so that

students could enjoy learning grammar. Thus, Andy's case effectively illustrates that

EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching influence them in the ways they approach their

teaching.

Andy looked for learning strategies for each student. To accommodate the belief

"Learning strategies are more important than cramming strategies (November 13,

2009)", Andy has abandoned teaching the test. He made sure students could make

some progress on their own. "Students should know how to learn", Andy replied on Jan.

10, 2010. Though the majority of teachers agreed with test-taking teaching for a quick

score jump, Andy insisted in the cultivation of good learning habits. Students at the

Institute were making gains in English because of the teaching that linked the teaching

with other interesting topics and subjects. These teaching activities are based on the belief, "Learning knowledge is greater than learning test-taking (Dec. 22, 2009)", so that teachers extend their learning beyond the test itself.

In terms of teaching materials, Andy's beliefs are manifested in the communicative attempts to use authentic sources for learning. Students are encouraged into participation of discussion on topics from news, websites, and events around their world. Thus, he decided to teach American Language Courses containing the training of integrated skills. Most importantly, he utilized authentic materials as supplemental learning sources.

6.3.3 Impact of contextual and other factors

In this section, I will identify contextual factors which might have affected Andy's practices in the classroom.

Data gathered from the teacher interview and observation in the study showed that Andy claimed his practice was affected by overcrowded classrooms. "Ideally, we hope to teach all 4 skills, but the large class size cannot allow me to contain all," Andy noted. The results of large class size, from the traditional classroom on education, have lead to classes of over 40 or more students. Andy was accustomed to swollen classrooms, but the problems of large classes have often resulted in overloaded teachers, neglected individual student needs, and constrained teaching methods, which are difficult or

impossible for a teacher to interact with students. Students from different backgrounds might require different styles of instruction, but task-based teaching to foster critical thinking skill, is not effective in a large class. Therefore, what Andy could do was to utilize a mixture of traditional teaching and communicative teaching. The environmental conditions were not changed but Andy changed his teaching. Although active learning can bring more activity engaged in students' own learning, a large class has constrained the resources in teaching and learning such as time and suitable textbooks. The classroom observations indicated that Andy provided a situation similar to authentic learning, a natural communication, and meanwhile he also focused on grammar teaching to control the classroom and meet student expectations. This is the unique teaching that Andy dealt with a large class size with increasingly rigorous coursework.

Students' high motivation has stimulated Andy to be more responsible for students' learning, and he was willing to spend more time to plan communicative lessons. High motivation comes from a student who has an intrinsic self-value about him or herself, to direct the success on learning. The motivational aspect means even more to Andy because he sees it as essential and part of his responsibility to help students' growth and success. "My students have passion to learn, because they have experienced the hard military life and they cherish the opportunities to learn English at school", Andy said. He set higher standards and motivated students to achieve them. He knew that the teacher is the critical element that can lead to increased student motivation and

higher achievement. Moreover, students' high motivation also feeds into his own enthusiasm to teach. "You might think that military students are going to the war, but they really want to study", according to Andy. Andy transformed students' wishes and goals into the motivational practice, on school learning. He often tried to use the warm learning climate in classrooms, to facilitate students' motivation. Using tasks and activities meaningful to students was Andy's priority in class. His practice was more relevant and interesting to his students, rather than other teachers who did not facilitate students' motivation. He frequently used newspapers, magazines, and news to highlight the importance of new content and skills. In turn, Andy asked students to use new content and skills to increase their capacity. He tried to avoid covering the content with the same pace, and did the same thing for his students. Institute's students, who have higher learning motivation, made Andy improved his teaching in order to promote students' achievement. "I adjust my teaching toward more communication to fulfill the dreams of my students who are highly motivated in learning," Andy said.

Iron-rice-bowl contracts have been used to protect all civilian teachers, for a secured job in teaching, but this contract was not available for military instructors. Military instructors can be deployed to any positions if their practice is rated as poor level. At the Institute, a new teacher-recruitment and evaluation system created out of an unusual competition and collaboration in the Center of English Language Training at Andy's school. Military officials have warranted this system for over the past few years,

and they have successfully hired the potential military instructors. The teacher evaluation system led to the resignations of teaching positions by some under-performing military teachers, and the superintendent and administrators welcomed a new focus on professional development and improving instruction. "There is nothing [in the evaluation framework] teachers don't aspire to or can't improve upon," Andy said. He had to teach well to continue his teaching career. Often, school leaders and administrators came into the classroom to observe teachers' teaching activities. The military teacher evaluation is partially based on evaluating the process of teaching and partly on students' attainment. As Andy said "The teacher evaluation system, eliminated poor performing teachers, and gave new teachers opportunities to teach here. Indeed, many teachers still preferred to teach to the test, but Andy insisted on providing resourceful learning activities for fruitful results. "It's improved teacher quality", Andy said. Andy expressed that he had to use various materials and teaching methods in order to make his students study well, and paid due attention to grammatical skills as a part, but not the only part, of communicative competence in his classes.

Andy utilized teaching and learning resources as an important factor to facilitate teacher's practice. He attended teaching technique workshops offered by other universities or language Centers every year. Andy's institution required teachers to improve their teaching methodology and the school has increased the amount of budget for purchasing books, software, equipment and facilities, and achievement tests that

were suggested by teachers. He claimed that these increasing resources helped him to understand teaching theories and apply appropriate teaching practices. Andy explained in the interview:

> "When the policy of teacher development was initiated, most teachers looked down on it, but, soon, things began to change. Personally, I feel that workshops helpful to me to obtain the knowledge of education and improve my teaching. The teaching professional training introduces teaching theories and gives me a lot of ideas to teach for my students".

After receiving the teacher training, Andy has gradually changed his teaching practice with more classroom activities. He could go to the library to borrow the books that were essential to him. The library also bought teaching videos and e-resources for teachers. Therefore, after reading relevant books and using on-line teaching practice, he began to use communicative tasks to make his classroom more engaging. Andy wanted not only to be a teacher, but to be a good teacher, with skills to help his students. Appropriate teaching and learning resources made Andy's implementation of teaching possible, as he wished.

6.4 Conclusions

Observations indicated Andy's teaching was filled with productive interactions between the teacher and students, and students to students. The contents of his teaching did not emphasize or rely on test materials, past papers and mock tests for test preparation. Language skills taught were not limited to tested skills. It was evident Andy's mixed teaching approaches were less affected by washback than those of other

teachers such as Tina in this study. Andy did not adopt the notion of washback that stressed "the utilization of external language tests to affect and drive foreign language learning in the school context" (Shohamy, 1993, p. 513) making "teachers and students do things *they would not necessarily otherwise do,* because of the test" (Alderson & Wall, 1993, p. 117). It was not a case of either tests controlling teaching or teaching, especially directed to the test. In the case of Andy, it can be attested that he taught less traditional linguistic structures than Tina did in ECL test preparation. Mostly, Andy's teaching focused on real language use, rather than tested skills and tested contents.

Factors affecting Andy's implementation of English teaching were multi-dimensional and varied. They included specific contextual factors as evidenced, such as teachers' training in DLI, postgraduate programs, teaching and learning resources, large class size, and overuse of test scores having greater effects on Andy's decisions in pedagogy. However, Andy's professional development history meant that he was able to respond more creatively that Tina to pressures created by the wider and organizational cultures in which they taught. In terms of Intrinsic factors, related teachers' beliefs in teaching and learning were found to be the major force to mediate teacher decision-making process including beliefs in "the essential nature of learning strategies to students", "grammar teaching adapted to the needs of adult learners", "communicative competence", and "the focus of teaching on knowledge, rather than test taking".

CHAPTER VII

EFL TEACHER'S BELIEFS AND PRACTICES:

A CASE STUDY OF MARY

7.1 Teacher biography - Mary

Like most English teachers who embark on a career in teaching, Mary's route to become a teacher was graduation from a university with a major in English followed by teaching English in junior high schools. Mary believed that "a job using pens is much better than a job with hoes," and therefore she studied diligently for long-term employment. She was satisfied with this job because of "the familiarity of teaching customs and the pass-down of knowledge to students (interview, October 2009)." It implies that Mary employed the same methods she was taught, to teach her students.

After teaching English at a junior high school, she decided to apply for a job at a tertiary level, and she became a teaching assistant at her current school. While Mary had to obtain a masters degree to be a lecturer, she did not attempt to study in any postgraduate programs. At that time, the admissions of postgraduates were only about 3%. However, she saw a chance in 2000, when the Ministry of Education approved the policy of "The Expansion in Higher Education." It led to the creation of more than 160 universities and colleges teaching jobs, on a very small island, and within a very short period of time (also refer to the context chapter). After waiting for almost twenty years,

Mary eventually got a chance to study in a postgraduate program, because of the government's intention to provide the higher rate of admissions. However, rapid expansion of universities has created problems in terms of resources and programs. For instance, Mary felt that the teaching program did not provide the practicum for teaching techniques. It starkly illustrates the lack of well-established teaching training in higher education in Taiwan. Mary expressed on Nov. 20, 2009:

> "Indeed, the policy led to the shortages of qualified teachers and resources due to the increasing number of universities … programs overemphasize doing research rather than effective teaching … we remain obsessed with traditional teaching" (Mary's Interview on Nov. 20, 2009).

7.2 Overview of approaches to teaching

Mary taught TOEFL and ECL test preparation and academic English reading while the present research was conducted. TOEFL test preparation is taught to freshman cadets who were upper intermediate students in English. Some of those students will be selected to enter overseas military colleges. Students at ECL and academic English class varied at proficiency levels. She prepared different lesson plans with several textbooks used in classes, and she was getting used to the seat arrangement, in-rows, for her lecture. Table 7-1 briefly shows Mary's classroom characteristics. The details of Mary's practice are described as follows:

Table 7-1 Mary and her classroom characteristics:

Mary (School: The R. O. C. Air Force Academy)

Age: 50s　　　　　　**English Teaching Experience: 26 years**

Class size: 30-45

Teaching Courses: Academic English (Reading), ECL, TOEFL

Duration of classroom observations: April-May (spring semester),

　　　　　　　　　　October-November (fall semester) 2009

Date of Interviews: October 2009-Feburary 2010

Seat arrangement:　in-rows

Classroom equipment: Computer-Assisted Language Learning Lab

Students: freshmen, sophomore, junior, and senior

Student English Proficiency Level: Upper Intermediate (TOEFL), varied (ECL,

　　　　　　　　　　　　reading)

Total Interview time recorded: 80 minutes

Total Observation time recorded: 119 minutes

7.2.1 Classroom observational data

Qualitative classroom observation data included academic English classes, TOEFL classes, and ECL classes taught by Mary two semesters in 2009 and 2010. Raw data provided substantial features, which could be divided into three major themes. Deducted themes, based on key instructional features are as follows:

1. Teacher-centered practice reflecting on language form
2. The utilization of traditional Feeding-duck method
3. Narrowing curriculum and drilling of test items

Theme 1. Teacher-centered practice reflecting on language form

<u>Mary's academic English class</u>

Mary's methodology was straightforward form-focused instruction, which focuses on vocabulary and grammar in English learning. It seems both Tina and Mary were

employing the same method. However, Mary sustained her teaching with more vocabulary teaching and translation, but Tina explained more grammar. Thus, there are still many distinguishing differences between Mary and Tina, despite their commonalities in form-focused instruction. What happens, when language is used, in form-focused classroom by Mary is described below.

● *Focusing on message translation but not utilizing syntax*

Analyzing an academic English lesson in more depth, the data specified that Mary summarized facts and translated them into mother tongue (L1) or target language (L2). The lesson was entirely teacher-controlled for second language acquisition to occur. The brief instruction of teacher talk based on a few segments taken from actual classroom observations is presented below in English translations.

Table 7-2 Map of Mary's academic English teaching – translating paragraph to paragraph

Mary begins class:	Mary: now, look at the first paragraph. Read it, and we are going to review it on a quiz. I will talk about important viewpoints related to the paragraph.
Assigns student to read paragraph aloud:	Mary: Chen reads the first paragraph.
Student reads paragraph:	Chen whispered "Documentary photography…"
Mary covers problem vocabulary:	Mary: Underline the last sentence … documentary means (to record something and teach something).
Mary translates	Mary: To teach means to tell someone, what's not to happen (bad things). Underline the first sentence. Documentary photography, or photojournalism, has helped create change in the world for over a century and a half. Photojournalism, for instance, is like National Geographic. Right? Photography is 相片 (photo). A century is 一世紀 (a century). Where can you see these documentaries?
	Ss: Discovery.
	Mary: Yes. Photos are like a slogan that can be used for a change. A slogan is an elected saying "Change, change, we can be." underline the third sentence…Whose slogan?
	Ss: Obama
	Mary: Yes. Obama…We can change. Write down the third sentence, what did it change? On the third sentence…We can see these photographs in magazines and newspapers. Our lives have been controlled by the media, Right? Write the important points of the paragraph. *Just many vocabulary.* Any questions? Number 5 …Write the fifth sentence. Galleries and museums…Gallery is 畫廊… An earthquake museum is located at Taichung…Any question on the first paragraph? Let continue, next paragraph. Read it. Any questions? Write down the important points.
Mary assigns student to read paragraph aloud:	Mary: Yu continues.

Mary's act of translation based on teaching the first paragraph in Table 7-2, the

evidence shows, Mary was very focused on word and sentence translation (containing 8 items and 4 sentences). For 3 items (37.5%), she directly translated into Chinese including "photography, century, gallery"; while she gave definitions in L2 for only one item (12.5%) like "documentary," for 4 items (50%), she gave examples including "photojournalism, photo, magazine, museum." These explanations were almost always followed by the rhetorical question "right?" and "any questions?" There were (5 occurrences) to check for understanding with no expectation, or responses from the students. For two questions for which she did ask for responses, students responding time was extremely slow and the feedback that followed was simply yes/no feedback without any intent of initiating communication. Notice that the teacher is talking in L1, and students' turns to talk were relatively a minimal response time to use English. It turned out that nearly all students' utterances were shorter than a clause, and most occasions they only uttered a few English words or phrases in teacher-fronted activities. Mary attempted to furnish a second language learning environment, through teaching form, but the act of translation was inadequate to the needed outcome of authentic communication. The cadets' need for translating the English texts into Chinese may subjectively be stressed by Mary, as in the reading of technical documents in the work place.

Apparently, Mary's students are regarded as passive receivers of the learning process, in the types of activities Mary carried out, which were over the content of

learning, the control of learners, and the monologue of instruction. The evidence from a translation class shows the recognition of the very limited roles available to Mary's students. Her students were seen as translation agents, whose learning is a direct result of immersing in lengthy texts. In an hour of reading class (actually 44 minutes observed), Mary covered 8 paragraphs and translated approximately 49 sentences consisting of 600 words.

● Overwhelmingly focusing on vocabulary and lexical information

The second example shows what Mary has done by her teaching of vocabulary is extensive during observations, from a form teaching point of view. Classroom observation found a written assignment given to students, with the over-emphasis of linguistic semantics such as the study of the meaning of words and phrases. Within her favored strategy of translation, episodes in Mary's academic English lessons are illustrated in a broad range of vocabulary based on the texts, which were listed all over the board for students.

> T: OK. Hurry up and write it all in your notebook .. S1, have you finished
> it?
> S1: Not yet. Too many…there are 58 new words listed on the blackboard.
> Students: Yes, they are too many for us to learn.
> T: You should have no problems on these vocabulary words on your left-hand side. Words on the right-hand side are more difficult…

The excerpt from an academic English lesson implied how students primarily learn vocabulary. Mary listed all key words and phrases (n=58) from textbooks in an

academic lesion. The argument Mary made was that students are automatically able to take what they have learned, and apply it to a novel situation in language use. Despite the possible threat of aversive consequences including isolating skills and decreasing students' motivation, Mary used her powerful preference for the grammar-translation method as the sole learning input.

The following tables summarize Mary's teaching process for college students from the lessons observed and analyzed in the case study. In COLT tables, the numbers in the table columns show the amount of class time. Table 7-3 Participant organization shows that Mary employed fairly traditional teaching methods, mainly whole class activities in her academic English class. Mary was in charge of events *(100%)* in which individual *(100%)* students sat and listened to teacher-led translation, throughout the entire class period. Group and pair work were absent in the lesson. Instead, nominations of students to read or to answer were a common feature. As a result, 96% (48 minutes) class time was focused on language forms, such as explaining the code of syntax and semantics (Table 7-4).

Table 7-3 Participant organization in Mary's academic class

Activities / Academic Class	T→S/C	Individual same task
Time on task (percentage)	50 mins./50 mins. (100%)	50 mins./50 mins. (100%)

Table 7-4 Content in Mary's academic class

Lang. content / Academic Class	Language Form	Language Function
Time on task (percentage)	48 mins./50 mins. (96%)	2 mins. /50 mins. (4%)

Mary's exam lessons (ECL and TOEFL)

Since characteristics of teaching exam classes were rather similar, I combined both ECL and TOEFL lessons for the discussion.

● Focusing entirely on message translation but not utilizing syntax

The characteristic of entire translation used by Mary is summarized in the map of teaching question to question. Despite two third portions of the ECL test being listening comprehension, Mary taught it as a reading (scripts) task. Substance listening tasks and specific information were not utilized to provide more opportunities to understand spoken English. The examples were mapped, and are illustrative in ECL lessons, as follows in Table 7-5:

Table 7-5 Map of Mary's ECL teaching - Question by question

Mary is ready to go over the questions.	T: OK. Next question.
Students heard the audio.	(Students heard "#58. I need some money. I'll try to borrow some from Tom. Tom never has any money, but William always does. Who had money?")
Mary requires an answer.	T: Who had money? Who had money? Ok. Tell me, Mr. Tong?
Student answers	S: D
Mary recasts.	T: Yes, D. He had some money…
Students heard the audio.	(Students heard "#59. Was General Arnold a famous man? Yes, even his enemies remember him. What did the

	man say about General Arnold?")
	OK. What did the man say about General Arnold?
Student answers.	S: B. This is a trap. (The student gave a wrong answer.)
Mary explains the answer.	What is Lt.? Second Lt. What is Major? Major. What is Lt. Colonel? Second colonel. What is colonel? Colonel. Don't forget your ranks because you are in the military.
Students respond.	Ss: The enemies don't forget him. (Students marked the correct answer.)
Mary requires an answer.	Yes. A or B?
Students mark the answer.	Ss: A
Mary recasts.	Yes. A.
Mary goes to the next question.	T: Any questions? (Playing the recording.)
Mary is ready to go over next questions.	T: OK. Next question.

In Table 7-5, the 2 episodes demonstrate Mary was very focused on finding the correct answer via vocabulary explanation (5 items over the 2 questions). For the 4 items (80%), she translated and also spelled the items in L2, while for one item (20%), she gave repetitions. These explanations were almost always followed by recasts from the answers "Yes, D (A)" (2 occurrences) for confirmation. It is important to note when the answer was incorrect, Mary seemed to ignore it and the feedback that followed was to seek another answer. The exchanges between Mary and students were rapid and short, with one or two words to convergent teacher questions.

Similarly, Mary deeply utilized powerful transmission of language form, and a controlling attitude towards students' learning processes, embedded in her analytical

teaching for TOEFL preparation. Mary's emphasis was on the sentence as the basic unit of teaching and language practice. I observed there was no IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) pattern to show or map Mary's practice, because students never responded to Mary during TOEFL class. Though the format of TOEFL iBT has changed dramatically since 2004, Mary is still teaching in the traditional style in her classes. When Mary was not playing audio recordings, she merely reverted to the same approach employed in reading class.

● *Overwhelmingly focusing on vocabulary and lexical information*

Table 7-6 and 7-7 are repetitive once again, as Mary highlighted key words and phrases for students as a listening task. The vocabulary selection was based solely on the transcripts used, and words were taught through bilingual word lists and memorization. In these exam preparation classes, Mary's students were asked to memorize, rephrase, and to infer meaning. Note that only a small percentage of functional English (14-24%) were detected when Mary played audio recordings.

Table 7-6 Participant organization in Mary's exam preparation classes

Activities ECL class	T→S/C	Individual same task
ECL: Time on task (percentage)	27 mins./27 mins (100%)	27 mins./27 mins. (100%)
TOEFL: Time on Task (percentage)	42 mins./42 mins (100%)	42 mins./42 mins. (100%)

Table 7-7 Content in Mary's exam preparation classes

Class \ Lang. content	Language Form	Language Function
ECL: Time on Task (percentage)	21 mins./27 mins. (76%)	6 mins./27 mins. (24%)
TOEFL: Time on Task (percentage)	36 mins./42 mins. (86%)	6 mins./42 mins. (14%)

Comparing Mary's academic English, ECL, and TOEFL (Language Form)

In terms of language form, there are many similarities and differences between Mary's academic English class (non-exam based) and ECL/TOEFL class (exam-based). These similarities and differences are shown in Table 7-8. The three classes were evident to be a highly traditional teaching approach. For the majority of time, Mary's translated/lectured to students without any pair or group work, and it indicated the "Whole class" as a primary practice.

Table 7-8 Similarities and differences in teaching language form

	Mary's academic English class / ECL / TOEFL class
Similarities	● Utilization of translation practice ● Shorter utterances from students ● Telling the meanings of words ● Use students' mother tongue as medium of instruction
Differences	● More repetition of test items in ECL lesson ● No IRF pattern in TOEFL lesson ● Audio recordings used in exam-oriented lessons

This kind of practice resulted in diminished students responding time, since most of the time Mary spoke Chinese in class. Nevertheless, there are differences between

non-exam and exam-oriented class. To deal with exams, Mary had to play audio recordings, but she did not apply listening tasks. Mary often repeated the correct answers to facilitate memorization of test items. In TOEFL lessons, Mary had no response to students, when she totally focused on higher levels of English. To sum up, Mary utilized the philosophy of traditional grammar-translation methods, and she fixed the transmission of the sentences message, which could be accounted for in her prior learning experience. Mary overwhelmingly sustained her teaching with translation and vocabulary explanation.

Theme 2. The utilization of a traditional Feeding-duck teaching method

<u>*Mary's academic English class*</u>

● *Low students motivation in learning*

Mary embraced the traditional philosophy of the Feeding-duck method, in which instructional content and direction were in heavy reliance on traditional textbooks. The students' learning focused on just declarative knowledge and basic skills, instead of applied learning and critical thinking skills. A large amount of vocabulary was introduced from reading textbooks, and Mary challenged her students for the purpose of extensive memorization. Under such practice, the monolingual mother tongue to direct the knowledge from a textbook was not interactive and not engaging for students. However, practices she conducted in favor of the Feeding-duck method are contradicted by

statements indicating that she advocated communicative teaching in the interviews. The

results manifest a lack of student concentration in the reading class shown in Table 7-9.

Table 7-9 Map of Reading class's Initiation – Response – Feedback

Mary asked a question.	T: Joe (pseudonym), where are we now?
Student did not answer.	S: …
Mary gave feedback.	T: Ask, John if you don't know.

Mary required a student to read.	T: Chen, read this.
Student was reluctant.	S: murmured: …
Mary gave feedback.	T: I don't hear Chen, louder. Stand up.

Passive learning was apparent, when Mary passed on to her students a great deal

of translated texts. Lack of interactive tasks led to student boredom and disciplinary

problems see the following examples and in Table 7-10.

T: OK. Chung! Wake up. Wake up….
T: Lee and Chin stand up and read the paragraph.
T: OK. Now Lee, Wang, Chen and Tu read the next paragraph…

Table 7-10 Content of Mary's classroom management

Activities / Academic Class	Managing Procedure	Managing Discipline
Time on task (percentage)	1/50 (2%)	4/50 (8%)

● *Lack of interactive task*

Little interactions between students and the teacher resulted in student passivity. Mary's transmission mode of teaching shaped the role of the learner, as a relatively passive recipient of knowledge. The taxonomy of question types utilized by Mary (in Table 7-11) below shows Mary delivered the curriculum with a large amount of referential, rhetorical and display questions. Thirty-one counts of referential questions (37%) occurred, and Mary checked frequently whether students had taken notes after she had introduced a great number of vocabulary words and phrases. Rhetorical questions (24 counts, 28%) were employed to make a statement without the expectation of a reply. As many as 14 counts of display question (16.5%) meant that Mary devoted more than half of her class time to asking and answering questions she herself posted. (please refer to tabulated data in Table 7-11 for more details).

Table 7-11 Mary's academic teaching – taxonomy of question types

Type of Questions and Counts (percentage)	Examples
Referential questions 31 (37%)	T: OK, Mr. Shei, which one is the answer? T: Wang, have you finished it? T: Have you written the notes, Chung?
Rhetorical questions 24 (28%)	T: From where? Underline the sentence. T: What are the points? Underline the vocabulary. T: What are the points? Line 13.
Display questions 14 (16.5%)	T: What is "Lt."? It's lieutenant. T: How do you say "教訓" in English? Lesson. T: What is "不速之客"? An unexpected guest.
Comprehension check 14 (16.5%)	T: Understand? T: Is it clear? T: Right?

Mary's ECL lesson and TOEFL lesson

● *Students' low motivation in learning*

Likewise, Mary's exam-oriented practices for ECL and TOEFL test preparation provided similar evidence relating to students' reduced motivation. The following examples in Table 7-12 from the transcript are typical of the interactions that may have led to low student motivation.

Table 7-12 Map of ECL class's Initiation – Response – Feedback

Mary asked for the answer.	T: So, Mr. Chen.
Student gave a wrong answer.	S1: A (gives a wrong answer)
Mary asked again.	T: No. So?
Student gave a correct answer.	S1: C. Why is A wrong?
Mary did not explain the answer.	A is wrong.

Mary asked a question.	T: Who had money? Who had money? Ok. Tell me, Mr. Tong?
Student gave.	S2: D
Mary gave feedback.	T: He had some money

This IRF pattern precluded students from interacting and intervening in the lesson by giving their viewpoints. Instead of communicating the meaningful situations of language use, students simply gave accurate answers and then Mary went on to the next question. While one student dealt with the teacher's question, many students

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showed an attitude of indifference to it. Very often Mary had to say "Tim. Don't talk anymore. Stand up," or "What are you doing, John?" to continue her teaching. Rote learning practices consumed great amounts of classroom time, and became uninteresting work for students. That may also have led to low motivation and discipline problems (Table 7-13).

Table 7-13 Content of classroom management (ECL/TOEFL)

Activities Class	Managing Procedure	Managing Discipline
ECL: Time on task (percentage)	3/27 (11%)	1/27 (4%)
TOEFL: Time on task (percentage)	8/42 (10%)	1/42 (2%)

- *Lack of interactive tasks*

The research detected no interactive tasks in the observed TOEFL class. Mary translated a longer conversation, by herself, during the observation, and her freshman students did not ask any question or respond to Mary's questions. The same teaching pattern is also applied to the ECL class. The observation and analysis of classroom questions from Mary's traditional teacher-centered lessons have generated interesting data to interpret about different aspects related to the instructional approach and method. Interactions have proved to be exceedingly low, regardless of whether in ECL test preparation or TOEFL iBT test preparation. It is evident that one of the main reasons for the lack of interactions was that both ECL and TOEFL lessons observed were completely text-based instead of task-base, and teacher-centered instead of

student-centered. Mary lectured for the most of the lesson time (up to 90% or higher) and students did not appear to be required the use of communicative processes such as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction.

Therefore, based on the teacher's questions, I have explored the evidence that ways of questioning can enhance or hinder students' participation. Table 7-14 indicates a total of 110 teacher's questions in all exam-oriented lessons, observed. There are 37 (34%) teacher's questions in Mary's ECL class, and 73 (66%) teacher's questions in Mary's TOEFL class.

Table 7-14 Mary's question types in exam-oriented lessons

Question Type	ECL class (27 mins)	TOEFL class (42 mins)
Comprehension	5 (14%)	28 (39%)
Clarification request	0	0
Confirmation	0	0
Procedural	16 (43%)	4 (5%)
Display	9 (24%)	10 (14%)
Expressive	2 (5%)	8 (11%)
Rhetorical	5 (14%)	23 (31%)
(Total)	37+73=110	

The results revealed that there were specific types of teacher questions, including comprehension check, referential, display, expressive and rhetorical question. The research found that wh-questions were most frequently employed by Mary to ask rhetorical questions showing 23 (31%) examples in TOEFL class and 5 (14%) examples in ECL class. Such utterances of the teacher asked merely with effect, with no answer

expected from students. Procedural questions, for the continuity of teaching implementation, were the most common form appearing 16 (43%) occurrences in ECL class and 4 (5%) occurrences in TOEFL class. Table 7-14 illustrates the combination of display, rhetorical and comprehension checks being used to support Mary's beliefs in teacher-centred instruction.

Comparing Mary's academic English, ECL, and TOEFL class (students' motivation)

Table 7-15 Similarities and differences in teaching (students' motivation)

	Mary's academic English / ECL / TOEFL class
Similarities	● Verbatim Memorization of words and phrases ● Literal aspects of the word ● Decontextualized ● Traditional content matter transmission
Differences	● Referential questions as the most significant teacher question in reading class ● Rhetorical questions as the most significant teacher question in ECL class ● Comprehension checks as the most significant teacher question in TOEFL class

To sum up, the evidence shows that students' motivation was low in all classes where the practices were mainly verbatim memorization of words and phrases. Mary spent a great amount of time to explain literal aspects of the word. Mary's Feeding-duck teaching method caused students' learning to be decontextualized. Traditional content-matter transmission was utilized rather than higher-order critical thinking skill. However, to make sure students had written all key words, referential questions were the most used teacher question type in the reading class. Rhetorical questions, more

frequently used in ECL class to explain the test items, were not expectant of any responses from students. Comprehension checks were utilized the greatest number of time in TOEFL class to check students' understanding.

Theme 3. Narrowing curriculum and drilling on test content

<u>*Mary's academic English lesson*</u>

- *Towards narrowed curriculum and isolated skill*

When this case study was conducted in 2009, Mary's teaching materials were *Panorama 2* and *3*, which focused on reading techniques. New courses were developed by Mary, aiming at improving academic reading skills in English. Thus, other important skills such as speaking, writing, and listening were neglected. The narrowed curriculum and isolated skill were consistent with Mary's conceptions "it is impossible to teach all skills at school" and "students are responsible for their own learning." At school, Mary just focused on reading skills and suggested students master translation and vocabulary for the fundamental need of reading comprehension. Because of the strict narrowed curriculum, Mary decided to limit the depth and breadth of learning in order to fit the syllabus requirements for test preparation lessons.

<u>*Mary's ECL lesson and TOEFL lesson*</u>

- *Test-driven curriculum*

Despite calls for the evaluation of student performance with a broad range of outcomes, ECL and TOEFL test preparation lessons continue to be the most important focus of English curriculum. Like the majority of teachers, Mary viewed the standardized language assessment as the necessary mechanism for evaluating student performance. Teachers at Mary's school have begun to employ test preparation practices for standardized English examinations that might not be in the best interest of students. Mary decided to provide ceaseless practice that incorporates actual items from past test papers, from past semesters in college. The primary teaching materials were ECL placement tests and commercial TOEFL test preparation publications. Test-driven learning as a pedagogical practice has been incorporated in the curriculum for student attainment as required by the education authority. As has been previously suggested, such test preparation, especially involving the multiple-choice testing format, encourages superficial studying, and the students merely learn some tested-content and ignored some important skills, which are not tested.

- *Test-driven instruction*

With an assumption of high-stakes testing, Mary's practices were test-driven to produce improved learning outcomes at school. Indeed, Mary normally taught the ECL test with much effort in grammatical analogy and translation. The answers to the ECL tests were given to students so that they can memorize as much as they could. Focusing excessive classroom time on the teaching of test items can definitely be

construed as test-driven instruction, backward curriculum alignment, and teaching of the test. Nevertheless, Mary hardly taught the TOEFL tests with any efforts in developing communicative abilities, even though the TOEFL test itself has transformed its focus on integrative ability for test-takers. Writers of the TOEFL iBT have toughened standards for test-candidates to measure communicative abilities. In Mary's TOEFL class, few resources were used to teach, but just translated passages from past test papers. The data from the observations indicated that students in Mary's classroom did not seem to learn listening skills because most students read the scripts on the whiteboard. They did not need to rely on their listening in order to understand the materials. Overall, Mary's practice using the increased prevalence of teaching the test had threatened a normal teaching tool.

Table 7-16 Student modality shows that listening and reading were the primary skill focus in the classroom. Language skills were isolated in the process of learning. ECL and TOEFL focused on listening exclusively (100%) and academic English emphasized reading activity (80%) with 20% of read-aloud as speaking activity. Mary sacrificed important curricula objectives and skills when she pursued the attainment of scores for students with the great amount of time taken for test preparation.

Table 7-16 Student modalities

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Academic	0	10/50 (20%)	40/50 (80%)	0
ECL	27/27 (100%)	0	0	0
TOEFL	42/42 (100%)	0	0	0

Table 7-17 Content about topics in Mary's EFL classes

Topics / Class	Narrow Topics	Broad Topics
Time on task (percentage) Academic	48/50 (96%)	2/50 (4%)
Time on task (percentage) ECL	25/27 (93%)	2/27 (7%)
Time on task (percentage) TOEFL	39/42 (93%)	3/42 (7%)

If the learning tasks and topics determined by students involve more communication, students will be interested in the topics, and become motivated. It is called broad topics. However, it was hardly used in all three of Mary's different classes. Almost all topics were related to textbooks (96%, 93%, 93% in Table 6-17) that Mary prepared, rather than controlled by the learners in the use of the target language. Test-driven instruction not only decreased the depth and breath of instruction in English learning, but also distorted the curriculum. Non-tested skills and topics received little attention at school, because Mary provided more instructional time on tested areas. It is important to note that the narrowed curriculum was likely to be greatest at Mary's school where there is the most pressure to improve students' attainment on the test.

Table 7-18 Mary's teaching materials used in EFL teachers' classes

	L2-NNS	L2-NS	Minimal Text	Extend. Text	Audio
Academic	50/50 (100%)	0	50/50 (100%)	0	0
ECL	20/27 (74%)	7/27 (26%)	20/27 (26%)	0	7/27 (19%)
TOEFL	18/42 (42%)	24/42 (58%)	5/42 (11%)	13/42 (31%)	24/42 (58%)

As shown in Table 7-18, in academic English classes, Mary was highly dependent upon the reading textbooks *(100%)* and translation as a L2-NNS *(100%)*. The minimal texts were found equivalent with a narrow curriculum, when Mary focused on language form. In ECL class, Mary as a non-native English speaker *(74%)* and the students listened to audio recordings spoken by native English speakers *(26%)* as text source. Therefore, Mary's materials in the ECL courses were minimal texts from mock tests *(74%)* and she spent lots of time on listening to audio test questions *(26%)*. In TOEFL class, simulated test questions were the most frequently used material, with minimal text (11%), extended text (31%), and audio recording (58%). The teaching pattern in TOEFL classes showed that at the beginning Mary taught vocabulary, referring to past test questions in the beginning, then students listened to the tape, and then she explained long conversations or lectured from the recordings. A desire of enhancing assessment performance was to utilize past exam papers, even though past tests could easily make students lose self-confidence, motivation, and ability. The notion of washback is that a test will influence teaching and learning, however, it is clear that Mary merely used the content (texts and scripts) and she did not change her teaching methods, accordingly. The findings were consistent with Cheng (2005), who points out the changes produced by tests, seem to be superficial rather than substantial. This superficial washback means washback may influence teachers in what to teach, but not how to teach.

The evidence shows that all classes practiced the isolated skills and the narrowed curriculum. Despite her academic background and research activities investigating new teaching approaches, Mary's approach to teaching English was still rather traditional because she focused predominantly on reading skills. In addition, even with her academic background in computer-assisted language teaching, Mary did not incorporate higher-level technology into classroom instruction to help engage students in reading lessons. While Mary embraced teaching cultural topics for her students, she hardly changed her teaching methods for a new curriculum. Furthermore, another pedagogical focus was on training students to be "scorers," meaning they have to put the best interests of the school ahead of their own.

Table 7-19 Similarities and differences in teaching (Narrowed instruction)

	Mary's academic English / ECL / TOEFL class
Similarities	• Isolated skill • Narrowed curriculum
Differences	• Reading in academic English class, but listening in ECL/TOEFL class • Assessment-driven instruction in exam-oriented class • Lack of listening tasks but relentless drilling of test items

To sum up, washback of testing has changed Mary so she uses more test content. However, washback failed to change Mary's teaching methods. There was no evidence to show Mary employed any communicative activity other than translation. Furthermore,

since Mary usually picked "one" student to answer, the rest of students lagged in paying attention to Mary's instruction. Despite having a TESOL degree, she still could not apply other teaching approach into her listening class. It was evident Mary's knowing the theories does not necessarily mean she knows how to carry it out in a real class. From her self-report, lack of teaching practicum was claimed to have hindered Mary's teaching.

In my observations, conducted from April to November in 2009, it was evident that Mary has not changed her method, yet TOEFL iBT has strongly suggested teachers to do more interactive tasks. Mary's instruction in TOEFL classes was not totally mediated by washback effects. Unlike ECL, which is mostly based on traditional measurement, TOEFL iBT is designed to require test-candidates to perform with many language skills in a task. As Davis (1985) and other researchers claim, good tests should produce feed into new innovative curricula for and a positive teaching process. In other words, the new TOEFL iBT should have produced a more beneficial environment to allow Mary to teach innovatively with a new teaching process. TOEFL should be easier to change Mary's practice than ECL. However, I found there was no difference in Mary's traditional practice between TOEFL and ECL courses. What Mary taught was similar to what Tina taught, even if Mary taught towards the new TOEFL. Higher standards in TOEFL should have made Mary align closer to her curriculum and assessment. Collected observations indicated that what Mary did in the ECL and in academic English class was exactly the

same as in the TOEFL class. Mary treated different language courses in the same way. Mary taught new TOEFL and encountered a long lecture or conversational contents, no mater what contents need to be in a Feeding-duck method.

7.2.2 Teacher interview data

Mary's complicated decision making process in teaching may largely be grounded in her beliefs in teaching and learning. Though Mary earned a teaching degree, she held traditional views on the value of using the Feeding-duck knowledge transmission approach to teach language. The beliefs in teaching are rooted deeply into Mary's mind, and her teaching methods have remained the same throughout her teaching career. Above observational data indicated Mary employed the traditional grammar-translation as her teaching philosophy. Mary's beliefs have mediated her teaching at her college. Mary's beliefs in English teaching and learning are presented as follows: (a) Motivation played a key role in English learning. (b) Chinese Feeding-Duck pedagogy, which was widely used in ancient China where its education focused on memorization, is appropriate in her teaching context. (c) It is essential to apply a communicative teaching approach to inspire your students' life-long learning. Note that some of Mary's teacher beliefs will be consistent with her behaviors, but some beliefs will conflict with what she practices in reality. Mary has not employed interactive tasks during my two years of observations. In spite of teaching approaches in her mind, Mary was highly challenged by the reality of school.

Motivation always has played a key role in English learning

      Mary's first professional belief relates to students' motivation. She prioritized her teaching to motivate students in order to achieve academic achievement. For Mary, English language learning is as follows:

      "Psychologically, motivation always has played a key role in English learning." (Mary's Interview on Nov. 20, 2009)

      Mary's teaching experience at her school has reflected the need to add interest to her cadets' English learning. First and foremost, she believed that motivation can be enhanced through teacher-student interactions. Mary argues that the main issue of students' language learning lies in low motivation. Her students were apathetic in learning English because military pilots in Taiwan do not necessarily need to use English for communication at their workplace. Uninteresting teaching can reduce students' willingness to participate in learning and result in low motivation, according to Mary. In turn, low motivation of students leads to low passion in teaching. As can be seen, when Mary tried to introduce inverted sentences and no student responded, Mary decided not to continue the theme. When Mary taught uninteresting ECL test questions, often she had to nominate students to answer since students were not active in learning. "In my class, some students understand better, when I gave examples related to students rather than those examples in textbooks," said Mary. She expressed that

frequent teacher-student dialogues sharing experience and knowledge could promote

student motivation. "So in this respect," Mary observed, "it's beneficial, certainly, to use

daily events in my teaching in college." However, such statements do not tie with Mary's

actual traditional practice during observations, and other factors such as lack of

resources, may cause disparity between the intended beliefs, and enactment.

Apparently, Mary's practice is based on her own experience of teaching consistent with

Borg (2001) and Peacock (2001), who assert that how teachers think will influence their

instruction, and how they think it is based on previous experiences. Hence, Mary

believed a good teacher should strive for the enhancement of motivation with proper

interactions with students to learn better in the classroom. Her teaching carried out her

professional beliefs and therefore employed chatting topics with students in order to

draw students' attention and motivation. Based on her epistemological persuasions in

the necessity of promoting motivation, this was what Mary did in class.

Agreeing with Chinese Feeding-Duck pedagogy focusing on memorization

Mary's second professional belief toward learning was similar to traditional Chinese

education where the masters required students to memorize as many classic books and

poetry as possible (refer to the context chapter). Mary reinforced her argument by

extracting a common childhood experience of all Chinese children

> "When we were young, we all memorized famous classic poets. After we had
> grown up we used them naturally, right?"
> (Mary's Interview on Nov. 20, 2009)

The excerpt from the interview data revealed her view that language learning involving understanding is not essential at the beginning of the language learning process, and students can learn a language well even though they begin by imitating like a parrot. Trying to memorize linguistic knowledge is here regarded as a life skill for learning language. The total responsibility of teachers is to facilitate students' memorization through a feeding-duck teaching method. Drawing on her biography, Mary was taught to recite and Mary expressed:

"When students memorize enough English sentences, they will be able to use them naturally." (Mary's Interview on Nov. 23, 2009)

When Mary first came into the classroom as a teacher, she did not think about the differences between learning one's mother tongue and foreign language. Her responsibilities were teaching as much as she could and asking her students to memorize linguistic knowledge taught in class. Based on the belief in memorization, Mary wrote a great amount of vocabulary and phrases on the blackboard for students to copy, in observed classes and she demanded they memorize. Nevertheless, memorization without understanding how to apply in an authentic setting is futile or called dead memorization. It is evident, that Mary's students were forced to memorize facts, to store a great deal of linguistic knowledge, but they did not have an opportunity to apply them in real communication. Yet, Mary believed that learning was best achieved in a traditional setting, characterized by students' quiet attentiveness to the teacher and rote-based activities by students. Owing to her earlier learning based on

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vocabulary and grammar, memorization through cramming has shaped Mary's practice. This is consistent with Abelson (1986) and Schommer (1990) who argue that beliefs encompass an individual's insights to the world around them, and influence the process and outcomes of learning. Mary espoused the belief of the essential benefits of extensive memorization to provide students' readiness to use that language. Therefore, from the starting of her teaching career, Mary decided to teach traditionally and she has maintained the same teaching methods for more than twenty years. Thus, teaching methods to Mary are unchangeable rather than dynamic, due to permanent epistemological persuasion.

Acknowledging the essential of communicative teaching for life-long learning

Mary's third professional belief toward teaching was the necessity of communicative teaching to build up students' communicative ability. When Mary was asked about her beliefs in teaching in the interview held in February 2010, she believed that teachers should create opportunities for students to apply their prior knowledge to the learning of new information. Drawing on her TESOL background, Mary understood the importance of communicative competence based on prior knowledge of students. She said "it is like a snowball falling from the top of mountains and this snowball will become bigger and bigger if students could apply what they have learned and previous experience (Interview in February 2010)." Students should be required to take part in role-play in lessons and to discuss the topics that the teachers gave. Communicative

tasks would be an essential approach, to help students to actively learn. Mary believed

that teachers should offer more opportunities for students to express their opinions. She

believed that "After being taught communicative tasks, my students are likely to

continue studying English after they leave college" (Interviewed on Feb. 23, 2010). Mary

implied the importance of the development of autonomy for students in her teaching

through a communicative approach. She deeply hoped that her students had the ability

to learn English independently. If it was true, Mary believed that she should conduct

more student-centered teaching in order for students to practice their cognition. Though

Mary praised communicative tasks that contribute to life-long learning, I was not able to

identify any incidents of any student-centered instruction in her classroom during my

data collection period. Washback of TOEFL iBT based on integrative testing should

enhance communicative teaching, but in reality, Mary did not employ interactive tasks

during my two year observations. In spite of teaching approaches in her mind, Mary was

highly affronted by the reality of school. Comparing the importance of real English ability

and student scores, it seems Mary decided that memorizing past test questions was

more important than real ability. Meanwhile, Mary believed "communicative tasks were

too time-consuming to fit the school curriculum," and the lack of time seemed to hinder

Mary's communicative practice.

7.3 Within case analysis

7.3.1 Impact of washback

The first impact of washback on Mary was the change of teaching materials, to directly adopt retired ECL tests, to collect simulated ECL tests, and to buy commercial published books related to ECL test preparation strategies. Mary decided to use ECL-related materials in her instruction to teach students how to learn and study for the test. Frequently, these exam-related materials contained different ECL test preparation syllabuses, test-taking strategies, and the test content. Test items and samples for all skills tested, were added in the teaching materials. Mary selected ALCPT booklets, one of the most important materials for teaching ECL test preparation, with a collection of placement tests from ECL official tests. Mary has taught from ALCPT booklets since 1997. Each semester Mary had to teach four ALCPT placement tests for her students. After years of using testing materials, the content of Mary's teaching was filled with ECL exams.

She considered passing the ECL test a priority for students to learn English. With the success of grade promotion and graduation, students were confident in their learning of English. Therefore, it was evident that the curriculum at Mary interpreted was distorted and narrowed in order to fit the examinations. Due to washback of ECL and TOEFL, the contents and language skills of the curriculum were changed but there was no evidence Mary also changed her teaching to fit the requirements of ECL or new TOEFL test. Previous observations showed washback failed to change Mary's teaching methods since she always employed a traditional one. In particular the placement test

practices took up valuable teaching time and caused lesson planning to be exam-oriented.

Language assessments also have changed the teaching goals for Mary. The purpose of Mary's teaching was no longer focused first and foremost on the development of language skill. Her goal was transformed to help students on test preparation. However, Mary did not want to be responsible for the students passing the minimum language requirement on the TOEFL test in order to be a candidate for exchange student programmes.

> "I don't want to teach TOEFL anymore… because the new TOEFL iBT test is quite difficult. I have to spend lots of time on planning and teaching. To save my time, I used the mock tests to teach listening comprehension with the scripts. I only explain the scripts to my students, that's all. (Mary's interview on Feb. 20, 2010)"

Mary's statement expressed the differences between ECL and TOEFL iBT. ECL is a traditional language test and this measurement is pencil-and-paper based to evaluate reading and listening skills. Thus, the major principles of ECL tests have matched traditional teaching approaches, such as the grammar-translation method and audio-lingual method. Teachers do not have a huge need for a change in teaching. Nevertheless, TOEFL iBT is designed to measure integral skills, which require communicative competence. Therefore, teachers who teach TOEFL iBT assume that more interactive tasks are very different from the traditional teaching. Therefore, Mary felt stressed, if she continued to use the traditional grammar-translation method for her students to learn the new TOEFL iBT. Mary had to do nothing but intensively teach the

TOEFL test items, to her TOEFL class. As data showed, Mary felt powerless to change the fact that her school and her peers were overdoing the test score gains.

Mary's peers have made efforts to improve students' test score, and they expect other teachers to do so. Mary's pressures increased when the date of the official ECL test was getting closer. Her instruction was profoundly influenced by the pressure of improving students' achievement on the high-stakes testing. Mary continued to teach the test until her students passed the test successfully. Her students received instruction on test-taking strategies to be successful on the tests. Most EFL teachers preferred to score gains, so they taught their students in the language in which, they were ultimately tested, and Mary eventually formed her teaching with the same style that other teachers used. It was evident that pressures from the authority had made Mary make raised test scores her goal rather than language proficiency. She felt that teaching methods she learned in the university were not useful or applicable at her school.

> "The TESOL program did not tell me how to get a quick score gain, but in schools we must deal with this issue on the daily basis (Mary's interview on Feb. 20, 2010)."

This was a very important finding from data, because lack of teaching practicum in TESOL program has deterred Mary's development of appropriate teaching methodology. Mary did not have proper experience to deal with different situations in teaching. To help students obtain higher scores, Mary consequently had to use numerous ECL and TOEFL test questions in classes. Mary's teaching was aimed at discrete knowledge for tests and she taught a great deal of grammar.

"The focus of ECL tests is on discrete points of knowledge such as grammatical rules, the meanings of words and phrases. No kidding! Our students can't learn English, for real-life situations, even if they pass the ECL test. (Mary's interview on March 22, 2010)"

Apparently, data showed Mary's conflicts in what should be taught, and what has been taught. It implied that Mary disapproved of ECL tests, but she could not do anything about it. ECL tests drove the direction of the school curriculum and overrode it. Hence, the design of language assessment tests has strongly impacted Mary and her teaching. Apparently, ECL tests led to measurement-driven instruction and so Mary focused on teaching short sentences, which were not authentic in daily conversations. ECL tests mostly focused on the meanings of words and the translation of sentences. The meaning of the text, in the test questions, required explanations from the teacher. Mary spent most of her instructions talking to the whole class in order to explain the language structures and the meanings of words and phrases on a test.

7.3.2 Impact of beliefs

Profiling Mary's belief systems might help us to understand the reasons why she taught only reading and listening. Mary believed it is impossible to learn all language skills in 2-3 hours, a week, during each semester. Students should only learn the prioritized skill that will benefit them the most. Mary shared this belief with Tina who was firmly ensured that "we don't need to teach all four language skills to students (on Nov. 23, 2009)," which has been categorized into Mary's belief systems as "Students are responsible for the success of language learning." It implied that Mary's planned skills

were mainly to deal with ECL test measuring, reading, and listening. This was also an evidenced by lack of time. Mary emphasized her narrow teaching by saying, "Students need to continue studying more English skills after they leave the college (on Feb. 23, 2010)."

Mary's beliefs of "the best teaching is Chinese Feeding-duck pedagogy focusing on memorization," she delivered the lecture of grammatical structures and vocabulary as much as she could, and for sure, she translated many articles for students to learn. Despite the tasks of TOEFL iBT with integral skills, Mary taught it with a grammar-translation method, which was used in reading class. "My intuition told me not to waste time to drill my teaching," and "students don't want to learn all skills," expressed Mary on Nov. 20, 2009. Mary felt she was "ECLized" or "TOEFLized" for her teaching, while her teaching in reading was exactly the same as test preparation courses using Feeding-duck teaching philosophy for a long time.

Mary shared a similar view with Tina that "my students' motivation is to pass the test so I add test contents in classes" and "students want test-taking strategies." Students' motivation in learning can be attributed more to opportunities, such as promotion in the military. Thus, in order to match students' motivation and their expectations, Mary was willing to give more to her practices, towards test preparation as the core mission in her teaching. However, Mary neglected integral skill practices that are essential to TOEFL iBT. The process of teaching in TOEFL remained no change.

She believed that motivation can be enhanced, by rewards for students who have made a progress. With this belief, Mary frequently gave quizzes to her students and rewarded those progressing students. Mary believed an effective teacher should strive for the enhancement of motivation, with proper rewards for students to learn better in the classroom. Thus, I can say, Mary's teaching the test, is not totally influenced by washback, but she thought that is a way to motivate her students.

7.3.3 Impact of contextual and other factors

Many contextual factors at Mary's work place have shaped her teaching practices. The vital mediating factors, within context, are identified as leadership, student motivation, and lack of practicum at military colleges. The leadership styles have an impact on teacher's practice, for it may either support or constrain teachers' ability and willingness to assume responsibility for her professional decisions. At Mary's school, the tenure for the superintendent is two to four years. Superintendents in terms of their attitude and belief forward education are different, and will have quite different styles in their leadership. Some superintendents respect and allow teachers to be in charge of their own teaching, but some may intervene and place a lot of demands on teachers. Ineffective leadership generally has become a critical factor that had resulted in a slow uptake of effective teaching strategies for teachers. Very often, school superintendents who lack the knowledge, communication, and commitment to lead effective teaching, would inadvertently interfere with teacher's morale at school. Interview data indicated

that "I feel so angry because the superintendent interrupted my teaching again," said Mary. She felt uneasy when the superintendent suddenly came into the classroom to monitor or supervise her teaching. A lack of shared understanding of vision and values for teaching between school leaders and teachers has seriously hindered Mary's progress towards the implementation of effective teaching. When setting the school curriculum, the leaders wanted to increase test preparation courses for raising test scores, but teachers wanted a normal curriculum. Without any extra supports and resources, these teachers had to teach the test and cut down academic English classes. Ineffective leadership, in the context, is as an obstacle in some ways deterring teachers' classroom practice.

There was a fundamental issue – a lack of student motivation among Mary's students. Mary expressed that her students did not try hard to learn. Students showed up in the classroom without being motivated and they seemed to hold the attitude of "Just get through it." Lack of motivation in Mary's students, can be attributed to many contextual factors that also hindered Mary's teaching practice in the classroom. Classroom observations indicated that the modern entertainment media and mobile phone provided too many distractions to students in Mary class. Her students played iPhone or mobile phones in Mary's teacher-oriented class. Very often, students talked over the phone during class and they lost the motivation to learn. Another factor that contributed to students' low motivation to study hard was to protect their vision. In order

to become a military pilot, Mary often mentioned in the interviews that her students need to have good vision so they don't want to study. Her students wanted to protect their vision, rather than study hard, which is often thought to harm eyesight. It is a special factor for the case. Lack of student motivation and interest has hindered her efforts in teaching. "Our students don't want to learn," said Mary.

Most importantly, other general contextual factors mentioned in the context chapter have played an important role in mediating Mary's instruction. For instance, the quality of the university/college has decreased due to the rapid expansion of higher education, in which many institutions were not well established. Data indicated Mary expressed she was not well trained in TOEFL programs during her postgraduate studies, which focused on theories but lack of practicum. She was not taught to do more teaching practices, so that she still had difficulties in conducting different approaches. Furthermore, the traditional culture of the "Iron-rice-bowl," immediately affected Mary's practice. Iron rice bowl is a Chinese term referring to an occupation with guaranteed job security, a steady income, and benefits. In Taiwan, teachers who work for the government enjoy the protection without fear of losing their jobs, even though their performance may lack efficiency and productivity. The evidence shows that Mary has not participated in teacher education, and perhaps Mary felt it was not necessary to spend her time on improving her teaching practice, that kept her students far from superiority. Data indicated that Mary knew the importance of communicative teaching,

but she never carried it out in her classes. It is likely that the iron-rice-bowl contract has hindered Mary from striving to develop herself professionally and making more challenging tasks for her students.

Last, but not least, it is essential to note that many contextual factors that I found in the case of Tina can also apply to Mary. Lack of time, lack of resources, unsupportive conditions, the school's lower social status, and lack of teacher education and development have influenced Mary's decisions. Very often, Mary complained about the pressure to teach the test was an extra workload. She also criticized that she did not received the respect that she deserved from leaders and administrators. She felt she needed a new lab for her teaching, but lack of resources still existed at Mary's workplace. All these factors have handicapped Mary from making an improvement in her teaching, and to change her pedagogical methods. Indeed, factors to mediate teacher's decision-making processes were complex and now these processes transformed into actions to reflect teachers' decisions, are important because they help provide guidance to teachers, curriculum designers and test developers. In the next section I will discuss how the interplay between these various mediating factors to affect teachers' instructional decisions.

7.4 Conclusions

The factors mediating Mary's implementation of English teaching are multi-dimensional and varied. They include contextual factors (lack of administrative

staff's support, peer pressure, lack of resources, of teacher evaluation and hardship of promotion, memorization-based tests, and Chinese Feeding-duck pedagogy). This case study of Mary offers a consistent insight with Alderson & Wall (1993) about the mediation of washback through various factors. Identified factors strongly suggest that teacher's pedagogy is influenced by the environment, which surrounds the teacher, supports teaching and learning, and leadership.

The case study of Mary's instructional decisions indicated that her teaching was profoundly mediated by the teacher belief systems. Furthermore, it was also evident that teachers' prior experience and knowledge strengthen teachers' beliefs. Mary's pedagogical belief "Feeding-Duck" approach emphasized memorization. She believed that rote learning was the best strategy to pass the Joint University Entrance Examinations, from her early experiences. Such teaching methods were consistent with that of Pajares (1992) who argues that teachers' beliefs have affected teachers' daily teaching and that teachers often prefer the teaching approach resonating with their prior experiences. Consequently, even though Mary was concerned about discrete points of knowledge for learning, she still complied with an assessment-driven curriculum and taught students to pursue score gains. Mary knew that isolated skills were not adequate, but the use of communicative tasks to develop real-life knowledge was too challenging and took too much time. Therefore, Mary's actual practices were teacher-fronted in English classes where students passively received the knowledge that she prepared.

Contextual factors have significantly influenced teachers' decision-making. The application of new teaching approaches and methods halted, due to inappropriate leaderships, lack of time, lack of resources, and lack of student motivation and interest, over workload, and inefficiency of administration. Hierarchical systems and bureaucratic leaders have given a lot of pressure and allow little discretion to settle the teaching matters for all teachers. Evidence therefore shows that testing could drive the change in curriculum, rather than teaching practice. Mary instantly rejected the new teaching methods in class because of investment considerations and the pressures of high-stakes tests from her peers. Thus, findings suggest teachers' willingness to adopt instructional strategies is an essential starting point for an effective change. Lack of teaching resources, lack of time, measurement-driven curriculum, and leadership styles and administration have prevented Mary's intentions to try new teaching methods. Evidence indicated that it seemed to be contextual and belief reasons for not adopting the changed methodological approaches that the test implied.

CHAPTER VIII

EFL TEACHER'S BELIEFS AND PRACTICES:

A CASE STUDY OF LEE

8.1 Teacher biography – Lee

Lt. Colonel Lee is an expert in aerobatic flight, air combat, and foreign languages. Lee graduated from the R.O.C. Air Force Academy in 1993 with double majors in aeronautics and mechanical engineering. He attended overseas combat and tactical pilot training. For advanced air warfare knowledge, Lee also attended Air War College in the US. Due to the needs of English proficiency in flight skills, he was interested in the field of English education and assigned to U.S. DLI twice for teacher training. Lee's DLI training experienced various teaching methods and practiced the implementation of communicative features in classrooms. Lee was different from other officers with his overseas training background, especially, his teacher training at DLI to obtain practical techniques in teaching has led to his teaching differing sharply from Tina's and Mary's traditional teaching.

In 1989, Lee entered the Academy with the curiosity for aviation. Lee has academically excelled in theoretical courses and all yearly examinations. While most cadets began flight training in the last year of college study, Lee did it as a sophomore

cadet. He completed all required credits for a bachelor degree in Aeronautics one year earlier than his classmates. Without wasting his time, Lee took a minor degree in mechanical engineering. He received the Honor of Academic Excellence and graduated with distinction into the renowned F-16 Wing. After the military pilot service, he not only quickly improved his air combat and tactics capacity, but also quickly established his effectiveness in pilot training through his experience of his F-16 training in Arizona, where he trained to improve flight skills. He became one of the best instructor pilots in the R.O.C. Air Force. He established a good communication with military authorities for the improvement of pilot training. In class, he always required his students to think critically when tackling problems.

Most recently, Lee's new mission is to reform the English training programs in order to improve Taiwanese soldiers' and officers' English ability. He had been trained in DLI, in the US for the basic courses, for 27 weeks. In 2008, he attended the advanced class in DLI for 16 weeks. The courses have improved Lee's teaching techniques and proficiency. The authorities expected Lee to apply the successful experience in flight training to the English training. He became heavily involved in English education in the Air Force. Currently, he works at the Centre for English Language Training at the Air Force Institute. Since the 9/11 event, Taiwan has allied with other countries in anti-terrorist campaigns. The global cooperation to fight terrorism requires better English proficiency for better communication. Especially, Taiwan is willing to deepen its

cooperation with the US, in addition to weaponry purchase and training. Lee's challenge is to increase the number of trainees to be qualified in English. Thus, it was evident that raising attainment and enhancing proficiency were important and urgent factors in Lee's teaching and reform. How Lee dealt with tensions between attainment and proficiency is a vital question in my study and will be explored in the next section.

8.2 Overview of approaches to teaching

This section presents Lee's practice, which is to develop students' knowledge other than test-taking skills. Typically, Lee designed vocabulary, ECL and TOEFL writing lessons for academic purposes for his students. Lee's teaching approaches were to enhance communicative competence including linguistic competence, strategic competence, and social competence. Furthermore, Lee was responsible for two English programs in an academic year and taught in a large class size. Table 8-1 shows a brief description of characteristics about Lee and his classes.

Table 8-1 Lee and his classroom characteristics

Lee (School: The R. O. C. Air Force Institute of Technology)	
Age: 40's	English Teaching Experience: 10 years
Class size: 40-50	Teaching Courses: ECL/TOEFL test preparation English
Duration of classroom observations: April-May (spring semester), October-November (fall semester) 2009	
Date of Interviews: October 2009-Feburary 2010	
Seat arrangement: in-rows	
Classroom equipment: Traditional Audio lingual Lab	
Student: freshmen, sophomores, trainees	
Student English Proficiency Level: Intermediate	
Total Interview time recorded: 100 minutes	
Total Observation time recorded: 160 minutes	

8.2.1 Classroom observational data

1. Qualitative classroom observational data

Raw data provided substantial features, which were divided into three major themes. Deducted themes are based on key instructional features as follows:

1. Naturally promoted language skills focusing on language function

2. Student engagement, creating higher student motivation in learning

3. Integral enacting curriculum, focusing on performance than test-taking

This case study on teacher's instructional decisions suggests that Lee has undertaken his pedagogical changes to promote a variety of communicative principles (i.e. student-centered learning, integral language skills, making learning relevant to the learner). However, the research suggests that Lee has not yet adopted an exclusively communicative-based approach in all his classes. Instead, language form (vocabulary and grammar) and meaning (communication) were both implemented in his context to reflect Lee's personally interpreted philosophy of teaching and learning.

Theme 1. Naturally promoted language skills focusing on language functions

<u>Lee's academic English class</u>

- *Whole English and integrated language skills*

Remarkably, Lee was the only teacher to utilize whole language, in class, among all four teachers in this study (n=40, 100% of class time). Lee presented authentic language use to students, and naturally students engaged in real communication with Lee using a variety of authentic functions. The tasks gave students an opportunity to listen in a target language with a purpose, and they showed enthusiasm for the topic. One skill could not be performed, without the other language skills for communication. A student was not likely to respond orally if the student did not understand what the teacher relayed to him. Thus, Lee spoke English as a means of instruction, and the crucial aim of the whole language experience was to train the students for communicative competence. Students were active during a communicative exercise, and they did a lot of speaking, which was not seen in other traditional teachers' classes. Lee's topics were aimed to help students relate classroom learning to real situations in English.

Table 8-2 Map of Lee's academic English teaching – whole language and integrated skills

Lee begins class:	T: Starting from here.
Lee demonstrates.	T: Confidence, confidence, confidence.
Assigns student to read vocabulary aloud:	Tim: Confidence.
Lee reinforces.	T: Again.
Student reads again.	Tim: Confidence.
Lee invites more responses.	T: What does confidence mean?
Student interacted.	S6: You are brave…
Lee covers problem vocabulary:	T: You are sure of something…You are certain…When you are confident, your attitude will be different.…On the contrary… I'm not confident not sure of something…
Lee introduces next word:	T: This is "cautious" here, cautious, cautious, cautious.
Student repeated.	Students repeated "cautious, cautious, cautious".
Assigns the students.	T: OK. Shu, Can you add more words? …
Student answered.	Shu: Careful … aware.
Invites responses.	T: Ok. Does anyone know how to use the word "cautious?"
Assigns the student.	T: Tony. You can seek help.
Student answered.	Tony: A cautious pilot. He is a safe driver, and that safe means he is cautious. He is a cautious driver…
Further question asked.	T: Does anyone want to rephrase it?

This example of teaching vocabulary in Table 8-2 illustrates that a class was teacher-centred, but Lee also created student-centred learning, giving opportunities for students to share knowledge. In the beginning of teaching a word, Lee traditionally repeated the vocabulary (8 times in two words), and would like students to add synonym (3 items: brave, careful, aware). The teacher or student covered the detailed explanations with maximal length, using English (1 item defined by Lee, the other by a

student). On most occasions they uttered several sentences, to demonstrate ways to use the new words. Lee attempted to furnish a second language learning environment, through whole language, and to integrate skills for the desire of authentic communication.

Drawing on Lee's act of teaching vocabulary, the evidence shows Lee focused on students' word expansion, when he taught e.g., confidence, cautious. He gave definitions in English for all items, and he gave examples of using these words appropriately (n=2, 100%). These explanations were almost always, followed by the referential question "What does 'confidence' mean?" "Can you add more words?" and "Does any one know how to use the word 'cautious'"? (3 occurrences), to establish communication, with an expectation of a response from the students. Students responding time was rather lengthy, and the feedback move that followed was clarification questions, asked with an intent of initiating further communication.

Apparently, Lee's learners were rather active in the learning process, as can be seen in the types of activities Lee carried out, which were toward a student-centered approach, in which students influence the learning content, topics, tasks, and pace of learning. The evidence, from a communicative vocabulary teaching class, shows that students were observed as independent thinkers, whose learning was a direct result of active learning experience that encouraged their retention of knowledge and produced utterances based on creative thinking. In an hour of reading class, though Lee covered

ten words, he gave more than half of class time to illustrate, a deeper understanding of language use, such as integrated listening (n=35, 70% of class time), speaking (n=10, 25%), and reading (n=5, 5%) activities in learning whole English usage.

- *Focusing on the unconscious development of communication rather than accuracy*

Another characteristic of Lee's practice was to provide students with opportunities to be effective communicators in using a second language. Lee moved away from the behaviourist approaches favoured by some of his colleagues, referring to the unconscious development of the target language system as a result of using the language for real communication. Often, when students were taught English vocabulary, Lee would create an authentic setting, to let students experience how a language was used appropriately. Students would be able to produce the actual language to accomplish the task. This utilization of communicative teaching has reflected his argument that grammar teaching alone is not enough for students to use a foreign language naturally. Thus, a notional-functional syllabus was organized and enacted in class. The notional refers to meaning and the functional refers to communication. That is, students must use language, to fulfil a purpose, as a language function. An utterance is no longer limited to the grammatical form, but for communicative purpose. Based on this concept of structured teaching, Lee's pedagogical focus became less about form and more the meaning of an utterance. Their learning became more meaningful through making more contextualised utterances.

It is a good method to assess the teaching of language form, by the number of occurrences (e.g., how many words have been taught, spelt, pronounced), but it is proper to check the teaching of language function (communication) by the amount of interpersonal exchanges (e.g., talking time). In Lee's class, it can be seen, that spoken form precedes written text (n=25, 62.5% of all class time). Lee demonstrated the pronunciation first, then he attempted to present new words in context. This would allow students to recognize both forms and to notice irregularities in correspondences between spelling and utterance. You will also notice that Lee gave students fewer vocabulary items than other traditional English teachers, but he used a greater amount of time using examples to define, to illustrate, and to practice. Students might use synonyms, antonyms, lexical features to enrich their vocabulary learning (n=15, 37.5%). The teacher focused on the situations where the word is used. Lee activated communication strategies to enhance students' participation in tasks. There are examples of communicative strategies, as initiation and feedback in Lee's teaching and in discourse aspects such as opening, linking and responding. For instance, Lee frequently said "It is someone's turn?; Give me the synonym; So, you mean …; Give me an example; Does anyone…?; Exactly; Sorry, pardon me." The attention was given, to see how students learned language function in terms of appropriateness rather than accuracy or correctness. Table 8-3 demonstrates the use of functional language for communicative purposes.

Table 8-3 Content in Lee's academic class

Lang. content / Academic Class	Language Form	Language Function
Time on task (percentage)	10 mins./40 mins. (25%)	30 mins. /40 mins. (75%)

This was consistent in the interview data with Lee on April 2010, shown in the interview transcripts when he replied, "less is more … prioritize communicative competence". This belief statement seemed to capture the situation evidenced by the observational data shown in examples of communicative vocabulary teaching. A large amount of time, was given to students' creative thinking about language in use, or Lee demonstrated where the word is used differently. Lee' argument was that students are subconsciously learning a foreign language through whole language and communicative tasks.

Lee's exam lessons (ECL and TOEFL)

Since characteristics of teaching exam classes were rather similar, I combined both ECL and TOEFL lessons for the discussion.

● *Whole English and integrated language skills*

In the ECL lesson, Lee refused to use past test items in teaching and he did not like message-transmitted teaching either. As shown in the data, Lee's practice assured that students' competence, resided within integrated communication modes. Lee utilized

whole language to provide more opportunities for students to understand spoken English (ECL: n=40, 100% of class time; TOEFL: n=50, 100% of class time). The examples to facilitate students to process learning experiences when practicing integrated skills are illustrative in ECL lessons, which were mapped in Table 8-4:

Table 8-4 Map of Lee's ECL teaching – Whole language and integrated skills

Lee explains the themes in L2.	T: I have classified the themes in ECL and most of these are topics that we use daily …
Students are divided into groups and do group work.	Each group will be about 5 people. Then, you have to give a presentation …
Lee gives a communicative task.	T: Now each group has to find out the military word, as much as possible, in 10 minutes. Write down your words on the sheet, and present later.
Student presents	Group 1: As you can see … we can only figure out these military terms. This is *cadet* that means 軍校生. This is *commander* 指揮官… For example, "*The cadet has to report the commandant at 1:15*". In the military, when we tell the time we use 24 hours. 1 pm is 13 hour, 2 pm is 14 hour, and so on. Therefore, 1:15 is 1315.
Lee gives feedback.	T: Very good, you have found so many words, you can use in your daily life in the Academy. However, I suggest that you should classify the words into different groups, such as military weapons, military missions, or military personnel. Good, next group. Are you ready to present?

The lesson featured integrated language skills designed to enhance students' abilities to understand and produce conversation in a military environment. Students were given extensive practice in using relevant vocabulary in topics, in listening, and speaking strategies focusing on English communication. The ECL lesson was to work on themes, based on textbooks of American Language Courses, written by the U.S. DLI. In an attempt to offer survival needs for students, the emphasis on oral proficiency became necessary. Map of Lee's ECL teaching indicated Lee introduced the task by encouraging students to think critically using a military vocabulary. Given themes for discussion, students were divided into groups, and worked on communicative tasks. Once students finished the discussion, each group presented their work. This combination of the group's efforts gave significance to the discussion. It can be said this task was an attempt to highlight the importance of integrating the four language skills. They were the major components in the language learning process. Even in the courses labeled as "ECL test preparation," the listening-speaking connective skills proved to be advantageous. Students', taking turns would take advantage of others' presentations to practice their speaking in a meaningful communicative context.

In the TOEFL lesson, Lee also utilized the teaching of language functions, through the focus of communicative process embedded in his experiential teaching. More L2 utterances were sustained by students, after Lee instructed relevant skills together. Here is a typical example, based on the whole language and integrated skills to show

that Lee attempted to focus on communicative purposes to make language learning easier.

So, in this class, I will speak English all the time, and I hope you speak to me in English too … TOEFL is difficult because it needs to integrate with other skills … I want you to listen to a story, and you draw a picture. Later, (you) tell me what you drew.

In teaching TOEFL, much of the time was devoted to the development of integral language skills. The data shows students had to communicate with the teacher to understand Lee's interesting task. The procedures of group work were typical of lessons. One important characteristic of discussions, was the change to more turn-taking by students, to turns by the teacher, to more clarification of turn-taking for comprehension. With this change, classroom communication, with listening-speaking mode between teacher-student talking became more realistic – not a large group of students merely sitting and listening. Here are examples of more student talk.

S1: "It's interesting, but my drawing is not good".
S2: "What? Sky? How do you draw the sky"?
S3:"The sun and what"?
S4:"Where is this location"?
S5:"I have two horses … lots of flowers in my pictures … one storm in my drawing".
S6: "What does the ladder represent"?
S7: "What are they"?

The data indicates that students' utterances were longer instances (ECL: n=25, 62.5% of class time; TOEFL: n=40, 80% of class time) and students' turn-taking has been increased (ECL: n= 11 of student taking moves; TOEFL: n=19 of student taking

moves). Instead of the teacher talking, there were turns, in which, students actively asked without nomination.

- *Focusing on the unconscious development of communication rather than accuracy*

In Lee's test preparation lessons, students' communicativeness was the norm. Students took advantage of interactive tasks and addressing each other and the teacher directly. When students dealt with real situations for communication, Lee temporarily ignored errors of utterances to maximize students' talking. The correct language use was presented to students after students contributed to the richness of topics. Based on the tasks that students are likely to encounter in real life, communicative teaching to fit students' desire to use meanings mushroomed in Lee's classes. Using the communicative tasks, Lee's role was that of an organizer who guided classroom procedures and activities to match students' language abilities. Lee also had to be an expert who could contribute personal experience, knowledge, and ability to support students. Another main role of Lee was as a referee, to judge student performance in competition, during various tasks. Readers can refer to Table 8-5 and 8-6 illustrating group work for development of communication.

Table 8-5 Participant organization in Lee's ECL and TOEFL class

Activities class	T→S/C	Group work
Time on task (percentage) ECL	15 mins./40 mins (37.5%)	25 mins./40 mins. (62.5%)
Time on task (percentage) TOEFL	10 mins./50 mins (20%)	40 mins./50 mins. (80%)

Table 8-6 Content in Lee's ECL and TOEFL class

Lang. content Class	Language Form	Language Function
ECL: Time on Task (percentage)	5 mins./40 mins. (12.5%)	35 mins./40 mins. (87.5%)
TOEFL: Time on Task (percentage)	5 mins./50 mins. (10%)	45 mins./50 mins. (90%)

Comparing Lee's academic English, ECL, and TOEFL (content)

In terms of content, there are many similarities and differences between Lee's academic English class (non-exam based) and ECL/TOEFL class (exam-based). These similarities and differences are shown in Table 8-7.

Table 8-7 Similarities and differences in content

	Lee's academic English class / ECL / TOEFL class
Similarities	● Utilization of communicative practice ● Longer utterances from students ● Whole language usage ● Integrated skills
Differences	● More repetition of vocabulary in academic lesson ● More student taking turns in TOEFL lesson ● Some students did not participate in group discussion

As can be seen, the shift away from teacher control has eliminated the lengthy lecture. The three classes show evidence, of a highly innovative teaching approach, with utilization of communicative practice. The majority of time spent was devoted to students producing utterances in-group work as a primary practice. This kind of practice resulted in increased students' utterances, since most of time Lee integrated speaking and listening skills in class. Nevertheless, there are differences between non-exam and exam-oriented classes. Non-exam oriented classes introduced intermediate academic English vocabulary. To deal with norm-referenced ECL tests, Lee however had to expand military vocabulary in the ECL class. In the TOEFL lesson, when Lee required individual work on drawing, he had more responses from students telling about the story content.

To sum up, Lee utilized the philosophy of communicative teaching methods that derived from his prior overseas learning experience. In line with what he was taught in the U.S. DLI, Lee's pedagogical decisions reflected the features of task-based and student-centered teaching as integrated learning. Lee overwhelmingly sustained his teaching with whole language to offer opportunities for students in language use.

Theme 2. Student engagement, creating higher student motivation, in learning.

<u>*Lee's academic English class*</u>

● *Employing topics and real life situations for motivation of students*

Lee frequently set up several real life situations, to explain topics, and vocabulary that students were likely to encounter, and they might have prior knowledge and experience of these situations. Unlike the grammar-translation method of language teaching, which emphasizes memorization and repetition, Lee's communicative practice made students think of the outcome of communicative tasks, which varied according to their participation and responses. The classroom, as a communicative environment allowed for students' cognitive differences in providing varied learning. Communicative teaching was the catalyst for the engagement of students in learning within the classroom. Various stimuli were employed for such two-way communicative purpose between various students. They were encouraged to participate in communication, rather than just repetitively memorize words, and phrases. The results indicated that various topics have been found to enhance students' motivation, in Lee's reading class shown in Table 8-8.

Table 8-8 Map of Reading class's Initiation – Response – Feedback

Lee gives a topic to initiate a response. .	T: Any one wants to rephrase the word "accurate"?
Student responds.	Tony: Accurate means exactly right.
Lee gives feedback and initiates further response.	T: Good…exactly right…give me an example…
Student responds.	Tony: …accurate for…
Lee gives feedback and initiates more responses.	T: In this passage, we have a new word "accurate" and what does "accurate" mean? Anyone play basketball?
More students respond.	Students: Yes
Lee gives feedback and initiates language use in real life.	T: Ohh, one, two, three, four, five. OK. Jimmy, what is "accurate" in basketball?
Student responds.	Jimmy: I shoot goal…
Lee gives feedback with many examples of language in use in students' real life.	Lee: Yes, you shoot and get a point. It is to score. You are an accurate shooter. You point to bull eye. This is a bull eye. In the center? Got it? For example, Jason plays ball, and Jenny says he is accurate, because he, almost always, hits the hoop, as is his habit. It is exact, exact, exact.

This example illustrates Lee initiated students' responses four times and he led students to think critically, developing, understanding and learning a topic. Students in class learned vocabulary from general definitions of the appropriate language use. For example, Tony knew the definition of a word, but he did not know how to use this word in situations, in his real life. Thus, Lee gave directions for students to think how the word "accurate" should be used in basketball that is a popular game for all students. The basketball topic effectively initiated more students' responses. This student-centered approach, required participation and involvement in the process of learning, and Lee employed different questions to initiate students' critical thinking.

The taxonomy of question types utilized by Lee is shown in Table 8-9 below. Within an innovative English reading lesson for communicative purposes, a total of 19 teacher's questions were asked by Lee including 13 counts of referential questions (68%) introduced by Lee to initiate students' responses for communicative purposes. Lee initiated questions as a negotiator to elicit students to say something.

Table 8-9 Lee's academic teaching – taxonomy of question types

Referential question 13 (68%)	T: Where is it located? T: What is "accurate" in basketball? T: Does anyone play basketball? T: What does confidence mean?
Comprehension check 6 (32%)	T: Understand? T: Right? T: Do you have any questions?

Lee's ECL lesson and TOEFL lesson

● *Employing topics and real life situations for the motivation of students*

The contextualized topics, which they found genuinely interesting and relevant, increased their motivation in learning. The results indicated that higher learning motivation has been found in Lee's test preparation classes shown in Table 8-10.

Table 8-10 Map of exam class's Initiation – Response – Feedback illustrating motivation

1. ECL Class

Lee initiates.	T: Pierce means go through…some people have piercings in their ears, in their eyes, and even in their noses (gestured).
Students participate. A student responds with a further question.	Students laugh. S1: Which part is hurt?
Lee gives feedback.	T: I don't know. I haven't done it yet, because I am an instructor in the air force.
Students respond.	Students laugh.
Lee initiates.	T: In some areas, people have different cultures. You know, beautiful girls have to put rings around their necks, so their necks are longer and longer. Also, in Peru… is it in central or south America?
Student responds.	S2: In South America.

2. TOEFL Class

Lee designs a task and initiates group presentation.	T: Group 1 please tells me your rationale. Why do you think you are correct?
Student gives presentation.	Group 1: The first sentence should be "There are four seasons in Taiwan". Second, "They are spring, summer, fall, and winter". Third sentence is "My favorite season is fall". Then "Leaves begin to turn red, and the view is so beautiful." "Therefore, my favorite season is fall," is the last sentence.
Lee initiates different opinions.	T: Group 4. Do you have different answers? Show us.
Student gives presentation.	Group 4: Ours (answers) is, "There are four seasons in Taiwan. My favorite season is fall. Leaves begin to turn red and view is so beautiful. They are spring, summer, fall, and winter. Therefore, my favorite season is fall".
Lee initiates more responses.	T: How many groups agree with Group 1 or 4? Raise your hand.
Other groups respond.	(Most groups agree with Group 1.)
Lee gives feedback.	T: The topic is the main sentence to tell the readers the focus of this passage. Therefore, you can see this short passage is talking about the seasons. More specifically, it is talking about author's favorite season and follows some supporting sentences to explain why.

There were very clear patterns in the IRF sequence, with regard to the type of questions asked, by the teacher and his feedback methods in exam-oriented class. Lee initiated the communication with examples from around the world to draw students' attention. He utilized questioning to engage his students in thinking and

responding that enables the construction of language acquisition. In TOEFL class, Lee designed a group discussion and he required a group presentation. The group students presented their decisions. For example, students showed the correct orders of an article they considered. Lee did not give the answer immediately but he invited different responses for their critical thinking. Thus, students' motivation has been enhanced with such authentic topics. Interactions have proved to be relatively higher, in both ECL test preparation and TOEFL iBT test preparation, based on the use of the communicative processes, such as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction.

- *Task-based teaching through pair and group work*

Task-based teaching allowed students to develop their comprehension abilities through the exchange of information and collaborative problem-solving tasks. According to Lee, levels of proficiency were defined as communicative competence, rather than a set of linguistic specifications. Lee argued that students might quickly learn lexical forms, but they do not understand the precise meaning and appropriacy. Most his students' use of words has been non-native, like the use for long periods. Therefore, Lee's practice showed that he believed that language could be acquired subconsciously through communicative tasks using individual's cognitive rules and principles. The process of language learning was based on task-completion in pairs or groups. Very often Lee's test preparation classes were begun with pre-tasks in the whole class format. Lee explained and demonstrated the task, and later students worked on it. Upon task

accomplishment, Lee asked for students' presentation and followed with some comments.

It should be noted that the amount of teacher's questions, were much less in task-based teaching than teacher-centred teaching. Most of class time was given to pair or group work to deal with the challenging task. The research found that Table 8-11 showed wh-questions were most frequently employed by Lee, as referential questions showing 9 (82%) examples in TOEFL class and 15 (75%) examples in ECL class. Referential questions have been asked by Lee, to elicit students' opinions. As a result, another significant finding, in student-centred utterance device, is that Lee hardly utilized display questions, asking and answering by himself in teaching.

Table 8-11 Lee's question types in exam-oriented lessons

Question Type	ECL class (27 mins)	TOEFL class (42 mins)
Comprehension	2 (18%)	5 (25%)
Clarification request	0	0
Confirmation	0	0
Referential	7 (64%)	11 (55%)
Display	2 (18%)	1 (5%)
Expressive	0	0
Rhetorical	0	3 (15%)
(Total)	11+20=31	

Comparing Lee's academic English, ECL, and TOEFL class (students' motivation)

To sum up in Table 8-12, students' motivations and engagement could be

improved through critical thinking activities that require students' active analysis. Lee often gave several examples of language in use so that students learned how to use the words in terms of appropriacy, for social situations. Topics based on students' real life, could successfully draw their attention to the process of learning. However, it is also found, that pair and group work were used in ECL and TOEFL lessons, but Lee did not apply it in teaching vocabulary. Perhaps Lee might find out that some students did not participate in group work. Furthermore, the data shows that the story-telling task, for individual's drawing, enhanced more students' responses than other group activities. Given an opportunity, for every student to participate in an interesting topic, is therefore important in teaching, according to Lee's teaching methods.

Table 8-12 Similarities and differences in teaching (students' motivation)

	Lee's academic English / ECL / TOEFL class
Similarities	- Learning from critical thinking and higher-order cognitive - Social aspects of the word - Contextualized - Giving communicative teaching to enhance motivation
Differences	- Group task not applied to vocabulary teaching - Individual task-based teaching enhancing more students' participation than task-based group work

Theme 3. Adapting prescribed school curriculum to performance rather than test-taking

Lee's academic English lesson

- *Adapting prescribed school curriculum*

Typically, an emphasis of the Institute's curriculum was assessment attainment-oriented to lead teachers and students to teach towards the exams. However, Lee diverted such a pre-determined route, with its overuse of past tests, and adapted English programs towards a communicative methodology. Student involved teaching and learning processes were the most important in Lee's curriculum. To Lee, learning language successfully is based on the ability to communicate real meaning. He believed when students are involved in real-life, written or spoken communication, their language acquisition will be strategic, but not mechanical. With a purpose of obtaining more target repertoire, Lee offered alternative content, underlying communicative knowledge and the abilities to achieve, with various and more variable content.

- *Extensive input*

For students' interests a wide range of media was provided. All teaching materials were authentic text-types, on this basis of real language use. Students are expected, to use English, in an appropriate medium. For instance, texts were read, and spoken ones were listened to. An individual student was able to create his own language, using a natural learning environment, based on extensive input, from different materials. When this case study was conducted in 2009, Lee's teaching materials were not ECL past tests but he used *Vocabulary 504,* which focused on advanced vocabulary and

American Language Courses, which include a variety of topics. Lee, aiming at improving integral language skills in English, developed new courses.

<u>*Lee's ECL lesson and TOEFL lesson*</u>

● *Adapting the prescribed school curriculum*

Despite authority's call for attainment on ECL and TOEFL tests, Lee did not agree with teaching the test and turned his attention to student performance with a broad range of outcomes. His belief is that when students are equipped with fundamental competence, the scores rise. Teaching the test was not an option to Lee. Unlike the majority of teachers, Lee viewed that drilling on test content will inflate the score but not foster the ability. He taught important skills not covered by the test. The primary teaching materials were American Language Courses and other authentic materials. Apparently, the curriculum was proficiency-based, to develop four communication modes, including speaking, listening, reading, and writing.

The evidence of classroom observations shows that listening, speaking and reading were the primary skill goals when Lee was observed. In his approach, language skills were integrated. For example, to develop listening skills generally students listened to the whole language, and express their opinions, and subsequently read the textbook. Readers please refer to Table 8-13 for more details.

Table 8-13 Student modality

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Academic	35/50 (70%)	10/50 (20%)	5/50 (10%)	0/50
ECL	22/40 (55%)	10/40 (25%)	8/40 (20%)	0/40
TOEFL	21/50 (42%)	8/50 (16%)	4/50 (8%)	17/50(34%)

● *Extensive input*

Lee's communicative practice encompassed eclectic forms of input in order to elicit

extensive output. No matter what kinds of test students must cope with, it is necessary

to provide sufficient target language in different forms. Therefore, they expect to learn

what written and spoken texts will be taught to students. For instance, speaking and

listening are taught at the same time to foster fluency and specific proficiency. Released

past tests were no longer taught by Lee, and he would rather teach an intended

curriculum, such as American Language Courses and various topics as extensive input

with authentic materials to offer maximal text input and broader topics. Curriculum

changes (refer to Table 8-14 for the use of broad topics) were observed in Lee's normal

teaching, which utilized various materials for communicative purposes. Nevertheless,

Lee was also concerned about the balance between authentic communication and

instruction. Therefore, there were many typical behaviors found to include, error

correction, simplified input, and a limited range of textbook content as narrow topics.

Table 8-14 Content about topics

Topics / Class	Narrow Topics	Broad Topics
Time on task (percentage) Academic	10/50 (20%)	40/50 (80%)
Time on task (percentage) ECL	5/40 (12.5%)	35/40 (87.5%)
Time on task (percentage) TOEFL	10/50(20%)	40/50 (80%)

Comparing Lee's academic English, ECL and TOEFL class (An enacting curriculum)

Table 8-15 showed that negative washback effect, such as narrowing curriculum

and teaching to the test, did not appear in Lee's practice. Whole language and integral

skills were taught in his academic reading class and ECL listening class. Lee was giving

opportunities to deal with the difficulties that students might encounter to communicate

in a foreign language. Thus, the ECL has not produced immediate washback on Lee's

teaching. Furthermore, more communicative tasks, to maximize the number of students,

to speak in TEOFL class were designed by Lee. However, even though Lee tried to

involve all students in the classroom discourse, factors like student motivation in

learning and their personalities in the groups played an important role in activities,

which require lots of participation and engagement. Lee's communicative teaching

would not be able to continue, if students were not interested in the ways of learning he

set up in the classroom. Meanwhile, there was almost no difference in Lee's practice

between TOEFL and ECL courses to enhance students' communicative competence

that is rooted in Lee's beliefs. Thus, beyond washback it is likely other factors, such as

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teacher's beliefs, and students', factors in the contexts to mediate practices.

Table 8-15 Similarities and differences in teaching (an enacting curriculum)

	Lee's academic English / ECL / TOEFL class
Similarities	• Focused on meaning and situations similar to authentic settings • Broader curriculum
Differences	• All integral skills included, except writing • More communicative tasks used for TOEFL test

8.2.2 Teacher interview data

Lee's beliefs towards teaching and learning English, which have strongly mediated his practice in classroom, are as follows: (a) Less is more. (b) Intensive learning. (c) Language use instead of teaching the test.

Less is more

Learning experience has told him "less is more", which means it is not a good way to memorize an extremely large amount of vocabulary everyday, but focus on few words and know how to use them thoroughly (Lee's interview on Dec. 22, 2009). Lee saw some students memorize the words in the dictionary. He felt that was futile to have a great deal of vocabulary but not know how to use them appropriately. He considered the thorough teaching of new words, he was able to speak, listen, read and write. As can be seen in his vocabulary lesson, Lee introduced twelve words each time, but he employed activities to teach pronunciation, examples of language use, practices of using new words, and understanding checks. Handing out considerable vocabulary for students to

memorize was not Lee's choice, he thought differently, requiring his students to practice the new words meaningfully and correctly. Thus, Lee's activities often included authentic materials to show how the words are used in different genres such as poetry, novels, blogs, or emails. In his belief, he considered that a word has its literal and social meanings, which are what students should learn and how to use them.

Intensive learning

His second belief is "intensive language learning was the key for the success of a second or foreign language acquisition". Lee strongly believed it was necessary to arrange the courses every day, in order for quick progress. According to Lee's experience, the achievement gap could be narrowed through an effective teaching program. In school, 2 or 4 hours a week in learning English were not enough and not significant, according to Lee. Lee's effective English language learning came from his earlier success, which has influenced his beliefs concerning establishing more intensive training for his students.

> Students need the intensive programs with 6 hours a day, so they can develop 4 skills. It is impossible, for the academic terms, to develop 4 skills if there are only 2 hours a week in the learning process.

> The intensive English training contributed to my rapid progress, six days a week during training. Achieving another higher level, I scored the highest points in my class. With excellent performance, I applied to become an English instructor at the Institute with a great success. English is my spirit food that I need daily ….
> (Interviewed with Lee on Nov. 13, 2009)

Lee therefore taught all levels of students, with intensive curricula and programs. As the director of the English teaching center, he also demanded and collaborated with his colleagues to intensively teach more programs aimed to enhance students' language proficiency. At the Institute, "Intensive Curricula to Success" was an effort by Lee's ELT centre to encourage students to achieve goals through determined learning programs they were assigned. Disadvantaged students went to the either At-risk students' remedial programs or Lower level students' cramming programs. Top achieving students were grouped in an advanced students' intensive program. Lee taught English for students in the intensive programs, and had to track students' progress and help students stay on course. "With setting similar goals for learning, students are comfortable and keep learning in the classroom from morning to evening for months," Lee noted. To close the achievement gap, Lee wanted his students trained in different intensive language programs, which helped students demonstrate mastery at certain levels before going to the next level, to the top.

Language use instead of teaching the test

In Lee's beliefs, English teaching should be "enjoyable" and "useful" for students. It is necessary to use interesting topics to motivate students' learning. Lee decided to use ALC textbooks in his teaching. He warned that teaching should not just focus on ECL test items. Other materials will benefit ECL scoring. Meanwhile, Lee has tried to use the whole English so that students are exposed to an English environment. He had

confidence both in the quality of the exams and of his own asserting that: "the exams align to my teaching, but not my teaching, aligning to the exams." Regarding attitudes about English teaching, Lee believed that communicative tasks and students-centered teaching are necessary for active learning behaviors.

> Grammar is not my priority.   ALC integrate skills, the traditional teaching focused on grammar, are not good if students loose motivation. My teaching is overwhelming using interactions. Students learn effectively through language use and communication. Sometimes I require students to memorize, but vocabulary only. I require my students to memorize meanings in English. Mistakes in language use are tolerated in classes. I use student-centered curriculum. My students actively participate in tasks. My students are active learners because they passed the entry test. They know what they need in English.

> Do not use mock tests. I encourage students to develop all four skills. I give a quiz weekly. In classes students are required to read aloud and they have to speak the target language.

> Test scores do not mean everything. I oversee students' effort and progress…Teaching the test will bore our students. The purpose of my teaching is not to teach the test.

Apparently, Lee argued washback and teaching the test will lose the students interest in learning. He believed communicative teaching can promote learners' motivation, through interactive tasks in natural settings. He also believed he has to balance his teaching with traditional teaching so that students have linguistic knowledge. Furthermore, the validity of the test is susceptible and therefore Lee focused on monitoring students' performance in the process of learning.

8.3 Within case analysis

8.3.1 Impact of washback

At the Institute, ECL and TOEFL tests are the most important English tests for their students. Over the past decades, the U.S. DLI has administrated the ECL tests to evaluate candidates' achievement on using English in military contexts. The result of ECL used, as a basis to decide the candidates' English qualification, to join US military training. Similarly, US Educational Testing Service (ETS) has designed the new integrative-based TOEFL iBT, which is the most widely respected English-language test in the world, being recognized by more than 8,000 colleges. Although, as I suggested above Lee's principles have not been eroded by washback, but as high-stakes tests the ECL test and the TOEFL test have caused various washback effects on Lee's practice. Whether and how washback mediates Lee's practice in the classroom is discussed in terms of attainment targets and course objectives, content, methodology, and competence.

According to the ECL test, candidates are required to listen attentively and to read independently for comprehension. Students are expected to achieve minimum standards in the ECL. These goals were set up for the attainment targets at Lee's school and Lee realized his students expect to pass this examination. Lee's Interview on Dec. 22, 2009, indicated,

> ECL is essential for all military officers. Candidates must pass ECL requirements
> for the entry to advance military education. Our trainees are expected to be in

readiness for overseas training. They must pass the ECL exam held by AIT (American Institute in Taiwan). We are here to help them to pass the exams. Our primary job therefore is to prepare our students to learn ECL.

Lee acknowledged that his job was to plan lessons to help students. His reading class should be affected by washback of the ECL if his reading and listening course objectives were acquisition of basic vocabulary and military terminology. Students therefore could deal with ECL test items in the reading section. However, Lee's course objectives in his ECL test preparation class exceeded the instrumental strategies for coping with reading, listening, speaking and writing test items. Moreover, his reading objectives exceeded basic linguistic form and military terminology, to develop reading strategies such as understanding text, reading for information, and language structure and variety. Likewise, Lee's listening course objectives were beyond ECL requirements, to understand the key words, but higher standards such as effective integrated skill use instead.

Regarding TOEFL iBT, Lee expanded a reading course to a course with integrated skills. The new TOEFL test preparation program directed by Lee was based on the theoretical measurement of integrated responses. The combination of Internet access and integrated responses has allowed the TOEFL iBT to measure each test-taker's proficiency in all language skills. Nevertheless, far before ETS reforming TOEFL, Lee had taught English in an integrative method for language use in a natural setting. When the teacher-centered approach dominated in English teaching, Lee saw the value of

student-centered used by communicative teaching as an innovative training focusing on balancing capacity. Therefore, whether TOEFL iBT has affected Lee, is not ascertained, but what I can ascertain is that it can be seen in all Lee's classes, with the philosophy of teaching given higher standards in each language skill, integration and learner autonomy as course objectives.

Lee resisted the practice of teaching the ECL test. The evidence showed that fulfillment of class teaching the tested content, has been greatly minimized in Lee's classes. Lee's third Interview on Jan. 20, 2010.

> I don't like mechanical practices, taking ECL tests again and again. I don't use tasks to focus on ECL, but I carefully follow the ALC materials. I try to improve students' vocabulary, pronunciation, reading, listening, and speaking. My teaching goes beyond the ECL test. So, my teaching is practical.

Thus, the content washback has not led Lee's materials to the format of the ECL test. Instead, Lee employed extra materials, such as magazines and authentic recordings. Likewise, in TOEFL iBT class, Lee, in his instruction, gave extra materials for learning, which made a test close to language education. Crucially, the development of proficiency that Lee has focused on involved a more complex knowledge contributed to furthering language learning. Lee refused to use commercial TOEFL test preparation publications, and he utilized authentic materials to enhance the interactions between the teacher and students. In other words, the content wasback of TOEFL iBT has not

been fully utilized as it is supposed to be. Lee paid attention to the process of learning for the ECL and TOEFL classes.

8.3.2 Impact of beliefs

Learning experience, in the past, shaped his first belief of "less is more", which opposes the concept of learning via memorization, but he believed focusing on a few words and knowing how to use them thoroughly. His second belief is "intensive language learning was the key for the success of a second or foreign language acquisition". Lee strongly believed, it was necessary to arrange the courses every day in order to get improved progress. At the Institute, "Intensive Curricula to Success" was an effort by Lee's ELT centre to encourage students to achieve goals through determined learning programs they were assigned. Finally, in Lee's beliefs, English teaching should be "enjoyable" and "useful" for students. It is necessary to use interesting topics to motivate students' learning. Lee believed that communicative tasks and students-centered teaching are necessary for active learning behaviors. Lee strongly argued that too much attention to washback and teaching to the test, cause teachers to lose the students interest in learning. He believed in communicative teaching to promote learners' motivation, through interactive tasks in natural settings. He also believed he has to balance his teaching with traditional teaching, so that students obtain linguistic knowledge and highly developed communicative competence. The belief that language use was consistent with Lee's choice of using ALC textbooks,

which consisted of a variety of activities, to develop the skills, and his teaching methods, which were mostly interactive tasks to develop communicative competence for real language use.

8.3.3 Impact of contextual and other factors

Evidence of contextual factors indicated the missions' burden and poor leadership to affect Lee's pedagogy.

Missions' burden

Unlike teachers who are only responsible for teaching at universities, Lee and his military colleagues have to accept lawful orders such as military maneuvers, disaster rescue, and instructional work at his school. Lee's instructional practices have been heavily affected by these military commands, which require him to join the humanitarian rescues, particularly in typhoon- destroyed areas. Lee also has to join military maneuvers every year, to leave for airbases located island wide. Lee argues against the perception of military officers whose duties entail all responsibilities, regardless of their job positions, requiring educational programs to be closed in order to support the military maneuvers or particular tasks which overshadow the importance of the teaching and the opportunities of learning in classroom for students. "The overburdening of teachers with extra military work hindered classroom practices", Lee said. He not only has to deal with more student data and more meetings to discuss the improvement of

the achievement gap, but also has to cover all military commands. "During the maneuvers, I used to be late for preparing creative lessons that I preferred to do. I was exhausted to do double jobs, teaching and maneuvering", said Lee. He and others from his school said military chores and tasks have become too excessive, that instructors have broken down and are discouraged at work. Lee's concern, particularly about requirements to carry out rescue work after typhoons, that he could not fully concentrate on students' individual performances and lesson plans. Some military errands could take 3 to 7 days. Lee recalled the overburden of planning, teaching, reviewing, testing and grading, when he had extra military tasks. Regardless, teachers accountability for results, of student performance, in the Institute has gone too far, and teachers in the school have more workload than they should do. "The same complaints came from other teachers elsewhere in our school", said Lee. It is a national phenomenon and some military colleges have decided to eliminate teachers' duties to join military maneuvers, but like Lee's school context, which are more sophisticated and complex and disturb teachers' practices. Lee insisted "A teachers' job is teaching, and we can't depart from improving student achievement", Lee spoke out.

Interference of school leaders in teaching

The Institute, like most of military college, has both good and poor leadership. As mentioned in the previous chapter, Lee found that good leadership facilitated his teaching. Likewise, Lee as the director of a language centre found that poor leadership

hindered teachers' practices. The unsupportive superintendents even hindered responsible teachers from implementing their lesson planning. In particular, a bureaucratic leadership style has seriously interfered with teachers' implementation of practice. Inappropriate leadership skills often disrupted teachers' classroom. Over the past few years, Lee experienced the disturbing situations, when some top-down superintendents at the Institute wanted to decide the directions of education alone. For instance, higher standards of proficiency were being raised yearly, and the superintendent was the only person held accountable to the DLI. The Institute's superintendents were inevitably turning their attention to student achievement. Often, superintendents, who have been placed in the position greater accountability, became instructional leaders. However, ineffective superintendents never worked cooperatively with teachers and students to enhance teacher teaching and student learning. Teachers' roles and responsibilities were distorted by a superintendent's autarchic governance. Lee said "teachers wished they had a stronger voice in what the Institute's leaders did". Unfortunately, some poor superintendents did not create an environment for learning and growth, and they did not recognize that Lee and other teachers desire achievement and recognition. Under such circumstances, the inappropriate leadership discouraged teachers, to carry out their professions. Teachers' morale disappeared, as the superintendent who was not an educational expert, corrected teacher's in front of students. Teachers lost their confidence in teaching and they protested against the

superintendent. Sometimes, the school policies were beneficial to students, but teachers were left little passion to improve students' performance. Increased tensions between the superintendent and teachers have affected teachers' practices toward progress that can maximize the effectiveness of teaching and learning.

8.4 Conclusions

The findings of this case study dealing with Lee have suggested that teacher beliefs and contextual factors far outweigh washback effects to explain this teacher's classroom practice. Communicative teaching in Lee's classes was related to personal beliefs about teaching and learning, which stressed the importance of integrated skills, communicative competence, and independent and critical thinking ability. Lee strongly disagreed with teaching to the test which usually resulted in narrowing curriculum. The proficiency was Lee's primary concern, and therefore he taught more coverage and content in the textbooks, that have been designed to facilitate students' learning.

In respect to supports, all language programs at the Institute were established with an intensive curriculum to offer English learning daily for students. With sufficient time, Lee was able to teach communicatively with classroom activities, which were considered to be time consuming and impossible to be carried out at other schools. Furthermore, Lee perceived that the school leaders should reduce teachers' burden if they wanted to promote the quality of teaching. Lee raised the problems of extra work

for teachers, and interference of school leaders in teaching, that might influence teachers' decisions-making in teaching. Thus, appropriate supportive administration is needed to enhance the success of classroom practice that has been planned by teachers. Teachers are more willing to adopt new teaching methods when the school's aims are consistent with teachers' teaching goals.

Regarding the use of communicative tasks, Lee's teaching patterns might have come from his previous teacher training that he had taken abroad at the ELT professional centers in the U.S. After returning to Taiwan, Lee demanded his co-workers attend regularly, the ELT teacher training. Lee was highly influenced by his experiences at the DLI, where he learned different teaching and learning theories. This finding is supported by research which they found that teachers who are trained in workshops of English language teaching have confidence in using innovative teaching in the classroom (Shohamy 1996). Teachers perceiving it to be useful for their own progress in teaching planned to extend the communicative approach further in the future for their students' needs.

CHAPTER IX

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents the findings to answers of the three research questions which look at washback effects on classroom practice, identify teachers' beliefs and other contextual factors, and finally discuss the relative weight of tests, teachers' beliefs and other contextual factors resulting in strong or weak washback. In turn, implications and conclusions are drawn on the basis of these empirical findings from observations and interviews.

9.1 Washback effects on EFL practices at Taiwanese Air Force colleges

The findings to answer research question 1. How does washback of ECL (norm-referenced) test and washback from TOEFL iBT (criterion-referenced) test impact on teachers' practices of test preparation courses and academic English teaching at two Taiwanese Air Force colleges?" are shown as follows:

9.1.1 Washback occurs in different ways:

This study found that both ECL and TOEFL tests have generated positive and negative washback effects on teachers' practice. In some cases, more actions have been taken concerning students' attainment than students' learning, whereas in some

cases more principles of constructive learning are adopted than test-oriented teaching.

In Table 9-1, two of the teachers employ more teacher-controlled activities (Tina 100%, Mary 87%), but two of them employed more students-centred activities (Andy 58%, Lee 84%). Tables have been shown to demonstrate episodes of teachers' practice on previous chapters, but tables here are teachers' practice in overall.

Table 9-1 Overall participant organization

Activities Class	T→S/C	Group work	Individual Work
Tina	110mins./110 mins (100%)	(0%)	(0%)
Mary	103mins./119 mins (87%)	(0%)	16 mins./119 mins (13%)
Andy	38 mins./90 mins (42%)	(0%)	52 mins./90 mins (58%)
Lee	23 mins./140 mins (16%)	90 mins./140 mins (64%)	27 mins./140 mins (20%)

Mary and Tina have actually practiced "teaching to the test" or "backward curriculum alignment" to largely focus on the formats of the test for a quick score gain. Tests resulted in a narrowed curriculum to focus on the content and tested skills such as reading and listening, to boost scores. Owing to an excessive use of multiple-choice-questions in the ECL, the pedagogical focus of these traditional teachers was primarily analytic-based to emphasize accuracy including grammatical, phonological and morphological rules and patterns. As Qi (2005) points out, restrictions on test format in a multiple-choice-format have made it impossible for teachers to employ real-world language use.

Rather than giving linguistic practice by rote-learning, the teachers Andy and Lee focused on the importance of participative foreign language learning. A form-function mixed component (Andy 20% vs.80%; Lee 25% vs. 75%) has been the primary focus of innovative pedagogy in which English teaching integrates linguistic knowledge into a communicative approach (See Table 9-2). Andy and Lee applied various instructional strategies to meet students' diverse needs including linguistic ability and communicability. In spite of the pressure of student attainment on pencil-paper English tests, they required students' oral production for the language use through tasks. Test preparation was to work on themes based on a range of media provided for enhancing students' interest.

Table 9-2 Overall content (Form and function)

Lang. content Class	Language Form	Language Function
Tina	73mins./110 mins (66%)	37mins./110 mins (34%)
Mary	105mins./119 mins (88%)	14mins./119 mins (12%)
Andy	18mins./90 mins (20%)	72mins./90 mins (80%)
Lee	35 mins./140 mins. (25%)	105 mins. /140 mins. (75%)

When preparing for the performance-based TOEFL tests for students, Mary continued to employ whole class activities where she was the informant delivering her knowledge by introducing and conducting grammatical tasks and translating texts. During the study, Mary sustained her teaching with more vocabulary teaching and translation. Rather than critical thinking or problem solving the students' learning has

explicitly and overwhelmingly highlighted the verbatim memorization of foreign language texts.

More positive washback effects of TOEFL iBT test occurred in Lee's enacted curriculum. Lee attempted to furnish a second language learning environment through whole language and to integrate all four language skills for the desire of authentic communication (Table 9-3). He was very focused on communicative listening skills including listening for the main ideas and specific information. When students dealt with real situations for communication, Lee temporarily ignored errors of utterances to maximize students' talk. The genuinely interesting and relevant contextualized topics were employed to increase motivation in learning.

It can be seen that washback effects were varied among the participating EFL teachers. A narrowed curriculum, a focus on isolated skills, and overuse of past tests were apparent in Tina's and Mary's classes, while ECL washback initiated intensive and comprehensive curricula, integrated language skills, and communicative tasks in Andy's and Lee's classes. Similarly, washback from the TOEFL iBT test still influenced Mary to teach past test items intensively, while TOEFL iBT encouraged Lee to create more interactive learning activities. The role of Lee was as negotiator and authority to apply these teaching techniques of cooperative language learning to be compatible with students' autonomy in practice. Thus, washback effects were found to be various and not as significant as some educators (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Cheng, 1997, etc.)

assume: both ECL and TOEFL tests in this study did not automatically produce the consistent washback effects. The reason for these various washback effects may rest on the unique characteristics of individual teachers and the tendency of different contextual factors to interplay with one another to influence teachers' practices.

Table 9-3 Overall student modality

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Tina	60/110 (55%)	10/110 (10%)	50/110 (45%)	0
Mary	69/119 (58%)	10/119 (8%)	40/119 (34%)	0
Andy	32/90 (36%)	28/90 (31%)	30/90 (33%)	0
Lee	78/140 (56%)	28/140 (20%)	17/140 (12%)	17/140 (12%)

9.1.2 Washback may affect some teachers than others:

Teaching tasks employed by Tina and Mary were very similar to the characteristics of Chinese traditional 'Feeding-duck' style based on the pervasive cramming of test contents. They conducted lessons in Chinese to explain the texts, and this approach was consistent with their early foreign language learning experience in which their teachers valued learning through translation. A closer analysis via teachers' questions provides more evidence of the traditional grammar-translation approach (See Table 9-4). The taxonomy of question types utilized by Tina includes 52 counts of display (48%) and 47 counts of comprehension check (43%) and by Mary includes 58 (30%) counts of rhetorical and 41 (21%) counts of comprehension check, which are not likely to be communicative (Long and Sato, 1983), since they devoted more than half of their class

time to asking and answering questions they posted.

Table 9-4 Overall teachers' question types

Question Type	Tina	Mary	Andy	Lee
Comprehension	47 (43%)	41 (21%)	18 (19%)	13 (26%)
Referential	4 (4%)	31 (16%)	73 (78%)	31 (62%)
Display	52 (48%)	33 (17%)	0 (0%)	3 (6%)
Expressive	2 (2%)	12 (6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Procedural	0 (0%)	20 (10%)	0 (0%)	3 (6%)
Rhetorical	4 (3%)	58 (30%)	3 (3%)	0 (0%)
(Total)	109	195	94	50

From Table 9-5 Teaching Materials, traditional teachers like Tina and Andy mostly

relied on the contents of textbooks and past test items for teaching, while Andy and Lee

preferred authentic texts (extended texts) for communication. Audio materials were

largely used in listening classes. However, it needs to be pointed out that although Tina

and Mary taught listening skill they actually utilized translation. Techniques of listening

skill were not used such as listening to the gist and listening to the details. These

teachers indeed changed the content, but failed to change the methodology. Thus, as

Cheng (2005) argues the changes produced by tests were seen to be superficial rather

than substantial. This superficial washback means washback may influence what

teachers teach, but not how they teach. It is noteworthy to mention that washback

effects on methodology were weak when teachers accepted the different contents but

rejected new methods. Shih (2010) in Taiwan found that tertiary EFL teachers taught to

the new test but not their teaching methods. Thus, it is evident that washback varies

teacher to teacher, and washback mostly has changed the content but not the methodology. Traditional teachers like Tina and Mary merely employ the grammar-translation method through transmission of essential knowledge for all language skills. Nevertheless, innovative teachers like Andy and Lee employed communicative pedagogy, even when they prepared norm-referenced ECL tests for students. It is evident that Andy and Lee were different from other teachers and it is my interest to understand factors to change teachers' instructional decisions. Thus, in terms of teaching methodology perhaps other factors surrounding teachers are interrelated with teachers' practice, beyond washback.

Table 9-5 Overall teachers' teaching materials

	L2-NNS	L2-NS	Minimal Text	Extend. Text	Audio
Tina	75/110 (68%)	35/110 (32%)	75/110 (68%)	0	35/110 (32%)
Mary	88/119 (74%)	31/119 (26%)	75/119 (63%)	13/119 (11%)	31/119 (26%)
Andy	55/90 (61%)	35/90 (39%)	0	55/90 (61%)	35/90 (39%)
Lee	135/140 (96%)	5/140 (4%)	27/140 (19%)	108/140 (77%)	5/140 (4%)

9.2 Evidence of EFL teachers' beliefs and other factors mediating practices

Research question 2 "To what extent are washback of ECL (norm-referenced) test and washback of TOEFL iBT (criterion-referenced) test moderated by teachers' beliefs and other contextual factors at two Air Force colleges?" is answered as follows:

The findings of a myriad of factors were consistent with Qi's (2005) study underlying theories behind the reform of testing system to argue that factors do not function in isolation. They interplayed with the tests to have an influence on teaching and learning. Tina and Mary held belief systems about the importance of linguistic knowledge, while Andy and Lee insisted on the development of communicative competence. No less important were other contextual factors that connected with stakeholders' expectations about test score attainment, educational policies, the status of a test, leadership, accountability and teacher evaluation, etc. The evidence of teachers' beliefs discovered in open-ended interviews about participants' major beliefs has been summarized in Table 9-6 in reference to the influence on pedagogical decisions.

Table 9-6 Summary of EFL teachers' beliefs

Tina	English learning means knowing language rules English learning means memorization Language learning means learning the test Students are responsible for lacking of language learning.
Mary	Students are responsible for the success of language learning Agreeing with Chinese Feeding-Duck pedagogy focusing on memorization Acknowledging the essential of communicative teaching for life-long learning
Andy	Learning strategies are essential in the process of learning An adult language learner should acquaint well with the grammar of the target language Interactive tasks could help students to deal with the real-world setting as students' needs. Knowledge should be the focus of the teaching, instead of test-taking
Lee	Less is more Intensive learning Language use instead of teaching to the test

Since it is not possible to describe all teachers' beliefs, many significant ideas are

shown to demonstrate the relationship between belief systems and their practices. For instance, the belief "students' needs should be prioritized in teaching (Andy's Interview on Jan. 10, 2010)" led to more fulfillment for students in classes to spark students' interest and motivation. The belief of Andy's "interactive tasks to foster real-life abilities as students' needs" expressed dissatisfaction with the learning of language forms. Though the approach to skills in the ECL test is not integrated, Andy connected the reading skill with speaking and listening in ECL test preparation for the sake of students' needs for communicative competence. In believing in "language use," Lee combined listening, speaking, and writing skills into the teaching of reading. Lee strongly advocated that "teaching and learning should be comprehensive (Lee's follow-up interview on March 29, 2010) and "students familiarize the format of ECL, but their proficiency is not improved (Lee's Interview on Dec. 22, 2009)." The findings from Andy and Lee were consistent the results of TOEFL studies conducted by Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996), Wall and Horak (2006) who have found when teachers were more willing to accept the test, they portrayed a more positive picture of testing. In this study, Lee understood the procedures and rubrics of the new TOEFL, and then he concentrated on communicative tasks. However, the findings of more exam coaching and cramming from Tina and Mary supported the results of Watanabe's (2000) study to indicate the amount of teaching test preparation depending on teachers' attitude.

However, from classroom observations during the academic years 2009-2010, Tina

and Mary narrowly focused on the content and skills tested. There is a whole host of beliefs as to traditional teachers have taught isolated language skills. Mary believes it is impossible to learn all language skills at the same time, so students should only learn the separated singular skill. Mary shared this belief with Tina who was firmly convinced "We don't need to teach all four language skills to students (Mary's Interview on Nov. 23, 2009.)," which has been categorized into the category "Students are responsible for the success of language learning." Mary emphasized her narrow teaching by saying "The students need to continue studying more English skills after they leave the college (Interviewed on Feb. 23, 2010)." With a belief of "language learning means learning a test," Tina's rationale for such isolated teaching includes "scoring on the exams has become the priority in language learning" and "their motivation was not high, and they did not want to study too hard (Interview of Jan. 15, 2010 with Tina)." She faced a lot of pressure to achieve "score gains." As a result, the pedagogy only focused on reading and listening that were tested on the exam. Tina was using word banks and grammar exercises, because she felt "Knowing the rules of that language was the most effective way to learn English (Tina's interview, October 15, 2009.)" This belief amplified the development of students' reading abilities that Tina focused on memorization.

As mentioned at the beginning of this thesis, TOEFL iBT has changed in order to encourage the innovation of English teaching toward integrated skills and communicative ability. However, with their rooted beliefs about memorization as the

most effective way for learning, Tina and Mary both provided extended test questions

for memorization and seemed not to concern themselves with teaching skills usable in

real-life situations. The beliefs from a traditional teacher also indicated the lack of

knowledge about teaching methods. Tina did not sufficiently understand communicative

teaching: "Student-centred approach? Yes, I stand in the centre of the students." Hence,

the goals of communicative teaching are remote if the implementation of this new

method is expected of teachers who lack proper understanding and ability. Regarding

other contextual factors, the findings including leadership styles, in-service teacher

professional development, learning materials and resources, time allocation, large class

size, teacher employment contracts, teacher evaluation, extra burden, and Chinese

educational culture were found in this study and will be discussed in the following

section together with teachers and tests for mutual relations which resulted in strong or

weak washback effects.

9.3 Discussions – Relative weights of tests, teachers' beliefs and other contextual factors resulting in strong or weak washback

Using a test as a catalyst for the changes is still a widespread concept in education

(Cheng & Curtis, 2004). Intentions of test constructors expect a promotion of real

language use in testing systems whereas intended effects are limited in some situations.

In this study, I have sought to identify what I perceived as being the main factors that

influence teachers' practice and in turn mutually interact with washback effects. The

discussions consist of four components to answer Research question 3 "What is the

interactive relationship between tests (e.g., norm-referenced ECL, criterion-referenced TOEFL iBT) and mediating factors (e.g., teachers' beliefs, contextual factors) resulting in low or high intensity of washback effects at two Air Force colleges?" to illustrate the comparative individuals and contexts to cause the multi-facets and multi-forces of the washback in the classroom. Exhibiting various washback intensities, the discussions highlight the interactive relationship between teachers' instructional decision-making and complicating factors in four contexts. Whereas, many previous studies have behaved as if what happens in the classroom is only and directly affected by the test content and format (Wiseman, 1961; Davies, 1968; Morris, 1985; Madaus, 1988; Frederiksen and Collins, 1989), I would suggest that the relationships are more complex.

Moreover, as has been noted in recent investigations conducted by cognitive psychologists (e.g., Borg, 2001; Donaghue, 2003; Lamb, 1995; Munby, 1982; Peacock, 1998, 2001; Urmston, 2003) and applied linguists (e.g., Alderson & Wall, 1993; Burrows, 2004; Shih, 2009; Watanabe, 2004), teachers' beliefs in the association of their contexts interplay with tests to determine teachers' practice. Models of washback constructed by Bailey (1996), Cheng (1999), Green (2007), and Wall (2000) drew a similar conclusion in an extensive review of washback studies that a test was not sufficient to interpret the complexity of washback.

These four situations arising from the findings illustrate the process of educational

reform from a traditional paradigm to a communicative paradigm practicing by two types of teachers who either accept the change or do not accept the change. In reality, the dilemmas or alignments between a test and an individual teacher have resulted in different washback effects on different teachers at different schools. Such washback not only evolved over time but also was affected by factors at different levels and dimensions emerging from the data I collected. Therefore, the question perhaps is no longer whether washback exists or not, instead I am asking a deeper question about why there are different washback effects.

9.3.1 Four archetypal patterns of washback

After the study conducted by Burrows (2004) on teacher beliefs, the findings of the data collection in this study resulted in prototype formulas of washback intensity through comparisons of uses of four contrasting cases of EFL teachers. Fullan (2007) points out that any change in education is highly involved in personal psychological process: therefore it would necessitate the highlight on the role of teachers and their encountered difficulties in teaching. These four archetypal patterns of washback have confirmed the complexity of washback shown in Figure 10.
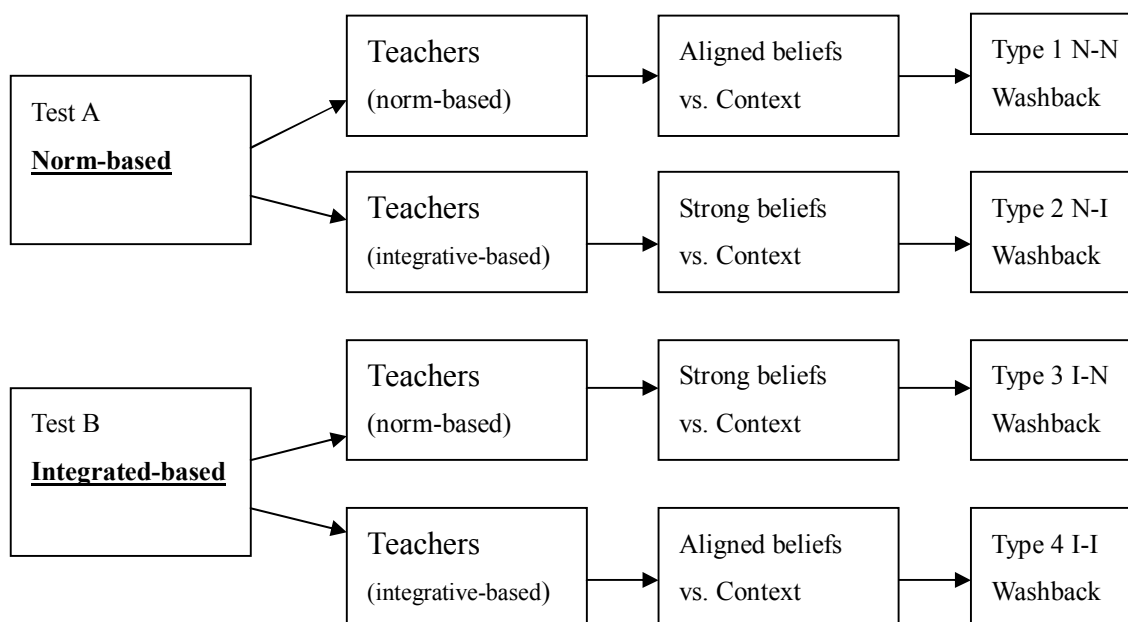
N-N means **N**orm-based testing taught with **N**on-integrated teaching

N-I means **N**orm-based testing, but taught with **I**ntegrated teaching

I-N means **I**ntegrated-based testing, but taught with **N**on-integrated teaching

I-I means **I**ntegrated-based testing taught with **I**ntegrated teaching

Figure 10 Four archetypal patterns of washback

In reality, neither norm-referenced testing, nor criterion-referenced testing completely produced their intended washback effects. Individual teachers had their own decisions to make about whether to focus heavily on the test techniques or to foster students' core abilities. From the findings of data collection, the relationship between washback and mediating factors suggests that there are four critical categories that distinguish and determine a teacher's practice to washback. Whilst these beliefs and contextual factors are neither mutually independent nor equally important, they serve as a valuable analytical parameter for evaluating and explaining washback consequences.

Type 1 N-N Washback refers to a norm-based test implemented by a traditional teacher whose teaching is mainly a non-integrated, teacher-centred, and linguistic

knowledge focused.

Type 2 N-I Washback refers to a norm-based test implemented by a teacher whose teaching is mainly integrated, communicative, task-based, and student-centred.

Type 3 I-N Washback refers to an integrated-based test implemented by a traditional teacher whose teaching is mainly a non-integrated, teacher-centred, and linguistic knowledge focused.

Type 4 I-I Washback refers to an integrated-based test implemented by a teacher whose teaching is mainly integrated, communicative, task-based, and student-centred.

These archetypal four categories of aligned or oppositional beliefs and other contextual factors resulted in different types of washback. Readers should notice that the ECL test preparation courses was taught by all teachers of this study, but the TOEFL courses were only taught by Mary and Lee. What the exploration has found out was intensity of Type 1 N-N Washback increased because there was an alignment of old style testing with teachers' beliefs, since both Tina and Mary employed more traditional teaching methods. Likewise, in Type 4 I-I Washback we found out that an alignment of a new communicative test with Lee's beliefs has produced higher intensity of criterion-referenced washback. On the contrary, teacher Mary had not had received in-service teacher education and training to teach the criterion-based TOEFL iBT, and

therefore it resulted in Type 3 I-N washback. Furthermore, it seemed that both Andy and Lee had overcome contextual factors and the norm-based ECL test to create their classrooms with a more CLT activity, and produced Type 2 N-I washback. We have unveiled that teacher Andy and Lee had had supported opportunities to access professional development and other supports, and therefore they had enhanced more positive washback. These explorations were supported in the following detailed discussions.

9.3.2 Type 1 N-N Washback: a norm-referenced test implemented by norm-focused teachers with traditional teaching

The intensity of Type 1 N-N Washback sheds light on a case of an alignment between norm-referenced test design and traditional teaching. The findings of this study indicated: 1. Greater ECL reading washback occurred on traditional teachers' teaching than ECL listening washback; and 2. There was no difference in teaching methods between teaching reading and teaching listening. The most obvious Type 1 N-N washback emerging from this case study was consistent with studies in the 1960s, namely a narrowed curriculum reflecting the specific criteria of a test. Vernon (1956), Davies (1968) and Wiseman (1961) argued that teachers overemphasized the behaviours of rote learning in students over the content of a test. Learning keyed to an old style test may sacrifice meaningful and effective learning activities in classroom.

This empirical case study reported that many vital aspects in conventional

pedagogy in test preparation for students can include an analysis of one's beliefs in the importance of linguistic knowledge in language learning, and characteristics of the ECL test tasks. First, the traditional teachers (both Tina and Mary taught ECL preparation courses) played a crucial role in practicing norm-referenced test tasks. Based on an assessment of teachers' strengths and weaknesses in teaching, traditional teachers of English perceived the necessity of learning vocabulary and grammar that they believed was beneficial for their students. Contrary to expectations of ECL test constructors, these traditional teachers exhibited no change in teaching methods. It appeared that traditional teachers in this study only successfully delivered the essential knowledge about language forms – thus overemphasizing rote learning and causing a boost in grammar-translation practices. This was reflected in traditional teachers' most concerned epistemological beliefs referred that English learning was about knowing language rules and its memorization, instead of critical thinking and meaningful learning. Teaching vocabulary, texts, and grammar not only was consistent with prior experience, but also with the ability of these traditional teachers. Thus, mastery of teaching language forms heightened feelings of knowledgeable teachers whose persistence in practicing lecture and translation was reinforced, instead of gaining willingness to trying the new teaching methods. These findings support previous studies, which indicated that the role of teachers pertaining to their beliefs and abilities is as a crucial factor influencing the approach of classroom practice (Cheng, 1997; Qi, 2004; Shih, 2009).

Furthermore, the ECL test itself with lots of the focus on language forms was accepted by traditional teachers. To understand strong ECL reading washback, the discussion turned to Shohamy's washback theory (1996). Shohamy suggested that the nature of the challenge posted by a test and the nature of the change required to teachers are more substantive than simply introducing a new testing system. The findings suggest that the ECL test was appropriate in the local schooling in which students have few opportunities to communicate with foreigners but to read more English instructions. It was naturally that the ECL test became suitable in Taiwanese military institutions to emphasize students' reading skill, than communicative competence. There is a widespread belief that the scores on the norm-based tests are equal to English proficiency, and it is not very likely that the teaching of language form will readily be discarded (Watanabe, 2004). Washback of ECL was closely related to the date of examination. The closer the date of exam, the more ECL test preparation courses are given to students. Studies have agreed that the majority of EFL teachers focus on teaching to the test including in China (Qi, 2004), Greece (Tsagari, 2011), Hong Kong (Cheng, 1999), Israel (Alderson & Wall, 1993), Japan (Watanabe, 1996), Korea (Choi, 2007). Immersed with traditional educational systems, teachers are likely to conduct familiar instructional activities and choose traditional tests to teach. Tina who was short of prior teacher education and training appeared to teach English in ways what she had been taught before.

9.3.3 Type 2 N-I Washback: a norm-referenced test implemented by innovative teachers with communicative teaching

The Type 2 N-I Washback demonstrates weak washback effects due solely to a mismatch between norm-referenced test design and communicative teaching. The findings of this study indicated: 1. ECL washback did not override the curriculum which consisted of all skills, other than the tested skills; and 2. Communicative tasks were employed by innovative teachers even as they dealt with a norm-based test in terms of teaching methodology. The findings of this study indicate the factors that may reduce the intensity of norm-referenced test washback related to the beliefs inside communicative teachers and their educational system.

First, the methodology of communicative teachers' practice did not derive from the multiple-choice formatted ECL test, but drew on a range of teachers' belief systems, most of which were consistent with the communicative teaching. The empirical evidence from the direct observations was shown that Andy and Lee during the observations never taught the test content and test-taking strategies as a shortcut of quick score gain. To understand teachers' pedagogical decisions, we must turn to teacher belief theory. Johnson (1994) suggests that the majority of the ESL/EFL teachers possess dominant theoretical orientations which have shaped the way that teachers think about second language teaching and learning. Therefore, it is important to examine how the prevalence of certain beliefs relates to classroom practices. The findings suggest that Andy and Lee held constructivist beliefs and were less likely to use

of language structures and teacher-central practices than cooperative tasks. This suggests teachers' stronger beliefs and attitudes even controlling for the content taught and the methodology employed. Conflicting with teachers' beliefs, we expected that the ECL test produced weak washback on the practitioners who taught English communicatively. Stronger teacher's beliefs in communicative competence resulted in Andy's and Lee's dual approach to balance language forms and functions. Communicative teachers who employed extensive inputs from various materials including magazines, newspaper and video tapes opposed teachers to rely on the published ECL exam materials. These teachers perceived that knowledge should be the focus of the teaching, instead of test taking. Their enacted curriculum therefore included reading, listening, writing and speaking integrated skills in a broad sense. This Type 2 N-I washback showed clear evidence of teachers' beliefs overriding washback in classes. Thus, any education reform including the use of a test aimed at promoting the effectiveness of teaching might best explicitly take into account teachers' beliefs in the field of English language teaching.

Many studies have suggested that teachers' beliefs may moderate washback, as suggested by these arguments:

The quality of washback is independent of the quality of a test. Any test, good or bad, can be said to have beneficial or detrimental washback. (Alderson & Wall, 1993)

All the participants who are affected by an innovation have to find their own

'meaning' for the change. Teachers work on their own, with little reference to experts or consultation with colleagues. (Fullan, 1993)

Washback is a highly psychological phenomenon and not something inherent in any test. One of the biggest factors that hinders positive washback from being generated is the negative attitudes teachers and learners hold towards tests. Many of them feel tests are a necessary evil. Worse than that, teachers and learners are prone to attribute what they can't do to tests. Many love to claim, "because there's a test, we have to study grammar," or "because there's a test, we can't teach communication," and so on. As long as such negative attitudes persist, it's not possible to generate positive washback, no matter what test is used. Unless we overcome this way of thinking, positive washback can never be achieved. (Watanabe, 2010)

These arguments were supported. Thus, it can be seen that washback can influence teachers' perceptions, but teachers' beliefs sometimes can override washback effects. These differences between washback and teachers' beliefs might explain some of the intensity of washback effects.

Second, teacher education and developmental training providing practical techniques and knowledge in teaching methods gave teachers the capacity to overcome the barriers they may encounter in the classroom, and motivated teachers to employ communicative tasks for real language use. The evidence showed that Andy and Lee had had supported opportunities over time to reflect what they had learned from professional development about ELT teaching approaches. They were military officers, while Tina and Mary were civilians and had not had much in-service teacher training supports. Unlike Tina and Mary, there was not as much as ECL intended effects with the focus of the language forms on communicative teachers' practice. Overseas

teacher education fostered Andy's and Lee's ability in multiple teaching approaches. Washback of norm-referenced ECL test on innovative teachers' practice became weaker and less significant. Watanabe (2010) has suggested that the research results indicate so far that re-attribution training is one method to help test users change their beliefs about tests. Using appropriate teaching techniques relieved the pressure of raising students' scores, because students passed the test after being taught with a comprehensive curriculum. With students' satisfactory performing, Andy had more autonomy in teaching English, instead of repetitively practicing past tests. The findings from communicative teachers indicated that raising students' ECL scores did not necessarily mean that teachers' teaching should be in a test-driven way. The findings are consistent with studies that teachers using a more communicative approach in teaching against the norm-based test are found in papers to strongly disagree or disagree to teach according to the test format (Salehi, et. al., 2011; Wall & Horak, 2008).

Finally, the supports from the context that facilitated communicative practice included the increased amount of budget for purchasing books, software, equipment and facilities, and time allocation. Teachers claimed that these increasing resources helped them to conduct communicative activities. The results of this study suggest that instruction will be students-oriented if the curriculum is expanded and the class size is reduced.

9.3.4 Type 3 I-N Washback: an integrated test implemented by norm-focused teachers with traditional teaching

The Type 3 I-N Washback also demonstrates weak washback effects, but this case resulted in much less intended washback due solely to a mismatch between criterion-referenced test design and traditional teaching. When traditional teachers dealt with an integrated test, the findings of this study indicated: 1. TOEFL washback did not affect traditional teachers; and 2. Traditional teacher (Mary) remained the same in terms of teaching methodology, and only grammar-translation method was greatly employed in the classroom. New TOEFL test with a better validity had not resulted in respectable valid washback as Messick (1996) wishes. Many mediating factors were combinable to gear Mary's practice towards less intended washback effects. Shohamy (1993) proposes that positive intended washback effects occur if teachers adopt test methods which are applicable to classes. The issue is that EFL teachers superficially taught to the test content, regardless of the prescribed curriculum.

First, we expected that the strong resistance to change would render TOEFL integrated tasks' demands as very challenging, and in turn traditional teachers either avoided to teach the TOEFL test or tended to teach part of the test. Even a good test is likely to be different to each teacher because he or she may bring different attitudes and beliefs into the classroom. Thus, we must understand that negative belief systems expressed against a communicative test actually have led to harmful impact on practice. As Cheng (1997) suggests, examinations and teaching beliefs play an equally important

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role in teaching. Spratt (2005) asserts that the beliefs of teachers play crucial role in determining the form and the intensity of washback. An alternate explanation for the intensity of washback involves teacher belief theory. The empirical evidence from the direct observations showed that Mary taught the test content and test-taking strategies because she believed a shortcut of quick score gain is necessary. The phenomenon lies in the fact that Mary's negative beliefs considered the difficulty of TOEFL's communicative tasks to be insurmountable, and then the practice in Mary's classes would remain unchanged.

Second, another issue that emerged from this study was that other contextual factors diluted the intensity of washback. The vital mediating factors which might heavily counterbalance 'beliefs', within context, were identified as Confucianism culture, ineffective leadership and unsupported administration, limited teaching hours, test-oriented school culture, insufficient resources and ineffective local teacher education which impeded the teachers' practicing communicative tasks effectively. The traditional culture is of paramount important for traditional teachers because their teaching derives from the world they have been raised up. This traditional Confucian pedagogy which still dominates contemporary English teaching is helpful to foster test-takers' ability in grammatical analyses and lexical scopes, but undermines communicative ability (Kelen, 2002). As a result, very weak washback of TOEFL iBT test occurred to traditional teachers who bore in mind the traditional pedagogy of

Confucian principles that have emphasized memorization in learning as one of the most important characteristics in Chinese society. My study demonstrated when there was a gap between TOEFL iBT and Chinese culture. These results echo those from previous studies (Cheng, 1997; Qi, 2004) which found that barriers in the context hinder teachers in conducting communicative activities. However, current Iron-rice-bowl contract in the school provides a comfort-zone for traditional teachers. In effect, this protective policy made teachers refuse any change in teaching. In addition, teachers in the interviews reported other explanations for the teachers' unwillingness to practice communicative tasks. The results of this study suggest that ineffective teacher education in Taiwan deterred teachers to use new teaching methods. The discussion of the influence of teacher education will shortly take place in section 9.3.5 describing more explorations. The results of this study suggest that EFL teacher education should be designed for training prospective teachers to engage in learner-centred practice and teaching techniques, other than just knowing educational theories.

Finally, if a test is low status, this influences teachers' practices. Reputations of teachers and schools are labeled from the outcomes of ECL test report, rather than a TOEFL score report. Students' unsatisfactory outcomes on the ECL test have more deleterious impacts on schools, departments and teachers than on the TOEFL test. Though new TOEFL test based on the measurement of candidates' real language proficiency has a better validity, traditional ECL test has produced its powerful influence

on English education at military institutions. To make communicative teaching suitable in the Taiwanese military, the status of a test is far more important than the validity of a test to promote the washback effects.

9.3.5 Type 4 I-I Washback: an integrated test implemented by innovative teachers with communicative teaching

In this study, a considerable match between the TOEFL iBT tasks' demands and teachers' constructivist-teaching beliefs about EFL was evident. Ferman (2004) confirmed Messick's (1996) importance of validity in washback, while this study found that the consequential validity was evidentially linked to teachers as specified here such as Lee, who is capable of employing applicable teaching methods. Otherwise, positive washback was only partially fulfilled by teachers like Mary to the goals of TOEFL test writers. Translation of reading texts was much lower, and group work much higher. Substantial similarities between intensions of TOEFL test constructors and the viewpoints of innovative teachers became apparent. This study indicates that Lee believed that whole language, communicative-oriented, student-centred, and extensive input tasks are useful. The criterion-based TOEFL-iBT test therefore resulted in stronger intended washback effects on the innovative teacher who developed real life communicative abilities and autonomous learning strategies practiced communicative tasks. Several suggestions have been mentioned in the literature regarding teachers' beliefs moderating washback. Horwitz (1988) asserts that the mismatched beliefs can be negative outcomes for teachers and learners, and a gap can lead to an

unwillingness to participate in communicative activities Watanabe (2004) claims:

> Teacher factors including personal beliefs, past education, and academic background, seemed to be more important in determining the methodology a teacher employs. The body of empirical research to date suggests that innovation in testing does not automatically bring about improvement in education … (Watanabe, 2004, p. 130).

Thus, the policy-makers and test writers should ensure the connection between objectives of a test and expectations of teacher. Otherwise, the top-down approach that simply changes the test and expects to change the teaching is not feasible. All agree that teachers acquire their beliefs from their previous learning experiences, in which teacher education is significant. It needs at least teacher training to provide the knowledge and ability for teachers during the process of education reform.

Therefore, many other contextual factors also contributed to the teaching of integrated skills. Especially, basic and advanced overseas teacher education provided sufficient knowledge and practicum. Among four teachers, only Lee maximally used whole language and communicative activities. He overcame the cultural barrier that asserts Taiwanese students are silent and do not like to speak out in public. The interview data indicates that Lee and Andy were instrumentally motivated by overseas teacher training programmes in their actual teaching. Although abundant washback studies have suggested the importance of teacher education to the implementation of an examination, they do not provide empirical evidence. This study contributes to the discovery of the impact of teacher education on what a teacher teaches and on how to

teach.

Furthermore, an increased time allocation and extensive curriculum facilitated students in learning all 4 language skills. Nevertheless, Lee pointed out that extra work might hinder teachers from providing appropriate teaching quality. To make an integrated language test appropriate in the EFL context, the school can enhance the success of education reform by supporting an atmosphere that permits teacher autonomy in teaching and looks at students' communicative competence.

9.4 Implications of the study for classroom practice

In terms of implications, this study has found that teachers' beliefs in teaching and learning are related to their learning experiences. Teachers who experience overseas teacher training have applied communicative teaching effectively, but teachers who receive local teacher education are still problematic in adopting other teaching methods. A norm-referenced test taught by traditional teachers resulted in greater teaching to the test and also an integrated test taught by traditional teachers produced only a superficial change. There is no evidence that traditional teachers change their teaching methods purely because the test changes. The results of this study suggest the importance of teacher education which should be compulsory to all in-service teachers. This echoes Watanabe's argument (2010) and Wedell's suggestions (2009) about

re-attribution training to change teachers' beliefs and to make proper adjustments in teaching. Muñoz & Álvarez (2009) assert that the introduction of an assessment system generates effects that may cease if systematic training is not guaranteed.

Moreover, an apparent gap between administrators and teachers has hindered positive washback. During this study, school leaders who demanded the promotion of curriculum alignment for the ECL and TOEFL test preparation seemed generally to have given less consideration to existing educational and cultural realities, when setting learners' learning outcomes. As Goodall, Day, Lindsay, Muijs, and Harris (2005) and Wedell (2009) suggest, proposed changes need to be grounded in a clear understanding of the parties and the context. Thus, policies should involve stakeholders throughout the planning process because teachers' changes in teaching largely depend upon school supports. This finding is consistent with the findings of previous studies (e.g., Burrows, 2004; Cheng, 2005; Green, 2007; Watanabe, 2004). The lack of time, resources and leader supports within schools are leading to loss of motivation when teachers prepare their instruction.

9.5 Conclusions and future research

It can be concluded from this study that a language test alone cannot fully explain what and how teachers teach in the classroom. This study provided highly compelling empirical evidence for the discussion that forms and intensities of washback occur

through the interactions with teachers and contexts, and are mainly shaped by aligned or oppositional teachers' beliefs and their learning experiences. Washback might affect some teachers in different ways than others, and the teacher plays a crucial role in washback (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996). This suggests that individual teacher responds differently in making instructional decisions towards exams. Fang (1996) points out that the ways that teachers think and understand are vital elements of their practice. However, I should note that teachers' beliefs have not always been implemented in classroom, because of the reality importing various unpredictable contextual characteristics into teachers and their classroom (Nespor, 1987). In a baseline interview, both Tina and Mary expressed that CLT was useful and they liked student-oriented activity, but they never applied CLT into their classes due to the lack of professional development and resources. In respect of this, washback is not a linear phenomenon but rather complex to operate with an epistemological, cultural, social and political context. Thus, positive washback can be enhanced by aligning a test's communicative tasks with teachers' beliefs and other contextual factors. This study provided valuable information for the understanding of pedagogical decision-making as reference to whether the teaching methods are effective and whether the testing objectives are realistic.

Although the case study allows the researcher to find out the phenomena of washback in details, its generalization to other contexts is disputable. This limitation is

applicable to the present study because it investigated only two colleges of a military nature in a very specific context, which may differ from other settings of tertiary education. Therefore, more research is suggested to be conducted to explore forms and intensities of washback at other colleges and universities. In particular, the future study could go further to compare the impact between local teacher education programmes and overseas teacher education programmes on washback. The evidence indicated that both Andy and Lee encountered the same contextual factors to deal with as their colleagues, but they with overseas teacher education experience were able to work out how to change their teaching approaches despite the contextual issues. Perhaps many top-ranked universities in Taiwan may offer better teacher training which can help teachers in coping with negative washback effects. After all, teacher training in the overseas for all Taiwanese college teachers is not feasible. In addition, although many teachers in this study have claimed that the TOEFL curriculum brings beneficial washback, little attention has paid to this topic in depth (e.g., teacher workload, student motivation). Future research should rigorously examine the extent that the new integrated TOEFL test as one of the most important English tests in the world for admissions of higher education informs and enhances the college curricula in EFL areas, and difficulties of integrating such a performance-based test into the language curriculum.

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Appendix 1: A sample of English Comprehension Level (ECL) Test

SCN

TCN

STUDENT NAME: _____

INSTRUCTOR NAME/TCO: _____

COUNTRY/LOC CODE: _____

PROJECT: _____ WCN: _____

SPONSOR SERVICE: _____

TEST DATE: _____
(year)   (month)   (day)

DLIELC TEST
ANSWER SHEET

TEST ID: _____

Booklet # _____

RAW SCORE: _____ CONV. SCORE: _____ REQ ECL: _____

Seat _____   Lab _____

DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE

1 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	21 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	41 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	61 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	81 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	101 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
2 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	22 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	42 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	62 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	82 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	102 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
3 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	23 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	43 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	63 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	83 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	103 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
4 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	24 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	44 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	64 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	84 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	104 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
5 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	25 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	45 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	65 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	85 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	105 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
6 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	26 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	46 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	66 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	86 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	106 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
7 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	27 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	47 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	67 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	87 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	107 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
8 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	28 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	48 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	68 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	88 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	108 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
9 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	29 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	49 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	69 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	89 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	109 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
10 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	30 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	50 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	70 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	90 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	110 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
11 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	31 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	51 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	71 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	91 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	111 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
12 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	32 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	52 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	72 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	92 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	112 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
13 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	33 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	53 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	73 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	93 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	113 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
14 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	34 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	54 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	74 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	94 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	114 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
15 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	35 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	55 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	75 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	95 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	115 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
16 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	36 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	56 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	76 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	96 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	116 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
17 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	37 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	57 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	77 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	97 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	117 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
18 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	38 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	58 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	78 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	98 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	118 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
19 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	39 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	59 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	79 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	99 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	119 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ
20 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	40 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	60 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	80 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	100 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ	120 Ⓐ Ⓑ Ⓒ Ⓓ

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ENGLISH COMPREHENSION LEVEL EXAMINATION
FORM X SAMPLE

PART I - LISTENING

Directions for items 1-10. You will hear statements or
questions on the tape. Select the best answer and mark your
answer sheet, a, b, c, or d. DO NOT WRITE ON THE TEST
BOOKLET.

1. a. forward
   b. backward
   c. sideways
   d. down

2. a. I bought it.
   b. It was empty.
   c. I painted it.
   d. I hit a tree.

3. a. the fuse
   b. the covering
   c. the copper
   d. the plug

4. a. on the open highway
   b. on small bridges
   c. on crowded streets
   d. in small garages

5. a. give it to someone
      else
   b. throw it away
   c. take it to the
      library
   d. give it back to me

6. a. Hurry them.
   b. Attach them.
   c. Hear them.
   d. Separate them.

7. They _____ their child.

   a. couldn't find
   b. rested with
   c. saved
   d. looked for

8. Don't _____ now.

   a. contribute
   b. claim victory
   c. interfere
   d. quit

9. a. He gave a newspaper
      to each student.
   b. He gave all the
      newspapers to one
      student.
   c. He showed the
      newspapers to the
      students.
   d. He read the
      newspapers to the
      students.

10. a. You are required to
       come.
    b. You may choose to
       come if you like.
    c. You are invited to
       the meeting.
    d. You do not need to
       come.

ECL FORM X SAMPLE

Directions for items 11-12. You will hear conversations or
persons giving information. Select the best answer and mark
your answer sheet a, b, c, or d.

11. Her coat was _____.

    a. lost
    b. stolen
    c. dirty
    d. old

12. a. a boring one
    b. a dangerous one
    c. one where he works
       outdoors
    d. a safe job

THIS IS THE END OF THE LISTENING PART OF THE TEST.

PART II- READING

Directions for questions 13-21. Select the correct answer,
a, b, c, or d, and mark your answer sheet. DO NOT WRITE ON
THE TEST BOOKLET.

13. The man is in <u>critical</u> conditon.

    a. good
    b. criminal
    c. selected
    d. serious

14. I ____ like a cup of coffee and a piece of apple pie,
    please.

    a. could
    b. may
    c. would
    d. must

15. The first holiday ____ the year is New Year's Day.

    a. at
    b. of
    c. with
    d. on

16. If Robert needs help, I ____ you right away.

    a. should told
    b. am telling
    c. will tell
    d. had told

17. This device is for <u>drilling</u> metal.

    a. polishing
    b. making holes in
    c. fastening
    d. ordering

18. I ____ smoke, but I don't anymore.

    a. would
    b. didn't
    c. can't
    d. used to

19. The plane <u>may have been</u> shot down.

    a. was certainly
    b. was possibly
    c. had to be
    d. never was

20. Select the correct sentence.

    a. Jack ran into an old friend in town Saturday.
    b. Jack an old friend in town Saturday ran into.
    c. Jack ran into town Saturday in an old friend.
    d. Jack ran into Saturday in town an old friend.

21. Laws are necessary for maintaining order. If the laws
    are unjust and if there is no legal means to change
    them, the citizens lose respect for the laws and refuse
    to obey them. Anarchy and bloodshed are likely to
    follow.

    According to this paragraph, which statement is
    correct?

    a. Laws are made to be broken.
    b. There is no legal means of changing unjust laws.
    c. Laws should be changed if they are to be respected.
    d. Legal means for changing unjust laws should be
       available.

THIS IS THE END OF THE TEST.

Appendix 2: Baseline Teacher Interview

The Project of Washback effects on EFL teachers' beliefs and practices: When Grammatical testing meets Communicative testing

Name: _____   Date: _____

Time spent: _____

Introductory statement: Thank you for participating in this project. The purpose of this project has been, and continuous to be, to determine the washback effects of testing on teaching in English classes at the air force colleges. After having taught college English including ECL, TOEFL, academic courses for many years, please comment on how you believe language teaching and learning should be done, and provide your personal educational background. Anything you tell me will be used for this research project only, and is in no way related to other purposes. Please answer the questions as completely and as honestly as you can.

Semi-structured Interview of English Teachers' Education Background, Experience, and Initial Beliefs about Teaching and Learning

English Teachers' Education Background and Experience:

1. Please describe your educational background including major, degree, years of teaching, previous learning experience, etc.?
2. What courses are you teaching now? Why?
3. Do you enjoy your teaching? Why?
4. Are you capable of teaching speaking, listening, reading and writing? Why?

Initial Beliefs about Teaching and Learning:

5. Do you teach grammar in classroom? Much, moderate, or less? Why?
6. Do you use interactive tasks in classroom? Why?
7. Do you ask students for dialogue or paragraph memorization? Why?
8. Do you very concern about grammatical errors? Why?
9. Do you deliver much knowledge for students? Why?
10. Do you consider students as knowledge explorers? Why?
11. Are your classrooms teacher-centered or student-centered? Why?
12. Do you evaluate all 4 skills of students? Why?
13. Do you adapt question items from the mock tests? Why?
14. Do you believe your courses should be based on communication or test? Why?
15. Do you believe whether knowledge or higher score is more important? Why?
16. Do you agree or disagree teaching to the test? Why?
17. How often do you attend in-service teacher education program?
18. Do you have institutional supports for your teaching? Why?

Appendix 3: Second Teacher Interview

The Project of Washback effects on EFL teachers' beliefs and practices: When Grammatical testing meets Communicative testing

Second Teacher Interview

Name: _____   Date: _____

Time spent: _____

Introductory statement: Thank you for participating in this project. The purpose of this project has been, and continuous to be, to determine the washback effects of testing on teaching in English classes at the air force colleges. After having taught college English including ECL, TOEFL, academic courses for many years, please comment on **how you believe the testing program has affected your teaching** and vice versa. Anything you tell me will be used for this research project only, and is in no way related to other purposes. Please answer the questions as completely and as honestly as you can.

Semi-structured Interview of English Teachers' Beliefs about the Washback of Testing Programs (Traditional ECL and Communicative TOEFL iBT)

Beliefs about the washback of testing programs:

Do you believe it is too difficult for students to prepare TOEFL/ECL test? Why?

Do you believe your students are not good enough to study TOEFL/ECL test? Why?

Do you believe it is not your responsibility to teach TOEFL/ECL test? Why?

Do you believe the pressure has prevented you from teaching to the test? Why?

Do you believe test scores has resulted you in teaching to the test? Why?

Do you believe more test practice will naturally cause score gains? Why?

Do you believe TOEFL/ECL has negatively impacted morale and motivation? Why?

Do you believe students need to learn grammar rather than communication? Why?

Do you believe teaching to the test is because of your boss, not you? Why?

Do you believe it is necessary to have extensive input for academic purposes? Why?

Do you believe it is true "raising scores in TOEFL/ECL without increasing the skill or knowledge level of students?" Why?

Do you believe students should learn useful skills for studying at university, but TOEFL/ECL cannot develop these skills? Why?

Do you believe students should learn more contents and vocabulary, but TOEFL/ECL cannot contain these topics? Why?

Appendix 4: Follow-up Teacher Interview

The Project of Washback effects on EFL teachers' beliefs and practices: When Grammatical testing meets Communicative testing

Follow-up Teacher Interview

Name: _____   Date: _____

Time spent: _____

Introductory statement: Thank you for participating in this project. The purpose of this project has been, and continuous to be, to determine the washback effects of testing on teaching in English classes at the air force colleges. After having taught college English including ECL, TOEFL, academic courses for many years, please comment on **how the testing program affected your teaching** and vice versa. Anything you tell me will be used for this research project only, and is in no way related to other purposes. Please answer the questions as completely and as honestly as you can.

Semi-structured Interview of English Teachers' Beliefs about the Washback of Testing Programs (Traditional ECL and Communicative TOEFL iBT)

1. What adjustments to your teaching have you made in recent years since the administration of the ECL/TOEFL test?

2. What activities have you incorporated into your class sessions that specifically focus on aspects that the tests address?

3. How has your knowledge of the testing process and your beliefs about teaching and learning affected the way you plan for and conduct class instruction this semester?

4. In what areas do you feel that you still need to improve instruction in order to help students better prepare for the demands of the tests?

5. Additional comments that you wish to share about differences in your teaching that you would do if there is no ECL or TOEFL testing program?

Appendix 5: A sample of coding of interview data

Interview

1. Findings of Teachers' Beliefs about Teaching

Describe Teacher Tina's educational background and learning experience

Interviewer: 談談妳的教育背景及學習

Please tell me about your educational background and your learning experience.

Tina: 我剛來官校時只有我是碩士.

When I came here (the Air Force Academy), I was the only teacher who had a Masters degree in English Literature (teacher factor).

我接觸的比較有外國老師,那外國老師比較重視學生課堂上的…

I was taught by many English native speakers who concerned about students…

Interviewer: 反應?

Responses?

Tina: 對反應,老師們大概…我們的老師有一些外國老師很注重 dictation.每次都要給我們…聽寫

Yes, responses. They might consider … Our teachers, some Americans used dictation a lot (contextual factor, teacher factor). We had to do dictation in all classes.

Interviewer: 聽寫?

Dictation?

Tina: 然後還給我們 speech … 當然 reading 也有很多, 這是我們老師以前的教法.特別同學覺得最難的是 dictation 因為 dictation 就是你又要聽又要寫所以大家覺得最難…然後我的作文老師有一個很嚴格,每次叫學生,那時我們是學生他是老師…每次 writing 的時候都給我們一個 topic 然後他是老外他就用他的想法他上課他認為怎樣的 topic 然後就叫我們對這個 topic 表達意見的時後每個人課堂上馬上就要寫出來…每一段你就要把你的 topic sentence 寫出來然後他馬上就 collection,如果他發現你的 topic sentence 跟他的 topic 不完全 matched 他就會這樣把考卷…作業…不是還給你而是這樣 throw away…所以給人的壓力很大 …

Sometimes they gave the speech … of course, also a lot of reading… These were how my teachers taught English … Students felt that dictation was the most difficult one, because you had to listen and write immediately. So it is very difficult. My writing teacher was very strict, every time he would give different topics in writing classes … He would used his ideas to talk about the topics and then he asked all students had to come out their topic sentence for each paragraph … and he did the collection immediately … if he found your topic sentences were not relevant to his topics, he would throw away your papers (contextual factor) … so in his classes we were very stressful …(Tina's interview, October 15, 2009.)

Tina: 瞭解語言使用的規則是最有效的學習方式…藉由模仿及反覆的練習句型及語彙.
Knowing the rules of that language was the most effective way to learning English (contextual factor, teacher factor) … Language is learned behaviourally according to the syntax and semantics of that language, by imitating, repeating, and practicing. (Tina's interview, October 15, 2009).

Tina: 中文上課學生不會感覺有壓力的威脅...
Students would feel no threats in learning English if I spoke Chinese in the classroom (student factor, teacher factor).. (Interview Jan. 15, 2010).

Tina's major goals of teaching English
(skills developed before leaving the college)

Tina: 其實學生不需要聽說讀寫樣樣都學. Indeed, students were not taught with all four language skills.
我認為那是不可能的. 學生學會基本的用法, 畢業以後可以自己再精進… 事實上他們可以去補習班, 語言學校或密集課程求進步.
So, I believe it is impossible to teach all skills (teacher factor).in school. Students must use the basic ability to develop their English by their own outside school… to continue studying. In fact, students can go to the private cram schools, private language institutes, or intensive language courses to improve their English, to make their English better (teacher factor).
要使學生精通英文在教育是不實際的 我們僅可以分數為首要 不可能面面具道總是會有部份犧牲 學生無法學所有的學術及專業英文 而且每次校長問及學生成績我倍感威脅 校長總是拿陸官和海官學生的 ECL 成績作比較他希望我們的學生 ECL 成績勝過其它學校 所有研究案也以如何增進 ECL 成績為主 而不是能力 每學期都要做 ECL 測驗並且將成績報告校長 上級也要求設立 ECL 教學目標 上從國防部下至校長每位長官都要求提升 ECL 考試成績
Students understanding English is not practical in schooling and our priority is to focus on the students' scores (contextual factor, teacher factor). We cannot take care of everything, and sometimes students have to make some sacrifices. They simply cannot learn all academic and professional English. I feel threatened if the superintendent asks for the improvement of students' ECL scores (contextual factor, teacher factor). Our superintendent always compares Air Force Academy students' ECL scores with Army students and Navy students. He hopes our students can distinguish themselves by rising their ECL scores. Here, all research in English learning has been done to investigate how to improve students' ECL scores, but not their proficiency. Formal ECL tests are carried out every semester and keep the score records to report to the superintendent. Educational authorities demand us to set the goals on ECL scores (contextual factor). You can see

from the National Defense down to the superintendent requesting English teachers to enhance students' ECL scores."

因此 我們將 ECL 測驗的題目放進期中及期末考 課堂裡我們講解 ECL 題目 課程也加了很多 ECL 也加以評量 ECL 也變成了主要的教材 英文老師如果可以教好 ECL 就可以安然生存下來 我們的老師根本不需要專業 英美文學 語言學都不需要 而是要教好 ECL 或 TOEFL.

As a result, you can see we have put the ECL test questions into the mid term and final exams in the semesters. We teach the ECL test questions in classes. We have adapted the majority of syllabus focusing on the ECL tests. We use the ECL test questions as the major teaching materials (contextual factor, teacher factor). We use the ECL test questions for the evaluation. English teachers can survive in the Academy if they can teach ECL well. We do not need EFL teachers to have expertise in English literature, Linguistics, or other fields. We just need EFL teachers can teach ECL and TOEFL well to our students (contextual factor, teacher factor).

不管學生考幾分 ECL 測驗本身就有瑕疵不能代表英文能力 問題是我們的社會及文化以成績評斷成敗 ECL 成績過度被使用而產生不良的影響

No matter what scores students get on the ECL, we have to agree that ECL has its own test design defect and cannot represent students' true English ability. The problem is that our society and culture have evaluated the success or the failure by the scoring (contextual factor). (Interview Oct. 15, 2009).

Tina talked about cadets and this educational system

Tina: 在官校的學生大多想成為飛行員, 學習的動機並不是很強, 而不想太用功以免傷了視力. 這是我認為不可能全部都教的原因. Most cadets just wanted to be the pilots (student factor) when they decided to study at the Academy. Their motivation was not very high, and they did not want to study too hard. In case, it hurts their eyes. It was the reason I felt the impossibility of complete instruction to students" (Interview of Oct. 15, 2009).

Tina: 事實上學校一直希望學生 ECL 成績能達 75 分以派訓至美國. 我的教學就是幫助學生達成目標 但並非所有學生都主動學習 所以我只針對 ECL 考試的範圍學生負擔就比較少 學校 ECL 政策影響我的教學很深而我也徹底奉行上級的命令我們學校有別於一般大學培養各種能力我們學校是希望學生通過 ECL 考試 在各種學校集會上級一直強調要提升學生 ECL 成績所以我們的學生只要真對聽與讀的能力來加強即可. 一般大學培養學術英文但我們學生不是這樣. 我們不同.

In fact, the Academy is hoping that all students to pass the score of 75 on the ECL test (contextual factor), so they can work in the US bases. My teaching will help students to achieve this goal. But, you know … not all students are active learners… so I focus on the contents tested on the ECL… students will have less workloads… my teaching can also be more focused… The school policy has strongly influenced my teaching… Our school is very different from other universities where the goals are to develop four skills (contextual factor). Our school is to prepare the students to pass the ECL… In all

meetings, the school authorities require teachers to enhance students' scores. All educational policies direct teachers to the ECL preparation. So, our students have to learn listening and reading skills. Our curriculum therefore has focused on these two skills. In other universities, students may learn English for academic purposes. Our students are not in this case. They are different. (Jan. 15, 2010).

Tina: 這個學校給的 support 不夠
　　　This school does not provide enough supports (contextual factor).
Interviewer: 不夠,為什麼? 學校都沒有規劃的很好什麼時後應該要安排老師
　　　　　　去做什麼教育訓練.
　　　　　　Not enough, why? The school should but it does not plan very well the time when teachers should have education training (contextual factor).
Tina: 對對對,都沒有,學校給的 support 不夠.不管是硬體或軟體都不夠.
　　　Yes, yes, yea, nothing at all. The school's support is not enough. No matter hardware or software is not enough (contextual factor). (April 15, 2010).

Tina: 我真的不想多說 學生本來程度就不好 你不能怪我 我不想討論如何提升學生成績 系主任要回答這問題 或是請校長告訴我怎麼做
　　　I have nothing to say. You know… Students' proficiency levels were already low when they came here (student factor). They can't blame me. I don't want to discuss how to improve students'
　　　學生沒有時間複習 指揮官沒有依照每星期三上午播放聽力 學生體能及公差花太多時間了
　　　Students did not have enough time to review their work (contextual factor). The commander of cadet did not set the time for playing the audio tapes every Wednesday morning to let students listen to the ECL recordings. The commander did not follow our suggestions (contextual factor) and it is his fault. Students spent too much time on physical exercises and other chores.
Tina: 沒有任何老師可以將程度差的學生教成天才
　　　No teacher can make a poor student become a genius student.
　　　(April 15, 2010).

How does Tina teach English?
Tina: 嗯…我的背誦沒有那麼多…
　　Mmm…My memorization activities are not a lot (conflict with her actual teaching).
Tina: 我的背誦沒有那麼多,因為你知道嗎,因為我們是普通的英文.所以 嗯,比較沒有像甚麼名句,沒有那麼多名句,我們沒有使用那麼多.我們沒有那麼多名句, 我還是會叫他們背一點,因為是訓練 … 死背的東西沒有創意.
　　　My memorization activities are not a lot. Because, you know. Because ours (classes) are general English. So, mmm. Not many famous speeches, not so many speeches, we don't use them a lot. We don't have so many famous speeches, still I ask them to memorize a

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little, because it is the training… Memorized stuff (like dead) is no creativity. (Oct. 15, 2009)

Tina: 記憶可以幫助學生學習語言. Memorization would help students to use that language (teacher factor).
不須要這些噱頭 以前我們也沒有這些活動 還不是讀得好好的.
Students don't need these amusing activities to learn English well. Years ago, we didn't have so many learning activities but we learned well (contextual factor).

Interviewer: 那麼上課有沒有很多互動的活動?
Do you use interactive activities in classes?

Tina: 一般來講我…會叫同學起來唸…有問題會讓他們回答…遇到難的問題我不會比如說直接跟他們講答案
Generally, I pick up students to read… have some questions to answer…I don't tell them the answers directly but ask them to think.

Interviewer: 所以多思考
Let students to think

Tina: 對,而且我還會叫同學會分組,所以比較活
Yes, and I will divide students into groups, so the classes are vivid (conflict with her actual teaching).

Interviewer: 上課時你會不會傳授很多文法概念
Do you deliver the grammar a lot in classes?

Tina: 會,因為知識的傳授很重要…
Yes, I do, because it is important to deliver the knowledge (teacher factor)…
絕對的 Absolutely. (I will teach grammar.)

Interviewer: 那你的課是屬於以老師為主或以學生為主?
Are your classes teacher-centred or student-centred?

Tina: 我不喜歡教控台離學生太遠,老師應該儘量站在學生中
I don't like the teacher control panel far away from the students, and the teachers should stand in the middle of students (teacher factor).

Interviewer: 這是教學的方法,指說你的角色佔的比較重,或是學生角色佔的比較重
This is the teaching method you use, which means your role is more important, or students' role is more important.

Tina: 喔這個不是位置的意思…其實…學生角色佔的比老師多一點　　　點…我我我…比較注重教材 … 所以…學生老師比 6:4
Oh. So it does not mean the location…actually…students' role is more than teacher's role…I, I, I, concern more on materials …so…the ratio of teacher-student is 6:4

Interviewer: 那聽說讀寫你都會測驗?
Do you measure all four skills including listening, speaking, reading and writing?

Tina: 會,都有
Yes, all of them.

Interviewer: 溝通式教學及文法翻譯教學你比較傾向那一種?

Are you using communicative teaching or grammar-translation?

Tina: 嗯…應該說是混著…混搭的

Mmm…should be mixed…mixed (conflict with her actual teaching).

我會介紹新的單字解釋意義與用法. 學生很喜歡這種上課方式喜歡更多閱讀. 他們喜歡老師詳盡的解說拓展學生的知識. 學生很喜歡這種完全以考試為主的上課方式.

I introduced the new vocabulary and explained the meanings of each sentence. My students enjoyed my teaching and liked to read more. They loved my detailed explanation to extend their knowledge. Students told me that they liked my teaching because it was totally focused on the test (student factor).

Tina: 如果學生都看的懂根本不需要什麼閱讀技巧. 課本那些閱讀活動只是在浪費時間…讀中文你有用閱讀技巧嗎? 從來沒有, 對吧. 因為很簡易就懂了, 根本不須要. 所以我都選擇有中文翻譯的讀本. 這樣學生自己就可以看得懂. 課本文選我覺得就很棒, 名人的文筆風采有了中文翻譯就容易懂了. 學生也可以模仿. 另外一本勵志文簡短又鼓勵學生, 如果看不懂也可以參考中文翻譯. 相對地由外國語言教學專家寫的 Panorama 系列根本不適合我們的學生.

There is no need to practice reading strategies (teacher factor) if students understand they will be able to answer. Textbook writers are wasting their time to give activities … When you read Chinese articles, do you use these strategies? Never, right? (teacher factor) Because you understand the articles easily, so you don't need to learn how to read. You can see if I pick the teaching materials for students to learn, I always select the textbooks with the Chinese translation on the next pages (teacher factor). Students could study by their own ways and flexible time. The book The Great Speeches is very good. The sentences written by the famous people were so beautiful, and with the Chinese translation students can appreciate its beauty and imitate the ways they wrote. Another book The Selected Reading is also very good. Articles are short and encourage students to read. Sometimes students may not understand the sentences, they can check the translation for understanding (teacher factor). On the contrary, the Panorama series written by ESL applied linguists are suitable for our students (contextual factor). (Interview data on Jan. 15, 2010)

2. **Findings of Teachers' Beliefs about Washback Effects on Teaching**

Curriculum Changes: (the goal) acquisition of four language skills;
(the objectives) increasing understanding function of English

Interviewer: 你贊成評量式教學?

Do you agree 'teaching to the test' at the Academy?

Tina: 我很反對這樣, 評量式教學太狹隘.

I am against it. Teaching to the test will narrow what students should learn (test factor).

Interviewer: 那你覺得知識種得比較重要還是學生成績比較重要?

Do you believe that knowledge is more important or students' scores?

Tina: 因為我們教的是語言所以學生成績的高低是關係著他們有沒有學習,如果他學的不對他的語言成績一定不會高,所以高的分數是一種 achievement 的表現是一種指標…語言的 creative 沒有那麼多,他一定要把文法讀的很通…才會有高的成績

Because we teach English language, so students' scores is meant whether they have learned well or not. If he learns wrongly, then his scores will not rise highly. So, the rising scores is the achievement (teacher factor, contextual factor)…Learning a language is not so creative, and he must master the grammar…so he can score higher (teacher factor, contextual factor).

Skills mainly taught

Tina: 了解文法真的很重要… 學生可以造句…

It is important to know the grammar for the ECL test (teacher factor)… students are able to make more correct sentences themselves…

Interviewer: 你贊成教考題?

Do you agree to use mock tests?

Tina: 我很反對這樣, 教考題這樣太死

I am against it (teacher factor). Teaching to the test is boring to die.

Interviewer: 但是我們課程都有納入 ALCPT?

But, our curriculum includes all ALCPT?

Tina: 所以我覺得那只是一種 training,它就是你剛才講的 mock tests,因為跟 ECL 很類似變成一種教材所以學生要熟讀,如果有其他替代不要那麼死,活一點應該會比較好?

So, I feel it is the training only. It just like you mentioned that mock tests are similar to the ECL, so they become teaching materials. So students have to study very well. If we have any one which is not so boring, it is better if we have an interesting one.

Interviewer: 所以如果有其他替代不要那麼死應該會比較好?

So if our materials are not so boring, it will be better?

Tina: 而且 ALCPT 太舊

Besides, ALCPT is too old (test factor). (Interview on Jan. 15, 2010)

Tina: ALC太死,學生不喜歡,最早以前有用過,內容太舊又不有趣…用考古題的參考書也不好…學生要一些較活的,老師也比較好教,有很多軍事用語我根本不瞭解.你知道嗎.

ACL is like the dead body, students don't like it (student factor). We used it many years ago, but the content was too old, and not interesting (test factor)…commercial ECL textbooks use previous tests which are not good either… students need some interesting books, which are also suitable for teachers. I have no clues about military terms, you know.

我承認 ECL 需要改變應該除去過時的用語而多一點現在常用的會話

I have to admit the ECL needs a change (test factor). ECL should eliminate the

out-of-date terminology that are no longer used and should reflect more daily conversations. (Interview Oct. 15, 2009)

Tina: 我的教學完全符合 ECL 測驗. 幫助學生準備考試. 提升學生 ECL 成績一直是學校的目標與政策. 有老師說他不在乎 ECL 教學是偽君子.

My teaching is totally matched to the contents of the ECL test (test factor). We are preparing students for the ECL test too. Enhancing the scores on the ECL test is the school's priority in the education policy… Teachers would become hypocrites if they say they don't care about the ECL in their teaching. (Interview Oct. 15, 2009).

Tina: 學生…需要的是ECL,不太需要TOEFL…TOEFL給外面補習班的老師教…效果也會比較好…所以我覺得…ECL…學生需要的是ECL,又不像外面大學生需要出國唸書,而且一般大學也都只教一般英文. 我沒注意TOEFL的東西.

Students…need ECL, they don't need TOEFL (contextual factor)…Study TOEFL students should go to the cram schools… teachers over there teach better… So I feel…ECL…Students need ECL. (Our students) don't need to study abroad, and even the universities only teach general English. I don't pay attention to the TOEFL.

Tina: 托福太難,而且學生的程度不夠好…不適合我們的學生…學生基本的都有問題了怎麼能應付托福…

TOEFL is too difficult (test factor), and our students' English ability is not good enough (student factor)… it is not suited to our students… Students can't even solve the basic problems of English, how can they deal with TOEFL…

Interviewer: 可是托福有聽說讀寫

But, TOEFL measures listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Tina: 問題是學生比較需要ECL而不是托福,大部分的人要去美國受訓, 上級也比較重視ECL,每次都要我們檢討如何提升學生ECL成績…

The problem is our students need ECL but not TOEFL, the majority of our students are going to have military training in the US (contextual factor). The authority also pay more attention to the ECL (contextual factor), very often we have to discuss how to enhance students' scores of the ECL…

Tina: ECL期望且要求學生聽懂口語的指令及說明…要達到這些觀點考試多一點聽力是okay的…考聽力學生才會加強聽力.下課後學生才會多聽帶子.

ECL requests students to understand spoken orders and instructions … with regard to these aspects, it is okay to test more listening comprehension … by the listening tasks, students have to strengthen their listening ability. After classes, students should listen to more tapes (test factor). (Jan. 15, 2010).

Appendix 6: A sample of coding of the COLT scheme

COLT PART A
Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

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School ..... A

Teacher ..... Tina

Subject ..... Pre – test

Grade(s) .....

Lesson (min.) 3.0

Date 05.06.2009

Observer .....

Visit No .....

Page .....

TIME	ACTIVITIES & EPISODES	PARTICIPANT ORGANISATION							CONTENT								CONTENT CONTROL			STUDENT MODALITY					MATERIALS							
		Class			Group		Indiv.		Manag.		Language				Other Topics		Teacher/Text	Teacher/Text/Stud.	Student	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Other	Text		Audio	Visual	L2-NNS	L2-NS	L2-NSA	Student-made
		T→S/C	S↔S/C	Choral	Same task	Different tasks	Same task	Different tasks	Procedure	Discipline	Form	Function	Discourse	Socioling.	Narrow	Broad									Minimal	Extended						
		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
0:01 – 2:30	2 Giving a test	✓			✓		✓		✓		✓				✓		✓			✓					✓				✓			
2:30 – 28:00	Taking pre test	✓			✓		✓					✓			✓		✓			✓					✓		✓			✓		

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COLT PART A

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

School .... A

Teacher .... Tina

Subject .... ECL

Grade(s) ....

Lesson (min.) 5 (1)

Date 05.06.2009

Observer ....

Visit No ....

Page 2

TIME	ACTIVITIES & EPISODES	T→S/C (3)	S→S/C (4)	Choral (5)	Grp Same task (6)	Grp Diff tasks (7)	Indiv Same task (8)	Indiv Diff tasks (9)	Procedure (10)	Discipline (11)	Form (12)	Function (13)	Discourse (14)	Socioling. (15)	Narrow (16)	Broad (17)	Teacher/Text (18)	Teacher/Text/Stud (19)	Student (20)	Listening (21)	Speaking (22)	Reading (23)	Writing (24)	Other (25)	Text Minimal (26)	Text Extended (27)	Audio (28)	Visual (29)	L2-NNS (30)	L2-NS (31)	L2-NSA (32)	Student-made (33)
0:07	Ss listen to Q2	✓			✓		✓					✓			✓		✓			✓					✓			✓	✓	✓		
0:12	T explains Q2	✓			✓		✓				✓					✓		✓			✓					✓			✓	✓	✓		
1:15	Ss Listen to Q3	✓			✓		✓						✓			✓		✓			✓					✓			✓	✓	✓		
1:20	T Explains Q3	✓			✓		✓				✓					✓		✓			✓					✓			✓	✓	✓		
1:44	Ss listen to Q4	✓			✓		✓						✓			✓		✓			✓					✓			✓	✓	✓		
1:50	T explains Q4	✓			✓		✓						✓			✓		✓			✓					✓			✓	✓	✓		
2:30	Ss listen to Q5	✓			✓		✓									✓			✓		✓					✓			✓	✓	✓		
2:36	T explains Q5	✓			✓		✓				✓					✓		✓			✓					✓			✓	✓	✓		

COLT PART A

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

School .... A
Teacher .... Tina
Subject .... EeL
Grade(s) ....
Lesson (min.) .... t (1)
Date 05.06.2008
Observer ....
Visit No ....
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TIME	ACTIVITIES & EPISODES	PARTICIPANT ORGANISATION — Class T↔S/C (3)	S↔S/C (4)	Choral (5)	Group Same task (6)	Group Diff. tasks (7)	Indiv. Same task (8)	Indiv. Diff. tasks (9)	Manag. Procedure (10)	Manag. Discipline (11)	Lang. Form (12)	Lang. Function (13)	Lang. Discourse (14)	Lang. Socioling. (15)	Other Narrow (16)	Other Broad (17)	CONTENT CONTROL Teacher/Text (18)	Teacher/Text/Stud. (19)	Student (20)	MODALITY Listening (21)	Speaking (22)	Reading (23)	Writing (24)	Other (25)	MATERIALS Text Minimal (26)	Text Extended (27)	Audio (28)	Visual (29)	Source L2-NNS (30)	L2-NS (31)	L2-NSA (32)	Student-made (33)
2:51	Ss listen to Q6	✓	✓		✓		✓					✓			✓		✓			✓					✓		✓	✓		✓		
2:57	T explains Q6	✓	✓		✓		✓					✓			✓		✓			✓					✓							
3:34	Ss listen to Q7	✓	✓		✓		✓					✓			✓		✓			✓					✓							
3:43	T explains Q7	✓	✓			✓	✓				✓				✓		✓			✓					✓							
4:02	S answers	✓	✓			✓	✓				✓				✓		✓			✓					✓							
4:14	Ss listen to Q8	✓	✓		✓		✓					✓				✓	✓			✓					✓				✓			
4:18	T explains Q9	✓	✓		✓		✓					✓				✓	✓			✓					✓							
4:38	Ss listen to Q9	✓	✓		✓		✓					✓				✓	✓			✓					✓		✓			✓		
4:41	T explains Q9	✓														✓	✓								✓							

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COLT PART A

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

School: A
Teacher: Tina
Subject: Ecl

Grade(s): ....
Lesson (min.): t (2)
Date: 05.06.2009

Observer: ....
Visit No: ....
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TIME	ACTIVITIES & EPISODES	T↔S/C (3)	S↔S/C (4)	Choral (5)	Group Same task (6)	Group Different tasks (7)	Indiv. Same task (8)	Indiv. Different tasks (9)	Procedure (10)	Discipline (11)	Form (12)	Function (13)	Discourse (14)	Socioling. (15)	Narrow (16)	Broad (17)	Teacher/Text (18)	Teacher/Text/Stud. (19)	Student (20)	Listening (21)	Speaking (22)	Reading (23)	Writing (24)	Other (25)	Minimal (26)	Extended (27)	Audio (28)	Visual (29)	L2-NNS (30)	L2-NS (31)	L2-NSA (32)	Student-made (33)
0:02	Ss listen to Q10	✓			✓		✓					✓			✓		✓			✓					✓		✓	✓		✓		
	T explains Q10	✓			✓		✓				✓					✓		✓			✓					✓				✓			
0:25	Ss listen to Q11	✓			✓		✓					✓			✓		✓			✓					✓		✓	✓				
	T explains Q11	✓			✓		✓				✓					✓		✓			✓					✓				✓			
1:23	Ss listen to Q12	✓			✓		✓					✓			✓		✓			✓					✓		✓	✓		✓		
	T explains Q12	✓			✓		✓				✓					✓		✓			✓					✓				✓			
1:49	Ss listen to Q13	✓			✓		✓					✓			✓		✓			✓					✓		✓	✓		✓		
	T explains Q13	✓			✓		✓				✓					✓		✓			✓					✓				✓			

PARTICIPANT ORGANISATION: Class / Group / Indiv.
CONTENT: Manag. / Language / Other Topics
CONTENT CONTROL
STUDENT MODALITY
MATERIALS: Type (Text) / Source

COLT PART A

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

School .... A
Teacher .... Tina
Subject .... EcL

Grade(s) 5 (2)
Lesson (min.) ....
Date 05.06.2008

Observer ....
Visit No. ....
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TIME	ACTIVITIES & EPISODES	\#	PARTICIPANT ORGANISATION — Class: T↔S/C (3)	S↔S/C (4)	Choral (5)	Group: Same task (6)	Diff. tasks (7)	Indiv.: Same task (8)	Diff. tasks (9)	CONTENT — Manag.: Procedure (10)	Discipline (11)	Language: Form (12)	Function (13)	Discourse (14)	Socioling. (15)	Other topics: Narrow (16)	Broad (17)	CONTENT CONTROL — Teacher/Text (18)	Teacher/Text/Stud. (19)	Student (20)	STUDENT MODALITY — Listening (21)	Speaking (22)	Reading (23)	Writing (24)	Other (25)	MATERIALS — Text: Minimal (26)	Extended (27)	Audio (28)	Visual (29)	Source: L2-NNS (30)	L2-NS (31)	L2-NSA (32)	Student-made (33)
2:35	Ss listen to Q14	2	✓					✓								✓		✓			✓					✓		✓	✓		✓		
	T explains Q14		✓			✓		✓					✓			✓		✓			✓					✓				✓			
3:35	Ss listen to Q15		✓			✓		✓								✓		✓			✓					✓		✓	✓		✓		
4:58	T explains Q15		✓			✓		✓				✓				✓		✓								✓				✓			

COLT PART A

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

School .... A
Teacher .... Tina
Subject .... ECL

Grade(s) 5 (3)
Lesson (min.) ....
Date 05.06.2009

Observer ....
Visit No ....
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TIME	ACTIVITIES & EPISODES	Class T↔S/C (3)	Class S↔S/C (4)	Choral (5)	Group Same task (6)	Group Diff. tasks (7)	Indiv. Same task (8)	Indiv. Diff. tasks (9)	Manag. Procedure (10)	Manag. Discipline (11)	Lang. Form (12)	Lang. Function (13)	Lang. Discourse (14)	Lang. Socioling. (15)	Other Narrow (16)	Other Broad (17)	Teacher/Text (18)	Teacher/Text/Stud. (19)	Student (20)	Listening (21)	Speaking (22)	Reading (23)	Writing (24)	Other (25)	Text Minimal (26)	Text Extended (27)	Audio (28)	Visual (29)	L2-NNS (30)	L2-NS (31)	L2-NSA (32)	Student-made (33)
0:01	Ss listen to Q16	✓			✓		✓								✓		✓			✓					✓		✓			✓		
	T explains Q16	✓			✓		✓				✓				✓		✓			✓					✓				✓			
1:18	Ss listen to Q17	✓			✓		✓								✓		✓			✓					✓		✓			✓		
	T explains Q17	✓			✓		✓					✓			✓		✓			✓					✓				✓			
2:56	Ss listen to Q18	✓			✓		✓								✓		✓			✓					✓		✓	✓		✓		
	T explains Q18	✓			✓		✓				✓				✓		✓			✓					✓			✓	✓			
4:12	Ss listen to Q18	✓			✓		✓								✓		✓			✓					✓		✓	✓		✓		
	T explains Q18	✓			✓		✓				✓				✓		✓			✓					✓				✓			
6:08																																