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**A Study of English Learning Attitudes and
Perceptions among Senior High School Students
in Taiwan**

by

I-Fang Chung

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
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DEDICATION

To my family, my husband, Yi-Cheng,
and all people who support me throughout my studies.

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Abstract

This three-phase, sequential mixed methods study explores two aspects of communicative language teaching in Taiwanese senior high schools. Firstly, it examines the extent to which the communicative approach is implemented in the English classroom in Taiwan and secondly it investigates the attitudes of senior high school students towards their learning of English at school.

This research study employed the dominant-less dominant mixed method design, with a combination of a dominant quantitative approach and a less-dominant qualitative data aggregation procedure. Data was first collected through focus group interviews and classroom observations in the first two phases, the preliminary studies. The questionnaire used in the third-phase survey study was formulated on the basis of the data gathered from the preliminary studies. A total of 838 students from 11 senior high schools in Pingtung, southern Taiwan, responded to the questionnaire designed to reflect the pattern of their attitudes and perceptions of the classroom instructions they had experienced as well as the communicative and non-communicative activities in their English class.

Results from the focus group interviews are mostly consistent with those of the classroom observations. The findings revealed that the traditional approach, which focuses on the teaching of vocabulary, grammar and the explanation of the textbook contents, still prevailed in the English classroom. Teachers' classroom practices reflected students' current learning purpose, which is to achieve good exam results, as revealed in the focus group interviews.

The questionnaire survey found that despite their pressing need to "pass exams", the majority of students had positive attitudes towards communicative activities in class, believing that the best way of learning English is to be able to use it in real situations outside of the classroom. Nevertheless, students exhibited contradictory attitudes in that they showed inhibitions about speaking or participating actively in class, even though they had the belief that English is best learned through speaking. Finally, the data analysis revealed that some variables, such as "gender" and "major", played important roles in influencing learner attitudes towards English learning at school. On the other hand, there was little relationship between the variables "programme" and "mother tongue" and learner attitudes in this study.

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Background to the Study

Since the introduction of the idea of communicative competence and its implications for language teaching, communicative language teaching (CLT) has achieved prominence widely in the ELT field. CLT is associated with processes and goals in classroom learning, and its central theoretical concept is communicative competence (Savignon 2002). CLT has come into existence as a result of the need to focus in language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than just a mastery of structures. It is essentially regarded as a response to the criticisms and shortcomings of the other approaches and methods, such as Grammar-Translation and the Audiolingual Method.

A great deal has been written on the theory of CLT since its introduction, and research has highlighted the problems and challenges associated with its implementation, particularly in EFL contexts (see, for example, Anderson 1993; Shamin 1996; Ellis 1996; LoCastro 1996; Li 1998; Wang and Savignon 2001; Sato

2002). Despite the widespread adoption of the communicative approach by textbooks and curricula around the world, it was criticised as an approach that “appears to have brought innovation more on the level of theory than on the level of teachers’ actual classroom practices” (Karavas-Doukas 1996: 187).

In the context of Taiwan, curricular changes were recently initiated by the Taiwan Ministry of Education (MOE) to introduce a more communicative approach to English language teaching. English is a compulsory subject in the Taiwanese senior high schools. As a school subject, it is intended to enhance students’ English ability, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing, to prepare them for the advanced studies at university or for their future career. In an effort to enhance students’ ability to communicate effectively in English, the MOE published new curricula for English teaching in senior high school, which reflected the features of communicative-based teaching and material development as well as classroom practices.

The MOE changed the textbook policy, giving secondary school administrators a free hand to select their preferred textbooks. To avoid disputes that might arise from competing with the private publishers in the textbook market, the MOE decided to stop the task of editing and printing the standardised version of textbooks (MOE

2000), which had been done for several decades by the National Institute for Compilation and Translation (NICT), a governmental educational institute under the MOE. Different versions of textbooks written according to the principles of the communicative approach are now published by private publishers and are in use at senior high schools. Compared with the old version textbooks, the new English textbooks include more colourful pictures, daily-life dialogues, and themes that are more relevant to learners' real life. In these new textbooks, considerable emphasis is placed on the teaching of speaking and listening skills.

Since the curricular innovation, there have been some discouraging facts associated with English teaching and learning in high school in Taiwan. From my experience as an English teacher in junior high school for four years and senior high school for three years in Taiwan, I have observed that teaching-to-the-test is still a common practice as a result of the enormous pressure from the joint entrance examination. Wang's (2002) study points out that most of the teaching time and activities are dedicated to preparing students for the examination, and the teaching approach of grammar-translation continues to prevail. Despite the government's efforts to introduce a more communicative way of instruction, English teaching in most high schools in Taiwan remains essentially grammar-oriented (Wang 2002).

A fundamental innovation should involve changes at more than one level because one level alone is insufficient for it to become successful. As in the case of Taiwan, the revision of teaching materials, syllabus or curricula is not necessarily accompanied by changes at other levels, such as changes in teacher behaviour and learner attitudes. However, these could be the critical factors that impede or facilitate the implementation process. Although an abundance of research has pointed out the obstacles and difficulties in the promotion of CLT, comparatively few studies have been undertaken to explore the extent to which CLT is implemented by teachers in the English classroom in Taiwan. It is worth noting that with its major aim to develop learners' competence in using language appropriately in context, CLT is in sharp contrast to the traditional teacher-fronted, grammar-based, and exam-driven classroom instruction in Taiwan. Therefore, examining the influence the curricular innovation has had on classroom instruction would be particularly significant.

Another specific aspect of the implementation of CLT concerns the degree to which the learners themselves are responding positively to the changes. CLT began with an identification of the needs and interests of the learners and is seen as the result of an effort to respond to the call for materials and programmes to meet learners' communicative needs. Despite the increasing recognition of the essential role that

learner expectations and attitudes play in advancing or impeding curricular change (Savignon 2002), data concerning learner attitudes towards the classroom instruction they experience remains sparse in Taiwan. Learners' views and attitudes to the classroom practices are thus worthy of an in-depth investigation, particularly after the curricular innovation.

1.2 Research Questions

Set within the context of teaching English as a foreign language in Taiwanese senior high schools, the research study attempts to investigate the following questions:

1. What are students' experiences of classroom instruction in their English class and how do they perceive their English class?
2. To what extent do teachers' teaching practices reflect the communicative-based principles?
3. What are senior high school students' attitudes and perceptions of the classroom instruction they have experienced at school?
4. What are students' attitudes towards the communicative and non-communicative activities held at school?

5. What is the relationship between students of different personal backgrounds and their attitudes towards English learning at school?

1.3 Significance of the Study

The research study consists of three phases. In the first phase, a field study was conducted by using focus group interviews with senior high school students to find out students' experiences of classroom instruction in their English class and how they perceive their English class. In the second phase of the study, classroom observations were undertaken, seeking to explore the implementation of CLT in classrooms through teachers' practical practices.

The preliminary source of data gathered from the field study and observations were then taken as the basis for generating a questionnaire in the third phase questionnaire survey. To reveal students' attitudes to English learning at school, questionnaires were distributed for 838 senior high school students to complete. For a research area which is largely unexplored, as in the case of this study, it is very useful to triangulate observational data with interviews and questionnaires. The utility of mixed methods draws together the value and strength of each phase of study, which

facilitates the data collection and helps achieve the aims of the study.

By looking at the attitudes and perceptions of senior high school students in relation to the classroom instruction, this study reveals the extent to which communicative practice has become part of the classroom procedure. The advantages and problems of the implementation of CLT in senior high school in Taiwan are also identified. It is hoped that the exploration of learner attitudes and perceptions towards English learning at school can shed light on teachers' classroom decisions, and that the final conclusions might enable teachers to maximize the effect of their teaching by taking into account the needs of their own learners.

1.4 Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

As can be seen from the research questions, one of the purposes of this study is to examine how much senior high school teachers' teaching practices are in accord with the communicative way of classroom instruction. The primary desired goal of this study is to examine the attitudes and perceptions of senior high school students. This study, however, is not intended to identify what factors contribute to the participants' attitudes to and perspectives on English learning at school.

The research study is not without limitations. In the first phase of the study, focus group interviews were conducted with 30 second-year students recruited from the same senior high school. Although a number of useful findings arose from the study, students' accounts alone cannot be seen to accurately reflect their teachers' actual classroom practices. In the second phase of the study, observations were undertaken with only three English teachers for two sessions each. Reports on these teachers' classroom practices thus cannot be claimed to provide a complete picture of their actual classroom practices or the practices of teachers in other senior high schools.

Owing to the limitations in time and budget, data collection of the research study was limited to one geographical location, in 11 senior high schools in the same county of southern Taiwan. With 838 participants recruited for the third-phase survey study, the number of learner samples is reasonably large, but even so their views and perceptions cannot be said to represent the views of senior high school students throughout Taiwan. That is, the findings can not be generalized to all of the other senior high schools in Taiwan. Therefore, further research is required before any firm conclusions can be made about the extent to which CLT is implemented in the

English class as well as about the attitudes and perceptions of learners from other parts of Taiwan.

1.5 Outline of the Study

This thesis is organized into six chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the background and purposes of the study. Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature and provides the theoretical basis for this study. Initial explorations in the area to be studied are made through the methods of focus group interviews and classroom observations. Reports and comments regarding the preliminary results of these first two phases of study are presented in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 describes in detail the procedures of undertaking the questionnaire survey, which is the third phase and also the main study. Each finding is presented with brief explanations and discussions in Chapter 5, which comprises descriptive and inferential data analysis. In Chapter 6, conclusions and recommendations with regard to the research findings are made.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

This chapter provides an overview and discussion of the theoretical bases of the research. Section one summarises the definition and underlying principles of communicative language teaching (CLT). The second section looks at the innovations CLT has brought into the language classroom. Section three defines the term “attitude” and discusses the significance of studying learner attitudes. Some studies on teacher and learner attitudes in several different contexts are presented and discussed in the fourth section. The last section introduces the current situation of ELT in senior high school in the context of Taiwan, providing the background to the research study.

2.1 Communicative Language Teaching

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), the origins of communicative language teaching (CLT) are to be found in the changes in the British language teaching tradition dating from the late 1960s. CLT is essentially a manifestation of the 1970s, and it is since then that CLT has come to be viewed as the main objective of language teaching. It has become the driving force in shaping the planning, implementation, and evaluation of English language teaching programmes in almost every part of the

world (Kumaravadivelu 1993 a). Even in this century, it still enjoys great popularity and remains a current dominant methodology (Knight 2001: 155).

CLT reflects some dramatic shifts in attitudes towards both language and learning. Among these changes, it has been generally accepted that language is more than simply a system of rules; it should be seen as a dynamic resource for the creation of meaning. Moreover, it is accepted that there is a need to “distinguish between knowing various grammatical rules and being able to use the rules effectively and appropriately when communicating” (Nunan 1989: 12). In other words, CLT has grown out of the realization that knowledge of grammatical forms and structures alone does not adequately prepare learners for effective and appropriate use of the language they are learning.

Williams (1983) raises a similar point by stating that the communicative approach is not based on the analysis of language as object, but is more concerned with language in use. It allows for a wider perspective on language, which is considered not only in terms of its structures (such as grammar and vocabulary), but also in terms of the communicative functions it performs (Littlewood 1981). Seeing the need to focus in language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than on

mere mastery of structures gives rise to a gradual shift to a more communicative methodology from the “structural” design criteria.

Savignon (1991: 265) describes how the focus of CLT has been on “the elaboration and implementation of programmes and methodologies that promote the development of functional language ability through learner participation in communicative events”. Similarly, Knight (2001) explains that the desired outcome of CLT is to enable the learner to successfully communicate in the target language in real situations, rather than simply achieve a conscious understanding of the rules governing that language.

Savignon (2001: 27) characterizes CLT as “an approach or theory of intercultural communicative competence to be used in developing materials and methods appropriate to a given context of learning”. In short, the communicative approach starts from a theory of language as communication, and its goal is to develop learners’ “communicative competence”.

2.1.1 Communicative Competence

The term “communicative competence”, which represents the use of language in

social context, was first proposed by Hymes in 1972 in opposition to Chomsky's (1965) theory of competence. Chomsky distinguishes linguistic competence from linguistic performance by saying:

Linguistics theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. (Chomsky 1965: 3).

Chomsky holds that linguistic theory focuses on characterizing speakers' abstract abilities which enable them to produce grammatically correct sentences in language.

Hymes questions Chomsky's linguistic theory as being sterile, claiming that linguistic theory should be viewed as part of a more general theory including communication and culture. Hymes then introduced the theory of communicative competence, which he defines as what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. For Hymes, a person who acquires communicative competence is equipped with knowledge and ability in these aspects:

1. whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible
2. whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available
3. whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated

4. whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails (Hymes 1972: 281)

Another influential pedagogical analysis is proposed by Canale and Swain (1980), who further classify Hymes's communicative competence into four dimensions: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Their definition has then undergone some modifications over the years.

2.1.2 The Weak Version of CLT

Howatt (1984: 279) has distinguished between a "strong" and a "weak" version of communicative language teaching. The two versions, which are quite different from each other according to Holliday (1994), are briefly explained and distinguished as follows.

The weak version of communicative language teaching originates in the form of the functional-notional approach, and it successfully synthesised the traditional and communicative principles (Nunan 1988: 26). It is based on the assumption that the components of communicative competence can be identified and taught in a systematic way. It is defined as "an approach to teaching that is directed at developing communicative abilities in the learners by teaching aspects of communicative

competence” (Ellis 2003: 340). Li (1998; 2001) characterizes the weak version of CLT as:

1. a focus on communicative functions;
2. a focus on meaningful tasks rather than on language per se (e.g., grammar or vocabulary study);
3. efforts to make tasks and language relevant to a target group of learners through an analysis of genuine, realistic situations;
4. the use of authentic, from-life materials;
5. the use of group activities; and
6. the attempt to create a secure, nonthreatening atmosphere.

The weak version believes that practice of language use is a way of developing communicative skills. Howatt (1984: 279) explains that the weak version of CLT provides learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and tries to incorporate the activities into a wider programme of language teaching. As Holliday (1994) claims, these models are often in the form of structures within a context provided by a function, notion, or topic, and followed by a “communicative activity” to practise the language item.

Teaching based on the functional-notional approach as in the weak version has traditionally employed the present-practice-produce (PPP) teaching procedure. The PPP approach is based on the assumption that “what is taught is indeed learned”, and it particularly puts emphasis on the final two stages of practice and production. In the

PPP approach, as Ellis (2003) illustrates, a language item is first presented to the learners by using examples with or without an explanation. Then this item is practised in a controlled way by means of “exercises”. Finally, the production stage provides opportunities to use the item freely and flexibly, which is expected to consolidate what is being learned and to extend its range of applicability.

Weak CLT involves task-supported language teaching, in which tasks are seen as a means to provide communicative practice for language items introduced in a more traditional way. Nevertheless, Ellis (2003) argues that in the weak version, tasks “constitute a necessary but not a sufficient basis for a language curriculum”. The weak version of CLT sets a strong requirement for group and pair work, and it is essential for students to use English collaboratively for the purpose of practice. Yet as Holliday (1994: 170) maintains, this “demands a methodological regime which many teachers with large, monolingual classes find particularly hard to maintain”.

PPP has been proved to be highly durable because it carries a number of advantages. Among these advantages, a comforting one for teachers is that it affords teachers procedures for maintaining control of the classroom and orchestrating classroom behaviour. Required to take the structure of the day and do whatever is

necessary to ensure that the structure is learned, teachers are in charge of the proceedings and are able to reinforce their power over students (Skehan 1996).

Although the weak version of CLT is an improvement over the traditional methods, it has been criticized as not being able to develop learners' communicative competence. There are growing doubts as to whether PPP can achieve what it promises, such as the ability to use the structures taught in real communication (Ellis 2003). These doubts are reinforced by teachers, who learn from their experience that what is taught is not always learned. With the passage of time, the dissatisfaction with the PPP approach has become widespread. As Skehan (1996) goes:

The underlying theory for a PPP approach has now been discredited. The belief that a precise focus on a particular form leads to learning and automatization (that learners will learn what is taught in the order in which it is taught) no longer carries much credibility in linguistics or psychology. (Skehan 1996: 18)

2.1.3 The Strong Version of CLT

The strong version of communicative language teaching stresses that language ability is developed through activities which simulate target performance. Howatt (1984: 279) claims that the strong version of CLT is based on the assumption that language is acquired through communication, so that "it is not merely a question of activating an

existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself”. Learners discover the structural system of a language through the process of learning how to communicate, rather than acquire language as a structural system before they learn how to use it in communication.

Ellis (2003) defines the strong version as “an approach to teaching that is directed at developing communicative abilities in the learners by creating conditions for learners to learn through communicating”. Instead of working on language drills or controlled practice that leads towards communicative language use, learners are required to do in class the activities they will have to do outside (Nunan 1988). In contrast to the weak version, these activities do not necessarily have to be carried out in pairs or groups. Teachers do not need to monitor pair or group work closely since the aim of the activities is not to practise language forms. These would make the approach much more manageable in monolingual large classes.

Task-based language teaching constitutes a strong version of CLT, in which tasks are seen as a way of enabling learners to learn a language by experiencing how it is used in communication. Although task-based instruction (TBI) is not the only way to achieve the strong version of CLT, tasks are both necessary and sufficient for learning

in the strong version (Ellis 2003). Skehan (1996: 20) defines tasks as activities with meaning as their main focus. Communicative tasks are defined by (Nunan 1989: 10) as tasks that “involve learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form”. They contrast with more traditional language tasks, in which learners are required to pay attention to specific linguistic properties, such as phonological, lexical, or grammatical, so that they can learn them or practise using them more accurately (Ellis 1997). Nunan (1989) concludes that different definitions of tasks share one thing in common: “they all imply that tasks involve communicative language use in which the user’s attention is focused on meaning rather than linguistic structure”.

Without monolithic identity, no one version of task-based language teaching has gained widespread acceptance (Markee 1997). Swan (2005: 377) claims that although proponents of TBI vary in their emphases and beliefs, the following principles are broadly agreed on:

1. Instructed language learning should primarily involve “natural” or “naturalistic” language use, based on activities concerned with meaning rather than language.
2. Instruction should favour learner-centredness rather than teacher control.
3. Since purely naturalistic learning does not normally lead to target-like

accuracy, intervention is necessary, in order to foster the acquisition of formal linguistic elements while retaining the perceived advantages of a “natural” approach.

4. This can best be done by providing opportunities for “focus on form”, which will draw students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication.
5. Communicative tasks are a particularly appropriate vehicle for such an approach.
6. More formal pre- or post-task language study may be useful. This may contribute to acquisition by priming or boosting “noticing of formal features during communication.
7. Traditional approaches are ineffective and undesirable, especially where they involve proactive formal instruction and practice decoupled from communicative work.

Holliday (1994) compares the weak and strong version of CLT, claiming that the weak version focuses on language practice, while the strong version focuses on learning about how language works in discourse. He further elaborates:

Whereas in the weak version the term “communicative” relates more to students communicating with the teacher and with each other to practise the language forms which have been presented, in the strong version, “communicative” relates more to the way in which the student communicates with the text. (Holliday 1994: 171)

In addition, Howatt (1984) distinguishes between the weak and strong version of CLT by concluding:

If the former could be described as “learning to use” English, the latter entails “using English to learn it”. (Howatt 1984: 297)

However, although I have sketched out some of the definitions and principles underpinning CLT, it is worth mentioning that despite frequent talk of the “communicative method” in the literature, CLT is not a uniform approach or a monolithic packaged set of procedures (Hall and Hewings 2001). Without single or monolithic identity, therefore, the definition of CLT is not fixed.

2.2 The Impact of CLT in the Language Classroom

As a term for methods and curricula that embrace not only the goal but also the process of classroom learning, communicative language teaching has given rise to considerable changes in the language classroom. The communicative design criteria permeate both textbooks and the methodology of the classroom. As Williams (1983: 173) claims, the major characteristics of CLT are related to the three areas: syllabus design, methodology, and materials. It is further explained that the dominant feature at the level of syllabus design is learners’ needs. The focus at the level of methodology is on meaningful communication; while the concern at the level of material is with authenticity.

The following section intends to discuss the changes that CLT has brought to

aspects of the classroom activities, the role of teaching materials, as well as teacher and learner roles in the classroom. It concludes with a discussion regarding the implementation of CLT.

2.2.1 The Communicative Classroom

Hedge (2000) points out that the communicative approach to language teaching is premised on the belief that the development of communicative language ability is the goal of classroom learning, in which communicative practice is part of the process. In a communicative classroom, the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning are to be promoted. In order to initiate and participate in meaningful interaction, students should be guided to go beyond the traditional memorized patterns and monitored repetitions (Kumaravadivelu 1993 a).

Meaningful communication is an essential element for activities to be defined as communicative. A communicative activity involves the addressee in processing unpredictable utterances when only one new element of information is incorporated in a given and predictable structure. Generally, students work in pairs or groups to transfer or negotiate meaning in situations where one person has information which the other(s) lack (Celce-Murcia 2001). For instance, communicative methodology has

often utilized “information gap” techniques, which require learners to share or exchange information that has been differentially distributed. Meaningful communication arises since the addressees cannot predict what will be said to them in the exchanges of information.

A strong cooperative element exists in many communicative activities in the classroom. When the activities are held, the class is usually divided into pairs or groups, which interact independently of the teacher. Once an activity is initiated, what teachers should do is to give full scope to students’ spontaneous learning processes rather than attempting to control it. An important principle in the process of developing communicative skills is that errors are regarded as a completely normal phenomenon and are treated with greater tolerance (Littlewood 1981). Therefore, learners are not constantly corrected by the teacher during the process of such activities. Littlewood further states that a learning atmosphere which offers learners a sense of security and value as individuals is an essential factor to enhance learners’ motivation to express themselves, facilitating the development of communicative skills.

2.2.2 Role of Teaching Materials

During the 1970s, there was a great boom in the publication of teaching materials designed according to the “communicative” principles, a “new direction” in that decade. In the early days of this new communicative movement, there was even a tendency to view the design of communicative materials as the only way forward. As a result, communicative design criteria permeate general coursebooks and materials that cover specific language skills, as well as the methodology of the classroom (McDonough and Shaw 1993: 19).

The role of communicative teaching materials is primarily to promote communicative language use. It is commonly agreed that teaching materials should aim to be “communicative” and “authentic” in some sense (McDonough and Shaw 1993). Authentic materials can be defined as materials taken from real-life sources, rather than textbooks or exam practice books. It is not specifically produced to help non-natives to learn a foreign language (Williams 1983). The advent of the communicative approach was also followed by an advocacy of the wide stock of flexible and authentic supplementary materials as the substitute for textbooks (Medgyes 1986).

2.2.3 Teacher and Learner Roles

It can be seen that in all strands of CLT, the teachers' role in the learning process becomes less dominant. Instead, emphasis is placed on the learner's contribution through independent learning (Littlewood 1981). Among the several roles assumed for teachers in communicative language teaching, Breen and Candlin (2001) identify three key roles for CLT teachers: facilitator of the communication process, participant within the learning-teaching group, and researcher-learner. Other roles assumed for teachers include counselor, guide, organizer, group process managers, and needs analyst (Richards and Rodgers 1986). One fairly new role among these is "needs analyst", which refers to someone who can analyse their learners' language needs (Knight 2001).

Nunan and Lamb (2001) add that in contrast to the traditional roles as central and active dominators in the classroom, CLT teachers become facilitators of the communication process, needs analysts, counselors, and process managers. These arguments seem to imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher. It is argued that teachers should subordinate their teaching behaviour to the learning needs of their students. As a result, teachers need to redefine their traditional role, which appears to conflict with their new role.

Since communicative language teaching puts emphasis on the processes of communication instead of mastery of language forms, it leads to very different learner roles from those in the traditional classrooms. Breen and Candlin (1980) state that learner roles within CLT are as follows:

The role of learner as negotiator – between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning – emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiators within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way. (Breen and Candlin 1980:110)

Learners are expected to interact chiefly with each other rather than with the teacher, and error correction from the teacher might be infrequent or even nonexistent. They are seen as active negotiators and interactors, giving as well as taking through the negotiation of meaning (Nunan and Lamb 2001). Kumaravadivelu (1993 a: 12) asserts that learners in a communicative classroom should be active to “ask for information, seek clarification, express an opinion, agree and/or disagree with peers and teachers”. They should be encouraged to go beyond the traditional memorized patterns and monitored repetitions by initiating and participating in meaningful interaction.

One trend stemming in part from CLT is the development of learner-centred approaches to language teaching. This approach advocates that information by and

from learners would be used in planning, implementing and evaluating language programmes (Nunan 1989: 19). It is thus suggested that learners should not only be involved in the design and selection of tasks, but also be allowed to decide what to do and how they want to do it. This again implies a major change in the roles assigned to both learners and teachers (Nunan 1989).

2.2.4 The Implementation of CLT

While a great deal has been written on the practice of communicative language teaching, a growing number of the studies have highlighted the difficulties and challenges associated with the adoption of CLT in the EFL contexts such as Taiwan, Japan, South Korea, Hong Kong and China. Research suggest that the principles of communicative language teaching are rarely seen in classrooms because most teachers claiming to be committed to the communicative approach still follow more structural approaches in their classrooms. The deep-rooted traditional methods, large classes, lack of authentic materials, teachers' deficiencies in English, and little contact with real world English are the obstacles often mentioned (Burnaby and Sun 1989; Li 1998; Wang 2002).

Medgyes (1986) examines certain aspects of the communicative approach and

points out the enormous difficulties it presents to the language teacher. It is argued that with one of its chief tenets that the foreign language can be learnt only in real communicative situations where real messages are exchanged, the communicative approach places too heavy a burden on the teacher. One example is that during class, teachers have to create favourable conditions in order to meet learners' needs. Apart from this, there are far more complex difficulties that non-native teachers have to tackle. It is thus understandable why in contexts where English is a foreign language, teachers often express the concern that it is difficult or inappropriate to teach English communicatively.

In order to investigate the degree to which genuine communication is evident in communicative language classes, Nunan (1987) conducted a study in which five "communicative" language lessons were recorded, transcribed, and analysed. All of the teachers involved in the study are knowledgeable about and committed to communicative language teaching. However, the results indicate that despite teachers' claim to teach communicatively, there is little genuine communication between teacher and student or between student and student. When the patterns of interactions are examined closely, they are even found to involve a great deal of "traditional" norms and structures. Nunan (1987: 144) therefore concluded, "There is growing

evidence that, in communicative classes, interactions may, in fact, not be very communicative after all”.

Ellis (1996) questions the appropriateness of the introduction of communicative approach, a predominantly Western language teaching approach, to Far Eastern cultures. The distinction between ESL and EFL is proposed to highlight the mismatch for Asian learners between the instrumental aims of the communicative approach and their own situation. Unlike the ESL teachers who can act as facilitators, roles of the EFL teachers are much heavier as they are the only provider of experience in the target language. For the communicative approach to be made suitable for Asian conditions, it is suggested that teachers should filter the communicative approach and redefine the teacher-student relationship, making it culturally attuned and accepted.

Ellis's claim is echoed by Li (1998) in a study exploring the perceived difficulties that secondary English teachers experience in implementing the communicative approach in South Korea. It is revealed that the difficulties are caused by the students, the educational system, and CLT's inadequate account of EFL teaching and the lack of effective and efficient assessment instruments. The constraints from students, Li argues, include their low English proficiency, little

motivation for communicative competence, and resistance to class participation. Students' limited vocabulary and command of English makes it hard for teachers to carry out the oral communicative activities. Additionally, since the National University Entrance Exam is grammar based, high school students tend to care more about grammar than communicative ability. After many years of schooling, students become accustomed to the traditional classroom structure and rely on the teacher to give them information directly. Li thus suggests that in order to adopt CLT in EFL countries like South Korea, there is a need to change the fundamental approach to education.

Although the context in which the language pedagogy takes place is a crucial determiner of the success or failure of learners, it is often neglected. Bax (2003) points out that the implicit emphasis on communication and methodology of CLT relegates and sidelines the context in which we teach, suggesting that CLT will work in any contexts. Accordingly, Bax proposes the "Context Approach", in which the learning context will be the first priority, and identifying key aspects of that context is the first step before deciding what and how to teach in any given class. Apart from the coursebook, local conditions, the class conditions, the classroom culture, and so on, the key aspects of a context should also include "individual students and their learning

needs, wants, styles, and strategies” (Bax 2003: 285).

2.3 Attitude towards CLT

The purpose of this section is to present several strands of literature relevant to learner attitudes towards English teaching at school. It first describes a definition of attitudes, in which their nature, three components, as well as the relationship among these components will be included. This is followed by discussions about the importance of attitudes. The second section will examine closely the significance of investigating learner attitudes towards language teaching.

2.3.1 Definition and Importance of Attitudes

The study of attitudes has a long and complex history in social psychology. Attitudes have the following characteristics. First, attitudes involve affect and evaluation. It is seen as a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an attitude object. Moreover, attitudes determine how we process information with regard to the attitude object (Eiser 1986: 11-12; Bohner and Wänke 2002: 13-14). If we have an attitude towards an object, we do not simply experience it, but also evaluate it. For example, a student’s positive attitude towards communicative activities can be inferred from the

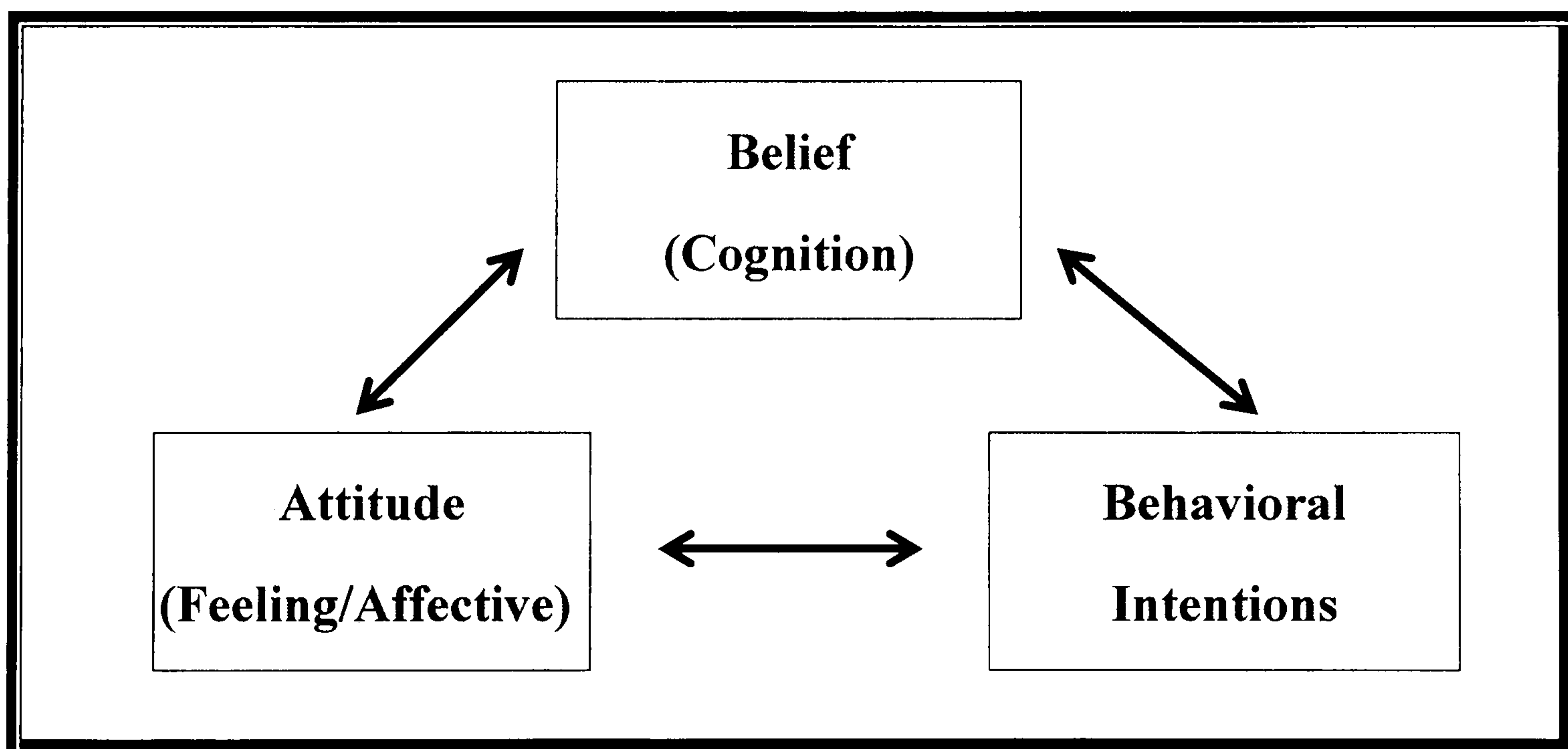
fact that he or she would like to participate in communicative activities in an English class. Similarly, a student's favourable attitude towards communicative activities can facilitate the explanation of why he or she would like to take part in communicative activities in an English class.

It has been widely accepted that attitudes are examined by looking at the three components: *cognition*, *affect*, and *behaviour* (Rosenberg & Hovland 1960: 3; Zimbardo *et al.* 1977; Eiser 1986: 53; Bohner and Wänke 2002: 5). According to Zimbardo *et al.* (1977: 20), cognition is defined as the knowledge, beliefs, opinions and thoughts that a person has about a given object or person. Affect refers to a person's evaluation of, liking of, or emotional response to some object or person. Behaviour involves the person's overt behaviour directed toward the object or person. These three components are closely related, although not synonymous with each other.

Concerning the relationship among the three components, Oppenheim (1992: 175) claims that attitudes are reinforced by *belief* (the cognitive component) and often attract strong *feelings* (the emotional/affect component), which may lead to particular behavioural *intents* (the behaviour/action tendency component). It is generally

believed that attitudes influence behaviour. Despite the fact that the relationship between attitudes and behaviour is not always straightforward but rather complex, a person's attitude toward a particular attitude object may most certainly influence his or her behaviour toward the object (Bohner and Wänke 2002). According to Oskamp (1991: 270), the relationship among the three components is as shown in the figure below.

Figure 2.1: Three components of attitude



This model is elaborated by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), who suggest that the term “attitude” should be applied to only the affective component, which refer to “a person’s favourable or unfavourable evaluation of an object”. They label the cognitive dimension as “belief”, defining it as “the information a person has about an object”.

Finally, the behavioural component refers to “the person’s intentions to perform various activities” (1975: 12).

Bohner and Wänke (2002: 14) argue that attitudes are important and can be analysed at various levels in all subjects of social research, such as:

1. At the *individual level*, attitudes influence perception, thinking, other attitudes and behaviour. Accordingly, attitudes contribute heavily to a person’s psychological make-up.
2. At the *interpersonal level*, information about attitudes is routinely requested and communicated. If we know others’ attitudes, the world becomes a more predictable place. Our own thought and behaviour may be shaped by this knowledge, and we may try to control others’ behaviour by changing their attitudes.
3. At the *societal level*: attitudes towards one’s own groups and other groups are at the core of intergroup cooperation and conflict. A negative outgroup attitude or prejudice can cause discriminatory behaviour or even direct violence.

By shaping the social world for individuals, groups and societies at large, attitudes are most relevant for everybody’s daily life. Because of their crucial role in our social lives, attitudes have been a central concept in many topics of social psychology for the last 60 years. As Eagly and Chaiken (1993) maintain, the attitude concept has remained in wide use in social psychology and “has been the focus of extensive theoretical and empirical development since the 1920s”. They are a central concept in

topics of social research, such as politics, education, anthropology, communication and many others. Since they are so important, social psychologists have devoted much time and ingenuity to finding ways to measuring them (Oppenheim 1992).

Judging from the above theoretical arguments, studying learner attitudes towards school English class would be an effective way to understand learners' beliefs, feelings, and behaviours regarding school English class. It can also help to examine the relationship among these components of attitudes. This can be further elaborated from the following four aspects.

First, a student's beliefs about school English class reflect the way he or she perceives school English class. Next, an attitude can be considered as a cause of students' behaviours. A student who has a positive attitude towards school English class may demonstrate active participation in communicative activities held in an English class, while one with a negative attitude may not. Thirdly, the concept of attitude helps to explain the consistency or diversion between a student's attitude and behaviour. The study of the relationship between attitudes and behaviour makes it possible to find out causes of the discrepancy as well as solutions to overcome them. Finally, the concept of attitude can facilitate to summarise and categorise research

studies relating to attitudes towards school English class.

2.3.2 Significance of Exploring Learner Attitudes

A communicative syllabus is essentially student-oriented, and a communicative approach presupposes that students take the central role in learning. Thus, the design of instructional methods should reflect the unique interests, styles, needs, and goals that individual learners possess (Savignon 1991). According to Littlewood (1981: 93), learners' psychological state plays a crucial role in helping or hindering the developmental processes of communicative ability, which occur "inside the learners". Apart from providing the stimulus and experience these processes seem to require, teachers have no direct control over them.

Nunan (1988: 27) makes a straightforward point by stating that communicative approaches are essentially student-centred. He concludes that its aim is "to cover, in any particular phase, only what the learner needs and sees as important". In a learner-centred curriculum, methodology must be informed by the attitudes of the learners (Nunan 1988: 88). The importance of learner attitudes is also much discussed by Savignon (1997), who not only stresses the interrelation of learner attitudes and L2

achievement, but also insists that ultimate success in learning to use a second language most likely would depend on the attitude of the learner.

Teachers' knowledge of learner attitudes or perceptions, such as how they would like to approach the tasks required in a language class, should ultimately help to facilitate more effective teaching strategies. As Celce-Murcia (2001: 10) suggests, a crucial thing that teachers need to do before they can make good choices of an approach or a method is to determine the attitudes and learning styles of individual students. Nevertheless, various studies have reported that there can be considerable discrepancies of opinion between learners and their teachers or syllabus experts. A divergence of opinion between these two groups has been noted in relation to what learners need and prefer in language learning (Nunan 1988; Spratt 1999).

For example, a comparative study by Nunan (1988) reveals a clear mismatch between learners' and teachers' views of language learning. The results of the study, which compares students' and teachers' rating of 10 learning activities according to their degree of importance, indicate that only one out of the 10 activities is given the same rating by the two groups. All of the other ratings are different, and some are even dramatically mismatched. Spratt (1999) conducted another study in Hong Kong,

in which comparisons are made between learners' preferred activities with teachers' perceptions of what those preferences are. The results show that there is only an approximate 50% correspondence between teachers' perceptions and learners' preferences.

Despite the fact that some studies emphasize the crucial roles learners play in the promotion of communicative language teaching, studies regarding the application of CLT have placed more emphasis on the teachers' rather than the students' perceptions. The learner and the diverse cultures which he or she represents are rarely investigated (Holliday 1994). Since learners play such a crucial role in communicative language teaching, it is essential to explore their attitudes toward learning so that their needs and interests can be identified and met. What is more, results obtained from exploring learner attitudes have implications for syllabus and materials design, classroom practice, as well as teachers' decision-making processes.

2.4 Research on Attitudes towards CLT

In this section, some studies about both teacher and learner attitudes are reviewed, providing us with the picture of the scope and focus of recent research on attitudes

towards CLT. Since attitudes cannot be directly observable, different instruments were adopted to measure them in the following studies.

2.4.1 Research on Teacher Attitudes

In Burnaby and Sun's (1989) study, 24 Chinese teachers of English report the various constraints and difficulties in the implementation of CLT in the Chinese education system. The following are some of the cited constraints: the context of the wider curriculum, traditional teacher-centred methods, limited resources and equipment, large class size and tight schedule, and the low status of teachers who teach communicative rather than analytic skills. Although teachers generally have favourable views on communicative language teaching, they feel its applications are limited due to the needs and purposes of most Chinese students. Chinese teachers strongly believe that the communicative methods are suitable for the ESL contexts and purposes, while the Chinese methods are more appropriate for the EFL contexts, such as China.

Karavas-Doukas (1996) reported similar findings in the responses of 14 Greek English language teachers in a survey of attitudes towards CLT and in the observations made in their classrooms. It is found that there is a discrepancy between

teachers' classroom practices and the positive attitudes they expressed towards the communicative approach. The classroom observations reveal that "classroom practices (with very few exceptions) deviated considerably from the principles of the communicative approach" (p.193). Most lessons are teacher-fronted, and there is an explicit focus on form. In other words, in spite of teachers' positive attitudes towards CLT, they still prefer a methodology based on more traditional concepts.

Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) used multiple data sources including interviews, observations, and surveys to investigate how Japanese second language teaching inservice teachers view and define communicative language teaching. The teachers point out three major challenges they encounter in implementing CLT, including subject matter articulation, lack of institutional support, and their own lack of proficiency in the L2. The teachers in this study rely little on communicative activities and claim that some of their students simply want a grammar focus in class.

Wada (2002) conducted a survey of teachers' perceptions about a number of issues related to the government reform for the development of communicative competence in the Japanese school system. It is reported that a wide discrepancy exists between what the Japanese government intends to achieve and what English

teachers are actually doing in their classroom. Despite the government's efforts in advocating the implementation of communicative activities in the classroom, the grammar-translation method continues to be favoured by teachers since it closely corresponds to the contents of college entrance exam. Most teachers regard "teaching the contents of the textbook" as their top-ranked goal (Wada 2002: 37).

Musumeci (2002) argues that one of the biggest obstacles to change in language teaching practice is teachers' perception that they don't have enough time to try something different. Many of them even feel compelled to spend considerable classroom time on the explanation and practice of discrete grammar points. Hubbell's (2002) study suggests that many university teachers in Japan have limited understanding of the communicative approach to language teaching and learning. It is also not surprising that a number of misconceptions arise when many teachers remain confused about what CLT exactly involves (Thompson 1996). Even if teachers express their individual ideas or knowledge of communication-oriented English, they face a dichotomy between their wishes and the reality in the classroom. As Sato (2002) argues, many teachers experience a dilemma between their individual ideas of communication-oriented English and a hidden goal of examination-oriented English.

Innovations are always adapted by teachers in the way they think is appropriate for their circumstances (Palmer 1993). As Li (1998: 678) argues, “teachers’ perceptions of the feasibility of a CLT innovation in a particular context are crucial in determining the ultimate success or failure of that innovation”. Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) reveal in their study that teachers solidify their notions of foreign language teaching in further pursuing their evolving conceptions of CLT through resorting to their personal ideas and experiences, rather than the academic literature pertaining to CLT.

2.4.2 Research on Learner Attitudes

Findings from Anderson’s (1993) study of ELT suggest that learners’ skeptical attitude towards the use of communicative activities as learning tools is one of the obstacles in implementing CLT. Similarly, Shamin (1996) identifies learners’ resistance as a barrier in her attempt to introduce innovative CLT in her Pakistani English classroom. It is further argued that although learners’ resistance can be a very effective barrier to change, their role is generally marginalized during the planning and decision making phases when an innovation is being introduced.

The results of large-scale surveys conducted by Liu and Littlewood (1997) in

Hong Kong indicate that students give no evidence of reluctance to adopt active speech roles in the classrooms, which is sometimes viewed as a problem with East Asian students. Contrary to what is generally believed, the university students in Hong Kong in this study adopt a positive attitude towards participation in classroom discourse. They like communicative work such as engaging in pair or group work in class, and prefer university classes in which students do most of the talking. Accompanied by their desire to take part in active communication in English is their strong desire to have their mistakes corrected in order to know whether their production is accurate.

A study by Li (1998) shows that students in secondary school in South Korea are mostly concerned about grammar and scores but are reluctant to participate in class activities, which became one of the key difficulties for the adoption of CLT in a previously traditional classroom. Cortazzi and Jin (1996) find that the major difficulties teachers confront in using communicative methods in the classroom are the negative aspects of the students' approaches to learning. These negative aspects include students' paying too much attention to grammar and vocabulary, being unwilling to work in groups, and not being independent or open to alternative ideas. Li's (1998) case study in South Korea concludes that 17 out of 18 teachers identify

students' lack of motivation to work on their communicative competence as a major limitation in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea.

Rao's (2002) study looks at Chinese students' perceptions of communicative and non-communicative activities in the EFL classroom. The results conclude that most of the students favour a combination of communicative and non-communicative activities in their English classroom. However, 28 out of 30 students refer to their lack of motivation as one of the main constraints on their interest in communicative activities. Moreover, there exists the conflict between what communicative activities demand and what the EFL situation in China allows.

Horwitz (1988) explores beginning university foreign language students' beliefs and finds that students hold a range of beliefs on a variety of issues concerning language learning and teaching. She suggests that a major obstacle to the attainment of the desired learning outcomes comes from failing to take learner perspectives into consideration. Another study conducted by Sakui and Gaies (1999) examines beliefs about language learning of 1296 Japanese university learners of English, concluding that Japanese university learners of English have some awareness of and beliefs about different methodological orientations they may experience in their classes.

Littlewood (2001) conducted a survey with 2656 students from eleven different countries in Asian and Europe to explore their attitudes towards classroom English learning. It was found that most of the students in all countries question the traditional authority structure of the classroom and the transmission mode of learning. They would like to be active participants rather than passive learners in their learning process in the classroom. Furthermore, most students in all countries hold a positive attitude towards co-operating in groups to achieve common goals.

2.5 English Language Teaching in Senior High School in Taiwan

2.5.1 The Current Situation

The shift to a communicative methodology did not happen simultaneously throughout the world due to the differing and changing perceptions of the international roles and needs of education systems. An example is that communicative language teaching has been introduced and has become a current trend in Taiwan only in the recent decade.

To begin with, it is necessary to present a particularized definition of CLT in the Taiwanese context as this research study is based on and conducted in this particular context. The Taiwan Ministry of Education (MOE) claims that CLT for Taiwanese

teachers and students is as follows:

"Communicative Language Teaching in Taiwan will have the goal of producing reasonably fluent communicative skills appropriate to the local setting. Towards this goal, the teacher will retain conventional authority in the classroom while conducting activities that encourage interactions among students, teach grammar in meaningful contexts (rather than as an unsituated system of forms), utilize English materials authentic in the local setting (e.g. Taiwanese English newspapers or Taiwanese literature in English) and make judicious use of Chinese language in the English classroom". (Zeng 2001:12)

The definition above indicates that the ultimate goal of EFL instruction in Taiwan is to help Taiwanese speakers of English to use the language effectively and appropriately as educated Taiwanese. By enhancing the English language competence of all Taiwanese and increasing the number of competent English users, the new education policy aims to prepare Taiwan for its increasing national gains and international status.

In 1994 and 1995, MOE published new curricula for English teaching in both junior and senior high schools respectively. With the aim to raise the communicative competence of English users, this curricular innovation exhibits the feature of communicative-based teaching, which has become the principle for textbook writing and classroom instruction. Accompanied by the innovation is the development of new

textbooks designed and published by different publishers. The design of these textbooks, which have been in use since fall 1999, is claimed to adhere to the principles of CLT and the development of students' communicative competence. Changes in assessment also occurred, making exam contents more practical, interesting and relevant to learners' daily life.

One of the distinct characteristics of senior high school students in Taiwan is that their contact with the foreign language is rather limited. Because English is a foreign language in Taiwan, what the school offers could be the only experience of the language that most students have. The time-table that most high schools provide often includes only five or six hours of English class per week. There are usually around forty to fifty students in a class, and mostly the teacher decides what actually takes place in the classroom by selecting what to teach from the textbook in accordance with the rigid schedule. During class, teachers, particularly new teachers, are dependent on a textbook, which are always accompanied by both sound recordings on CD-ROMs and visual aids such as VCD. In Wang's (2002: 144) study, a professor indicates that with the grammar-translation method most frequently used, the common practices in both junior and senior high schools are form-focused. In sum, English

language teaching in Taiwan can be featured by “three-centeredness”: teacher-centred, textbook-centred, and grammar-centred.

As has been stated, teachers traditionally control what goes on in the classroom in Taiwan. It would be significant to explore to what extent CLT, the student-oriented instruction, is put into practice in senior high school in Taiwan. In addition, it is worth exploring whether there might be largely unnoticed gaps between the expectations of the teachers and students in the English classroom. As Nunan (1993) asserts, mismatches between the teaching preference of the teacher and the learning preference of learners may be a source of difficulty. Therefore, it is equally important to explore both teachers’ and students’ perceptions so as to obtain a fuller picture of what needs to be understood and further researched.

2.5.2 Recent Studies on the Classroom Practice in Taiwan

Wang and Savignon (2001) carried out a study with 174 freshman students in two universities in Taipei. The students were invited to answer a questionnaire designed to investigate their experience with EFL instructional practices in high school, their attitudes toward these practices, as well as their general beliefs about English language learning. The study has resulted in a number of significant findings:

1. The students generally experience a far more grammar-focused (or form-focused) instruction than a meaning-focused instruction at both junior and senior levels of high school. Only few report having experienced a communicative approach.
2. Students express highly negative attitudes toward the grammar-focused instruction, while their attitude toward the meaning-focused instruction is positive.
3. The learners believe language teaching should focus on communication, rather than being grammar-focused or form-focused.

In sum, there is an obvious mismatch between the preference of high school English language learners in Taiwan and their reported experience of classroom instruction. That is, a clear mismatch exists between the expressed learner needs and their perceptions of instructional practices. Wang and Savignon (2001: 354) argue, “such mismatch between learner beliefs and classroom practices may suggest a need for more communication about the goals set for learning”.

A major limitation of this study, however, is that it relies mainly on university students' recollections of their English learning experiences back to their senior and even junior high school time. It is actually risky to rely too much on stretching

people's memories to the extent that the answers for many of them are likely to be inaccurate (Bryman 2001). A more appropriate study might thus be to explore views and perceptions from the current high school students so that more reliable data may be obtained.

Another study by Wang (2002) tries to examine how learner needs are addressed in English language classrooms and teacher education programmes. Six experienced teacher educators were interviewed, and according to their observations and experiences with high school teachers, classroom practices in Taiwan reflect teachers' lack of knowledge of teaching methods and lack of support from parents as well as the decisions makers. Since teaching in a communicative context demands much from teachers, they inevitably give up the communicative activities suggested in the textbooks. Many teachers believe that the traditional (grammar-based) teaching is effective as that is the way they were taught. Moreover, parents' demand for high exam scores also contributes to teachers' emphasis on the more traditional grammar-driven approach, which is regarded as most efficient for producing immediate results.

With regard to learner attitudes, it is pointed out in this study that despite government's recent policies to encourage learning, most learners have little interest in learning English. It states that according to one teacher expert, up to two-thirds of learners experience pain and frustration in learning English. Most of the interviewed teacher educators agree that the prevailing teaching system, including teaching materials and instructional practices, is the direct cause of learners' diminished interest in learning and using English. Moreover, one professor in this study states that teaching materials used in class also frustrate learners. Even when materials are meaningful or adjusted to learner needs, the language classroom appears to be dull to learners (Wang 2002: 137).

This study by Wang carries its limitation, too. For example, although a number of significant findings are reported on learner attitudes towards English learning in this study, none of the data presented are gathered directly from the learners themselves. The majority of the claims are made on the basis of the interview results and participants' experiences as well as observations. Furthermore, as the study was undertaken three years ago, there might even be gaps between the discussions it makes and what the current situation really is.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter began by looking at the origin and definitions of CLT within its broad concept as well as its' influence in the language classroom. It then identified the significance of investigating attitudes and provided relevant studies in various contexts. The discussions of these studies revealed that compared with teacher attitudes, understanding about teachers' classroom practice of CLT remains limited. How the top-down policy of promoting CLT has affected English language classroom instructions is therefore worth exploring.

Another major focus of this chapter is on the importance of exploring learner attitudes towards CLT, which has been recognized in virtually all modern approaches to the language-learning process (Tarone & Yule 1989). Although learner attitude is regarded as the single most important factor in a learner's success, little attention has been given to learner attitudes and perceptions concerning classroom practice in the context of Taiwan (Savignon 1997 & 2002; Savignon & Wang 2003). Accordingly, it is crucial and significant to put more extended emphasis on students' views and response to CLT because it can never be denied that learners themselves play the main part in their learning.

Through revealing the perceptions of senior high school students in relation to the classroom instruction in this research study, I will try to examine the extent to which classroom practice reflects the rationale and goals of CLT. Also, I intend to find out whether there is any inconsistency between the goals of CLT and students' experience as well as expectation of what should be taught in an English class. I will then try to investigate the contextual factors that shape students' attitudes towards the implementation of CLT in high school in Taiwan. Finally, suggestions and conclusions will be made on the basis of the data analysis. It is hoped that the results of this research study can shed light on teachers' classroom decisions and practices, making CLT a more attainable goal in Taiwan.

Chapter 3

Preliminary Studies and Findings

This chapter introduces the methodology and procedures of the research. The first section begins with introducing the research design and the three phases of the study. The purpose, process, and findings of the phase-one study, the focus group interviews, are going to be reported in the second section. Section three presents the implementation of the phase-two study, classroom observations. The observation guide, ethical issues, research setting and participants will be introduced. It is followed by a report of some significant findings of the observations. The third phase of the study, the questionnaire survey, was carried out on the basis of the results gathered from the first two phases, the preliminary studies. Since the third phase is the main study of my research, more details and discussions with regard to it are presented in chapter four.

3.1 Research Design: Three Phases of the Study

In recent decades, a growing number of researchers have recognized the shortcomings of monomethods in undertaking academic research (Cook & Campbell 1979; Brewer

& Hunter 1989; Greene *et al.* 1989; Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998; Creswell 2003). One of the major weaknesses is that the monomethod research designs might cause bias and threat to the validity of research results. In this respect, the benefits of combining quantitative and qualitative methods has been gradually advocated and applied in social and behavioural sciences.

Many researchers have claimed that quantitative and qualitative methods are compatible (Bryman 1988; Creswell 1995; Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998). The utility of mixed methods originated from the understanding that complicated social realities and phenomena are often best comprehended by examining them through both quantitative and qualitative lenses (Bryman 1988). This approach adds complexity to a design and uses the advantages of both the qualitative and quantitative paradigms (Creswell 2003).

Creswell (1994: 177-8) introduces three models of combined designs he concluded from the literature. The first is called **the two-phase design**, which focuses on a qualitative phase of the study and a separate quantitative phase of the study. The second model is **the dominant-less dominant design**, which allows the researcher to present the study within a single dominant paradigm with one small component of the

overall study drawn from the alternative paradigm. The last one is **the mixed-methodology design**, which mixes aspects of the qualitative and quantitative paradigm at all or many methodological steps in the design. For example, the researcher might mix the paradigms in the introduction, literature review, theory use, purpose statement, and the research questions.

From the viewpoint of time arrangement, Tashakkori & Teddlie (1998) propose that the design of research methods can be divided into **the sequential mixed** and **the parallel/simultaneous mixed** method designs. In the sequential mixed method design, the researcher conducts a qualitative phase of a study and then a separate quantitative phase, or vice versa. The latter means the quantitative and qualitative data are collected at the same time and analyzed in a complementary manner.

This research study employs the dominant-less dominant mixed method design, which includes both qualitative and quantitative research methods throughout the process of data collection and analysis. The advantage of this approach is that “it presents a consistent paradigm picture in the study and still gathers limited information to probe in detail one aspect of the study” (Creswell 1994: 177). In terms of the implementation of the research method, this study belongs to the sequential

mixed method. This is because it started with qualitative data collection through focus group interviews and classroom observations to analyze a relatively unexplored topic, and then utilized the results to design a subsequent quantitative phase of the study. That is, the research design tried to develop a quantitative tool through the use of qualitative measures.

In keeping with this design, the research is comprised of three phases. In the first phase, focus group interviews were undertaken to elicit a preliminary source of data for the following phases of study. The second phase was based on classroom observations. It is followed by the third phase, which mainly focused on the questionnaire survey. The design of the research study is illustrated as below.

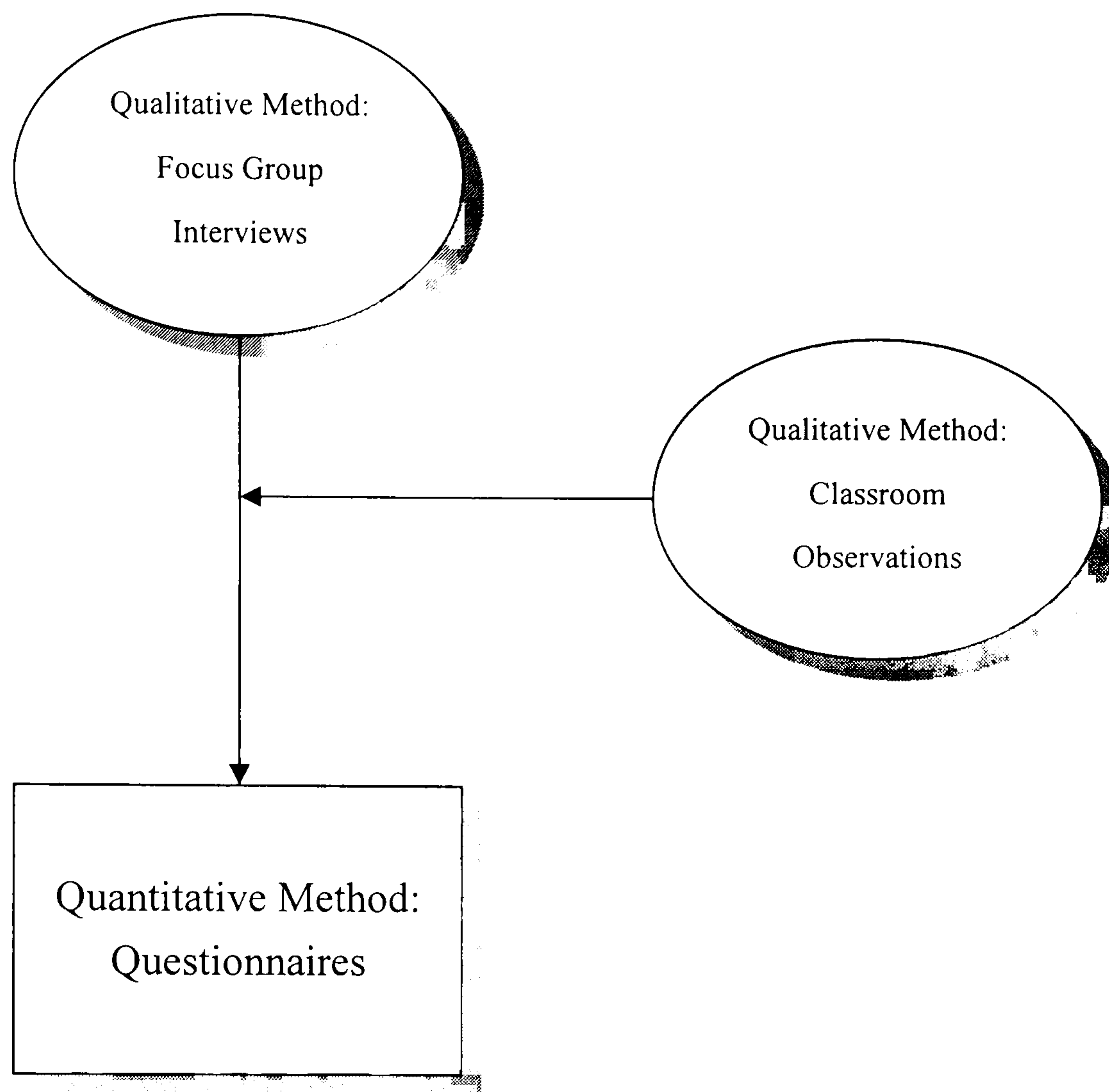


Figure 3.1: The research design of the study

3.1.1 Phase One: Focus Group Interviews

Before the second and third phases of study were conducted, focus group interviews with senior high school students were carried out. The purpose of the phase-one study was to reveal the perceptions of the participants in relation to the classroom instruction they had experienced in their English classroom. It sought to extend the understanding of the implementation of CLT in the classroom situations by listening to students' opinions and perceptions, which were rarely heard.

The focus group method is “a carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment” (Krueger & Casey 2000: 5). In a focus group interview, a limited number of homogeneous people participate in a focused discussion to provide qualitative data. The overpoweringly positive feature of an interview is its adaptability as “it allows for greater depth than is the case with other methods of data collection” (Cohen *et al.* 2000). Focus group interviews were chosen as the preliminary method because with the hallmark of explicit use of group interaction, it would facilitate the collection of rich and in-depth data (Morgan 1997).

In this first phase of study, the strength of focus group interviews is especially valuable in that it helps to capture more precisely all the domains that need to be further measured in the follow-up studies. The depth interviews would yield vivid expressions of such attitudes from respondents in the forms that might be suitable for use as statements in the attitude scale of a questionnaire (Oppenheim 1992: 178). I also intend to find out whether what was taught in the English classroom meets students’ goals in learning English at school.

3.1.2 Phase Two: Classroom Observations

Focus groups have often been used as the primary data collection method in a study. They are commonly used in conjunction with other methods such as observations or questionnaires. Interview responses are notorious for discrepancies between what people say that they have done and what they actually did (Robson 2002). On a basic level, reports of learner perceptions of their language learning experiences in the classroom cannot be claimed to accurately reflect actual classroom practices (Wang & Savignon 2001). As a result, many researchers regard classroom observations as the most appropriate research method for examining the implementation of a specific teaching method.

Weir & Roberts (1994: 164) comment that the only way to get direct information on classroom events or on the reality of programme implementation is through observations. They claim that observations can be used to assess the achievement of programme projects as well as to illuminate participants' expressed perceptions and beliefs. Observations involve direct on-the-spot examination of language use, learning or training (Brown 2001). Moreover, data from direct observation contrasts with, and can often complement information obtained by virtually any other technique (Robson 2002).

According to Cohen *et al.* (2000), observational data allows the researcher to understand the context of programmes, to find out things that might otherwise be missed, to reveal things that participants might not talk about freely in interview situations, and to move beyond perception-based data, such as opinions in interviews. Classroom observations prevent data from being mainly based on students' self-report. Instead of simply relying on what interviewees think the teachers and learners do in the classroom, observations help to provide evidence of teachers' classroom practice as well as help researchers gain insights into the real classroom situations. As McMillan & Schumacher (2001: 273) argue, an advantage of using classroom observations is that "the researcher does not need to worry about the limitations of self-report bias, social desirability, or response set, and the information is not limited to what can be recalled accurately by the subjects."

For the reasons above, classroom observations were undertaken in the second-phase study to obtain direct information with regard to both teachers' ways of instruction and students' behaviour in the English classroom setting. The results obtained from classroom observations also play an important role in eliciting potential questionnaire items that need to be further explored in the follow-up study.

3.1.3 Phase Three: Questionnaires

Questionnaires are one of the most widely used social research techniques for collecting survey information (Youngman 1984; Cohen *et al.* 2000; Blaxter *et al.* 2001). They come in a large range of different types and can be administered in a number of different ways. They carry a number of benefits, such as low cost in time and money, lack of interview bias, and ease of getting information from a lot of people very quickly, among many others (Munn & Drever 1999; Gillham 2000; Bryman 2001). Because of their chief advantage of being relatively cheap, quick and efficient, questionnaires are suited to large-scale surveys (Brown 2001).

Hopkins (2002: 117) claims that questionnaires that ask specific questions about aspects of the classroom, curriculum or teaching method are a quick and simple way of obtaining broad and rich information from pupils. Besides, when the questionnaire is well constructed, the data processing can also be fast and straightforward, especially by using modern computer software (Dörnyei 2003).

Based on the data generated from the preliminary studies (the first two phases), questionnaire items were formulated to assess attitudes and perceptions of a wider population, which are not readily observable and easily measured with other kinds of

research methods. A study involving a wider population is considered essential because it would considerably enhance the generalizability of the study. Moreover, the use of questionnaires as the third research method could provide data triangulation, generating multiple and quantifiable data.

3.2 Focus Group Interviews: Phase One

The phase-one study aimed to investigate the following questions:

1. What are high school students' feelings about their current English class?
2. What are learners' attitudes and perceptions with regard to classroom practice?
3. What kind of classroom instruction do learners believe to be the most useful to them at their current learning stage?

Focus groups are useful for exploratory research on topics about which little is known (Stewart & Shamdasani 1990). They are particularly suitable for exploring people's opinions, concerns and experiences, and they are particularly ideal for the study concerning individual's attitudes and experiences around specific topics (Kitzinger & Barbour 1999). These exclusive strengths of focus group interviews correspond to

what the research questions seek to answer.

This phase of study actually constituted an earlier study, which is my professional field study carried out from November 2004 to January 2005. What follows is a brief report of the study, which I have reported on in much greater detail in Chung (2005).

3.2.1 The Participants and Setting

Second-year students were recruited as participants in the focus group interviews because they had received senior high school education for at least one year and thus were familiar with the way English is being taught at school. To begin with, a number of open-ended questions were piloted through two mini focus group interviews in November 2004. Each mini group contained three participants. The purpose of the pilot study was to find out whether the participants understood and responded to the questions in the way the study intended. Moreover, the pilot was designed to gain insights into the way in which individuals were influencing and influenced by others through participant interaction.

After some modifications were made to the original form of interview questions,

the refined version was used for four focus group interviews conducted from December 18th, 2004 to January 23rd, 2005, in a senior high school in southern Taiwan. There were six participants, including three second-year boys and three girls from the same class, in each focus group. They were all recruited from the same school as those in the pilot study. Each of them was asked to respond to the eleven items in the three-section interview questions (see Appendix B), no matter how much they had to say. Being a preliminary study for the follow-up studies, the focus group interviews started with broad questions, allowing the interviewer to optimize the possibility of eliciting diverse opinions (Thomas 1998).

Each interview lasted for 1-1.5 hours and was audio-taped, which was a way of recording generally recommended in focus groups (Robson 2002: 288). Audiotapes provide the advantage of revealing how respondents phrase their answers and suggest the tones and sense of conviction conveyed in their voices (Thomas 1998: 170). A digital recorder was also used at the same time to record in case of any loss of data during the proceedings of the interviews. Based on the recording, a transcript was developed for descriptive data and analysed.

3.2.2 Significant Findings

With six participants from the pilot study and another twenty-four recruited for the main focus groups, the interviews yielded rich data and a number of valuable findings.

Some unexpected findings also arose from the group interactions and discussions. A number of significant findings were concluded from the tape-based process of data analysis. The major findings are outlined as below¹.

Firstly, students' accounts showed that their English teachers have the dominant role in their English class. Mostly, Chinese is used as the medium of instruction, and English is rarely used. In other words, contrary to the learner-centred teaching that the communicative approach advocates, English classes in Taiwanese senior high schools remain teacher-centred, where teachers retain conventional authority in class.

Secondly, the results from the data analysis revealed that traditional approach is still dominant in high school English classroom. A fundamental problem is that too much emphasis is still placed on enhancing students' grammatical ability, and patterns of classroom interaction seem to provide little genuine communication between teacher and students or among students.

¹ For a fuller report of the interview results, please refer to Appendix C.

The third finding is the most encouraging in that the majority of participants valued the importance of developing English speaking ability, even though it plays only a minor part in their entrance exam. Most participants commented that their most pressing need at this stage of learning English is to “pass the entrance exam” to enter a good university. Yet they generally hold the belief that the uppermost meaning in learning a language is being able to use it in the real situation.

Focus group interviews have advantages and disadvantages. As in this field study, they have resulted in successful collection of rich and in-depth data, enabling a fuller understanding of the present English teaching and learning at senior high school in Taiwan. However, its chief drawback is that the researcher is unable to make statistical estimation or empirical generalizations simply on the basis of the information obtained from the focus group results (Robson 2002; Litosseliti 2003). In other words, the limited number of participants and the difficulty of recruiting a fairly representative sample considerably limit generalization beyond the members of focus groups (Stewart & Shamdasani 1990; Krueger & Casey 2000).

3.3 Classroom Observations: Phase Two

3.3.1 The Observation Guide

As can be seen, participants from focus group interviews generally considered their English class to be mainly grammar-focused. In addition, their comments also indicated that very few communicative activities were held in their English class due to various practical limitations.

To investigate whether the data gathered from the interviews are consistent with teachers' actual classroom practice, I carried out further observations with three English teachers from the same school. I was aware that it is crucial to have a clear focus and to clarify the purpose before successful practice of classroom observations (Hopkins 2002). In order to precisely elicit some desired and useful data, the following research questions were identified and used as the observation guide to structure the classroom observations:

1. In what ways does teachers' classroom practice match or differ from participants' earlier claims from the focus group interviews?
2. Did the three teachers teach traditionally, communicatively, or eclectically?

3. To what extent does teachers' teaching practice reflect the communicative approach suggested by the Taiwan Ministry of Education (MOE) under the communicative-based curriculum?

3.3.2 Ethical Issues

Hitchcock & Hughes (1995) point out that the relationship between ethics and the conduct of qualitative school-based teacher-researcher inquiry is complicated. Cohen *et al.* (2000) take a similar view by claiming that as ethical concerns in educational research can be extremely complex and subtle, researchers would frequently find themselves in quite unresolvable moral predicaments. Ethical issues arise mainly with research designs using qualitative methods of data collection, in which the relationships between the researcher and researched are particularly close (Blaxter *et al.* 2001). Since classroom observations are school-based, specific ethical problems are unavoidable.

Despite the fact that the observations were conducted at the school where I worked as a teacher, negotiating access was the first thing taken into consideration before the observations were undertaken. This was regarded critical because a researcher should never assume "it will be all right" (Cohen *et al.* 2000). The first step

I took was to approach the school principal and request his permission after explaining to him the purpose of this study and the conditions of the research. I then tried to obtain consent from colleagues, the English teachers teaching the second year students at the same school where I worked.

At this stage, I was guided by the principle that data subjects should be told the purposes of the research and be given the opportunity to withhold their cooperation (Raffe *et al.* 1989). It was made clear to them from the beginning that the observations didn't have any evaluation purpose, but would be used for my personal research only. Three out of the four teachers agreed to be observed and audio-taped, while one senior teacher refused by saying that she was not used to being watched or observed during her teaching.

After expressing my sincere thanks, I asked the teachers to teach in the way they usually did during my observations. It was emphasized that "authentic" data, which referred to English teachers' actual and everyday classroom practice, would be most helpful to this research. Therefore, they didn't need extra work or preparation for the observations. Most importantly, the teachers were guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality. They were reassured that their real names and the school name would

not be mentioned in any research report. Also, the tapes and field notes regarding these observations would not be circulated to other people.

Intrusion seems inevitable when an observation is being carried out in any class with an observer being present. Raffe *et al.* (1989: 17) insist that with respect to data subjects, researchers should be conscious of their intrusive potential and seek to minimize any intrusion. What I did was try to minimize the intrusion through preparation and prior communication with the participants. Observations on each teacher were completed in two days, one session for each day. Teachers all expressed their discomfort when I asked them the possibility of videotaping when they taught. They preferred that I sat in the back of the classroom, while they would press the recording button for me in the front once the session started. To avoid interrupting the teaching and learning, I remained non-judgemental and refrained from revealing my opinions, verbally or nonverbally.

The data I wanted was also critically dependent on students' cooperation. Before the first session of each class, students were informed of what I was going to do in their classroom. They were told that I would appreciate if they could cooperate by trying to ignore my existence and simply do what they normally do in everyday

English class. I stressed that their cooperation would be helpful and meaningful to this personal research. Sitting in the back silently, I made myself as unnoticeable as possible, while using audio-taping instead of videotaping helped minimize the influence that the observations might have on students' learning as well as classroom behaviour.

3.3.3 Research Setting and Participants

This study was conducted in a private senior high school in southern Taiwan. It was the same school where the focus group interviews were carried out. In Taiwan, English is a compulsory subject in high school, although each school may arrange different numbers of English class for students each week. According to the schedule for second-year students at this school, there are five sessions of English class each week. Second-year students have to take another hour of "English conversation class", which is usually taught by another English teacher from the same school. However, this study concentrated on the English class only as it takes a major role in English teaching at school.

Three classes taught by the three English teachers, Wendy, Ruby, and Eva were observed for two sessions, each lasted for about 45 to 50 minutes. All of the three

classes were mix-gendered. Students were all native speakers of Chinese, aged around 17 to 18. In the front of each classroom, there was a blackboard and a high desk for teachers' use. As each class proceeded, students had to sit on their own fixed chairs arranged in rows, facing the front of the classroom. Most of the time, the teachers stood between the blackboard and the desk when they taught, although at times they moved around the desk to draw students' attention.

When conducting observations, it is important to make a record on the spot and during the event. In this study, field notes were kept as each session progressed, which reflected my general impressions of the classroom as well as provided useful on-going record (Hopkins 2002). Audiotape recording began as soon as the teacher started each session. The use of audiotape recording was advantageous in that it easily provided the researcher with ample material to trace during the process of data analysis.

The following are some data about the three teachers that were observed, their class size, and dates their class was observed. Taking into account the effects the study might have on these teachers, their names were all changed in the presentation of the report.

Table 3.1: Data of the three English teachers

	Wendy	Ruby	Eva
Gender	female	female	female
Years of teaching	3	4	6
Education	BA in English	BA in English	MA in English Literature
Class size	48	45	51
Dates of observation	June 16 th & 17 th , 2005	July 5 th & 6 th , 2005	July 21 st & 22 nd , 2005

3.3.4 Data Analysis and Findings

The process of data analysis was mainly based on the audiotapes and field notes.

Relying on playing back the tapes, listening to the recording, and referring to the field notes, transcripts of the class content were developed. Simple analytic induction was adopted to generate descriptive and qualitative data. I focused mainly on the key ideas and main themes that could answer the research questions in the proposed observation guide.

One of the sources of bias is usually from the observer effect, some initial effects that the presence of an observer has on the behaviour of teacher and learners (Weir & Roberts 1994). It is worth mentioning that in each of the three classes, the pattern of teacher-students interaction stabilized over sessions. This is one of the indicators that my presence had not changed what I was seeking to observe (Robson 2002). A number of significant findings are presented in the following section in order of the

observation guide.

Question 1. In what ways does teachers' classroom practice match or differ from participants' earlier claims from the focus group interviews?

Table 3.2: A summary of teachers' classroom practices regarding observation question one

Wendy	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Wendy spent two sessions introducing sixteen new words in detail. This matches students' claim that they spent most of their classroom time listening to teacher explain the content of the textbook. Vocabulary was mentioned as the part that teacher spent most time on. 2. Chinese was used as the medium of instruction, and English was used only when Wendy read the English vocabulary or sentences. Students spoke English only when they repeated after the teacher the vocabulary or example sentences. Again, this is exactly the same as students' description about their English class. 3. As students said, no pair or group work was undertaken in the two sessions.
Ruby	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ruby's two sessions were spent on introducing the famous poem, "The Road Not Taken" by Robert Frost. It was actually a reading contained in the textbook. Students' claim was again confirmed. 2. Ruby used mainly Chinese to translate and explain the poem throughout her lessons. English was used by both teacher and students only when they read the poem, which is consistent with the focus group interview report. 3. Ruby did ask certain students questions. However, she didn't require students to discuss or share in pairs or groups, which matches students' accounts in the interviews.
Eva	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Eva spent the first session introducing the second half of the textbook reading. The second session was used on post-reading and expansion activities, such as teaching more phrases related to this lesson and listening practice. Like the other two teachers, Eva delivered information and knowledge from the textbook content to students. 2. Chinese was largely used as the medium in each part of the activity. Apart from repeating after teacher, students had very little chance to speak or communicate in English.

	<p>3. Class activities seem to be more diverse than the other teachers, yet all the activities were completed collectively, rather than in pairs or groups. Students' comments in the focus group interviews were reflected in the way teacher taught.</p>
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Question 2. Did the three teachers teach traditionally, communicatively, or eclectically?

In order to answer this question, excerpts from part of the observation transcripts are presented as followed. These representative parts were selected because in the rest of the sessions, teachers taught in a highly similar manner to what is shown in these excerpts². The words and sentences in italics indicate that they were the content of the textbook and were pronounced in English in class. Only several of the extended words supplied by the teachers were also pronounced in English.

Excerpt 3.1

Wendy: (In Chinese) Let's look at vocabulary 7. Repeat after me, *species*.

Students: *Species*.

Wendy: *Species*.

Students: *Species*.

Wendy: (in Chinese) Do you see here "es" is pronounced as /z / (the K.K. phonetic symbol which is commonly used in Taiwan). This word always comes in the plural form. Do you see (*pl.*) after the vocabulary? It means the word always come in the plural form. Please specify that (*pl.*) here means "*plural*" (teacher writes "plural" on the blackboard). Ok. Read after me again, *species*.

Students: *Species*.

Wendy: *Species*.

Students: *Species*.

² To see the full transcripts, please refer to Appendix D.

Wendy: Here comes its explanation, *a group of plants or animals that are of the same kind* (teacher translates in Chinese). For example, cats, lions, and leopards are of the same kind, the same species. Look at the example sentence: *We should protect endangered species*. What does *endangered* mean, Chiu?

Chiu: Uh...that's...(long pause)

Wendy: What is it? We learned this last time. *Endangered* means “瀕臨絕種的”.

Do you see it in vocabulary 6? It is an adjective. *Protect* means “保護”...(teacher translates the sentence in Chinese). What are some of the other endangered species, for instance?

Students: Pandas.

Wendy: Pandas. What else?

Students: (murmuring faintly)

Wendy: What is the noun of *protect*, “保護”?

Students: *Protection*.

Wendy: *Protection*, okay, *protection* (teacher writes it on the blackboard).

Excerpt 3.2

Ruby:*And looked down one as far as I could. To where it bent in the undergrowth*; Please underline this sentence (Teacher translates the sentence and explains it to students, asking them to write down the Chinese meaning of it). *Undergrowth* here means the grove of trees. Let me stop here and ask you a question, “what season do you think it is?” When you read a poem, I think you can put your head aside. You should have the “feeling” first, but how could your feeling arise? Think about in what season the traveler began his trip. When?

Some students: Autumn.

Ruby: OK, some of you said autumn. Any other answers?

Students: (silence)...

Ruby: Lin, you said that it should be autumn. Which word or sentence makes you think so?

Lin: The fallen leaves.

Ruby: Fallen leaves from where? Sometimes we have fallen leaves in spring, too.

Which word is the key to your answer?

Lin: Yellow.

Ruby: You're right.....

Excerpt 3.3

Eva: (in Chinese) We have learned that images of animals may differ from culture to culture, although many of them give people of different cultures the same image. For example, how do Chinese and Japanese think of cranes and tortoises?

Students: Long life?

Eva: That's right. But they probably don't mean the same to westerners. Apart from the image of slyness, foxes also have magical powers in our culture, but do they in the west?

Students: No.

Eva: Yes, to westerners, foxes are simply sly animals. What about the image of mice? Are they the same in the east and the west?

Students: Um...

Eva: Look at the bottom of page 4, line 12, *mice are believed to have no courage*. What Chinese proverb do we use to describe someone with no courage?

Students: “膽小如鼠” (as coward as a mouse).

Teacher E: So, do you see the similar expressions?

Students: Yes.

Table 3.3: A summary of teachers' classroom practices regarding observation question two

Wendy	As the excerpt shows, Wendy taught in a very traditional way. She tried to feed students the new vocabulary as well as their usage one after another. The usages of the new words as well as grammar were the focus throughout the sessions.
Ruby	Ruby's way of teaching was also rather traditional. Since her lesson was about a poem, she spent most of the class time talking and expounding the frame of mind of the poet. Also, she tried to convey both the literal and inner meanings of the poem. Students played passive listeners most of the

	time.
Eva	Eva also followed the traditional manner in her teaching. Although there seemed to be more interactions between her and students, she was still the dominator in class, who led her students by asking them questions.

Question 3. To what extent does teachers' teaching practice reflect the communicative approach suggested by the Taiwan Ministry of Education (MOE) under the communicative-based curriculum?

Before discussions are made, it is essential to illustrate what the communicative approach refers to in the question. The following are some of the suggestions proposed in the new curricula by the MOE for senior high school English teachers to follow in their classroom.

1. The teaching activities should focus mainly on students' practice, while teacher's explanation plays a supportive role. Each activity can be held individually, in groups, or in both ways.
2. Teachers play the role as a facilitator to assist students' learning, while students are the active learners.
3. Teachers should guide and encourage students to participate in all kinds of teaching activities and try to use English as much as possible so as to enhance the opportunities for students to be in contact with English and to use English.
4. Teachers should wisely apply either video or audio media to their teaching to promote students' interests in learning as well as the effects of teaching.
5. The teaching of vocabulary should be accompanied by context, allowing the vocabulary to appear naturally in a sentence, dialogue, or passage to ensure that students understand its meaning and usage.
6. The explanation of vocabulary is best done in English, with the assistance of pictures, actions, or real examples. Immediate translation in Chinese should be avoided.

7. Guide students to pay attention to the pronunciation, root and suffix of the words commonly used; besides, offer them examples from the vocabulary in the reading.
8. Give students instructions to distinguish and practice the change of parts of speech, such as verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.
9. Before introducing the reading, pictures and simple descriptions in English can be utilized to help students understand the content and gist of the material.
10. English should be used as much as possible when introducing the reading whereas translating sentence by sentence should be avoided.
11. Try to encourage students to participate in the discussions of the reading.
12. Encourage students to read the reading aloud to master the pronunciation and to learn how to express the meaning with different tone and intonation.
13. Avoid spending too much time explaining; instead, try to design activities and create opportunities for students to actually take part in the listening-speaking practice.
14. Develop students' listening comprehension and speaking through imitating and basing on the tapes or CDs that come with the textbooks.

Table 3.4: A summary of teachers' classroom practices regarding observation question three

Wendy	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Wendy taught vocabulary and their usages through introducing example sentences and giving real examples to assist comprehension. The explanation was done in Chinese rather than English. 2. Wendy tried to guide and encourage students to answer her questions. 3. Wendy guided students to pay attention to the pronunciation and put emphasis on introducing the change of verbs, nouns, adjectives, or adverbs of new words. 4. Lots of examples from the vocabulary were offered through the example sentences.
Ruby	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Before introducing the poem in the reading, Ruby tried to enhance students' understanding by drawing a picture of the diverged roads in the woods. 2. Ruby encouraged students to read the reading aloud more than once to

	master the pronunciation.
Eva	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Eva provided students with plenty examples of the phrases that are close to students' daily life. 2. A CD player was utilized for students' listening practice, while video media was not used.

Generally speaking, however, teachers' teaching method couldn't seem to reflect the communicative approach suggested by the MOE in many aspects. They are listed below:

1. The teaching activities were mostly centred on teacher's explanation of the textbook content, instead of on students' practice.
2. The three teachers' roles were more of a dominator than a facilitator throughout students' learning.
3. English was used in pronouncing the vocabulary, reading the sentences or the reading in the textbook. Apart from this, Chinese was the medium of instruction, and little English was used.
4. Teachers did encourage students to answer their questions, but few efforts were made to actually bring students into the discussions of the reading.
5. Immediate translation in Chinese was most common throughout all of the sessions observed by the researcher.

The type of teacher-student interaction actually follows the IRE interactional sequence, which begins with a teacher initiation, followed by a student response, and then the teacher's evaluation of that response (Richards 1995). This type of teacher-student interaction shapes the patterns of classroom communication in the sessions that were observed. Although teachers seem to control the structure and

content of classroom communication, the structure and content are actually dominated by the textbook being used.

Another point concluded from the data is that the main teaching objective of the three English teachers is to prepare students for exams. According to Genesee & Upshur (1996:30), L2 teaching and learning are affected by various constraints, which restrict the decisions teachers should have in terms of what to teach and how they would give a lesson. This claim is consistent with the results obtained from both the focus group interviews and the classroom observations.

After the observations were completed, I had a chance to talk informally with one of the teachers, Ruby. From the conversation, I realized that Ruby actually has quite clear knowledge of the principles and procedures of CLT. She said that when she first came to teach at the school after finishing her postgraduate modules (she didn't finish her dissertation though), she was very keen on putting what she learned from books into practice. As time went by, she claimed, her enthusiasm died out because for one thing, she got exhausted designing activities for her class; for the other, she found that the rigid schedule made her unable to finish the textbook content before each monthly exam.

The fact that CLT is not fully implemented by the teachers doesn't mean teachers themselves don't know how to teach communicatively. Even though teachers are aware that the traditional method is not very helpful in developing students' English proficiency, the situational constraints are so powerful that they greatly inhibit teachers' freedom in adopting the most suitable classroom instruction. These are reflected from what Ruby said about her teaching experience.

3.3.5 Limitations of the Study

Limitations of the study are inevitable, especially when the study was accomplished under time and budgetary limits. The major weakness is that the observations were conducted with only three English teachers from the same senior high school. As a result of the limited number of participants and school, this study cannot be said to be necessarily representative of a larger population.

In addition, each teacher's teaching approach cannot be completely reflected from only two sessions. As Cohen *et al.* (2000: 314) claims, "the greater the number of observations, the greater the reliability of the data might be". I can not jump to conclusions, saying that the teachers failed to employ certain methods simply because they didn't use them in the sessions they were observed. Therefore, the data is not

complete enough to fairly reflect the whole situations of the English class, unless a longitudinal study is continued to gather data over an extended period of time.

Nevertheless, some compensation for the above problems can be achieved by triangulating observational data with interviews or questionnaires, which represent a larger sample (Weir & Roberts 1994: 175). It has been noted at the outset of this chapter that the first two phases of studies, focus group interviews and classroom observations, are preliminary studies to provide supplementary source of data for the final phase of study, the questionnaire method. I believe the value of each phase of study can be increased considerably when being combined together.

Chapter Four

Research Methodology: Questionnaires with Senior High School Students

This chapter centres on the final and main study of the whole research, which is based on the questionnaire method. It begins by introducing the design, research sampling, setting and participants of the questionnaire. The administration of a pilot study as well as its results will then be reported in the third section. Section four and five look at the validity and reliability of the instrument, which are followed by the discussion of ethical issues in section six. The whole process of data collection is presented in the final section. The results of the questionnaires will be analysed and reported in chapter five.

4.1 Research Instrument

4.1.1 The Purposes of Using Questionnaires in this Study

Discussions have been made in the previous chapter that focus group interviews and observations are very often used in conjunction with other methods in order to contextualize and to extend the analysis to be carried out (Blaxter *et al.* 2001).

Similarly, questionnaires are seldom sufficient as a research method on their own.

This is especially true when the researcher is dealing with a complex, real-world situation (Gillham 2000). Data can seem insubstantial and superficial when a report is simply based on the results of a questionnaire. In contrast, a multi-method approach has the advantage of enriching the research findings. It is hoped that by adopting methodological triangulation, which involves multiple data-gathering procedures, the advantages of different research methods can be maximized in this study.

As has been stated, the three-phase research sought to explore senior high school students' attitudes towards and perceptions of their English class at school. In the third-phase study, questionnaires were designed to reveal learner attitudes through the opinions they express. Although the first two phases of studies, the focus group interviews and classroom observations, did help to reveal some of the intended answers, the limited number of participants restricted the results from being generalised. It is hoped that the weaknesses of these two methods could be complemented by the strengths of questionnaires.

Oppenheim (1992) asserts that the questionnaire is an important instrument of research and a tool for data collection with the function of measurement. If the questionnaire consists mainly of closed questions, analysis of responses can be

straightforward (Munn & Drever 1999). The questionnaire survey allows the participation of a larger number of people, which would be impossible through interviews or observations. In this study, for example, as long as access can be obtained, data could quickly be collected by means of questionnaires completed in the classroom.

Furthermore, the simplest way to assess people's attitude is to ask a single question about their general evaluation of the attitude object, and to have them mark a response alternative along a numeric response scale (Bohner and Wänke 2002). This can be achieved by using attitude scales in questionnaires for respondents to answer. With the strengths stated above, the questionnaire is viewed as a suitable research instrument to be employed in this study to facilitate a better understanding of the research topic.

4.1.2 The Design of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire development had gone through four stages: a preliminary draft, a revised draft, a pilot study and the final version. Based on the relevant literature and data gathered from the first two phases of studies, the English version questionnaire for the third-phase study was formulated. I then translated the version into Chinese.

The attitude scale was designed according to the results from the preliminary studies, focus group interviews and classroom observations. This design is consistent with Oppenheim's (1992: 207) argument, which claims that the preliminary research investment, such as depth interviewing, is the crucial requirement of a good attitude scale.

To assess the questionnaire, a panel consisting of three English teachers and three senior high school students was formed in July, 2005. Three experienced English teachers helped by reading through both the English and Chinese versions of the questionnaire. They examined the questionnaire item by item and gave feedback on unclear, poorly worded, or irrelevant items. They also offered useful advice on the overall design and structure layout of the questionnaire. Accordingly, amendments were made for improvement. In order to ensure that respondents understood the question wordings and knew how to go about answering the questionnaire, three second-year students were asked to answer the questionnaire draft. I asked them to offer feedback by giving comments on any terms or questions that they found confusing. The draft of questionnaire was then revised to avoid mistakes or misunderstandings when it was administered in the main study.

As a result of careful discussion and assessment made by the panel, an agreement was achieved on including 57 items divided into five sections in the final version of the questionnaire. At the same time, a final confirmation was received from my supervisor, who provided valuable suggestion for improvement after viewing the questionnaire. In the questionnaire¹, question items 1 to 43 from the first through fourth sections are all closed questions, which are easy for respondents to complete (Bryman 2001). Section five is a section concerning personal information of the participants, which provides the independent variables of the questionnaire. The sixth section leaves extra space for participants who want to express their further comments or thoughts to fill in.

Thomas (1998: 164) suggests that people's opinions are most accurately reported as positions along a dimension whose divisions represent sequential qualities, frequencies, or amounts. Rating scales, argues Dörnyei (2003), are the most popular items in research questionnaires. The Likert type scale, which is popular in studies regarding attitude measurement, is an example of this form of rating scales. The Likert scale is one of the most widely used multi-item attitude scales (Bohner and Wänke 2002: 26). Likert-scale questions can effectively gather respondents' views,

¹ To see the copy of questionnaire, please refer to Appendix E.

opinions, and attitudes about various language-related issues, which range on dimensions from very serious to light, important to unimportant, like to dislike, and agree to disagree (Brown 2001:41). They are particularly suitable for finding out what high school students think because items in a Likert scale can look interesting to respondents, which would thus enhance their cooperation in giving considered answers (Robson 2002).

Accordingly, a five Likert type measuring scale was used in the questionnaire of the study for respondents to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the questionnaire items. Participants were asked to mark one of the responses ranging from “Strongly Agree”, “Agree”, “No Comment”, “Disagree” to “Strongly Disagree”. Respondents’ judgments were later converted into numerical form for purpose of analysis. In this five- point scale measurement, SA was given a score of 5, A4, NC 3, D2 and SD 1. The average score (mean) is 3 according to this scoring system. The score of negative items were reversed after the questionnaires were collected and coded. As a result, the lower the score is on the negative items, the more positive attitude it indicates.

The questionnaire tries to begin with an attractive layout and clear presentation

to enhance response rate (Bryman 2001). A general instruction is given at the beginning of the questionnaire. The instruction explains that there are no right or wrong answers to each question and requests respondents to answer honestly. They were also informed that the results of the questionnaire would be used by me for research purposes only. Confidentiality of their personal data and answers was thus promised.

Respondent anonymity is one of the strengths of questionnaires. From the beginning, anonymity is considered an important issue as in the personal data, respondents are asked to reveal their academic ranking in class. Since part of the questionnaire aims to ask students' perceptions of their English class as well as the way their English teacher teaches, anonymity becomes even more essential. This questionnaire makes it clear to respondents that they would complete the questionnaire anonymously. It is hoped that the anonymous questionnaires will "encourage greater honesty", leading to more truthful answers (Cohen *et al.* 2000; Gorard 2001; Nardi 2003).

4.2 Research Sampling and Setting

4.2.1 Research Sampling

The quality of a piece of research is not only affected by the appropriateness of methodology and instrumentation, but also by the suitability of the sampling strategy (Morrison 1993: 112-7; Cohen *et al.* 2000: 92-104). Since it is almost impossible to recruit the entire population of individuals in social or educational research, sampling techniques are used to find out about a much larger number through a relatively small number of cases. However, it is crucial to make sure that the selected sample, the group that is actually involved in the study, is representative of the wider population, the group intended to be studied. As a result of appropriate sampling, the research sample will be able to reflect the general characteristics of the population from which it is drawn to allow generalisation from the study findings.

Oppenheim (1992) points out that the structure of the educational system provides a ready-made sampling frame in aspects such as age, sex, educational level, etc. The sample members in this study are recruited from different schools and classes, which are generally called “the convenience groups”. These convenience groups are a type of natural cluster, therefore the approach of cluster sampling was used in this

study. The approach of cluster sampling is widely used in small-scale research and is growing in popularity (Cohen *et al.* 2000; Gorard 2001). One of the several practical advantages of cluster sampling is that it enables the researcher to obtain a list of clusters, such as schools, employers, hospitals, etc., more easily than to get a complete list of the people in them. By using many of the individuals from each cluster in the selected sample, results from many individuals can be gathered within little time and with less travel cost (Gorard 2001).

The main drawback of cluster sampling, Gorard (2001) maintains, is its potential bias introduced if the cases in the cluster are too similar to each other. This problem is particularly salient when samples are recruited from the same region since people from the same area tend to be more similar to each other than to those from other areas. Nevertheless, most survey organizations believe some loss of accuracy is acceptable if it enables the costs to decrease considerably (Weiserg *et al.* 1996). To mitigate this drawback, Gorard (2001) suggests that researchers should sample more clusters and use appropriately few in each cluster.

4.2.2 Research Setting

Due to some resource limitations such as that in time and economy, this self-funded study was carried out in the southernmost county, Pingtung, in Taiwan. Pingtung is the county where I had been working and am familiar with, thus reducing certain administrative problems. According to the official statistical data of 2004 from Taiwan Ministry of Education and Ping-Tung County Government, there were 3784 male and female second-year students in 97 classes of the 12 senior high schools in Ping-Tung County (MOE 2004; Ping-Tung County Government 2004).

11 out of the 12 senior high schools, including 5 national, 3 municipal, and 3 private schools, were recruited as the samples in this study. One of the schools was not asked to participate because it is a mini private high school with only one second-year class. Two second-year classes were selected randomly from each school to complete the questionnaire. As noted in 4.2.1, this arrangement was able to greatly minimize the potential problem that cluster sampling may cause. Efforts had been made before obtaining permission and cooperation from the 11 senior high schools. Given the access to these schools, I administered the questionnaires to students in seven schools and had to ask an appointed teacher to be present in each classroom during the questionnaire completion process, which took approximately 15 minutes.

It is worth mentioning that even though geographically close clusters were sampled, the population in this study remained fairly large and widely dispersed as Pingtung as a county covers a large area in Taiwan. Pingtung is a county known for its diverse ethnic groups with different cultures; subjects in the study are from very different ethnic background, including Holo, Hakka, Mainland and Indigenous. Although this study concentrates on only one county, subjects are heterogeneous in that they were recruited from different senior high schools of very different natures. These schools are so diverse that some are located in the city centre, some are situated in the countryside or mountain area; some of the schools are public, and some are private. Some of the subjects are from mix-gendered classes, and some from single-gendered classes of different schools. Again, this strength reduces one weakness of cluster sampling that cases in the cluster tend to be too similar to each other.

4.3 Pilot Study

Piloting is an integral part of any research, and so is it in a questionnaire survey. A pilot has several functions, principally to enhance the reliability, validity and practicability of the questionnaire (Oppenheim 1992; Morrison 1993; Cohen *et al.*

2000: 260). The purpose of the pilot study here was to evaluate whether the questionnaire items were understood and responded to as intended. A pilot study was an essential stage in this study because it enabled the researcher to discover any weakness in the questionnaire design and the administration procedures.

Thomas (1998: 172) concludes that a typical pilot consists of the following procedures:

1. Selecting a group of respondents whose characteristics are similar to those of the individuals who would be the subjects of the research project.
2. Explaining to pilot-study subjects that the researcher is asking for their help in refining the questionnaire.
3. Administering the questionnaire to the pilot subjects.
4. Asking the subjects about problems they might have encountered, such as inadequate instructions for completing the questionnaire, items worded in a confusing way, questions found to be offensive, or too little time to finish the activity.
5. Revising the questionnaire items and method of administration on the basis of the pilot results.

Apart from the principles, another important purpose of undertaking the pilot study is to examine the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. After achieving a satisfactory validity and reliability through analysing the pilot-study results, the final version of questionnaire can be formulated and administered in the main study.

In the pilot study, the modified questionnaires were distributed to 127 second-year senior high school students from July 20th to August 2nd in 2005. Some of the questionnaires were administered personally so that the respondents could be observed and questioned when necessary (Youngman 1984: 172). All of the 127 questionnaires were returned after completion. However, 112 of the returned questionnaires were valid and 15 of them were found invalid. The questionnaires were checked and then coded immediately after they were collected.

4.4 Validity of the Instrument

No matter in which way attitudes are measured, a good instrument should be reliable and valid. Validity is the determination of the extent to which an instrument actually reflects the properties of the constructs being examined (Slavin 1992: 75-6). It tells us whether the question, item or score measures what it is supposed or intends to measure (Oppenheim 1992). Another definition by Dörnyei (2003) explains that validity is “the extent to which a psychometric instrument measures what it has been designed to measure.”

A number of methods have been proposed from the methodological discussions

in social and educational research to estimate validity. These methods are employed to examine various types of validity, such as content validity, criterion-related validity, construct validity, and concurrent validity, etc. In this study, both content validity and face validity were examined to find out whether the questionnaire actually relates to and measures the issues I try to explore.

Content validity indicates the degree to which the survey content matches the theoretical content of whatever the researcher tries measure (Brown 2001:177). Cohen *et al.* (2000: 131) claim that content validity should be achieved by making professional judgements about the relevance and sampling of the contents of the test to a particular domain. As has been mentioned, questionnaire items used in this study were carefully formulated on the basis of related literature and the preliminary results gathered from the first two phases of the research. The initial item pool was first examined by a panel partly consisted of 3 experienced senior high school English teachers in mid July 2005. The draft of the questionnaire was then sent to my supervisor for assessment and suggestions for improvement. These procedures helped to achieve the content validity of the questionnaire.

Brown (2001) defines that face validity refers to the degree to which a survey

instrument looks valid to untrained people. It is typically assessed by asking a group comprised of members who are similar to or will eventually be the target research sample to go through answering the questions. As stated earlier, the three senior high school students from the panel helped to increase face validity of the questionnaire by giving their personal comments about the items after they completed the questionnaire. After these carefully planned procedures, the exact question items, wording, and the order of the questions were finally decided on. Accordingly, both the content validity and the face validity should enable the questionnaire to correctly measure what it intends to measure.

4.5 Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability is concerned with precision and accuracy. According to Oppenheim (1992: 144), reliability refers to the purity and consistency of a measure, repeatability, and the probability of obtaining the same results again if the measure were to be duplicated. Tashakkori & Teddlie (1998) describe that reliability means the degree to which the results of a measurement accurately represent the true “magnitude” or “quality” of a construct. Cohen *et al.* (2000: 117) define that reliability is “a synonym for consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of

respondents”. Besides, the reliability of a psychometric instrument indicates the extent to which scores on the instrument are free from errors of measurement (Dörnyei 2003).

Oppenheim (1992: 147) points out that sets of questions are more reliable than single opinion items because they provide more consistent results. This is particularly true with attitude questions since an attitude is more complex, a single question could not reflect it adequately. He further claims that reliability of Likert scales tends to be good, partly because of its greater range of answers permitted to respondents. A similar point is made by Bohner and Wänke (2002), who assert that greater reliability can be achieved in multi-item scales because the final score is computed as the sum or mean of all items, compensating for random error in any single item. Viewed in this way, the reliability of the questionnaire in this study is considerably enhanced by using sets of attitude questions and the Likert scales.

Typically, there are two principal types of reliability for survey model research: external and internal reliability. The purpose of examining external reliability, a measure of consistency over time and over similar samples, is to see if the research instrument is stable. One way of examining the reliability of a scale is to check its

test-retest reliability, the extent to which attitude scores assessed at two different points in time correlate with each other (Bohner & Wänke 2002). In a survey model research, external reliability means if a test and its re-test were undertaken within an appropriate time span, then similar results would be obtained.

For the measurement of external reliability of this questionnaire, test-retest reliability was examined through simple correlational analysis by using SPSS 11.5 version within a two-week time interval. As mentioned in the previous section, 112 valid questionnaires were obtained from 127 participants recruited for the test-retest check. The test and retest were taken on July 20th and August 2nd in 2005 respectively. The statistical significance of the correlation co-efficient can be found and should be 0.05 or higher if reliability is to be guaranteed (Miller *et al.* 2002; Pallant 2005).

Table 4.1 lists the test-retest results, which show the correlation co-efficient of each item in the questionnaire.

Table 4.1: External Reliability Measurement: simple correlational analysis

Correlation Item		Pearson Correlation	
		Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 (Item 1)	Test	.841	.000
	Retest		
Pair 2 (Item 2)	Test	.805	.000
	Retest		
Pair 3 (Item 3)	Test	.901	.000
	Retest		
Pair 4 (Item 4)	Test	.818	.000
	Retest		
Pair 5 (Item 5)	Test	.870	.000
	Retest		
Pair 6 (Item 6)	Test	.851	.000
	Retest		
Pair 7 (Item 7)	Test	.886	.000
	Retest		
Pair 8 (Item 8)	Test	.898	.000
	Retest		
Pair 9 (Item 9)	Test	.838	.000
	Retest		
Pair 10 (Item 10)	Test	.829	.000
	Retest		
Pair 11 (Item 11)	Test	.826	.000
	Retest		
Pair 12 (Item 12)	Test	.877	.000
	Retest		
Pair 13 (Item 13)	Test	.846	.000
	Retest		
Pair 14 (Item 14)	Test	.836	.000
	Retest		
Pair 15 (Item 15)	Test	.817	.000
	Retest		

Correlation Item		Pearson Correlation	
		Correlation	Sig.
Pair 16 (Item 16)	Test	.860	.000
	Retest		
Pair 17 (Item 17)	Test	.841	.000
	Retest		
Pair 18 (Item 18)	Test	.898	.000
	Retest		
Pair 19 (Item 19)	Test	.904	.000
	Retest		
Pair 20 (Item 20)	Test	.882	.000
	Retest		
Pair 21 (Item 21)	Test	.871	.000
	Retest		
Pair 22 (Item 22)	Test	.840	.000
	Retest		
Pair 23 (Item 23)	Test	.901	.000
	Retest		
Pair 24 (Item 24)	Test	.836	.000
	Retest		
Pair 25 (Item 25)	Test	.834	.000
	Retest		
Pair 26 (Item 26)	Test	.804	.000
	Retest		
Pair 27 (Item 27)	Test	.830	.000
	Retest		
Pair 28 (Item 28)	Test	.877	.000
	Retest		
Pair 29 (Item 29)	Test	.857	.000
	Retest		
Pair 30 (Item 30)	Test	.874	.000
	Retest		
Pair 31 (Item 31)	Test	.856	.000
	Retest		

Correlation Item		Pearson Correlation	
		Correlation	Sig.
Pair 32 (Item 32)	Test	.889	.000
	Retest		
Pair 33 (Item 33)	Test	.869	.000
	Retest		
Pair 34 (Item 34)	Test	.865	.000
	Retest		
Pair 35 (Item 35)	Test	.881	.000
	Retest		
Pair 36 (Item 36)	Test	.885	.000
	Retest		
Pair 37 (Item 37)	Test	.892	.000
	Retest		
Pair 38 (Item 38)	Test	.866	.000
	Retest		
Pair 39 (Item 39)	Test	.871	.000
	Retest		
Pair 40 (Item 40)	Test	.881	.000
	Retest		
Pair 41 (Item 41)	Test	.823	.000
	Retest		
Pair 42 (Item 42)	Test	.850	.000
	Retest		
Pair 43 (Item 43)	Test	.878	.000
	Retest		

The result of the test-retest demonstrates that the paired samples correlation between each pair is fairly high (above .80). This is an indicator that the external reliability of the questionnaire is guaranteed.

On the other hand, the aim of internal reliability is to achieve internal consistency, whether items within scales measure the same thing. Internal reliability indicates the degree to which the items that make up the scale hang together, and thus it can be viewed as an indicator of whether the items all measure the same underlying construct. Dörnyei (2003: 111) argues that a questionnaire must satisfy the following two conditions to achieve internal consistency reliability:

1. Instead of single items, multi-item scales should be used wherever possible.
2. Multi-item scales are effective only if the items measure the same target area.

Internal consistency reliability is commonly measured by Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Slavin 1992: 77; Pallant 2005: 90). Cronbach alpha provides an accurate internal-consistency estimate, and it can be used with answers on scales, such as a Likert scale (Brown 2001). For well-developed attitude scales that contain as few as 10 items, internal consistency should approach 0.80 (Dörnyei 2003). Ideally, the Cronbach alpha coefficient of a scale should be above .70 (Pallant 2005). However, since L2 researchers typically measure many different areas in one questionnaire due to the complexity of the second language acquisition, lower Cronbach alpha coefficients are usually expected.

Internal consistency of the four individual scales of the questionnaire was examined by computing Cronbach alpha.

Table 4.2: Internal Reliability Measurement: Cronbach's alpha coefficients

Scale	Title	Number of Items	Cronbach's alpha coefficient
1.	Learner Views of English as a Subject at School	8	.7876
2.	Perceptions of Current Classroom Instruction	15	.8229
3.	Attitudes Towards Communicative and Non-Communicative Activities	13	.8038
4.	Students' Needs and Goals in Learning English	7	.8172

As shown in Table 4.2, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of each scale in the questionnaire are .7876, .8229, .8038, and .8172 respectively. Since Cronbach's alpha coefficients of all the scales are higher than .70, the research instrument possesses a high degree of internal reliability.

4.6 Ethical Issues

Ethical issues are mostly discussed with respect to qualitative or experimental methods. Survey researchers do not perhaps confront ethical problems as frequently as other social researchers. Nevertheless, ethical issues still arise in the practice of

survey research. An example mentioned by Raffe *et al.* (1989: 13) is that “the collection, storage and linkage of personal databases contain at least the potential for abuse”. I have tried to minimize unnecessary ethical problems in the following ways.

First of all, respondents’ right to privacy was respected by not giving them any undue pressure when they were completing the questionnaire. Respondents had the rights to refuse to answer questions they didn’t feel like answering. This was reflected by the fact that some returned questionnaires were found invalid due to incomplete answers or having too many “no comments” ticks.

Next, the questionnaire begins by providing respondents with sufficient information regarding respondent anonymity as well as confidentiality of the use of data. Anonymity was regarded desirable from the respondents’ point of view as some parts of the questionnaire contain certain sensitive questions, such as the academic ranking of the respondents in the previous semester in their class. Anonymity helped respondents to feel safer to provide less-protective and presumably more accurate answers (Dörnyei 2003). Respondents were also promised confidentiality, which was maintained throughout the research.

It has been stated in the previous section that participants were recruited from 11 out of the 12 senior high schools in Ping-Tung County in Taiwan. In the final report, it might be impossible not to mention the location and level of school where the study was undertaken. However, what could be done was to at least maintain the anonymity of these schools by assuring them from the outset that their names would not be identifiable in my final report. Due to the promise, careful consideration has been given to disguise them by replacing their names with codes.

4.7 Questionnaire Distribution and Data Collection

The possibility of low return rates on questionnaires is one of the biggest concerns that survey researchers have. However, when questionnaires are administered to a large group of respondents all at one time instead of through mailing, a high return rate can be ensured (Brown 2001:89). There may be situations in which delivering the questionnaire personally becomes preferable or even essential (Youngman 1984). Nardi (2003) advises that it might be a better way of getting surveys back if the researchers could drop by in person and pick surveys up from respondents later.

It is worth mentioning that in this study, I tried to deliver the questionnaires in

person and to be present during the completion of questionnaire in 7 out of the 11 schools because it was assumed that this might result in higher return rate of the distributed questionnaires. Another consideration was that I hoped to provide immediate clarification to respondents who were having problems regarding the questionnaire. It was found that the respondents got more serious in completing the questionnaire while I was around them. More importantly, the results show that my presence had indeed enhanced the return rate.

The process of questionnaires distribution and data collection of the main study commenced from Aug 8th and was accomplished on Aug 20th, 2005. A total of 892 questionnaires were completed and returned; 838 of which are valid and 56 are invalid. There was a 94% success rate (the rate of questionnaire being valid) of completed questionnaires which were eligible for inclusion in the analysis. Table 4.3 presents the statistical information about the questionnaire distribution and data collection.

Table 4.3: Statistical information of the samples: questionnaire distribution and data collection

	School Type	Area	Researcher's Presence	Valid Questionnaire	Invalid Questionnaire
S1	National	Urban	Yes	87	1
S2	National	Urban	Yes	84	4
S3	National	Town	Yes	83	3
S4	National	Rural	No	72	8
S5	National	Town	Yes	78	4
S6	Municipal	Urban	Yes	62	3
S7	Municipal	Mountain	No	67	6
S8	Municipal	Rural	No	64	8
S9	Private	Rural	Yes	93	3
S10	Private	Urban	No	77	10
S11	Private	Urban	Yes	71	6
Total	National:5 Municipal: 3 Private: 3	Urban: 5 Town: 2 Rural: 3 Mountain: 1	Yes: 7 No: 4	838	56

Chapter Five

Data Analysis, Findings and Discussions

In this chapter, the results from both the descriptive and inferential data analysis will be presented in two sections. The first section presents the results of the descriptive data analysis, including the reports of the general characteristics, frequencies, and percentages of the sample. A number of significant issues concerning the descriptive data will then be raised and discussed accordingly. Some valuable arguments and opinions presented by the focus group interviewees will also be provided to support the results of the analysis.

The second section reports on the findings of the inferential data analysis, which is intended to reveal the general patterns of participants' attitudes (cognition, affect, and behaviour) towards English learning at school. In particular, it tries to explore the relationship between the independent variables in this research study, such as gender, programme, academic achievement, etc., and the scores on the attitudes towards English learning at school. In addition, this section tries to explore the relationship between different aspects of English learning at school by measuring the correlation between subscales.

5.1 Descriptive Data Analysis: Respondents' background information

In quantitative data analysis, presentation of the general characteristics of the data is given priority as it enables us to understand the overall structural features of the study sample. In this section, the presentation of the descriptive data is divided into two categories. The first category focuses on the general background of the participants. It then provides information concerning the types of classroom activities participants have experienced in their English class. Finally the data about participants' perceived difficulties and challenges in terms of learning English is presented.

The second category of the descriptive data analysis concentrates on the general profile of the whole attitudinal scale as well as each subscale of the questionnaire. The mean, standard deviation, maximum, minimum and average score of the scales will be reported. The percentages and frequencies concerning the number of the subjects are presented in the form of tables. Each table is then followed by corresponding description and discussions, making the presentation more comprehensible to the readers.

5.1.1 General data

Table 5.1: General data of the participants

Variable	Category	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	353	42.1
	Female	485	57.9
School	National	404	48.2
	Municipal	193	23.0
	Private	241	28.8
Programme	Senior	596	71.1
	Comprehensive	242	28.9
Group	Science	400	47.7
	Arts	395	47.1
	Applied foreign language	43	5.1
Mother tongue	Holo	426	50.8
	Hakka	196	23.4
	Mandarin	193	23.0
	Indigenous	23	2.7
Initial age of learning English	Before kindergarten	16	1.9
	Kindergarten	127	15.2
	Lower elementary	199	23.7
	Mid or higher elementary	356	42.5
	Junior high school	139	16.6
	missing	1	.1
The time of learning English	5 years or less	281	33.5
	6-9 years	483	57.6
	10 years or more	71	8.5
	missing	3	.4
Go to cram school	Yes	275	32.8
	No	563	67.2
Number of English class (50 minutes) per week	4 or less	49	5.8
	5	296	35.3
	6	296	35.3
	7 or more	196	23.4
	missing	1	.1
Number of student in English class	21-30	44	5.3
	31-40	166	19.8
	41-50	587	70.0

	51 or above	41	4.9
Academic ranking	1-10	234	27.9
	11-20	242	28.9
	21-30	194	23.2
	31-40	114	13.6
	41-50	45	5.4
	other	9	1.1

As shown in the table above, the sample in this study comprises 838 participants, with 353 (42.1%) male students and 485 (57.9%) female students. Among these participants who responded to the questionnaire, 404 are from five national senior high schools, which is 48.2% of the total sample; 193 students are from three municipal senior high schools, which is 23%; and 241 students are from three private senior high schools, which is 28.8% of the total participants.

In terms of the programmes¹, 596 participants are under the “Senior High” programme, which is 71.1% of the total sample. The other 242 participants belong to the “Comprehensive” programme, which is 28.9% of the total sample. The number of participants doing the “science” major is 400, while 395 participants are doing the

¹ Secondary school in Taiwan is a comprehensive system that provides students with various types of educational programmes for the development of their minds and careers. The three-year senior high school programme prepares students aged 15 to 18 for specialized learning as well as for college study; while the purpose of senior vocational school is to equip youths with vocational knowledge and skills. Since 1996, some senior high schools called “comprehensive schools” have combined vocational and academic programmes, enabling students to select from a much wider range of courses before deciding to take either the academic or vocational tracks.
See Government Information Office, Taiwan (2005). *Taiwan 2005 Year Book*. (<http://www.gio.gov.tw/taiwan-website/5-gp/yearbook/p276.html>)

“arts” major, which are 47.7% and 47.1% of the sample respectively. Schools with the comprehensive programme usually provide “applied foreign language” for students to choose as a major, in which English and Japanese are the most commonly taught languages. In this study, there are 43 (5.1%) participants majoring in “applied foreign language”, and the language they major in is English.

In Taiwan, there are four main ethnic groups, which are Holo, Hakka, Mainlander, and Indigenous Peoples. The ancestors of Holo and Hakka immigrated/emigrated from Mainland China to Taiwan around three hundred years ago. Mainlanders are those whose ancestors retreated with the Kuomintang (KMT) regime to Taiwan after being defeated by the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) in 1949. Indigenous Peoples refer to the minority peoples, with a total of 10 tribes, who are the original inhabitants and mostly reside in the mountainous areas of Taiwan. The official language in Taiwan is Mandarin, and other languages such as Holo, Hakka, and the indigenous language are widely spoken as the mother tongue. In this study, 426 (50.8%) participants have Holo as their mother tongue, which is just above half of the total participants. Hakka is the mother tongue of 196 participants, which takes 23.4% of all. 193 (23%) participants’ mother tongue is Mandarin. There are 23 (2.7%) indigenous students in this study.

As for the initial age and years of learning English, the table shows that only 16 (1.9%) participants started to learn English before kindergarten. 127 (15.2%) of them began learning English when they were at kindergarten. There are 199 (23.7%) participants who started to learn English in the lower (first or second) grades of elementary school, which is at the age around 6 to 7. There are 356 (42.5%) participants who started to learn English at the age of 8-12 in their middle or higher grades of elementary school. The number of participants who began learning English at junior high school is 139, which is 16.6% of the total participants. 281 (33.5%) participants have learned English for 5 years or less. 483 participants, which is more than half (57.6%), have learned English for 6-9 years. Only 71 (8.5%) participants have learned English for 10 years or more.

In Taiwan, English learning not only takes place at school as English cram schools can now be found in almost every city, town, and village. Surprisingly, 275 out of the 838 students in this study go to cram school to learn English after school, which is almost one third of the total sample in percentage (32.8%).

The number of English classes (usually 50 minutes) that students have per week varies with different schools. 49 (5.8%) participants have 4 or less English classes in a

week. 296 (35.3%) participants have 5 classes a week. The number of participants who have 6 classes a week is 296 (35.3%). 196 (23.4%) participants have 7 or more classes in a week. In other words, most participants (70.6%) in this study have 5 to 6 English classes every week. The student number in each class also varies from school to school. As shown in Table 5.1, only 44 (5.3%) participants have a small class with 21-30 students. 166 (19.8%) participants are in a class with 31-40 students. A majority of 587 (70%) participants have an English class with 41-50 students. There are 41 (4.9%) participants who even have at least 51 students in their English class.

The class ranking is viewed as a reference only in this study since each class has different student number. Among the participants in this study, 234 (27.9%) were ranked 1-10 in their class in the previous semester. 242 (28.9%) of them were ranked 11-20. That is, more than half of the recruited participants were ranked top 20 in their class. 194 (23.2%) participants were ranked 21-30. 114 (13.6%) participants were ranked 31-40, and only 45 (5.4%) of the participants were ranked 41-50. Nevertheless, we have to be aware that the low percentage of those ranked 41-50 may be due to the fact that there are no more than 40 students in some of the classes where the questionnaire was distributed.

5.1.2 Classroom activity

Table 5.2: Participants' experienced activities

Variable	Category	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
Role play	0: No	644	76.8
	1: Yes	194	23.2
Create dialogue	0: No	645	77.0
	1: Yes	193	23.0
Group Discussion	0: No	627	74.8
	1: Yes	211	25.2
None	0: No	377	45.0
	1: Yes	461	55.0
Other activity	0: No	797	95.1
	1: Yes	41	4.9
Regarding the activity(ies) you have experienced, how often was/were it/they held?	Never	455	54.3
	Every week	49	5.8
	Once in 2-3 weeks	54	6.4
	Every month	40	4.8
	Every semester	125	14.9
	Other	110	13.1
	missing	5	.6

Based on the data gathered, the first three classroom activities listed in the questionnaire were experienced by only a fairly small percentage of participants. More than two-third (74.8% ~ 77%) of participants had never experienced them, and more than half (55%) of the participants even never experienced any of the activities in their English class. Another significant finding is that there is a high percentage (14.9%) of participants who responded that these activities were held only once in a semester. Many of those who chose "other" added that they had experienced the listed activity only once. A small percentage of participants (4.9%) mentioned that they had

experienced other kinds of activities such as answering teacher’s questions in English, playing games, reading English novels, or watching movies on an irregular basis. Some wrote that they were required by teachers to write an English report as an assignment for the summer vacation.

5.1.3 Participants’ perceived difficulties and challenges

These items were formulated on the basis of the results of the focus group interviews conducted before the administration of the questionnaire (please refer to chapter three for details). The results of this part serve as an indicator of the participants’ biggest obstacle in learning English so that school teachers can realise which aspect they should consider making more efforts to help learners.

Table 5.3: Participants’ perceived difficulties

Variable	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
Listening	216	25.8
Speaking	206	24.6
Reading	46	5.5
Writing	298	35.6
Other	72	8.6

The table above summarises the biggest difficulties that participants have ever had in learning English. More than one third (35.6%) of them regard writing as the most

difficult part. Listening and speaking come in second and third with 25.8% and 24.6% of participants respectively. Reading is regarded as the most difficult by only 5.5% of participants. It is worth mentioning, however, that most of those who chose “other” described that all the four aspects are equally difficult for them.

A possible explanation for the results is that in general there is no writing or composition class in senior high school. As a result of the rare opportunity for practising writing, a large number of students have fears of writing in English. On the other hand, reading is not regarded as difficult as the others probably because it is what students do with their teacher in every class. According to the results of observations reported in chapter three, students spend most of their class time listening to their teacher explain the textbook contents sentence by sentence. With such great support from the teacher, it is understandable why students have comparatively less fear of reading.

Table 5.4: Participants’ perceived challenges

Variable	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
Too much vocabulary	207	24.7
Not interested in English	85	10.1
Can’t communicate when needed	149	17.8
Can’t understand grammar	148	17.7
Lack of environment	183	21.8
Other	66	7.9

The final item concerns the biggest challenge that participants have met in learning English. As shown in the table above, there are 207 participants, which is about one-fourth (24.7%) of the total sample, who think there is “too much vocabulary to memorize”. This challenge is chosen by the highest percentage of participants probably because currently it is also their most pressing need in learning English or taking exams. This result is consistent with that of the focus group interviews, in which memorizing vocabulary was often referred to as a big challenge by most interviewees.

As one of the interviewees maintains,

“Vocabulary is such a difficult thing as I tend to forget easily soon after I memorized it, yet it is so essential and fundamental because without knowing enough vocabulary, it is impossible for you to comprehend an article or the reading in the textbook”.

“Lack of the environment for learning English” is the second biggest challenge that is chosen by 183 (21.8%) participants. The following challenges are “can’t communicate in English when needed” (17.8%) and “can’t understand grammar” (17.7%). Only around one tenth of the participants regard “not interested in English” as their biggest challenge. The remaining 66 (7.9%) participants chose “other”, adding that it is hard to decide since they have faced more than one challenge in learning

English.

5.2 Descriptive Data Analysis: the profiles of the attitudinal scales and subscales

Attitude is measurable according to the arguments made in the literature review in chapter two, and the most common way to measure it is to establish attitudinal scales.

I have proposed that students' attitudes towards English learning at senior high school can be examined from four different aspects. Each aspect can be operationalised by a measurable subscale. The four subscales together comprise the Main scale, and they are: (1) learner views of English as a subject at school; (2) students' perceptions of the classroom instruction; (3) students' attitudes towards communicative and non-communicative activities; (4) students' needs and goals in learning English. The attitudes to be explored in this study will be based on the accumulation of the total scores from these four subscales.

Table 5.5: General descriptive information of the scales

	Valid Sample	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum	Average Score
Main scale	775	128.58	13.61	177	84	2.99
Subscale 1	827	25.07	4.85	40	8	3.13
Subscale 2	808	39.73	6.94	60	15	2.65
Subscale 3	824	42.51	5.38	62	25	3.27
Subscale 4	827	21.38	3.42	31	8	3.05

Table 5.5 shows that the mean of the main scale is 128.58, making the average score 2.99. The number “3” means “neutral”, so the average score 2.99 indicates slightly “disagree” or “negative”. The average score of each item in each scale is presented and discussed as follows.

Table 5.6: The average score of the items in Subscale 1

Subscale 1: Learner views of English as a subject at school		
No.	Item	Average
01	I like learning English.	3.35
02	Learning English is very essential.	4.30
*03	English is a difficult subject to learn.	2.54
04	I look forward to having English class every day.	2.80
05	I am happy with the way that my English teacher teaches us.	3.34
06	I am active and take the initiative in learning English in class.	2.85
07	English class at school is generally lively and interesting.	2.84
*08	We have too many English classes at school.	3.02
Subscale one		3.13

Items marked with an asterisk (*) are negatively worded items.

According to table 5.5 and 5.6, the average score of learner views of English as a subject at school is 3.13, which is slightly positive. Item 2 gets the highest score, 4.3, showing that students generally are aware of the importance of learning English. If we refer to Appendix F, we can see that 88.5% of the participants agree with this item, while only 4.9% disagree with it. In spite of the positive attitude towards item 2, however, participants’ responses to item 3 reveal that more than half (52.4%) of the

respondents regard English as a difficult subject. As Appendix F shows, only 18.7% do not find English difficult.

Another interesting finding is that although participants' responses to item 1 tend to be slightly positive, their attitudes towards items 4, 6, and 7 are negative. This indicates that respondents do not seem to enjoy school English classes as much as we might expect. Nearly one third (32.3%) of the respondents do not look forward to having English class, and only 15.9% of the respondents show their agreement with the item. They admit that they are inactive and passive in learning English in class. Based on section 2.3.1 in chapter two of this study, a significant conclusion can be drawn that respondents in this study believe learning English is essential (*beliefs*); however, this doesn't reflect their strong positive *feelings* or positive behavioural *intents*.

Table 5.7: The average score of the items in Subscale 2

Subscale 2: Perceptions of the Classroom Instruction		
No.	Item	Average
*09	My English teacher spends most of the time in introducing vocabulary and grammar rules in class.	2.44
*10	I seldom have the chances to communicate with my teacher or classmates in English in an English class.	2.34
*11	My English teacher is always the dominator in class.	2.17
*12	Our English textbook in use doesn't help in enhancing my communicative ability in English.	3.31

*13	My English teacher mostly uses Chinese as the medium of instruction in class.	2.55
14	My English teacher often designs communicative activities for us to interact with classmates in English.	2.61
*15	What I mostly do is to repeat after my teacher when I open my mouth to speak English in class.	2.23
16	My teacher ensures that we can use English fluently and effectively in real life situations.	3.11
17	My English teacher doesn't correct me whenever I have errors in using English.	2.20
*18	The dialogues we do in English class are mostly mechanical dialogues appear in the textbook.	2.41
*19	The chief aim of our English class is to prepare us to take exams and get good grades.	2.35
20	Our textbook contents are authentic and contain lots of real life English usage.	3.11
*21	I don't like the English textbook that we currently use.	2.90
*22	Our English tests, monthly and final exams are mainly grammar-based.	2.66
23	Our teacher would provide us with some materials that are close to daily life (such as English newspapers, magazines, pop songs) to assist our learning.	3.36
Subscale two		2.65

Items marked with an asterisk (*) are negatively worded items.

Table 5.7 shows that English teaching the participants have experienced at school tend to be more traditional than communicative. The average score of item number 9 reveals that classroom teaching places heavy emphasis on the teaching of vocabulary and grammar rules. Results from items 10 and 11 show that with English teachers being the dominator in class, students are seldom provided with the opportunities to interact with each other or with the teacher. Whenever they have the chance to open their mouth to speak English, it is mostly about repeating after the teacher rather than

taking part in communicative activities. Even the dialogues students do in English class are mostly mechanical as they are part of the textbook contents.

Items 16 and 17 have resulted in contradictory outcomes. Participants feel that their teacher ensures their fluent and effective use of English in real life situations. On the other hand, as Appendix F shows, a high percentage (71.2%) of them indicate that their English teacher corrects them whenever they make mistakes in using English. Based on the results, we find that even though teachers stress the importance of fluent and effective use of English, they still value immediate error correction, viewing it as an essential factor in promoting learners' communicative ability.

Another significant result derives from item 19. Participants are very much aware that exams play a leading role in English teaching at school since they regard "passing exams with good grades" as the chief aim of English class. As demonstrated in Appendix F, 62.8% of participants agree that the main purpose of their English class is to prepare them for exams. Only 18.4% of the participants do not have this kind of impression of their English class. Item 22 reveals that the monthly and final exams at school are identified by respondents as being mainly grammar-based, which explains why English teachers would devote much of the class time to teaching

grammar, as item 9 reveals.

The table above also shows that English teachers in Taiwan use “authentic materials” by supplying real-life sources, such as English newspapers, magazines, or pop songs, to students. This might be a result of the changes made by MOE (Taiwan Ministry of Education) on public exams, in which practical examination content and contents that are closer to learners’ daily lives are emphasised. This can be seen as part of the satisfying results of the innovation in English teaching initiated by MOE. It is worth noticing that the adoption of authentic materials is particularly beneficial in enhancing students’ interest in learning English.

As a participant in the focus group interviews describes,

“I like our teacher to introduce interesting articles from the English magazines or teach us English songs. Compared with the textbook, current articles and English songs are obviously much more fun to learn”.

However, participants’ response to item 12 indicates that they find their textbook helpful in improving their communicative ability in English, too. Result of item 20 shows they agree that their textbook contents are authentic and close to their real life. Despite their positive attitude towards the textbook contents, nevertheless, results

from item 21 doesn't show participants' satisfaction with their textbook. Appendix F reveals that more than half (58%) of them have neutral attitudes towards it. This seems to reflect the finding in the previous paragraph, which reveals participants' preference for teaching materials taken from real-life sources. This contradictory result might be caused by the inappropriate ways that teachers use the textbook, or it's simply because students tend to relate textbook with exams, towards which few of them have positive attitudes.

The results are in accord with not only the discussions made in chapter two but also the findings of focus group interviews which have been presented in chapter three. Under the exam-driven culture of Taiwan, it is not surprising that communicative language teaching is not commonly found in the English classroom in senior high schools.

Table 5.8: The average score of the items in Subscale 3

Subscale 3: Attitudes Towards Communicative and Non-Communicative Activities		
No.	Item	Average
24	I learn English best by working in pairs or small groups to practise communicating in English.	3.52
*25	I am afraid of speaking English in front of the whole class because I feel ashamed when I make a mistake.	2.73
*26	I think my English teacher speaks too little English in class.	2.75

27	In my opinion, the best way to learn English is not to be afraid of making mistakes but try to use it as much as possible.	4.29
28	In an English class, I like to work in pairs or small groups to practise communicating in English	3.49
29	I don't want my teacher to correct me immediately whenever I make a mistake in speaking English.	2.25
*30	I would rather keep quiet listening to my teacher talking than opening my mouth speaking English in class.	3.35
*31	I think English class should focus mainly on grammar instruction.	3.47
*32	I learn English most efficiently by memorizing grammatical rules and doing drills in sentence patterns.	2.91
*33	I like my English teacher to use mainly Chinese as a medium of instruction in class.	2.82
34	We students instead of teachers should be the centre playing the main part in an English class.	3.55
35	I like to learn English through English newspapers, magazines or pop songs.	3.86
*36	In English class, learning grammar well is more important than practising speaking English in a communicative way.	3.46
Subscale three		3.27

Items marked with an asterisk (*) are negatively worded items.

This study has so far reported that communicative activities happen only once in a while in the English class in Taiwan. However, it would be significant to find out whether participants in this study are active in taking part in communicative activities when they have the chance to do so. This scale also helps to explore whether they are satisfied with or used to the non-communicative way of learning English.

Items 24 and 28 reveal respondents' positive attitude towards pair or group work and their willingness to participate in it. The result of item 27 shows their strong

belief that not being afraid of making mistakes but trying to use English often is the best way to master it. Therefore, respondents prefer to speak English rather than keeping quiet and listening to their teacher in class, as item 30 shows. In spite of their positive attitudes toward these items, nevertheless, item 25 brings out their negative attitude towards speaking English in front of other classmates. Appendix F shows that nearly half (48.3%) of the respondents are afraid of “losing face” when they make a mistake in speaking English in front of the whole class. Participants’ contradictory attitudes indicate that although they hold strong beliefs in learning English through speaking, they lack confidence in actually putting it into practice.

Regarding immediate error correction, the result of item 29 shows that a high percentage (65.7%) of the participants want to be corrected when they make a mistake in speaking English. Only 10.1% of them do not want an error correction offered by their teacher. This result is very similar to that of the focus group interviews.

As one student comments,

“I hope my teacher can correct me immediately whenever I make a mistake. I find the immediate correction very powerful because it enables me to recall it easily next time I try to use the same expression. This prevents me from making the same mistake again. It would be far more embarrassing if I make the same mistake again somewhere outside of the classroom, such as when I go abroad”.

In terms of the medium of instruction, we find from participants' response to item 26 that they feel their English teacher speaks too little English in class. This may give an explanation to why, as table 5.3 shows, more than one fourth of the participants (25.8%) feel the difficulty in "listening" among the other aspects in learning English. Interestingly, however, participants' response to item 33 reveals their preference to have Chinese as a medium of instruction in English class. The reason for this contradiction may be because on the one hand, participants hope to immerse themselves in an English-speaking environment; on the other hand, they are not convinced that they are capable of taking an English class that is taught in English only.

Another participant in the interview states,

"I think our English teacher can try to use a bit more English in class, but I still prefer that she uses Chinese to explain grammar, reading, etc. I like it when sometimes our teacher explains a vocabulary in Chinese and then tries to introduce its synonyms in English".

The finding that the focus of classroom instruction and exams has mainly been grammar-based doesn't necessarily mean that participants accept it as the way English should be taught. The result of item 31 shows that participants don't think English class should place chief emphasis on grammar teaching. Furthermore, they don't

agree with item 36 that learning grammar well is more important than practising speaking English in a communicative way. Similarly, participants from the focus group interviews also agree that they should be provided with more opportunities to practise speaking English in communicative activities. From these findings, we can conclude that even under the stress of passing the grammar-based exams to enter university, senior high school students are aware of their need to become competent users of English.

Table 5.9: The average score of the items in Subscale 4

Subscale 4: Students' Needs and Goals in Learning English		
No.	Item	Average
*37	Currently, the most important goal of mine in learning English is to perform well in the entrance exam so that I can enter an ideal university.	2.25
*38	For me, learning English outside of school is more helpful in promoting my communicative ability in English than learning at school.	2.46
39	English teaching at my school is effective in helping me to use English fluently and effectively.	2.83
*40	I wouldn't want to learn English if I am not preparing to enter university.	3.44
41	My chief aim of learning English now is learning to use it fluently and effectively in real life situations.	3.78
*42	English teaching at our school can't meet my needs.	2.71
43	From my viewpoint, enhancing my communicative ability in English is more important than getting good grades in exams.	3.93
Subscale one		3.05

Items marked with an asterisk (*) are negatively worded items.

Subscale 4 looks at students' current needs and goals in learning English. Regarding item 37, Appendix F shows that 70.9% of the participants admit their chief aim of learning English at the current stage is to do well in exams and enter a good university, and only 15.2% of them don't think so. Participants' response to item 38 indicates that English teaching at school isn't as effective as that outside of school in enhancing their communicative ability in English. It might be quite discouraging for school educators to see from Appendix F that more than half (51.2%) of the participants show their dissatisfaction with learning English at school in this aspect. Only a small percentage (10.6%) does not agree with the item.

As has been pointed out in 5.1.1, English education in Taiwan also takes place in private cram schools throughout Taiwan. It is worth mentioning that some of these cram schools are not only focusing on grammar teaching or exam-taking techniques, but they are also working on strengthening learners' speaking ability by hiring native speakers to teach them speaking skills. This phenomenon is especially widespread since 2000 when GEPT (General English Proficiency Test) came into existence as a popular way to grade people's English proficiency in Taiwan. Organized by a private foundation, GEPT is a testing system appointed by MOE to classify the English proficiency in four aspects: listening, reading, writing, and speaking for all the people

of Taiwan. Those who pass each of the five levels (Elementary, Intermediate, High-Intermediate, Advanced, and Superior) are granted a certificate of proof. The proof of passing a certain level of GEPT can be helpful when senior high school students try to apply for a university.

We have seen earlier from table 5.1 that nearly one third (32.8%) of respondents in this study go to cram school. Although learning English outside doesn't necessarily mean learning English at cram schools because English can also be learned through media or self-studying, the result of item 38 is worth further consideration and investigation. Moreover, participants' response to item 39 indicate that they don't think learning English at school enables them to use English fluently and effectively, which, as the score of item 41 shows, is seen by many of them as another chief aim of learning English now.

As one participant in the focus group interviews says,

"At the cram school where I go to, we spend some time conversing with our American teacher about different topics each session. On the contrary, we rarely have the opportunity to practise our spoken English at school. Only in English conversation class do we have a few chances to communicate with our classmates in English".

I should explain here that in most senior high schools in Taiwan, English conversation class is an optional subject for those who are interested in taking it. At the senior high school where the focus group interviews were undertaken, English conversation class is compulsory. This means every second-year student at this school has two hours English conversation class a week. An authentic conversation book with plenty of communicative activities for learners' practice is used in the English conversation class.

The result from item 42 reveals another negative attitude that respondents have towards school English class, which they don't find can meet their needs. If we refer back to the previous discussions about items 38 and 39, we can see that participants probably find English teaching at school meets their need with regard to exams, yet it fails to meet their need to promote their general English proficiency.

The discussions so far seem to indicate that senior high schools only care about students' good performance in exams. However, participants' responses to item 43 reveal that they are very much concerned about their communicative ability in English. As Appendix F shows, 71.8% of the participants agree that performing well on exams is not as important as improving their communicative ability in English. Only 8.2% of them don't agree with this item. This finding is consistent with the conclusion made

for Subscale 3, which argues that being competent English users is viewed as important as passing exams.

5.3 Inferential Data (1): The relationship between the personal background variables and attitudinal scales

In a survey study, a sample of population rather than the population itself is often taken for measurement. Whenever a relationship is found between variables in the sample, however, the relationship may or may not exist in the population. In order to generalise the findings from the sample to the population, inferential statistical methods were adopted in the second section of data analysis in this study.

This section is divided into three parts. The first part focuses on the relationship between participants' personal background variables and the attitudinal scales. I would like to explore how likely it is the difference would occur in my sample, if there were no difference in the population. In order to find out whether or not the relationship/difference is statistically significant, the methods of *t-test* and *one-way ANOVA (analysis of variance)* were used. The results obtained from *t-test* and *ANOVA* only reveal whether differences exist between/among the variables and

scales. Therefore, the measurement of *effect size* is employed to measure how strong the relationship is.

The second part of the inferential data analysis intends to look at more specific attitudes and perceptions of the participants, with a focus on the negatively worded items in the questionnaire. The relationship between the personal background variables and the negatively worded items were examined in detail by running t-tests and one-way ANOVAs.

Part three of this section centres on the relationship between the attitudinal subscales. By using the method of *Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient* (*Pearson's r*), the correlation between the four subscales is explored to provide an indication of the direction (positive or negative) and strength (strong or weak) of the relationship between these subscales.

5.3.1 The relationship between the gender variable and the attitudinal scales

As shown in Table 5.10, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the attitudinal scores of the male and female participants in the main scale and the four subscales. The results reveal that significant differences between the male and female

participants exist in Main Scale ($t = -3.351$, $df = 773$, $p < 0.05$), Subscale 1, “learner views of English as a subject at school” ($t = -2.941$, $df = 825$, $p < 0.05$), Subscale 3, “learner attitudes toward communicative and non-communicative activities” ($t = -4.354$, $df = 822$, $p < 0.05$), and Subscale 4, “students’ needs and goals in learning English” ($t = -2.941$, $df = 825$, $p < 0.05$). There is no significant difference in scores between males and females in Subscale 2, “learner perceptions of the classroom instruction” ($t = 0.300$, $df = 806$, $p > 0.05$).

Table 5.10: Compare attitudes between genders by using t-test

Scale/Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (p)
(Main Scale)	(775)					
Male	321	126.64	13.228	-3.351	773	.001
Female	454	129.95	13.728			
(Subscale 1)	(827)					
Male	350	24.49	5.123	-2.941	825	.003
Female	477	25.49	4.604			
(Subscale 2)	(808)					
Male	338	39.82	6.739	.300	806	.764
Female	470	39.67	7.088			
(Subscale 3)	(824)					
Male	344	41.55	5.448	-4.354	822	.000
Female	480	43.19	5.232			
(Subscale 4)	(827)					
Male	346	20.97	3.510	-2.914	825	.004
Female	481	21.67	3.318			

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

□: Significant difference; □: No difference.

Table 5.11 shows the effect size of each scale that has a significant difference. The score of Cohen's d^2 of Main Scale is 0.25, which means the magnitude of the difference between males and females is modest. Examined by the same method, it is found that the magnitude is modest in Subscale 1, 3, and Subscale 4.

Table 5.11: The effect size between genders and attitudinal subscales

Scale/ Effect Size	Main Scale	Subscale 1	Subscale 3	Subscale 4
Effect Size (Cohen's d)	0.25	0.21	0.31	0.21

It is worth noting that the result indicates no significant difference between males and females in my sample in relation to their perceptions of the classroom instruction they have experienced. This result indicates that the classroom experiences both male and female students have ever had are similar, and there is not much difference in how different genders perceive the way English is taught at school.

² There are a wide variety of effect size measures for t-test. *Cohen's d* was adopted in this study. The formula for the effect size is as follows: $Cohen's d = (\text{Mean for group A} - \text{Mean for group B}) / \text{Pooled standard deviation}$, while the Pooled standard deviation = $(\text{Standard deviation of group A} + \text{Standard deviation of group B}) / 2$. In addition, Cohen proposes the following guideline to determine the magnitude of the effect size: 0-0.20 = weak effect; 0.21-0.50 = modest effect; 0.51-1.00 = moderate effect; and > 1.00 = strong effect (Muijs 2004: 136-7).

5.3.2 The relationship among school types and attitudinal scales

As demonstrated in Table 5.12 and 5.13, one-way ANOVA with Post-Hoc test was used to compare attitudes towards English learning at school among participants from different types of schools. Subjects were divided into three groups: National, Municipal, and Private, according to the different attributes of their schools. The result shows a statistically significant difference at the $p < 0.05$ level for the three groups (Main Scale: $F = 7.419$, $p < 0.05$; Subscale 1: $F = 7.384$, $p < 0.05$; Subscale 2: $F = 11.171$, $p < 0.05$; and Subscale 4: $F = 8.509$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 5.12: Compare attitudes among school types by using one-way ANOVA

Scale/ School Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig. (<i>p</i>)
(Main Scale)	(775)	(128.58)	(13.613)		
National	365	130.27	12.897	7.419	.001
Municipal	179	128.60	14.378		
Private	231	125.90	13.733		
(Subscale 1)	(827)	(25.07)	(4.853)		
National	395	25.43	4.452	7.384	.001
Municipal	192	25.57	5.030		
Private	240	24.06	5.201		
(Subscale 2)	(808)	(39.73)	(6.941)		
National	387	40.92	6.769	11.171	.000
Municipal	186	38.54	7.243		
Private	235	38.71	6.678		
(Subscale 3)	(824)	(42.51)	(5.381)		
National	395	42.37	5.182	1.161	.314
Municipal	190	43.03	5.554		
Private	239	42.32	5.558		
(Subscale 4)	(827)	(21.38)	(3.415)		
National	397	21.78	3.324	8.509	.000

Municipal	190	21.45	3.542		
Private	240	20.65	3.357		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

□: Significant difference; □: No difference.

As shown in Table 5.13, Post-Hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test indicate that in the Main Scale, the private schools are significantly different from the national schools; however, the municipal schools do not differ significantly from either the national or the private schools. In Subscale 1 “learner views of English as a subject at school” and 4 “students’ needs and goals in learning English”, the private schools are significantly different from both the national and the municipal schools, while the difference between the national and municipal schools is not significant. In Subscale 2 “learner perceptions of the classroom instruction”, the national schools are significantly different from both the municipal and private schools; however, there is no significant difference between the municipal and the private schools.

Table 5.13: Post-Hoc Tests (Compare attitudes among school types)

Scale	(I) School Type	(J) School Type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig. (p)
Main Scale	National	Municipal	1.67	.402
		Private	4.37*	.001
	Municipal	National	-1.67	.402
		Private	2.71	.132

	Private	National	-4.37*	.001
		Municipal	-2.71	.132
Subscale 1	National	Municipal	-.137	.949
		Private	1.37*	.003
	Municipal	National	.137	.949
		Private	1.51*	.006
Subscale 2	Private	National	-1.37*	.003
		Municipal	-1.51*	.006
	National	Municipal	2.37*	.001
		Private	2.20*	.001
Subscale 4	Municipal	National	-2.37*	.001
		Private	-.17	.968
	Private	National	-2.20*	.001
		Municipal	.17	.968
Subscale 4	National	Municipal	.33	.542
		Private	1.14*	.000
	Municipal	National	-.33	.542
		Private	.81*	.050
Subscale 4	Private	National	-1.14*	.000
		Municipal	-.81*	.050

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual differences between different types of schools within each scale are fairly weak. Calculated by Eta squared, the magnitude of the effect size is 0.02 in Main Scale, Subscale 1 and 4, and the effect size of Subscale 2 is 0.03.³

Table 5.14: Effect size between school types and attitudinal subscales

Scale/ Effect Size	Main Scale	Subscale 1	Subscale 2	Subscale 4
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³ According to J. Pallant (2005, 201), the effect size in ANOVA is called *Eta squared*. The formula is: $Eta\ squared = (Sum\ of\ squares\ between\ groups) / (Total\ sum\ of\ squares)$. The following guideline is used to interpret the strength of *Eta squared* values in ANOVA: 0.01= small effect, 0.06= moderate effect, and 0.14 = large effect.

Effect Size (Eta Squared)	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02
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As shown in the tables above, students of the private schools are slightly different from those of the public schools (including both the national and municipal schools) in Main scale, Subscale 1 “learner views of English as a subject at school”, 2 “learner perceptions of the classroom instruction” and 4 “students’ needs and goals in learning English”. The difference is not salient in Subscale 3 “learner attitudes toward communicative and non-communicative activities”, which means that although students from private schools and public school might have different attitudes in different aspects of learning English, their likes and dislikes for communicative and non-communicative activities are consistent.

5.3.3 The relationship between different programmes and attitudinal scales

Attitudes towards English learning at school were compared between participants in two different programmes, which are senior high school and comprehensive school.

The results indicate that no statistically significant differences exist in attitudes between these two groups in all of the scales.⁴ However, it was found by examining the scores of mean that except in subscale 3, students from comprehensive schools

⁴ For the detail of statistical output, please refer to Appendix G.

generally have stronger positive attitudes than those from senior high schools, although the difference is minor and thus can not be generalised to the population within a meaningful statistical level.

5.3.4 The relationship between majors and attitudinal scales

One-way ANOVA with Post-Hoc test was again employed to compare the difference among participants doing different majors. The results reveal statistically significant differences at the $p < 0.05$ level among the three groups of participants. As shown in Table 5.15, significant differences exist in Main Scale ($F = 37.462$, $p < 0.05$), Subscale 1 ($F = 11.171$, $p < 0.05$), Subscale 2 ($F = 79.542$, $p < 0.05$), Subscale 3 ($F = 11.999$, $p < 0.05$), and Subscale 4 ($F = 14.026$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 5.15: Compare attitudes among majors by using one-way ANOVA

Scale/Major	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig. (<i>p</i>)
(Main Scale)	(775)	(128.58)	(13.613)		
Science	374	128.33	12.712	37.462	.000
Arts	367	127.11	13.309		
Applied Foreign Language	34	147.26	13.072		
(Subscale 1)	(827)	(25.07)	(4.853)		
Science	398	24.85	4.737	11.171	.000
Arts	388	24.92	4.980		
Applied Foreign Language	41	28.51	3.287		
(Subscale 2)	(808)	(39.73)	(6.941)		
Science	385	40.83	6.071	79.542	.000

Arts	385	37.59	6.611		
Applied Foreign Language	38	50.24	6.411		
(Subscale 3)	(824)	(42.51)	(5.381)		
Science	393	41.63	5.282	11.999	.000
Arts	391	43.16	5.383		
Applied Foreign Language	40	44.78	4.844		
(Subscale 4)	(827)	(21.38)	(3.415)		
Science	396	21.12	3.327	14.026	.000
Arts	391	21.36	3.391		
Applied Foreign Language	40	24.08	3.437		

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

□: Significant difference; □: No difference.

The results of Post-Hoc comparisons are reported in Table 5.16. As can be seen, participants doing the major of “Applied Foreign Language” exhibit significant differences from those doing the majors of “Science” and “Arts” in most of the scales.

In particular, the differences exist between any two of the three groups in Subscale 2,

“learner perceptions of the classroom instruction”.

Table 5.16: Post-Hoc Tests (compare attitudes among majors)

Scale	(I) Major	(J) Major	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig. (p)
Main Scale	Science	Arts	1.22	.445
		Applied foreign language	-18.94*	.000
	Arts	Science	-1.22	.445
		Applied foreign language	-20.16*	.000
	Applied foreign language	Science	18.94*	.000
		Arts	20.16*	.000
	Science	Arts	-.068	.980
		Applied foreign language	-3.66*	.000

Subscale 1	Arts	Science	.068	.980
		Applied foreign language	-3.59*	.000
	Applied foreign language	Science	3.66*	.000
		Arts	3.59*	.000
Subscale 2	Science	Arts	3.23*	.000
		Applied foreign language	-9.41*	.000
	Arts	Science	-3.23*	.000
		Applied foreign language	-12.64*	.000
Subscale 3	Applied foreign language	Science	9.41*	.000
		Arts	12.64*	.000
	Science	Arts	-1.53*	.000
		Applied foreign language	-3.15*	.002
Subscale 4	Arts	Science	1.53*	.000
		Applied foreign language	-1.62	.187
	Applied foreign language	Science	3.15*	.002
		Arts	1.62	.187
Subscale 4	Science	Arts	-.24	.608
		Applied foreign language	-2.95*	.000
	Arts	Science	.24	.608
		Applied foreign language	-2.71*	.000
	Applied foreign language	Science	2.95*	.000
		Arts	2.71*	.000

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As shown in Table 5.17, the effect size of Main Scale is 0.09, which indicates a moderate relationship among the three groups of participants. The effect size of Subscale 1, 3, and 4 is all 0.03, which means a weak effect. As for Subscale 2, the magnitude of effect size is 0.17, meaning there is a strong relationship among the three groups.

Table 5.17: Effect size between different majors and attitudinal subscales

Scale/ Effect Size	Main Scale	Subscale 1	Subscale 2	Subscale 3	Subscale 4
Effect Size (Cohen's d)	0.09	0.03	0.17	0.03	0.03

As has been stated, significant differences exist among students doing different majors, and the differences are particularly salient in Subscale 2 “learner perceptions of the classroom instruction”. This reveals that students of different majors experience different types of instructions in English class. Judged from the mean score of each group, students majoring in “Applied Foreign Language” obviously have experienced more communicative activities than the other two groups of students.

5.3.5 The relationship between mother tongue and attitudinal scales

One-way ANOVA was conducted to compare attitudes towards English learning at school among participants with different mother tongue. Subjects were divided into four groups, Holo, Hakka, Mandarin, and Indigenous on the basis of their mother tongue.

The results show that there is no statistically significant difference in attitudes among the four groups in all of the scales.⁵

⁵ For the detail of statistical output, please refer to Appendix H.

5.3.6 The relationship between the years of learning English and attitudinal scales

One-way ANOVA with Post-Hoc test was again used to compare the relationship between different length of time in learning English and participants' attitudes towards English learning at school. Subjects were divided into three groups according to the different years they have learned English. Table 5.18 reveals that a statistically significant difference exists among the three groups only in Subscale 3 "learner attitudes toward communicative and non-communicative activities", with $F = 14.725$ and $p < 0.05$.

Table 5.18: Compare attitudes among the years of learning English by using one-way ANOVA

Scale/Years	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig. (<i>p</i>)
(Main Scale)	(772)	(128.59)	(13.626)		
5 year or below	253	127.57	12.909	1.193	0.304
6-9 years	453	128.96	13.757		
10 years or above	66	129.92	15.279		
(Subscale 1)	(824)	(25.07)	(4.859)		
5 year or below	275	24.78	4.522	1.040	0.354
6-9 years	478	25.15	5.021		
10 years or above	71	25.63	5.006		
(S2)	(805)	(39.73)	(6.932)		
5 year or below	268	40.24	6.765	2.265	0.104
6-9 years	470	39.66	6.893		
10 years or above	67	38.25	7.702		
(Subscale 3)	(821)	(42.50)	(5.389)		
5 year or below	277	41.18	5.231	14.725	0.000
6-9 years	474	43.04	5.089		
10 years or above	70	44.20	6.790		

(Subscale 4)	(824)	(21.38)	(3.421)		
5 year or below	275	21.50	3.237	0.340	0.712
6-9 years	478	21.29	3.469		
10 years or above	1	21.46	3.802		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

□: Significant difference; □: No difference.

As shown in Table 5.19, Post-Hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test indicate that in Subscale 3, participants who have learned English for only 5 years or below are significantly different from those who have learned English for 6-9 years or longer in terms of their attitude to communicative and non-communicative activities.

Using Eta squared, the effect size is 0.04, indicating a magnitude between weak and moderate.

Table 5.19: Post-Hoc Tests (compare attitudes among the years of learning English)

Scale	(I) Years	(J) Years	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig. (p)
Subscale 3	5 years or below	6-9 years	-1.87*	.000
		10 years or above	-3.02*	.000
	6-9 years	5 years or below	1.87*	.000
		10 years or above	-1.16	.235
	10 years or above	5 years or below	3.02*	.000
		6-9 years	1.16	.235

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The results tell us that the length of time in learning English has influence on learner attitudes towards communicative and non-communicative activities in class. A probable reason for this is because learners who have learned English longer have different proficiency, confidence, and experience in English or learning English from those who haven't learned English for so long, which leads to the statistically significant differences in their attitudes towards classroom activities.

5.3.7 The relationship between attending cram schools and attitudinal scales

The results presented in Table 5.20 show that there is a significant difference between subjects who go to cram school and who don't in Subscale 2 "learner perceptions of the classroom instruction" ($t = -2.535$, $df = 806$, $p < 0.05$), Subscale 3 "learner attitudes toward communicative and non-communicative activities" ($t = 3.041$, $df = 822$, $p < 0.05$), and Subscale 4 "students' needs and goals in learning English" ($t = -2.887$, $df = 825$, $p < 0.05$). The magnitude of the effect size is weak, with Cohen's $d = 0.19$ for Subscale 2, Cohen's $d = 0.23$ for Subscale 3, and Cohen's $d = 0.21$ for Subscale 4.

Table 5.20: Compare attitudes between those who go to cram school and those who don't by using t-test

Scale/Attend cram school	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (p)
(Main Scale)	(775)					
Yes	255	128.40	12.878	-.264	773	.792
No	520	128.67	13.970			

(Subscale 1)	(827)					
Yes	272	25.37	4.795	1.255	825	.210
No	555	24.92	4.878			
(Subscale 2)	(808)					
Yes	266	38.85	6.499	-2.535	806	.011
No	542	40.16	7.113			
(Subscale 3)	(824)					
Yes	270	43.32	5.045	3.041	822	.002
No	554	42.11	5.499			
(Subscale 4)	(827)					
Yes	272	20.89	3.519	-2.887	825	.004
No	555	21.62	3.340			

□: Significant difference; □: No difference.

Table 5.21 shows that the scores of Cohen's d of Subscale 2, 3 and 4 are 0.19, 0.23, and 0.21 respectively, which means there is a moderate relationship between attending cram school and learner attitudes.

Table 5.21: Effect size (compare attitudes between those who go to cram school and those who don't)

Scale/ Effect Size	Subscale 2	Subscale 3	Subscale 4
Effect Size (Cohen's d)	0.19	0.23	0.21

The results indicate that students, whether attending cram school or not, generally show consistent perceptions in Main scale and Subscale 1. In other words, attending cram school does not result in changes in attitudes towards English learning or English as a subject at school.

5.3.8 The relationship among the number of English classes participants have and the attitudinal scales

Subjects were divided into four groups based on the number of English classes they have per week. The results presented in Table 5.22 show statistically significant differences at the $p < 0.05$ level among the four groups in Main Scale ($F = 2.859$, $p < 0.05$) and Subscale 2 ($F = 3.778$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 5.22: Compare attitudes among different number of classes students have by using one-way ANOVA

Scale/ Number of Classes	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig. (<i>p</i>)
(Main Scale)	(775)	(128.50)	(13.613)		
4 or less	46	128.37	13.928	2.859	0.036
5	276	127.20	13.432		
6	271	130.98	12.813		
7 or more	182	128.58	14.711		
(Subscale 1)	(826)	(25.06)	(4.855)		
4 or less	48	25.02	5.338	0.387	0.762
5	294	24.89	5.086		
6	288	25.03	4.666		
7 or more	196	25.37	4.671		
(Subscale 2)	(807)	(39.71)	(6.929)		
4 or less	48	41.19	6.045	3.778	0.010
5	281	39.68	6.981		
6	292	38.83	6.665		
7 or more	186	40.77	7.303		
(Subscale 3)	(824)	(42.51)	(5.381)		
4 or less	48	41.31	5.605	2.072	0.102
5	294	42.35	5.384		
6	288	42.38	5.315		
7 or more	194	43.22	5.375		

(Subscale 4)	(826)	(21.37)	(3.407)		
4 or less	49	20.92	3.421		
5	295	21.42	3.109	1.524	0.207
6	289	21.14	3.626		
7 or more	193	21.75	3.486		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

□: Significant difference; □: No difference.

The results of Post-Hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test indicate in Table 5.23 that in both Main Scale and Subscale 2, participants who have 6 English classes per week are significantly different from those having 7 or more English classes per week. The significant difference doesn't exist between other groups of participants. The effect size of both scales, which is 0.01 calculated by Eta squared, is fairly weak.

Table 5.23: Post-Hoc Tests (compare attitudes among different number of classes students have)

Scale	(I) Class number	(J) Class number	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig. (p)
Main Scale	4 or less	5	.13	1.000
		6	1.30	.948
		7 or more	-2.48	.747
	5	4 or less	-.13	1.000
		6	1.18	.794
		7 or more	-2.60	.258
	6	4 or less	-1.30	.948
		5	-1.18	.794
		7 or more	-3.78*	.038
	7 or more	4 or less	2.48	.747
		5	2.60	.258
		6	3.78*	.038

Subscale 2	4 or less	5	1.51	.581
		6	2.36	.187
		7 or more	.42	.987
	5	4 or less	-1.51	.581
		6	.85	.539
		7 or more	-1.09	.425
	6	4 or less	-2.36	.187
		5	-.85	.539
		7 or more	-1.94*	.030
	7 or more	4 or less	-.42	.987
		5	1.09	.425
		6	1.94*	.030

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

To conclude, Tables 5.22 and 5.23 reveal that there is not much difference in attitudes among students who have different numbers of classes every week.

5.3.9 The relationship among class size and attitudinal scales

Subjects were divided into four groups according to the number of students they have in their English class. As shown in Table 5.24, results from the analysis by one-way ANOVA indicate that statistically significant differences exist in Main scale ($F = 8.963, p < 0.05$), Subscale 1 ($F = 8.522, p < 0.05$), Subscale 2 ($F = 15.248, p < 0.05$), and Subscale 4 ($F = 4.163, p < 0.05$).

Table 5.24: Compare attitudes among class size by using one-way ANOVA

Scale/ Class Size	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig. (p)
(Main Scale)	(775)	(128.58)	(13.613)		
21-30	39	122.92	8.707		
31-40	155	129.46	13.581	8.963	.000
41-50	540	129.40	13.459		
51 or above	41	119.88	15.550		
(Subscale 1)	(827)	(25.07)	(4.853)		
21-30	43	25.00	3.579		
31-40	164	25.80	5.257	8.522	.000
41-50	579	25.11	4.657		
51 or above	41	21.59	5.674		
(Subscale 2)	(808)	(39.73)	(6.941)		
21-30	43	34.35	5.761		
31-40	161	40.15	6.232	15.248	.000
41-50	563	40.31	6.920		
51 or above	41	35.80	7.524		
(Subscale 3)	(824)	(42.51)	(5.381)		
21-30	42	43.88	5.861		
31-40	164	41.85	5.669	1.902	.128
41-50	577	42.62	5.195		
51 or above	41	42.07	6.072		
(Subscale 4)	(827)	(21.38)	(3.415)		
21-30	43	19.93	3.634		
31-40	163	21.61	3.134	4.163	.006
41-50	580	21.49	3.455		
51 or above	41	20.41	3.286		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

□: Significant difference; □: No difference.

Table 5.25 shows the results of Post-Hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test, which indicate that there are significant differences in attitudes among participants in an English class of different size. Significant differences exist in Main scale, Subscale 1,

Subscale 2, and Subscale 4.

Table 5.25: Post-Hoc Tests (compare attitudes among class size)

Scale	(I) Student No.	(J) Student No.	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig. (p)
Main Scale	21-30	31-40	-6.54	.061
		41-50	-6.48*	.038
		51 or above	3.05	.794
	31-40	21-30	6.54	.061
		41-50	.06	1.000
		51 or above	9.58*	.001
	41-50	21-30	6.48*	.038
		31-40	-.06	1.000
		51 or above	9.52*	.000
	51 or above	21-30	-3.05	.794
		31-40	-9.58*	.001
		41-50	-9.52*	.000
Subscale 1	21-30	31-40	-.80	.814
		41-50	-.11	.999
		51 or above	3.41*	.014
	31-40	21-30	.80	.814
		41-50	.69	.449
		51 or above	4.21*	.000
	41-50	21-30	.11	.999
		31-40	-.69	.449
		51 or above	3.52*	.000
	51 or above	21-30	-3.41*	.014
		31-40	-4.21*	.000
		41-50	-3.52*	.000
Subscale 2	21-30	31-40	-5.80*	.000
		41-50	-5.96*	.000
		51 or above	-1.46	.808
	31-40	21-30	5.80*	.000
		41-50	-.16	.995
		51 or above	4.34*	.004

	41-50	21-30	5.96*	.000
		31-40	.16	.995
		51 or above	4.50*	.001
	51 or above	21-30	1.46	.808
		31-40	-4.34*	.004
		41-50	-4.50*	.001
Subscale 4	21-30	31-40	-1.68*	.040
		41-50	-1.56*	.039
		51 or above	-.48	.935
	31-40	21-30	1.68*	.040
		41-50	.13	.981
		51 or above	1.20	.253
	41-50	21-30	1.56*	.039
		31-40	-.13	.981
		51 or above	1.07	.283
	51 or above	21-30	.48	.935
		31-40	-1.20	.253
		41-50	-1.07	.283

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The effect size calculated by Eta squared is weak in these scales, with 0.03 in Main scale and Subscale 1, a slightly higher 0.05 in Subscale 2, and 0.02 in Subscale 4, as shown in Table 5.26.

Table 5.26: Effect size between different class size and the attitudinal subscales

Scale/ Effect Size	Main Scale	Subscale 1	Subscale 2	Subscale 4
Effect Size (Eta squared)	0.03	0.03	0.05	0.02

It is revealed in this section that class size does have its effect on learner attitudes.

This is particularly obvious with learners from large classes, as presented in Main scale, Subscale 1 and Subscale 2.

5.3.10 The relationship among academic achievements and attitudinal scales

Finally, the relationship was examined between participants' academic achievements and the attitudinal scales. Participants were divided into 6 groups according to their academic ranking in class in the previous semester. As Table 5.27 shows, there are statistically significant differences in Main scale ($F = 5.990$, $p < 0.05$) and Subscale 1 ($F = 11.121$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 5.27: Compare attitudes among academic achievement by using one-way ANOVA

Scale/ Achievement	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig. (<i>p</i>)
(Main Scale)	(775)	(128.58)	(13.613)		
1-10	221	131.94	11.875		
11-20	221	128.45	13.433		
21-30	183	127.46	14.205	5.990	.000
31-40	105	125.83	14.664		
41-50	38	121.89	14.586		
other	7	133.29	7.847		
(Subscale 1)	(827)	(25.07)	(4.853)		
1-10	234	26.68	4.292		
11-20	238	25.07	4.788		
21-30	191	24.31	4.992	11.121	.000
31-40	112	24.07	5.141		
41-50	43	22.02	4.103		
other	9	25.78	3.801		

(Subscale 2)	(808)	(39.73)	(6.941)		
1-10	226	39.98	6.450		
11-20	233	39.73	7.390		
21-30	188	39.84	7.079	0.568	0.725
31-40	111	39.23	6.976		
41-50	43	38.81	6.522		
other	7	42.57	5.740		
(Subscale 3)	(824)	(42.51)	(5.381)		
1-10	230	43.29	5.063		
11-20	236	42.52	5.406		
21-30	193	41.94	5.755	1.967	0.081
31-40	112	42.13	5.280		
41-50	44	41.48	5.479		
other	9	43.89	2.892		
(Subscale 4)	(827)	(21.38)	(3.415)		
1-10	233	21.90	2.907		
11-20	238	21.36	3.331		
21-30	193	21.33	3.741	3.324	.006
31-40	112	21.03	3.838		
41-50	42	19.74	3.393		
other	9	21.33	2.739		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

□: Significant difference; □: No difference.

Table 5.28 shows the result of Post-Hoc comparisons that in both the Main Scale and Subscale 2, there are significant differences between participants who ranked 1-10 in class and those ranked 21-50. That is, attitudes differ between students with better academic achievement and those who didn't perform so well.

The effect size, calculated using Eta squared, is weak in Main Scale (0.04) and moderate in Subscale 1 (0.06).

Table 5.28: Post-Hoc Tests (compare attitudes among academic achievement)

Scale	(I) Academic Ranking	(J) Academic Ranking	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Main Scale	1-10	11-20	3.49	.188
		21-30	4.48*	.049
		31-40	6.11*	.012
		41-50	10.05*	.003
		other	-1.34	1.000
	11-20	1-10	-3.49	.188
		21-30	.99	.990
		31-40	2.62	.741
		41-50	6.56	.171
		other	-4.83	.971
	21-30	1-10	-4.48*	.049
		11-20	-.99	.990
		31-40	1.64	.963
		41-50	5.57	.366
		other	-5.82	.938
	31-40	1-10	-6.11*	.012
		11-20	-2.62	.741
		21-30	-1.64	.963
		41-50	3.93	.791
		other	-7.46	.844
	41-50	1-10	-10.05*	.003
		11-20	-6.56	.171
		21-30	-5.57	.366
		31-40	-3.93	.791
		other	-11.39	.511
other	1-10	1.34	1.000	
	11-20	4.83	.971	
	21-30	5.82	.938	
	31-40	7.46	.844	
	41-50	11.39	.511	
1-10	11-20	1.62*	.017	
	21-30	2.37*	.000	
	31-40	2.61*	.000	
	41-50	4.66*	.000	
	other	.91	.997	

Subscale 1	11-21	1-10	-1.62*	.017
		21-30	.75	.745
		31-40	1.00	.638
		41-50	3.04*	.010
		other	-.71	.999
	21-30	1-10	-2.37*	.000
		11-20	-.75	.745
		31-40	.24	.999
		41-50	2.29	.142
		other	-1.46	.975
	31-40	1-10	-2.61*	.000
		11-20	-1.00	.638
		21-30	-.24	.999
		41-50	2.05	.320
		other	-1.71	.955
	41-51	1-10	-4.66*	.000
		11-20	-3.04*	.010
		21-30	-2.29	.142
		31-40	-2.05	.320
		other	-3.75	.451
other	1-10	-.91	.997	
	11-20	.71	.999	
	21-30	1.46	.975	
	31-40	1.71	.955	
	41-50	3.75	.451	

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

From Table 5.27 and 5.28, we can find that the top 10 students generally have different attitudes from those whose ranking is not as good towards English learning and English as a subject at school. Nevertheless, their perception of classroom instruction is similar to the others, which again underlines the consistency of classroom experience that students have. There is no significant difference among

students with different academic achievement concerning their attitudes towards communicative and non-communicative activities and their needs and goals in learning English.

5.3.11 Summary

The relationship between participants' personal background variables and the attitudinal scales was examined by running t-tests and one-way ANOVAs. As has been reported, significant differences occur between some of the variables and scales with different magnitude of strength.

The results are summarized in the following Table 5.29. From the table, we can find that some variables, such as "gender" and "major", play important roles in influencing learner attitudes towards English learning at school. On the other hand, some variables, such as "programme" and "mother tongue", are not so closely related to learner attitudes.

Table 5.29: Summary of the relationship between the personal background variables and the attitudinal scales

Scale	Variables with Statistically Significant Difference	Variables with No Statistically Significant Difference
Main Scale	Gender, School Type, Major, Number of Classes, Class Size, Academic Ranking	Programme, Mother Tongue, Years of Learning English, Attending Cram School
Subscale 1	Gender, School Type, Major, Class Size, Academic Ranking	Programme, Mother Tongue, Years of Learning English, Attending Cram School, Number of Classes
Subscale 2	School Type, Major, Attending Cram School, Number of Classes, Class Size	Gender, Programme, Mother Tongue, Years of Learning English, Academic Ranking
Subscale 3	Gender, Major, Years of Learning English, Attending Cram School	School Type, Programme, Mother Tongue, Number of Classes, Class Size, Academic Ranking
Subscale 4	Gender, School Type, Major, Attending Cram School, Class Size	Programme, Mother Tongue, Years of Learning English, Number of Classes, Academic Ranking

5.4 Inferential Data (2): The relationship between the personal background variables and negative subscales

The first part of the inferential data analysis focuses on whether different sub-groups of students differ in relation to each of the four attitudinal dimensions. In this section, an attempt is made to examine more specific attitudes and perceptions in addition to the four subscales. Since there are 23 negatively worded items in this questionnaire, which is more than half of the question items, it is worth exploring in more detail the

relationship between the personal background variables and the negatively worded items.

There are two types of negatively worded items in my questionnaire. The first type refers to the items that encapsulate non-communicative teaching practices from my viewpoint as a researcher. The second type conveys students' inhibitions about participating in communicative activities or their preferences for non-communicative classroom practices.

Among the 23 negatively worded items, 8 of them were not taken into consideration in the second part of inferential data analysis. This is because the purpose of this part is to investigate further the extent to which communicative teaching practices occur in the English classroom as well as how they are perceived by students. Since the 8 items chiefly concern learners' general attitudes to learning English, responses to these items tend to be divided and couldn't seem to achieve the purpose here.

Accordingly, 15 out of the 23 negatively worded items were isolated from the relevant subscales for measurement. An internal consistency reliability check was

firstly made on these items, which were then treated as the dependent variables in the following t-tests and ANOVAs (analysis of variances). Significant results are demonstrated in tables, and brief reports are made accordingly. Further discussions and conclusion will be made in the following chapter.

5.4.1 The internal consistency reliability of the negative subscales

As Table 5.30 shows, 15 negatively worded items were grouped by inspection into two theoretical categories on the basis of their attributes. The first category comprises 8 negatively worded items relating to the non-communicative teaching practices learner experience in their classroom. The second category contains 7 negatively worded items, which are about learners' inhibitions about speaking or participating actively in class or their preferences for non-communicative classroom practices.

Internal consistency of the two negative subscales was estimated by computing Cronbach alpha check. Table 5.30 shows that the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the two subscales are .7021 and .6648. It has been mentioned in chapter four that according to Pallant (2005), an ideal Cronbach alpha coefficient of a scale should be above .70. However, each of these two attitude scales contains less than 10 items. Moreover, since many different areas are measured in this questionnaire due to the

complexity of the English learning at school, lower Cronbach alpha coefficients can be expected. Viewed in this way, the two negative scales possess a satisfactory degree of internal reliability.

Table 5.30: Internal consistency reliability check of the negative subscales

Negative subscale	Category	Item number	Number of Items	Cronbach's alpha coefficient
1.	Non-Communicative Teaching Practices Perceived by Students	09,10,11,13,15,18,19,22	8	.7021
2.	Attitudes towards Communicative Activities	25,30,31,32,33,36,37	7	.6648

5.4.2 The relationship between the gender variables and the negative subscales

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the attitudinal scores of the male and female participants in the negative subscales. As shown in Table 5.31, a significant difference between the male and female participants exists in Negative Subscale 2, “attitudes towards communicative activities” ($t = -4.275$, $df = 827$, $p < 0.05$). There is no significant difference in scores between males and females in Negative Subscale 1, “non-communicative teaching practices perceived by students” ($t = -.054$, $df = 823$, $p > 0.05$). Besides, the magnitude of the effect size in Negative Subscale 2 is modest, with Cohen’s $d = 0.33$.

Table 5.31: Compare attitudes in negative subscales between genders by using t-test

Scale/Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (p)
(Negative Subscale 1)	(825)					
Male	345	19.13	4.150	-.054	823	.957
Female	480	19.15	4.488			
(Negative Subscale 2)	(829)					
Male	348	20.24	4.053	-4.725	827	.000
Female	481	21.60	4.117			

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

□: Significant difference; □: No difference.

The results indicate that there are differences between different genders of students in their attitudes towards participating in communicative activities as well as towards non-communicative activities. By comparing the mean scores for both groups, we can see that female students express more positive attitudes towards participating in classroom communicative activities than male students do. It also indicates that female students exhibit stronger preference for communicative activities; while male students may prefer a more non-communicative way of instruction. In addition, the table reveals that there is no significant difference in terms of their experiences of the non-communicative teaching instruction in their English class.

5.4.3 The relationship between different school types and the negative subscales

One-way ANOVA with Post-Hoc test was used to compare attitudes shown in the

negative subscales among participants from three different types of schools: National, Municipal, and Private schools. The result demonstrated in Table 5.32 indicates a statistically significant difference at the $p < 0.05$ level among the three groups only in Negative Subscale 1, with $F = 19.671$, $p < 0.05$.

Table 5.32: Compare attitudes in negative subscales among different school types by using one-way ANOVA

Scale/School Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig. (<i>p</i>)
(Negative Subscale 1)	(825)	19.14	4.347		
National	395	20.05	4.413	19.671	.000
Municipal	191	17.81	4.145		
Private	239	18.71	4.060		
(Negative Subscale 2)	(829)	21.03	4.143		
National	398	21.30	4.158	1.944	.144
Municipal	191	20.93	4.267		
Private	240	20.65	3.998		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

□: Significant difference; □: No difference.

Table 5.33 shows the results of Post-Hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test, indicating that in Negative Subscale 1, national schools are significantly different from municipal and private schools; however, there is no significant difference between municipal schools and private schools. The effect size calculated by Eta squared is 0.05, which indicates a weak relationship among these schools.

Table 5.33: Post-Hoc Tests (compare attitudes in negative subscales among different school types)

Scale	(I) School Type	(J) School Type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig. (<i>p</i>)
Negative Subscale 1	National	Municipal	2.24*	.000
		Private	1.34*	.001
	Municipal	National	-2.24*	.000
		Private	-.91	.091
	Private	National	-1.34*	.001
		Municipal	.91	.091

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

From Table 5.32 and 5.33, we can see that students from different types of schools have experienced differently in their English class. However, there is no significant difference in terms of their attitudes to participating in communicative activities and to non-communicative activities.

5.4.4 The relationship between different majors and the negative subscales

One-way ANOVA with Post-Hoc test was used to compare attitudes among participants doing different majors, including Science, Arts, and Applied Foreign Language. As revealed in table 5.34, a statistically significant difference exists among the three groups in Negative Subscale 1 ($F = 91.554, p < 0.05$) and Negative Subscale 2 ($F = 7.849, p < 0.05$).

Table 5.34: Compare attitudes in negative subscales among different majors by using one-way ANOVA

Scale/Major	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig. (<i>p</i>)
(Negative Subscale 1)	(825)	19.14	4.347		
Science	394	19.88	3.887	91.554	.000
Arts	391	17.71	3.967		
Applied Foreign	40	25.90	4.113		
Language					
(Negative Subscale 2)	(829)	21.03	4.143		
Science	396	21.30	3.995	7.849	.000
Arts	392	20.93	4.142		
Applied Foreign	41	20.65	4.832		
Language					

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

□: Significant difference; □: No difference.

Table 5.35 shows the results of Post-Hoc comparisons, indicating that there are significant differences in attitudes among participants of different majors. Significant differences exist in both of the negative subscales. Calculated by Eta squared, the effect size is strong in Negative Subscale 1, “non-communicative teaching practices perceived by students” (0.182), and weak in Negative Subscale 2, “attitudes towards communicative activities” (0.02).

Table 5.35: Post-Hoc Tests (Compare attitudes in negative subscales among different majors)

Scale/Major	(I) Major	(J) Major	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig. (p)
Negative Subscale 1	Science	Arts	2.16*	.000
		Applied Foreign Language	-6.02*	.000
	Arts	Science	-2.16*	.000
		Applied Foreign Language	-8.19*	.000
	Applied Foreign Language	Science	6.02*	.000
		Arts	8.19*	.000
Negative Subscale 2	Science	Arts	-.58	.138
		Applied Foreign Language	-2.54*	.001
	Arts	Science	.58	.138
		Applied Foreign Language	-1.96*	.015
	Applied Foreign Language	Science	2.54*	.001
		Arts	1.96*	.015

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The results reveal that students doing different majors have different perceptions of how their English teach in class. The strong effect size exhibited in Negative Subscale 1 particularly indicates the great differences among the classroom instructions that students of different majors have experienced. In addition, students also express different attitudes to non-communicative activities as well as participating actively in classroom activities.

5.4.5 The relationship between different length of time in learning English and the negative subscales

One-way ANOVA with Post-Hoc test was again used to compare the relationship between different length of time in learning English and participants' attitudes in the negative subscales. As Table 5.36 reveals, a statistically significant difference exists among the three groups only in Negative Subscale 2, with $F = 9.395$ and $p < 0.05$.

Table 5.36: Compare attitudes in negative subscales among the years of learning English by using one-way ANOVA

Scale/School Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig. (<i>p</i>)
(Negative Subscale 1)	(822)	19.14	4.341		
5 year or below	276	19.25	4.285	1.494	.225
6-9 years	476	19.20	4.269		
10 years or above	70	18.29	4.973		
(Negative Subscale 2)	(826)	21.02	4.147		
5 year or below	278	20.23	3.957	9.395	.000
6-9 years	477	21.30	4.025		
10 years or above	71	22.23	5.100		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

□: Significant difference; □: No difference.

Table 5.37 shows the result of the Post-Hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test, indicating that in Negative Subscale 2, participants who have learned English for only 5 years or below are significantly different from those who have learned English for 6-9 years or longer in attitude. Besides, the effect size is 0.02, meaning a weak magnitude in difference among the three groups.

Table 5.37: Post-Hoc Tests (compare attitudes in negative subscales among the years of learning English)

Scale/Years	(I) Years	(J) Years	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig. (p)
Negative Subscale 2	5 years or below	6-9 years	-1.08*	.002
		10 years or above	-2.00*	.001
	6-9 years	5 years or below	1.08*	.002
		10 years or above	-.92	.211
	10 years or above	5 years or below	2.00*	.001
		6-9 years	.92	.211

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The findings reveal that students who have learned English for different length of time have different attitudes towards communicative activities. However, there is no significant difference among them in experiencing the non-communicative classroom practice at school.

5.4.6 The relationship between attending cram schools and the negative subscales

The results presented in Table 5.38 show that significant differences exist between students who attend cram schools and those who don't in Negative Subscale 1 ($t = -1.995$, $df = 823$, $p < 0.05$) and Negative Subscale 2 ($t = 2.730$, $df = 827$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 5.39 indicates that the effect size is weak in Negative Subscale 1 (Cohen's $d = 0.15$) and modest in Negative Subscale 2 (Cohen's $d = 0.21$).

Table 5.38: Compare attitudes in negative subscales between those who go to cram school and those who don't by using t-test by using t-test

Scale/Attend cram school	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (p)
(Negative Subscale 1)	(825)					
Yes	272	18.71	4.236	-1.995	823	.046
No	553	19.35	4.389			
(Negative Subscale 2)	(829)					
Yes	273	21.59	3.960	2.730	827	.006
No	556	20.75	4.206			

Table 5.39: Effect size (compare attitudes in negative subscales between those who go to cram school and those who don't)

Scale/ Effect Size	Negative Subscale 1	Negative Subscale 2
Effect Size (Cohen's d)	0.15	0.21

We can understand from the results that attending cram schools has a slight influence on both students' perceptions of classroom instruction and their attitudes towards communicative activities.

5.4.7 The relationship between academic achievement and the negative subscales

As demonstrated in Table 5.40, there is no significant difference between students' academic achievement and their attitudes in both of the negative subscales. Nevertheless, it is meaningful to find that no significant difference exists between students' ranking and the classroom instruction they have experienced. More

importantly, there is no significant difference between students of higher ranking and those of lower ranking in their attitudes towards participating in communicative activities and towards non-communicative activities.

Table 5.40: Compare attitudes in negative subscales among academic achievement by using one-way ANOVA

Scale/Academic Achievement	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig. (<i>p</i>)
(Negative Subscale 1)	(825)	19.14	4.347		
1-10	231	19.02	4.246	.477	.793
11-20	238	19.28	4.577		
21-30	190	19.35	4.236		
31-40	114	18.75	4.372		
41-50	43	19.00	4.071		
other	9	20.22	4.577		
(Negative Subscale 2)	(829)	21.03	4.143		
1-10	231	21.60	3.885	1.982	.079
11-20	239	21.09	3.947		
21-30	194	20.57	4.577		
31-40	112	20.82	4.237		
41-50	44	20.07	4.106		
other	9	21.89	3.551		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

5.4.8. Summary

By using the methods of t-tests and one-way ANOVAs, the relationship between participants' personal background variables and the negative attitudinal scales was revealed. Table 5.41 summarizes the results of the finding.

From the table, we can see that both of the variables “major” and “attending cram school” are closely related to learner attitudes revealed in the negative subscales. Like the results of 5.3, no significant difference exists between the two variables “programme” and “mother tongue” and learner attitudes in these two negative subscales.

Table 5.41: Summary of the comparison of different groups in the independent variables for the negative attitudinal scales

Scale	Variable of Statistically Significant Difference	Variable of No Statistically Significant Difference
Negative Subscale 1	School Type, Major, Attending Cram School	Gender, Programme, Mother Tongue, Years of Learning English, Academic Ranking
Negative Subscale 2	Gender, Major, Years of Learning English, Attending Cram School	School Type, Programme, Mother Tongue, Academic Ranking

5.5 Inferential Data (3): Correlations between the attitudinal scales

Based on the research design, the main attitudinal scale for measuring senior high school students’ attitudes towards current English learning at school consist of four subscales, which are “learner views of English as a subject at school” (Subscale 1); “learner perceptions of the classroom instruction” (Subscale 2); “learner attitudes toward communicative and non-communicative activities” (Subscale 3); and

“students’ needs and goals in learning English” (Subscale 4). In other words, the four subscales are regarded as the four components of learner attitudes towards English learning at school.

The correlation statistical analysis, presented as *Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson’s r)*, was employed here to measure the relationship, including the direction (positive or negative) and strength (strong or weak) between the four attitudinal subscales.⁶ The results of the correlation analysis are reported in tables and graphs. Further discussions and conclusion in relation to the results will be made in the following chapter.

Table 5.42: The matrix of the correlation between the attitudinal subscales

Scale	Subscale 1	Subscale 2	Subscale 3
Subscale 1 Pearson’s r Sig. (2-tailed) N			
Subscale 2 Pearson’s r Sig. (2-tailed) N	.372** .000 797		
Subscale 3 Pearson’s r	.272**	-.150**	

⁶ In terms of the direction of the relationship, *Pearson’s r* between 0 to +1 means the relationship between two variables is positive. On the other hand, between 0 to -1 means negative. As for the strength of the relationship, the closer to +/-1 the stronger the relationship is; the closer to 0, the weaker it means. Some rules of thumb on strength of *r* are: <+/-0.1 is weak; <+/-0.3 is modest; <+/-0.5 is moderate; <+/-0.8 is strong, and > or = +/-0.8 means very strong (Muijs 2004, pp.145-146).

Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
N	813	794	
Subscale 4			
Pearson's <i>r</i>	.548**	.463**	.188**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
N	816	798	815

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

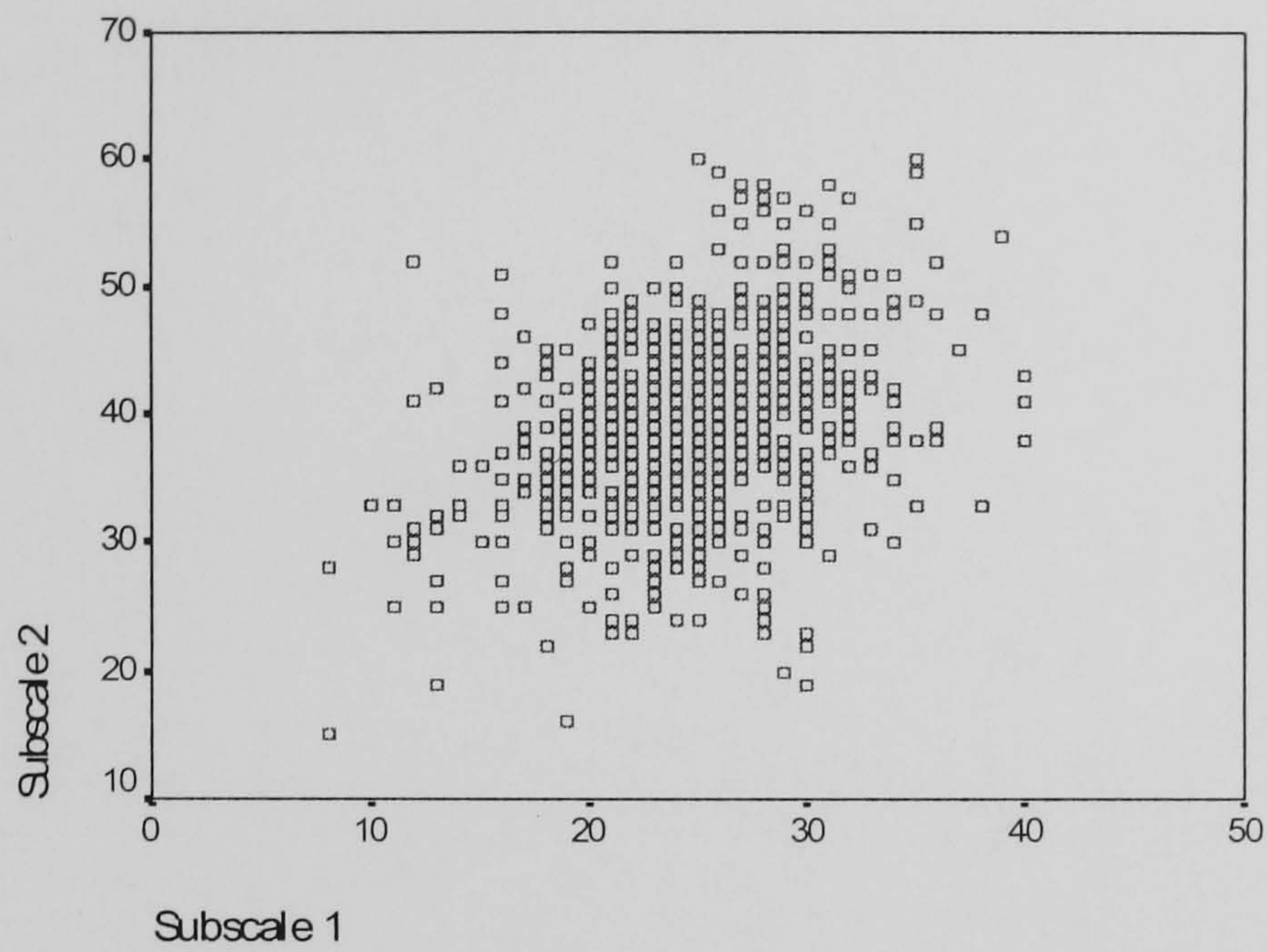
□: Strong; □: Moderate; □: Modest.

5.5.1 The relationship between the subscales

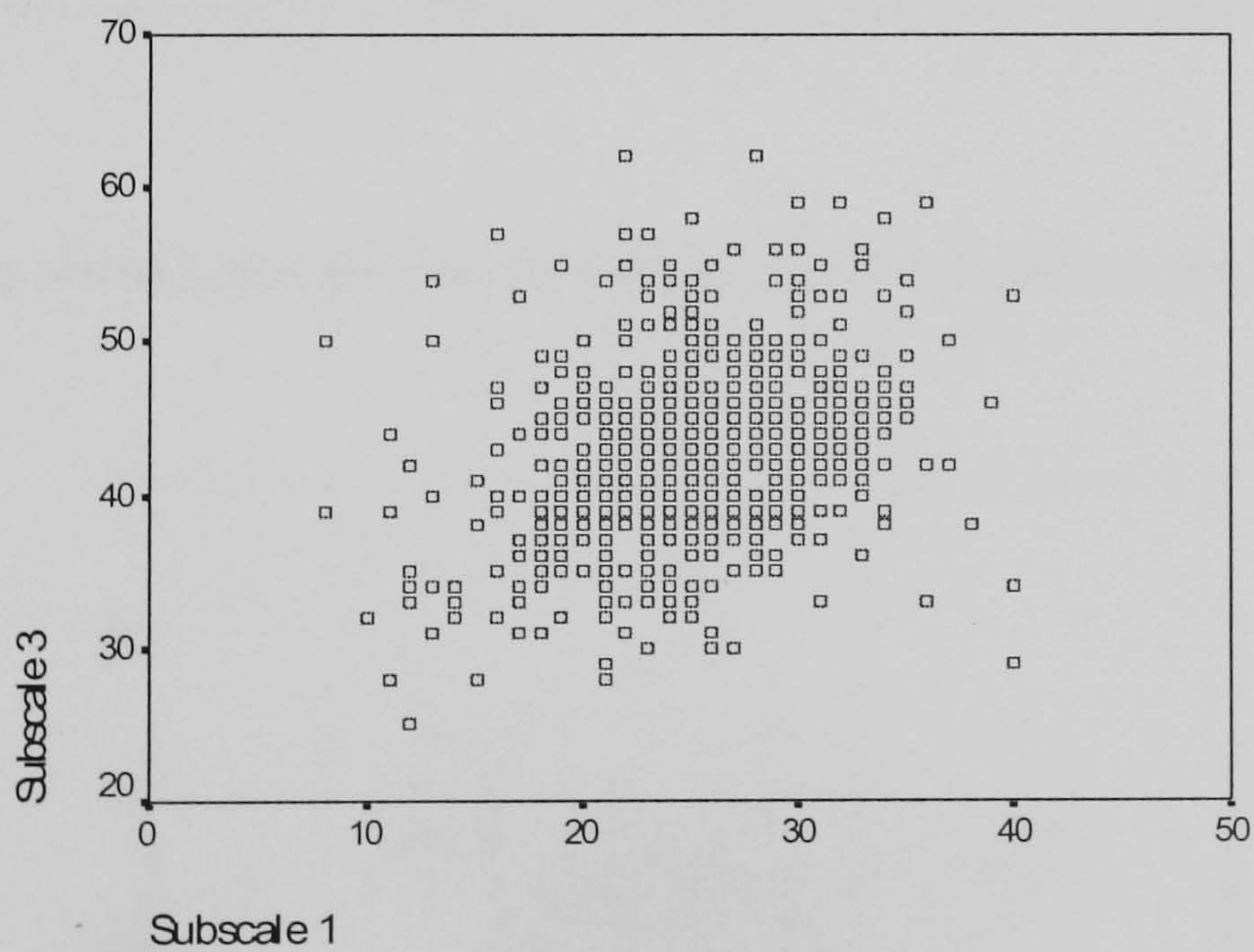
According to the findings from Table 5.42, the relationship between Subscale 1 and 2 (Pearson's $r = 0.372$, $N = 797$, $p < 0.01$), Subscale 1 and 3 (Pearson's $r = 0.272$, $N = 813$, $p < 0.01$), and Subscale 1 and 4 (Pearson's $r = 0.548$, $N = 816$, $p < 0.01$) are all positive.

The strength of correlation between Subscale 1, “learner views of English as a subject at school” and Subscale 2, “students’ perceptions of the classroom instruction” is moderate; between Subscale 1 and Subscale 3, “students’ attitudes toward communicative and non-communicative activities” is modest; between Subscale 1 and Subscale 4, “students' needs and goals in learning English” is strong. The distributions of their correlation are shown in Graph 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3.

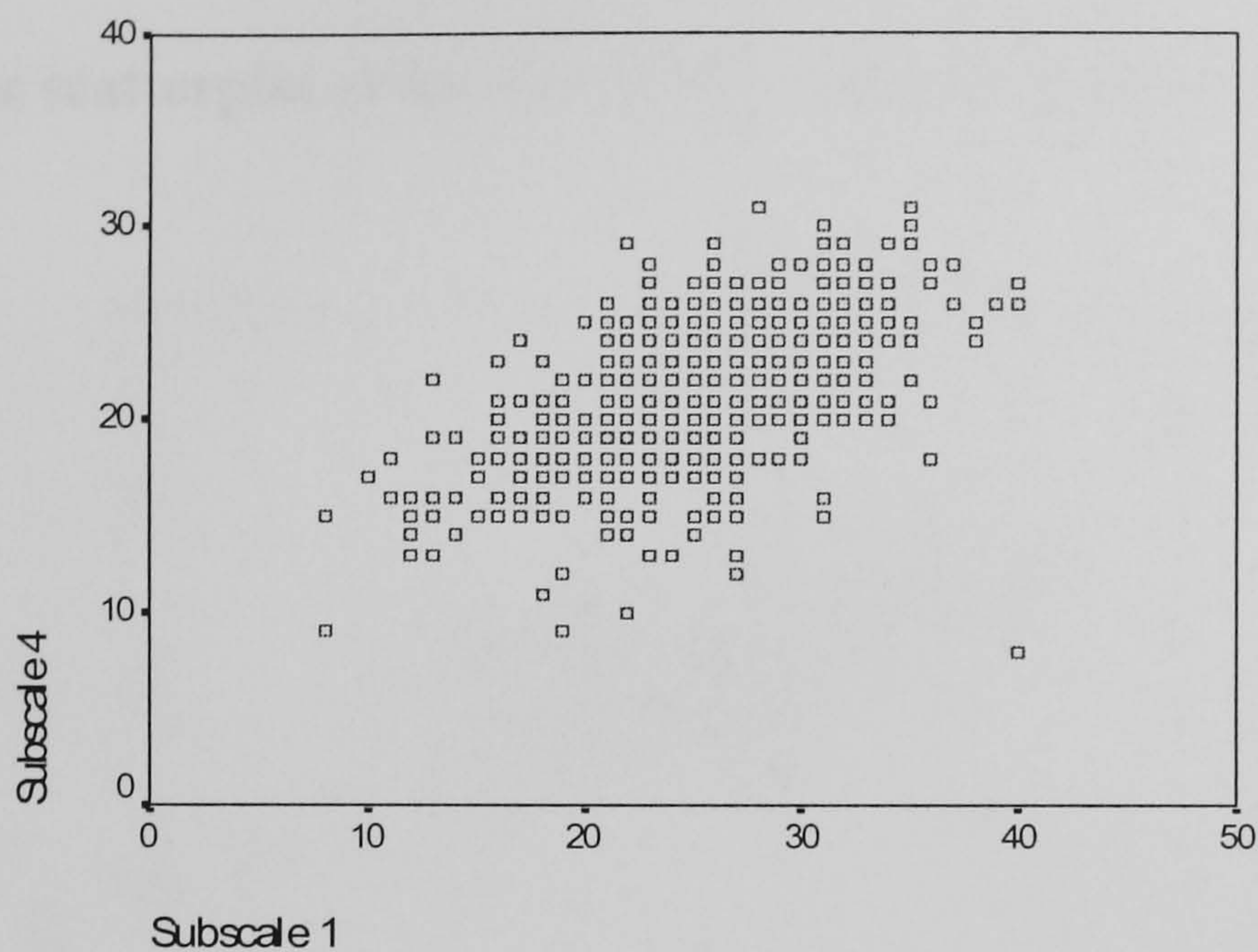
Graph 5.1: The scatterplot of the correlation between Subscale 1 and Subscale 2



Graph 5.2: The scatterplot of the correlation between Subscale 1 and Subscale 3

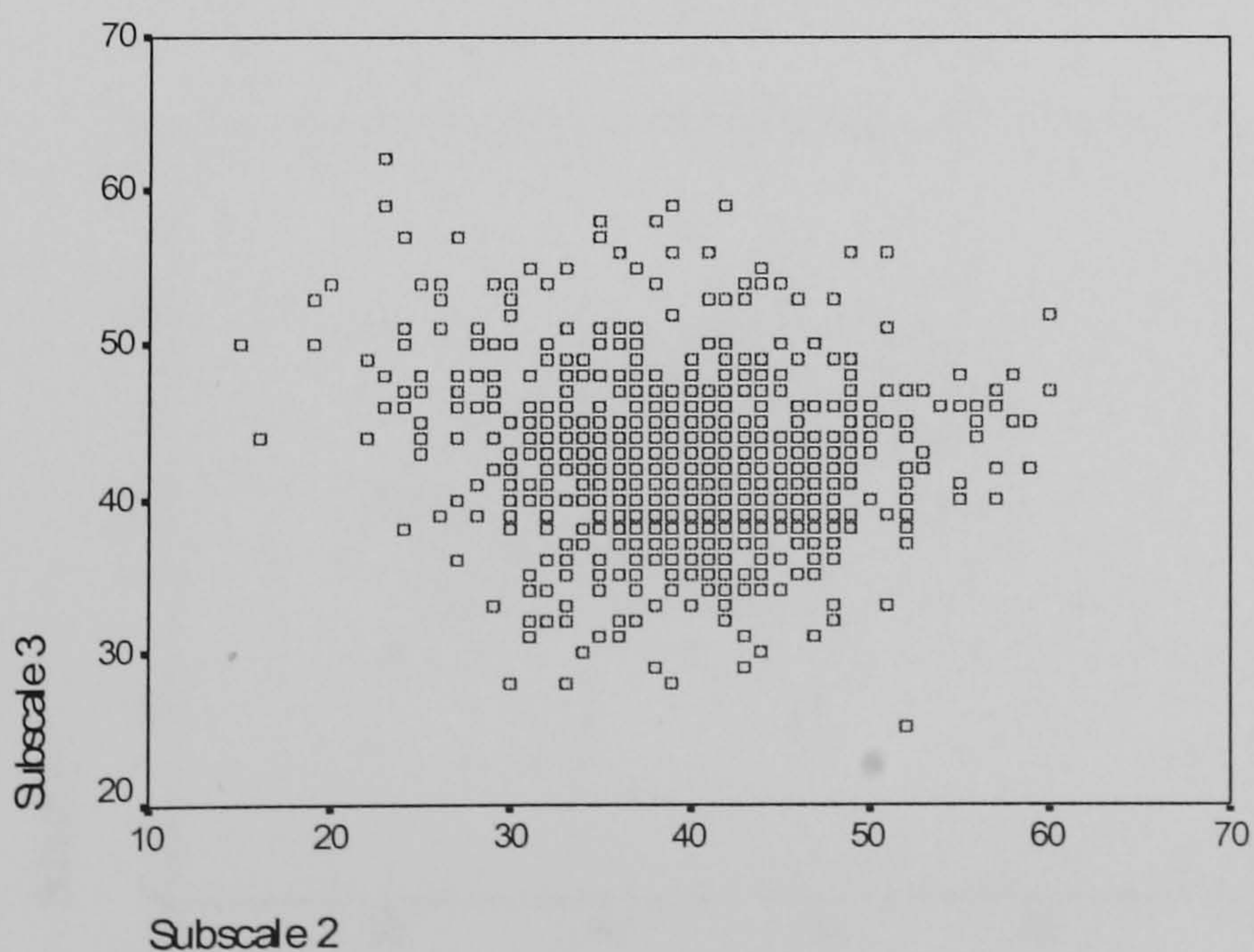


Graph 5.3: The scatterplot of the correlation between Subscale 1 and Subscale 4



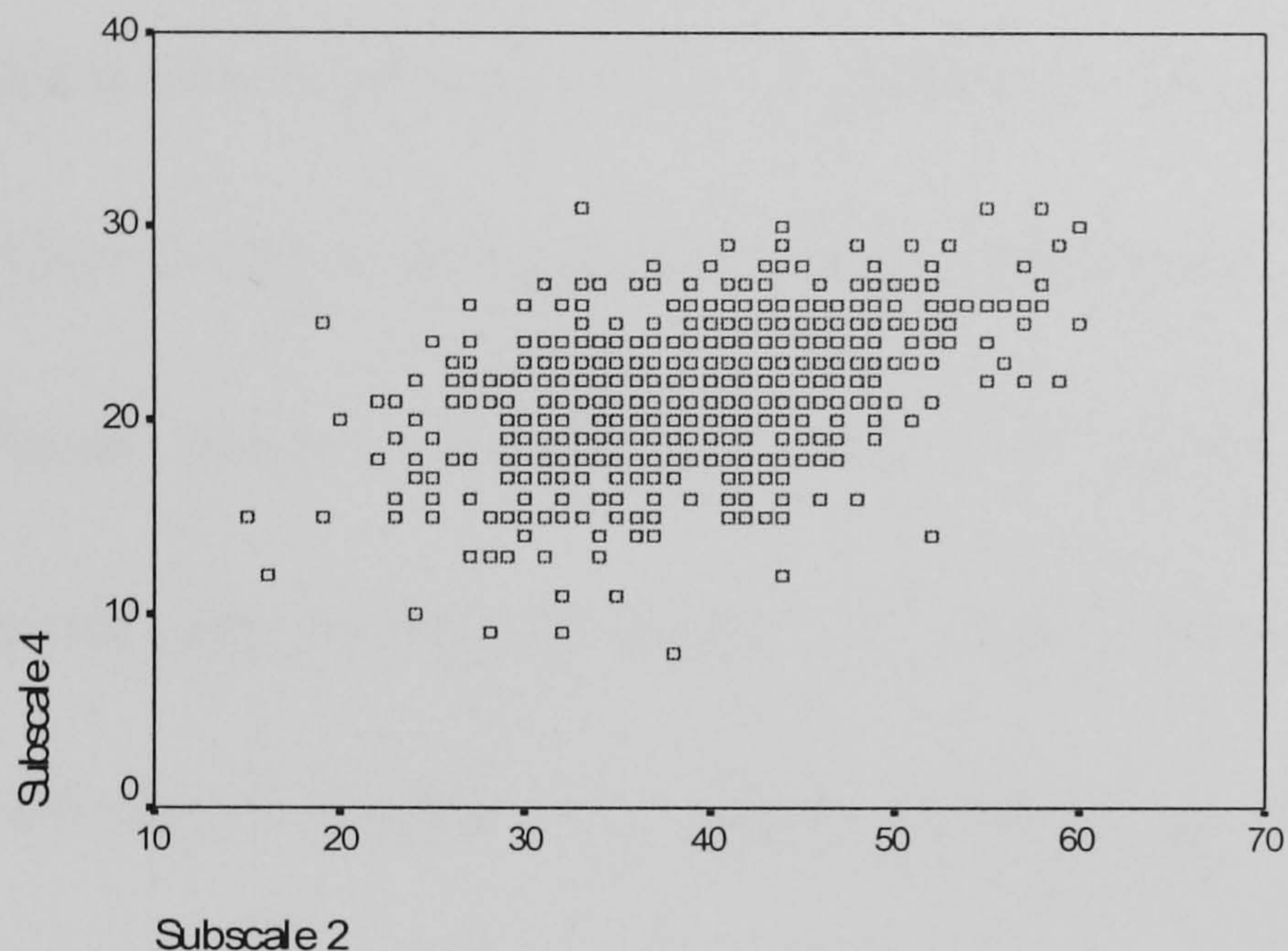
Different from the other results, the relationship between Subscale 2 and 3 is negative, and the strength is modest (Pearson's $r = -0.150$, $N = 794$, $p < 0.01$). In other words, there is a negative and modest correlation between "learner perceptions of the classroom instruction" and their "attitudes toward communicative and non-communicative activities". The distribution is demonstrated in Graph 5.4.

Graph 5.4: The scatterplot of the correlation between Subscale 2 and Subscale 3



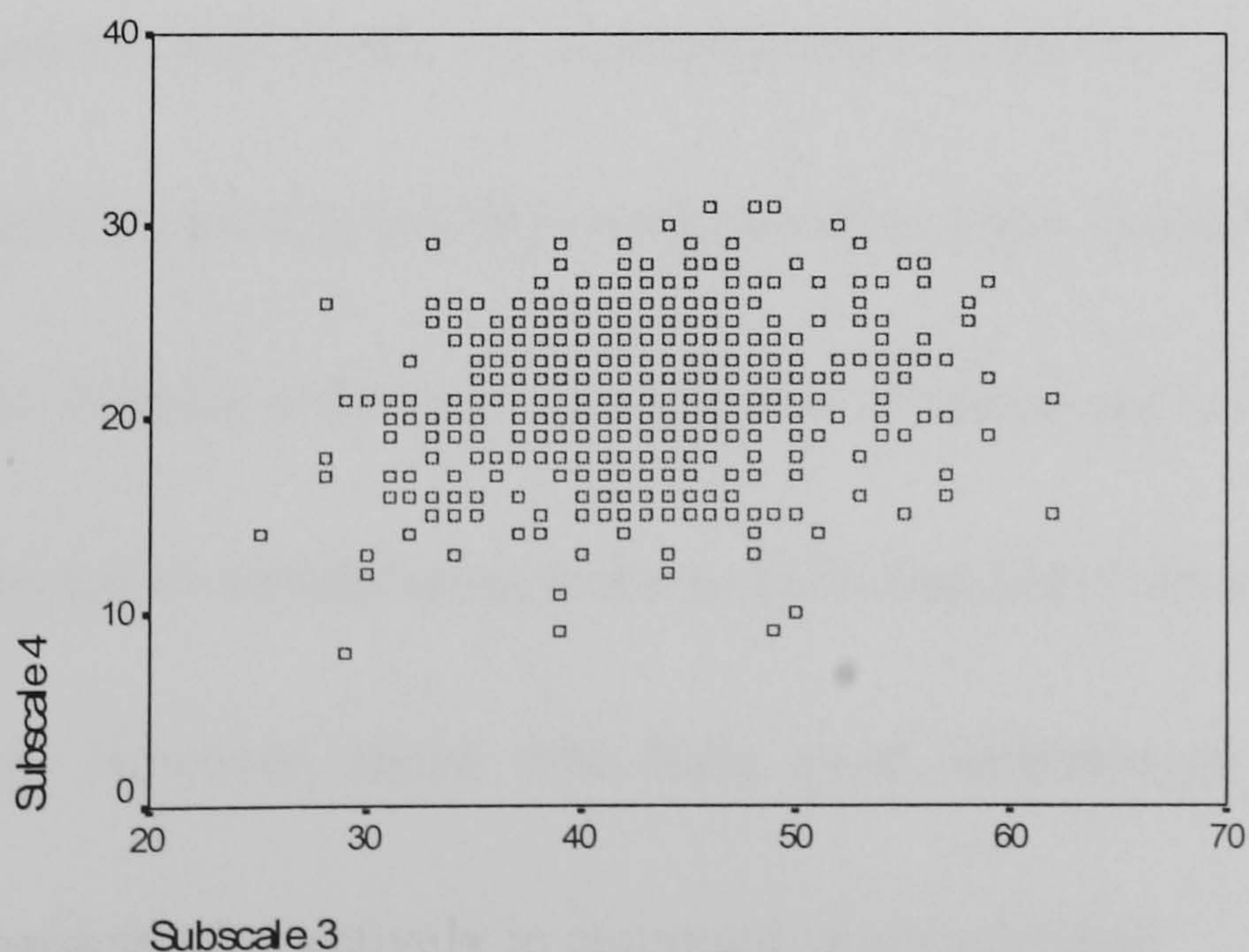
Graph 5.5 shows a moderate, positive relationship between Subscale 2 and Subscale 4 (Pearson's $r = 0.463$, $N = 798$, $p < 0.01$).

Graph 5.5: The scatterplot of the correlation between Subscale 2 and Subscale 4



Finally, Graph 5.6 shows a positive relationship between Subscale 3 and Subscale 4. The strength is modest (Pearson's $r = 0.188$, $N = 815$, $p < 0.01$).

Graph 5.6: The scatterplot of the correlation between Subscale 3 and Subscale 4



5.5.2 Summary

Looking at the above correlations, two significant findings regarding the results of correlation analysis are worth pointing out.

First, the relationship is all positive between Subscale 1 and 2, Subscale 1 and 3, as well as Subscale 1 and 4. In particular, a strong correlation is found between Subscale 1, “learner views of English as a subject at school” and Subscale 4, “students' needs and goals in learning English”. In other words, students who have more positive attitudes to English as a subject at school are inclined to exhibit stronger needs in promoting their communicative ability in English.

Second, the only negative relationship occurs between Subscale 2, “learner perceptions of the classroom instruction” and Subscale 3, “attitudes toward communicative and non-communicative activities”. This significant finding means that the less students experience the communicative classroom practices, the more positive their attitudes are towards the communicative ways of classroom instruction. This implies that students with fewer experiences of taking part in a communicative activity look forward to experiencing it more, believing that it is an effective way of learning English. However, those who have more experiences tend to become reserved about participating actively in communicative activities.

Chapter Six

Conclusions and Recommendations

This research study aims to examine whether the recent curricular innovation in English language teaching at the senior high school level in Taiwan has achieved its aims, with a particular focus on students' attitudes and perceptions with regard to the classroom instructions they have experienced after the curricular changes. The preliminary studies, the focus group interviews and classroom observations, revealed the extent to which the communicative approach is adopted by senior high school English teachers. Questionnaires formulated on the basis of relevant literature and results from the preliminary studies were distributed to 838 senior school students to generate quantitative data for further analysis. By triangulating both the qualitative and quantitative data obtained from these three phases of studies, significant findings concerning learner attitudes and perceptions of their experiences in the English classroom were obtained.

This concluding chapter presents a summary of the main findings associated with the research questions proposed in chapter one. Based on the findings, a number of implications and recommendations for further research are made.

6.1 Summary of Findings

6.1.1 Activities students experienced in English class

Focus group interviews were first conducted to find out what activities senior high school students had experienced in their English class and how these activities were held. Students' comments made in the interviews also reflected their current attitudes towards the traditional classroom activities. The following findings were concluded from participants' accounts and discussions made in the interviews.

First, senior high school English classes mainly focused on the teaching of vocabulary, grammar and the explanation of the textbook contents. Second, English teachers played the role of a dominator in class, and they mainly used Chinese as the medium of instruction. Third, the traditional teacher-centred, grammar-based, and exam-driven classroom practices were still dominant in the English classroom of senior high schools, despite Taiwanese government's efforts in improving high school curricula with the goal of teaching English for communicative competence.

An interesting finding was that even though many of the participants found English classes dull and boring as a result of the prevailing grammar-translation

method, most of them felt the class time spent on grammar teaching was moderate and appropriate. After all, as one student commented, “grammar plays the major role in tests and exams”. The exam-oriented learning was naturally inclined toward memorization, grammar and translation.

Although most participants had the consensus that currently their most pressing need is “passing exams” rather than “using English”, the majority of them believed the uppermost meaning of learning English was being able to use it in the real situation outside of the classroom. The participants maintained that English classes prepared them for exams, while English conversation classes provided them with the opportunities to enhance their speaking ability in English. Since developing English speaking ability was regarded by them as something very essential, they were willing to participate in the oral practices in the English conversation classes.

6.1.2 The extent to which teachers’ teaching practices reflect the communicative-based principles

Results from the classroom observations were mostly in accord with those of the focus group interviews. First, the traditional approach dominated, and classroom activities were mostly centred on the teacher’s explanation of the textbook contents. Second, Chinese was the medium of instruction, in which immediate translation was

most common throughout all of the sessions observed. Third, patterns of classroom interaction provided little genuine communication between teacher and students or among students.

Referring back to students' comments made in the interviews, we can obviously find that teachers who were observed adopted their teaching methods to suit students' current learning purpose, which is to achieve good exam results. It is worth noting that teachers' failing to teach in a more communicative way doesn't necessarily mean that they don't know how to teach communicatively. As one teacher complained to me, "the situational constraints, such as the rigid schedule and parents' expectation of good exam performance, impeded the implementation of my ideal ways of instruction."

Viewed in this way, we may understand why it is such a challenge to integrate CLT with Taiwan's deep-rooted traditional teaching and learning methods. This explains why the communicative approach seems to be an innovation implemented more at the level of theory than that of teachers' actual classroom practices.

6.1.3 Students' attitudes and perceptions of the classroom instructions they have experienced at school

Results of the questionnaires distributed to 838 respondents indicated that more than half (55%) of the participants had never experienced any of the activities, such as role play, creating dialogue, or group discussions, in their English class. 14.9% of the participants who had experienced such activities revealed that the activities were held only once in a semester.

Participants generally felt their teachers stressed the importance of fluent and effective use of English in real life situations; however, 71.2% of participants also indicated that their English teacher corrected them whenever they made mistakes in using English. 65.7% of the participants showed their preference for immediate error correction when they made a mistake in speaking English.

62.8% of the participants agreed that the chief purpose of their English class was to prepare them to pass exams with good grades. Similar to the results found in the focus group interviews and classroom observations, the communicative approach was not commonly found in the English classroom in senior high schools under the exam-driven culture of Taiwan.

In spite of these findings, however, participants did not agree that English class should focus merely on grammar teaching, but believed that practising speaking English in a communicative way is more important than mastering the grammar rules. The finding is strikingly similar with participants' statements made in the focus group interviews.

6.1.4 Students' attitudes towards the communicative and non-communicative Activities

The result might seem discouraging in that nearly one third (32.3%) of the respondents didn't look forward to their daily English class, and 23.8% admitted that they were inactive and passive in learning English in class. In other words, a considerable percentage of respondents in this study believe learning English is essential (*beliefs*); however, this doesn't necessarily reflect their strong positive *feelings* or positive behavioural *intents*.

Respondents generally showed a positive attitude towards pair or group work and the belief that English is best learned through speaking. Despite of their passive attitudes in learning English in class, 47.1% of them expressed willingness to participate in pair or group work; at the same time, they conveyed inhibitions about participating in communicative activities. Nearly half (48.3%) of the respondents

expressed that they were afraid of speaking English in front of the whole class as they felt ashamed when making a mistake in speaking English. Viewed in this way, participants in this study seem to display contradiction in their beliefs and attitudes in learning English.

We can see from these findings that the common preconceptions about Asian students as “obedient listeners” are based in some form of reality. However, as Littlewood (2000) argues, the stereotype of Asian students does not necessarily reflect the roles and the passive attitudes they would like to adopt in the classroom. Teachers’ educational attitudes as well as the educational contexts provided for the students influence what they actually learn and how they learn it.

For instance, as the results of the focus group interviews and classroom observations show in this study, high school teachers use English sparingly in their teaching. This is bound to have an effect on students’ feelings of confidence in using English. If students’ own teachers use little English in class, then students would not feel encouraged or confident enough to use it. This could probably account for their inhibition about speaking or participating actively in class.

6.1.5 The relationship between students of different personal background and their attitudes towards English learning at school

The Main Scale of the questionnaire comprises the following four subscales, Subscale 1 “learner views of English as a subject at school”, Subscale 2 “students’ perceptions of the classroom instruction”, Subscale 3 “students’ attitudes towards communicative and non-communicative activities”, and Subscale 4 “students’ needs and goals in learning English”. In addition, two types of negatively worded items in this questionnaire were isolated from their original subscales for measurement to explore in more detail the relationship between the personal background variables and the negatively worded items. These items form another two negative subscales, Negative Subscale 1 “non-communicative teaching practices perceived by students”, and Negative Subscale 2 “attitudes towards communicative activities”.

Results of the data analysis indicated that some personal background variables had influence on learner attitudes towards learning English at school, and some didn’t. For example, there were statistically significant differences between different genders and their attitudes in the Main Scale, Subscale 1, Subscale 3, Subscale 4, and Negative Subscale 2. According to the data, female students showed more positive attitudes towards English as a subject at school and communicative activities. It also

revealed that there was no significant difference between different genders regarding their experiences of the non-communicative teaching instruction in class.

Statistically significant differences existed among students from three different school types: national, municipal, and private schools. The differences exhibited in the Main Scale, Subscale 1, 2, 4, and Negative Subscale 1. This indicated that students from different types of schools in this study had different attitudes and experiences in relation to classroom instruction as well as different goals in learning English. However, there were no significant differences in their attitudes towards communicative and non-communicative activities. The results also showed that in this study, students from national schools generally had more positive attitudes towards English learning at school.

Another finding is that there were statistically significant differences between students having different majors in all of the attitudinal scales. Compared with students doing “Arts” and “Science” as a major, students doing the major “Applied Foreign Language” showed more positive attitudes towards learning English at school and stronger willingness to participate in communicative activities in an English class. In particular, the magnitude of their differences in Negative Subscale 1 indicated that

students majoring in “Applied Foreign Language” had experienced the communicative teaching practices much more than students doing other majors.

There were also statistically significant differences between students who attended cram schools and those who didn't in Subscale 2, 3, 4, and both negative subscales, although the magnitude of difference was weak. These two groups of students exhibited differences in perceptions of the classroom instruction, attitudes towards communicative and non-communicative activities, as well as needs and goals in learning English. Attending cram school doesn't change students' attitudes to English learning or English as a subject at school.

It was shown from the results that there were statistically significant differences among students in an English class of different sizes in terms of their attitudes exhibited in the Main Scale, Subscale 1, 2, and 4. According to the data analysis, students from classes with 51 or more students tended to show less positive attitudes to English learning at school than those whose class size was smaller.

Statistically significant differences also existed among students with different academic ranking in class, but only in the Main Scale and Subscale 1. In these two

scales, students ranked top ten in class exhibited the most positive attitudes towards English learning and English as a subject at school. However, there were no statistically significant differences in their perceptions of the classroom instruction, attitudes towards communicative and non-communicative activities, and needs and goals in learning English.

As can be seen from the conclusions above, the variables “gender” and “major” played important roles in influencing learner attitudes towards English learning at school. Both of the variables “major” and “attending cram school” were closely related to learner attitudes revealed in the negative subscales. On the other hand, there was little relationship between the variables “programme” and “mother tongue” and learner attitudes in this study.

6.1.6 Correlations between the subscales

According to the results of correlation statistical analysis, the relationship between Subscale 1 and 2, Subscale 1 and 3, as well as Subscale 1 and 4 were all positive. Except for the strong relationship between Subscale 1, “learner views of English as a subject at school” and Subscale 4, “students' needs and goals in learning English”, the relationship between other subscales was either moderate or modest. The relationship

between Subscale 2 and Subscale 4 was also positive and moderate in strength. The relationship between Subscale 3 and Subscale 4 was positive, and the strength was modest.

A significant finding arose from examining the relationship between Subscale 2, “learner perceptions of the classroom instruction” and 3, “attitudes toward communicative and non-communicative activities”. The relationship between these two subscales was negative with a modest strength. The result indicated that the less the students experienced the communicative approach, the more they looked forward to experiencing the communicative activities and believed that the activities facilitate their learning. However, the more communicative instructions the students experienced, the more reserved their attitudes became towards communicative activities or actively taking part in the communicative activities.

Perhaps this finding can be supported by Guskey’s (2002: 386) claim that “change brings a certain amount of anxiety and can be very threatening”. Persuading students to try something different from what they are used to is likely to require extra work, especially at the beginning stage. It is important to note that students’ immediate learning outcomes might be the most encouraging factor that attracts them

to take part in the communicative activities. Since the traditional grammar-driven approach remains most efficient for producing good exam results in Taiwan, the obstacles to implementing the communicative approach seem inevitable.

6.2 Implications and Recommendations

6.2.1 Implications

The learner perceptions and attitudes reported in this study have presented some features of English teaching and learning in senior high school in Taiwan.

It was revealed that students in this study generally find English class at school dull and uninteresting. English learning at school is still guided and influenced by the grammar-based and exam-driven culture in Taiwan. Both teachers' and learners' views of classroom roles are rooted in the tradition of seeing oneself as a part of a "relational hierarchy". The rigid curriculum and exam pressure make teachers' instructional practices context-bound. Moreover, students adopt passive learning attitudes in the classroom, which is likely to be a consequence of the educational context that has been provided for them, instead of their inherent dispositions. As a result of this type of English education, structurally competent but communicatively incompetent

students are commonly seen in Taiwan.

An encouraging finding of this study is that senior high school students possess positive attitudes towards the effects of learning English through communicative activities or authentic materials, such as English newspapers or magazines. This more or less reflects the correct direction that the MOE is moving towards in its curricular changes and its efforts in making the exams contents more practical and relevant to students' daily lives. Despite the anxiety students expressed about speaking English in front of the class, they have strong motivation for enhancing their communicative ability in English.

We can conclude from this study that there are two dimensions worth pointing out with regard to the need and goal of Taiwanese senior high school students in learning English. Essentially, these two dimensions are their short-term need and long-term goal (Chung 2005). Their short-term need is to pass the entrance exams to enter a good university. On the other hand, their long-term goal is to develop their English communicative competence in all aspects so that they can get prepared for the future career or the globalized way of life. This long-term goal is consistent with the essence of CLT, which is to achieve the actual use of a language for communication.

To help students meet their need and attain their goal of learning English at the stage of senior high school, English class should not only aim to prepare them for exams. The excessive use of Chinese in English class, which is found common in the study, should first be reconsidered. In order to encourage students and build their confidence in speaking English, teachers themselves should speak more English in class. Besides, more communicative activities should be introduced and held for students to allow them more opportunities to develop their ability to communicate effectively in English. By slightly shifting the focus of English teaching in class, students' long-term goal in learning English will be able to receive more adequate amount of attention.

However, having taught as an English teacher in high school for seven years, I am aware that the current schedule of English as a subject at school is too rigid for teachers to introduce the more communicative way of teaching. I would like to suggest that an appropriate attention should be paid to the “English conversation class”, which is currently set as an optional subject in the senior high school curriculum. By providing students with real communicative practice in the English conversation class, even for only one or two hours a week, teachers can enhance not only students' English proficiency but also their motivation for learning English at

school.

No new programme or innovation will be implemented uniformly because teaching and learning are influenced by a multitude of situational and contextual variables (Guskey 2002). I hope the implications proposed above are informative for the professional practice, classroom practice, and pedagogical decisions not only within the context of Taiwan. Considerable aspects of the findings can be applied to other EFL contexts, where curricular reform was recently contemplated or initiated.

6.2.2 Recommendations for further research

As a result of limited time and budget, this research study was conducted in only one geographical location in Taiwan. It would be beneficial if future studies can be conducted in other parts of Taiwan to explore the degree of similarity or difference in the pattern of responses of students from other senior high schools throughout Taiwan.

The results of this study also present a variety of opportunities for future research. As has been reported, the examination of correlation between the subscales resulted in negative relationship between learners' experiences of the communicative approach and their attitudes towards the communicative activities. This surprising finding

seems to be contrary to our common conception. It is thus worth a further investigation to find out the reasons that lead to this phenomenon, although the reasons could be quite complicated.

The curricular innovation in Taiwan was accompanied by the development of new textbooks designed and published by private publishers. I have argued in this study that textbooks play a dominating role in English teaching and learning in the English classroom in Taiwan. Since these new textbooks claim to adhere to the principles of the communicative approach, further studies can be conducted to examine the extent to which these different versions of textbooks can be regarded as being communicative and can facilitate teachers to teach in a more communicative way.

In addition to the perceptions and attitudes of learners, many other factors associated with English learning at senior high school can inform pedagogical decisions. Each element of the educational context, such as messages from administration, expectations of teachers and parents, also plays a decisive role in facilitating or limiting the potential for change (Cheng 2002). Further research can try to investigate how the classroom practices are perceived by school principals, officials

of educational administration, and leaders of social groups. In particular, the focus of further studies can be shifted from students to teachers to explore in greater depth the obstacles that impede the implementation of CLT in the senior high school English classroom in Taiwan.

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Appendices

Appendix I: English Version

Appendix A: Invitation Letter for Focus Group Interview

(Date)

Dear (Student's Name),

I am a doctoral student of Warwick University, UK. Currently, I am working on my thesis with emphasis on senior high school students' attitudes towards English learning at school in Taiwan.

I am planning to organise a focus group interview and would like to invite you to participate in the small group meeting (6 people). The interview will be held on (Time and Day) at the school conference room. Hopefully, you will find this a welcome opportunity to express your views about English learning at school. I can assure you that the information gained from all the participants will be anonymous.

Thank you very much for the help, and I look forward to seeing you on (Time and Day).

Sincerely yours,

I-Fang Chung
Doctoral Student, CELTE,
The University of Warwick, UK.

Appendix B: The Focus Group Interview Questions

Student Background

Name: _____ (optional)

Class: _____

Sex: _____

Age: _____

Age of initial English learning: _____

Years of learning English: _____

Part One. General Questions

1. How do you feel about your current English class?
2. What is your favorite part of an English class (e.g.: reading/ vocabulary/ grammar/ expansion activities/ test)?
3. What is the part that you dislike most in an English class?
4. What is your biggest problem or challenge in learning English?

Part Two. Classroom Instruction

1. What type of activities do you spend most of your classroom time doing in an English class?
2. Can you tell me a little about how and when your teacher uses English/Chinese during class and how you feel about it?
3. Can you tell me when and in what ways you speak English/Chinese in your English class?
4. How often does your teacher ask you to work in pairs or groups for cooperative activities? What are these activities like?

Part Three. Student Attitude and Perceptions

1. How do you feel about the way your teacher teaches grammar or the way you learn grammar? Do you feel that you've spent too much or too little time learning grammar in class?
2. What is your feeling about learning to communicate with your classmates in English in class? Why do you think that your teacher or textbook ask you to try to make conversations with a partner?
3. Would you agree if I told you that one good way of learning a language is not to worry

about mistakes but just to use it as much as possible? Why or why not? What do you think if your teacher doesn't correct you immediately when you make a mistake in using English in class?

4. From your viewpoint, what is the ideal kind of English teacher?
5. What types of activities in class do you find most useful in helping you learn English?
6. What are your major needs and goals in learning English in senior high school? From your point of view, what is the best way to meet or achieve them?

Appendix C: Report of the Focus Group Interviews

Part One. General Questions

Question 1: How do you feel about your current English class?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Generally speaking, students agreed that English class is very essential since English is not merely a subject but also an international language. 2. Some felt that English is essential for their future life, and some said that their aim of learning English is to get prepared for all kinds of exams. 3. Those who like the subject itself felt English class is interesting, yet those who dislike English naturally found English class boring.
Group 2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. English class, which is mainly exam-oriented, is generally regarded as dull by the participants. Some said they get sleepy very easily in class. 2. Some people felt compelled to learn English, even though they all agreed that learning English is essential. 3. Some liked it and thought they could learn lots of things related to foreign countries from an English class.
Group 3	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Most students said that they dislike the dull and boring English class. 2. One or two students had no special opinions about it.
Group 4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Many of them said that English teachers play a crucial role in how they may perceive an English class. Different teachers bring them very different feeling. 2. One student's answer was that although he tried hard to listen in class, he still found English to be very difficult.

Question 2: What is your favourite part of an English class (e.g.: reading/ vocabulary/ grammar/ expansion activities/ tests)?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Students' favourite part of an English class varied. 2. Some liked learning grammar rules, which were regarded as helpful in enhancing their English ability; some liked the dialogue or reading. 3. Most students liked the reading part in the textbook because teachers would translate each sentence into Chinese, which was like telling them stories in a very comprehensible manner.
Group 2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Some students liked the extension practise at the end of each lesson. 2. Some liked the dialogue that came after the reading. Some felt it was less dull with a plot in each of them. 3. One student mentioned that grammar was the easiest part for him as once it is understood, he can use and apply it at his will.
Group 3	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. One boy said that the reading, which was like stories to him, was

	interesting. 2. Some liked the expansion activities such as writing a report in English.
Group 4	1. One student said he liked to learn English through learning dialogues. 2. Another enjoyed learning English most through English songs. 3. The others said they enjoyed listening to teachers talk about their personal experiences abroad in the target language culture.

Question 3: What is the part that you dislike most in an English class?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	1. Students also have very diverse perspectives in terms of what they dislike. 2. Generally speaking, students felt very confused about grammar, even though they have learned it for many years. 3. Most students agreed that taking tests was the part they disliked most. Some also mentioned that grammar was boring.
Group 2	1. Tests, vocabulary, grammar, and reading were mentioned by different students as the part they disliked most. 2. Grammar was regarded by most participants as a dull and boring part.
Group 3	1. Tests, reading, vocabulary, and grammar were again regarded by different participants as their most disliked parts. 2. Some said that doing the expansion activities such as writing reports was troublesome.
Group 4	1. Students in this group have consensus on this question. Grammar was regarded as dull, boring, and difficult to understand by all of them.

Question 4: What is your biggest problem or challenge in learning English?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	1. One student felt that English was getting difficult because there was more and more vocabulary which needs to be memorized. 2. Some found grammar to be difficult as it differed greatly from their native language, Chinese. 3. Some students said that even they had learned English for more than four years, they still found it difficult to “use” English freely. Their worry was that even they knew many words and sentence patterns, they just didn’t know how to put them together to make one complete sentence. 4. Speaking English was the biggest challenge for most students. They felt afraid and frustrated not being able to express themselves in English when they had to do so.
Group 2	1. Too much vocabulary to remember. Yet, they knew that memorizing new words was a basic task to fulfill in learning English. 2. One mentioned that English teacher was an important factor in influencing his attitude toward English learning. Teachers who were inclined to blame

	rather than encourage students were considered demotivating. 3. One student said that the lack of interest in learning English was his biggest problem as well as challenge.
Group 3	1. Reading English or communicating in English was considered to be challenging. 2. Grammar was confusing and difficult to some of them. 3. There was too much vocabulary to memorize.
Group 4	1. Vocabulary was viewed as too much and hard to remember by most students. As a result, they all found it difficult to read and comprehend English articles with too much unknown vocabulary.

Part Two. Classroom Instruction

Question 1. What type of activities do you spend most of your classroom time doing in an English class?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	1. Listening to English teacher explain the content of the textbook. 2. Most time was especially devoted to introducing vocabulary, sentence patterns, and grammar.
Group 2	1. Learning new words and sentence patterns. 2. Teachers mostly hurried to finish the contents that the monthly exam would cover.
Group 3	1. Listening to teacher translate and explain the textbook contents.
Group 4	1. Learning grammar and vocabulary. 2. Writing down what the teacher said or wrote on the blackboard.

Question 2. Can you tell me a little about how and when your teacher uses English/Chinese during class and how you feel about this? For example, would you prefer her to use English/Chinese more or less often?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	1. Students said that their English teacher used English only when she read the English vocabulary or sentences. When explaining them, Chinese was the only medium that was used; otherwise they wouldn't be able to get the meaning. 2. Students with better English competence hoped their teacher could speak more English than she normally did. 3. On the other hand, students whose English was not so good was happy with the proportion that English and Chinese were used in their English class.

Group 2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Chinese was mostly used during the explanation of grammar and translation of the textbook contents. 2. English was used only in reading the vocabulary, English sentences and reading. 3. Students in this group were generally happy with the current situation. They didn't want any change in the proportion that English/Chinese were used in class.
Group 3	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher used English when reading the English words or sentences and the medium of translation and explanation was Chinese. 2. Students hoped that teacher use more English in class to allow them more chances to strengthen their listening ability.
Group 4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Again, Chinese was used mostly to translate English. 2. English was only used to read the vocabulary and sentences. 3. Students hoped that teacher could speak a little more English, such as asking them questions in English. On the other hand, they also argued that teaching would be less effective if only English were used because students may get confused.

Question 3. Can you tell me when and in what ways you speak English/Chinese in your English class?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Students in group one all said that they spoke English in class only when they were asked to repeat after teacher to read out the new vocabulary or reading. 2. Apart from this situation, they only spoke Chinese in class.
Group 2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Students said they spoke English when they repeated after the teacher the new vocabulary or sentences. 2. They were asked to reply in English when appointed by teachers to give answers to the questions listed in the textbooks.
Group 3	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Students used English only when teacher asked them to read the sentences or reading. 2. There were no chances for students to use English except the above situation.
Group 4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The answer was almost the same as those of the previous groups. Students spoke very little English in class.

Question 4. How often does your teacher ask you to work in pairs or groups for cooperative activities?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Pair or group work never happened in the English class for group one students, yet it was quite common in an English conversation class.
Group 2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. They had very little experience (once or twice) in doing pair work in an

	English class.
Group 3	1. Students were asked to work in pairs for reading the dialogues or writing English reports. 2. Cooperative activities were held about once or twice a month.
Group 4	1. Never happened.

Question 5. Could you give me some examples of the types of activities you have done in pairs/groups and describe what you were asked to do to accomplish them?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	1. None.
Group 2	1. They said it should be more fun if they have the chance to do so
Group 3	1. Students in this group were given the chance to create a short dialogue and to present a conversation in small groups. They didn't seem to enjoy doing this, while they liked that teacher would give them extra points for accomplishing the appointed tasks.
Group 4	1. None.

Part Three. Student Attitude and Perceptions

Question 1. How do you feel about the way your teacher teaches you grammar or the way you learn grammar? Do you feel that you've spent too much or too little time learning grammar in class?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	1. Some students felt that the amount of time teacher spent on teaching grammar was appropriate. 2. Some hoped that teacher could spend more time explaining grammar in details. They all commented on the importance of being able to write a short English paragraph, which was required in the entrance examination. That was why they hoped their teacher could strengthen their ability in composition by introducing more grammatical ideas. 3. Interestingly, they also understood that with the limited time between each monthly exam, it was not possible for teachers to extend too much in terms of teaching grammar.
Group 2	1. Students generally felt the time teachers spent on grammar was okay with them. 2. One said that she hoped teacher spent more time giving more examples when explaining grammar.
Group 3	1. In this group, students generally felt that their teacher, who taught very

	efficiently, should slow down and spend more time teaching grammar. 2. One student said, "after all, grammar plays the major role in tests and exams".
Group 4	1. Students generally felt that their teacher spent too much time teaching grammar and that the way grammar was taught was too dull and boring. 2. Some thought that they were happy with the time being spent on grammar teaching.

Question 2. What is your feeling about learning to communicate with your classmates in English in class? Why do you think that your teacher or textbook ask you to try to make conversations with a partner?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	1. Students in group one liked having conversation practise with classmates as they all realized the importance of English speaking ability, which, they admitted, was their major weakness. 2. They generally held a positive view towards speaking practise and thought it was more lively and enjoyable than an ordinary English class. 3. One student made a straightforward point by saying, "However good one's English is, it is worth nothing if he/she dares not open his/her mouth when having to talk with people (English-speaking people)".
Group 2	1. Students said it would be good to have the chance to practise speaking, which was what they needed but seldom did. 2. Students were happy and willing to take part in this kind of practise, which, as they commented, could help to develop their communicative ability in English.
Group 3	1. Similar to the previous groups, this group also enjoyed having the chance to practise speaking English in class. However, they claimed that it was essential to have some preparation time before they got ready to talk. 2. One student said that he liked the feeling of being able to talk in English. 3. They all believed that their speaking ability would be enhanced if they were offered the opportunity to speak English at school.
Group 4	1. All of them liked doing this, although this seldom happened in their English class. They said it would help them memorize more easily. 2. One of them said that he would like to practise through speaking English, even though he got scared when opening his mouth.

Question 3. Would you agree if I told you that one good way of learning a language is not to worry about mistakes but just to use it as much as possible? Why or why not? What do you think if your teacher doesn't correct you immediately when you make a mistake in using English in class?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	1. Without an exception, students' answer to the first question was "yes".

	<p>They all claimed that any language could be learned well only through using it.</p> <p>2. In addition, most of them stressed the necessity of immediate error correction. They felt bad if they made the same mistake again and again partly because they didn't receive proper correction from teachers when they first did it.</p>
Group 2	<p>1. Students' opinions were the same as group one. All of their answers were positive.</p> <p>2. They all preferred immediate error correction and said being corrected was much less embarrassing than making the same mistake twice.</p>
Group 3	<p>1. Students' answers to this question were exactly the same as those of group one and two.</p> <p>2. One student made a comparison, "Learning English is just like a toddler learning to walk. He/She will never be able to walk without falling down for many times. Everyone makes mistakes before being able to speak good English". Every student believed in the proverb that "practise makes perfect!"</p> <p>3. Most students preferred a correction given later to an immediate correction. They disliked being interrupted while talking, which they thought was quite frustrating. Only one student in this group preferred an immediate correction.</p>
Group 4	<p>1. Nobody opposed to this statement. They said they would easily forget what they learned without practically using it.</p> <p>2. This group preferred a later correction. They disliked feeling discouraged by an immediate correction.</p>

Question 4. From your point of view, what is the ideal kind of English teacher?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	<p>1. Teachers are just like facilitators during the process of participants' learning at school. Students tend to rely on teacher's explanation, which, as they said, help to reduce the complexity and difficulty of the textbook contents.</p> <p>2. Interviewees prefer teachers who play the role of a facilitator in class, while they thought their English teachers were both a "facilitator" and a "dominator" in their English class</p> <p>3. Besides, some said an ideal teacher should be close to rather than distant from students.</p>
Group 2	<p>1. Some thought a good teacher should be able to create a lively learning atmosphere and have good interaction with students.</p> <p>2. Some like teachers who ask more questions and create lots of opportunities to get students talk and involved, rather than keep talking himself/herself.</p> <p>3. All of the students like teachers to provide them with their personal experience or useful information related to the learning content, which is not included in the textbooks. For example, teachers' experience of studying or traveling abroad works best in motivating them to learn.</p>

	4. Again, one student mentioned that an ideal teacher should play the role of both a teacher and a friend to all students.
Group 3	1. Most students like the kind of teacher who is also like their friend but with a little bit more distance with them. 2. An ideal teacher should not bring his/her own emotion into the classroom. Instead, he/she would create a lively classroom atmosphere by talking about some personal or interesting experience that is related to what students are learning.
Group 4	1. Again, to them an ideal teacher should play the role of both a teacher and a friend to all students. 2. Also, an ideal teacher should listen to students' views, such as what they want to learn, rather than always play the role of a dominator in class.

Question 5. What types of activities in class do you find most useful in helping you to learn English?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	1. Doing conversation practise and learning the usage of new vocabulary by sentence making were considered to be the most useful ways to help learning. Learning dialogues was useful to them as it helps to improve their speaking ability. 2. One student mentioned, "in learning English, equal emphasis was supposed to be placed on listening, speaking, reading, and writing". 3. Students from group one hoped their current English class could include more oral practise and activities, just like what they did in their English conversation class. In this way, they said, English class would be less boring but more lively.
Group 2	1. Having English dialogues with teachers and having the chance to talk in English were thought to be useful. 2. Learning English through games or songs and stage play contests were regarded helpful. 3. Some mentioned that as long as one has the interest, any kinds of activities would be very effective and successful.
Group 3	1. Conversation practise as well as dialogues written by themselves, which were close to daily life, were helpful in terms of English learning. 2. One said that reading more extra materials, such as English newspapers or magazines, would be very useful.
Group 4	1. Learning the dialogues in the textbook was regarded helpful because many useful daily usages are contained in the dialogues. 2. Participating in English stage play contests was helpful as it was a funny and more relaxing way to learn English.

Question 6. What are your major needs and goals in learning English in senior high school? From your viewpoint, what is the best way to meet or achieve them?

Group	Results and Comments
Group 1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. "What I need is to help me speak out in English fluently", one student said. 2. Another pointed out that what he needs is enhancing his own language ability, and that speaking ability is more important than taking exams. 3. A girl student expressed a different view by saying that what she wants from leaning English is the basic writing ability, even though she dislikes English. 4. They generally agreed that learning English is a life-long task and that learning to use it is essential. 5. Despite this, everyone was also aware of their present and most pressing need of learning English - to pass the entrance exam to enter university.
Group 2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Several purposes of learning English were mentioned, such as passing the entrance exam to attend university and getting prepared for the future career. 2. One student said that learning English is crucial for him, who is a good piano player. He might consider going abroad for further studies in the future. 3. Reading English newspaper and listening to English programmes on the radio were thought to be helpful.
Group 3	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The answer was quite straightforward. They all said that their current and most important goal is to do well in exams and to be successfully admitted to university. 2. To achieve this most pressing goal, one said, what teacher could do was simply "cram" as much what will possibly be covered in the exams as possible to their brains. Another student claimed, "It will be most useful if teachers just teach what we don't like". 3. Learning more vocabulary, grammar, sentence patterns, writing, articles from English-learning magazines or those related to current news were considered most important in their preparation for exams.
Group 4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. All agreed that passing the entrance exam to enter university and getting prepared for their future career is their current aim. 2. The most useful way to achieve this is to study by getting familiar with the exam type and practicing how to answer the tests. 3. Students' own learning attitude and motivation were regarded to be very crucial.

Appendix D: The Observation Transcripts

(Wendy 1)

June 16th, 2005

Teacher W: (in Mandarin) Okay. Where were we last time? Vocabulary 7? Good. Turn to page 6. Let's look at vocabulary 7, repeat after me, *species*¹.

Students: *Species*.

Teacher: *Species*.

Students: *Species*.

Teacher W: (in Mandarin) Do you see that “*es*” is pronounced as /z/. This word always comes in the plural form. Do you see (pl.) after the vocabulary? It means the word always come in the plural form. Please specify that (pl.) here means “plural” (teacher writes on the blackboard). Read after me again, *species*.

Students: *Species*.

Teacher W: *Species*.

Students: *Species*.

Teacher W: Here comes its explanation, *a group of plants or animals that are of the same kind* (teacher translates in Mandarin). For example, cats, lions, and leopards of the same kind, the same species. Look at the example sentence: *We should protect endangered species*. What does endangered mean, Chiu?

Students Chiu: Uh...that's...(long pause)

Teacher W: What is it? We learned this last time. *Endangered* means “瀕臨絕種的” Do you see it, in vocabulary 6? It is an adjective. Protect means “保護”...(teacher translates the sentence in Mandarin). What are some of the endangered species, for instance?

Students: Pandas.

Teacher W: Pandas. What else?

Students: (murmuring faintly)

Teacher W: What is the noun of *protect*, “保護”?

Students: *Protection*.

Teacher W: *Protection, okay, protection* (teacher writes on the blackboard). We often say “環境保護”, how do we say it in English? How do you say “環境”? It's *environment*, and *environmental* is its adjective. So, “環境保護” is called *environmental protection*. *Environmental protection* (teacher writes on the blackboard).

Teacher W: Okay. Let's look at vocabulary 8. Repeat after me, *data*.

Students: *Data*.

Teacher W: *Data*.

¹. Please note that Chinese is used as the medium in all of the observed English classes. In the transcripts, the words or sentences pronounced in English are all presented in italics.

Students: *Data*.

Teacher W: *Data* is “資料”. As you can see, its explanation includes information or fact.

Also, the sign (pl.) here indicates that it doesn't have a plural form. Both its singular and plural forms are the same, and there is no need to add “s”. Okay?

Data, “資料”. All right. Let's look at the example sentence, *The company uses computers to manage its collective data*. Repeat after me, *The company*

Students: *The company*

Teacher W: *uses computers*

Students: *uses computers*

Teacher W: *to manage*

Students: *to manage*

Teacher W: *its collective data*

Students: *its collective data*

Teacher W: Okay. What does it mean? What is company?

Student Chen: “公司”

Teacher W: Right. “公司”. What does this company use?

Students: “電腦” (computers)

Teacher W: Use “電腦”, right. To do what?

Teacher W: *Manage*. What does *manage* mean? *Manage* means “處理”. His collective

data means the data it has collected. *Collect* is “收集”; *collective* is “收集到的” (teacher then translates the whole sentence in Mandarin). For example, the data may have to do with the clients, the products, or the business secret documents, and the company needs to file it. Let's read it again, *The company*

Students: *The company*

Teacher W: *uses computers*

Students: *uses computers*

Teacher W: *to manage its collective data*

Students: *to manage its collective data*

Teacher W: Okay. Let's move on to vocabulary 9. Let's read it, *digital*.

Students: *Digital*.

Teacher W: *Digital*.

Students: *Digital*.

Teacher W: Digital is an adjective, which means “數字的” or “數位的”. How do we say “數位相機” in English? *Digital...?*

Students: *Camera.*

Teacher W: *Camera.* Good. So, “數位相機” is *digital camera*. Digital is an adjective, and it can mean “數字的” or “數位的”. Digital is an adjective, look at the explanation that comes after, *which involves figures*. Involves is “包含”; figures mean “數字” (teacher explains further in Mandarin). And next is it noun, repeat, *digit*.

Students: *Digit.*

Teacher W: *Digit.*

Students: *Digit.*

Teacher W: *Digit* is a noun. You just remove “al” from its adjective, and it becomes a noun, “數字”. Look at the first example sentence: *My mother sent me a beautiful digital watch*. Sent means “送”. What is the original verb form of sent? Don’t you know? What is the original verb form of *sent*?

Students: *Send.*

Teacher W: *Send* (writes on the board, send → sent → sent and then translates the sentence in Mandarin). A digital watch is like an electric one, with batteries inside. It is called a digital watch because it shows digits, doesn’t it? Any questions? Okay, the next example sentence: *The telephone number has ten digits*. Okay, please repeat, *The telephone number*

Students: *The telephone number*

Teacher W: *has ten digits*

Students: *has ten digits*

Teacher W: Okay. How many digitals does this telephone number have?

Students: Ten.

Teacher W: Ten, has ten digits. In different countries, different places, the length of telephone numbers are different. For example, how many digits do the telephone numbers in Taipei and Taichung have?

One student: Eight.

Teacher W: Eight digits, correct. In other places (of Taiwan), we have only seven digits, don’t we? So different places and countries have different length of telephone number. Do you have any questions?

Students: (silence)

Teacher W: Okay, let’s look at the tenth vocabulary. Repeat, *photo*.

Students: *Photo.*

Teacher W: *Photo.*

Students: *Photo.*

Teacher W: *Photo* is a noun, “照片”. “照片” is called *photo*. Look at its explanation,

informal here means it is a less formal expression. Its more formal expression is photograph. Both *photo* and *photograph* mean “照片”. Okay? Look at the example sentence: *He always takes photos during his trips*. Repeat after me, *He always*

Students: *He always*

Teacher W: *takes photos*

Students: *takes photos*

Teacher W: *during his trips*.

Students: *during his trips*.

Teacher W: Underline takes photos. What does takes photos mean?

Students: “照相”.

Teacher W: “照相”, right? What is another expression? *Take...*

Students: *Pictures*.

Teacher W: *Pictures*. Very good. Write it down (teacher writes take pictures and its Chinese meaning on the board). Pictures can mean photos or drawings (translates the whole sentence into Chinese). Do you like to take photos?

Students: (laugh...)

Teacher W: Girls should like taking photos a lot. Any questions? Okay, look at page 7.

Vocabulary 11. You're familiar with this, “網際網路”, net. Please read it, *net*.

Students: *Net*.

Teacher W: Net means “網際網路”, n-e-t. It is equal to what we often call internet.

Please read it, *internet*.

Students: *Internet*.

Teacher W: *Internet*.

Students: *Internet*.

Teacher W: “網際網路”. You can either say *net* or *internet*. Take a look at the sentence.

My brother often surfs the net to look for all kinds of information. Repeat after me, *My brother*

Students: *My brother*

Teacher W: *often surfs*

Students: *often surfs*

Teacher W: *the net*

Students: *the net*

Teacher W: *to look for*

Students: *to look for*

Teacher W: *all kinds of information*

Students: *all kinds of information*

Teacher W: Okay. Underline *surf the net*, “上網”. We use the verb *surf* for “上網”. Chiu, you're not concentrating. Read this sentence first and translate it.

Students Chiu: *My brother...often...shoo...*

Teacher W: (in an amusing way) Shoo...what?

Other students: (laugh...)

Teacher W: Surfs.

Student Chiu: Uh, *surfs the net... to look for all kings*

Teacher W: Kings, the rulers?

Other students: (laugh...)

Student Chiu: *kinds of....*

Teacher W: *information*

Student Chiu: *information*

Teacher W: Okay. What does the sentence mean?

Student Chiu: (translates incompletely in Mandarin)

Teacher W: Underline *surf the net*, “上網”, and *look for*. What does *look for* mean?

Student Chen: “尋找”

Teacher W: “尋找”. Good (then teacher gives a complete translation of the sentence). You can look for any sorts of information you need on the net. For example, if you want to find a nice restaurant, a travel agent to help you plan your trip abroad, or discounts offer of an amusement park, all you have to do is surf on the net. You can even find the information you can't get from books when you are assigned homework by your teacher. (At this time, teacher stresses the meaning of surf the net and look for again). Any questions concerning this word? Internet means “網際網路”. Okay. Let's look at vocabulary 12, read it together, *airline*

Students: *Airline*

Teacher W: *Airline*

Students: *Airline*

Teacher W: *Airline* is “航空公司”. “航空公司” is called airline. Look at the explanation here, a *company which runs passengers or cargos air services* (teacher translates the meaning of passengers, cargos, and air service into Chinese and explains further how air service can be much more efficient than shipping). Okay, any questions? Look at the example sentence: *My sister always chooses the airline that offers the cheapest tickets*. What does *choose* mean, Rao? Choose.

Student Rao: (pause) murmuring...

Teacher W: Huh?

Student Rao: Nothing.

Teacher W: What does *choose* mean, Ping?

Student Ping: (silence)

Teacher W: What does it mean, Ming?

Student Ming: “選擇”.

Teacher W: Correct. “選擇”, very good (teacher then translates it in Mandarin). *My sister always chooses the airline that offers the cheapest tickets*. Bracket that... tickets. This is used to describe the airline that my sister chooses. What does *offer* mean, Chen?

Student Chen: (silence)

Teacher W: What does *offer* mean, Mei?

Student Mei: “提供”.

Teacher W: Right. Very good. “提供”. What does it offer? The cheapest. What is the cheapest?

Students: “最便宜的”.

Teacher W: Very good, “最便宜的”. –est means the most or the least. *Cheap* is “便宜”. What is its opposite word?

Students: *Expensive*.

Teacher W: Good. How do you spell it? (At the same time, teacher spells “expensive” on the blackboard). Every airline offers different prices for different flights at different time. Tickets are more expensive in high seasons, such as July and August. Okay, let’s look at vocabulary 13. Repeat after me, *sightseeing*.

Students: *Sightseeing*.

Teacher W: *Sightseeing*.

Students: *Sightseeing*.

Teacher W: It is a noun, “觀光”, sightseeing. Sight, s-i-g-h-t. What does sight mean? “景色” or “景觀” is called sight. See means watch. So sightseeing is “觀光”. Look at its explanation, *visiting places of interest*. It means going to interesting or beautiful places. Okay? The example sentence: *My parents go sightseeing every summer*. Read it together, *My parents*

Students: *My parents*

Teacher W: *go sightseeing*

Students: *go sightseeing*

Teacher W: *every summer*.

Students: *every summer*.

Teacher W: Underline go sightseeing, “觀光”. Go plus V-ing means go to do something. Go sightseeing. For example, how do you say “去游泳”?

Students: *Go swimming*.

Teacher W: *Go swimming*. Very good. How do you say “去爬山”?

Students: *Go mountain climbing*.

Teacher W: Correct. *Go mountain climbing*. What about “去釣魚”?

Students: Go...

Teacher W: *Go fishing*. Okay, so go plus V-ing means go to do something. When you go to buy things, what would you say?

Two or three students: *Go...*

Teacher W: *Go shopping*, isn’t it? Okay (teacher translates the example sentence into Chinese). Any questions? Okay, let’s look at vocabulary 14, repeat after me, *spot*.

Students: *Spot*.

Teacher W: *Spot*.

Students: *Spot*.

Teacher W: Spot is “地點”. Look at the explanation, *a place*, a place is called spot, such

as a sightseeing spot. You'll understand from its example sentence: *Yangming Mountain and The Palace Museum are two popular sightseeing spots in Taipei.* Repeat after me, *Yangming Mountain*

Students: *Yangming Mountain*

Teacher W: *and The Palace Museum*

Students: *and The Palace Museum*

Teacher W: *are two popular sightseeing spots*

Students: *are two popular sightseeing spots*

Teacher W: *in Taipei.*

Students: *in Taipei.*

Teacher W: Right. *The Yangming Mountain* is “陽明山”. The Palace Museum. What is The Palace Museum? “故宮博物院” (teacher translates word by word in Mandarin). Underline *sightseeing spot*, “觀光景點”, okay, “觀光景點”. But nowadays, what is the most popular sightseeing spot?

Students: Taipei 101 (building).

Teacher W: It's Taipei 101, right? Okay, any questions so far? Apart from sightseeing spot, there is another expression. Scene spot, s-c-e-n-e (teacher writes on the board). Scene also means “景色” or “景觀”. For example, “The Sun Moon Lake”, “Taroko Gorge”, and “Mountain Ali” are all famous scene spots, or sightseeing spots, “觀光景點” in Taiwan. Any questions? Okay, let's look at vocabulary 15. Let's read it together, *map*.

Students: *Map*.

Teacher W: *Map*.

Students: *Map*.

Teacher W: *Map* is a noun, “地圖”. Look at its explanation, *a diagram of place. He drew a map to show me where the shopping mall is.* Let's read it together. *He drew a map*

Students: *He drew a map*

Teacher W: *to show me*

Students: *to show me*

Teacher W: *where the shopping mall is.*

Students: *where the shopping mall is.*

Teacher W: (teacher translates word by word in Mandarin) Underline “*where the shopping mall is*”. What kind of sentence is it? It is an indirect question form. I've told you that its direct form of question should be like “Where is the shopping mall”? But the words in front of the direct question, *he drew a map to show me*, turn the direct question into an indirect one. You have to exchange the position of the subject and be verb. Besides, *drew* is past tense. What is its original form?

Students: *Draw*.

Teacher W: *Draw*. Correct. How to spell? D-r-a-w, so that's *draw*→*drew*→*drawn* (writes on the blackboard). It can mean paint/sketch or attract. For example, his behavior drew everyone's attention (teacher speaks in Mandarin and then

writes down in English). Any questions? Okay. How many minutes do we have now?

Students: It's about time.

Teacher W: Let's just do one more, all right?

Students: Not good.

Teacher W: Just one more. Okay, repeat after me, *doorbell*.

Students: *Doorbell*.

Teacher W: *Doorbell*.

Students: *Doorbell*.

Teacher W: This word is a combination of two words, door, “”and bell, ”ling”. Look at its explanation: *A bell provided for visitors to a house to ring for attention* (teacher reads and explains in Mandarin). Sometimes you go to buy things at a shop, and you don't see anyone inside. (the bell rings at this moment) You push the door open, which may make the doorbell sound and draw the shopkeeper's attention. This is the function of a doorbell. Repeat after me with the example sentence: *Mary didn't hear*

Students: *Mary didn't hear*

Teacher W: *the doorbell*

Students: *the doorbell*

Teacher W: *because she was taking a shower*.

Students: *because she was taking a shower*.

Teacher W: (translates in Mandarin) Underline taking a shower, what is it? “冲澡”, isn't it? Then how do you say “泡澡”? How do you say “泡澡”? *Bath*. “冲澡” is *take a shower*, s-h-o-w-e-r (writes on the blackboard). *Take a bath*, b-a-t-h, means “泡澡”. “泡澡” is called *take a bath*. (again, teacher translates the example sentence in Mandarin). Any questions? Okay, that's all for today. Take a break.

(Wendy 2)

June 17th, 2005

Teacher W: Okay, let's look at vocabulary 14. Repeat after me, *factor*.

Students: *Factor*.

Teacher W: *Factor*.

Students: *Factor*.

Teacher W: Factor is “要素”. For example, what are the factors to success?

Student Chen: Hardworking.

Teacher W: Hardworking. What else?

Student J: Determination.

Teacher W: Determination. What else?

Student Lin: Persistence.

Student Chen: Luck.

Teacher W: Yes, luck is also important. But you can't simply rely on your luck. Okay.

Look at its explanation, *something that is influential*. *Influential* is “有影響力的”. *Influence* is “影響”. So factor is something influential (teacher explains in Mandarin). *An important factor in our decision was the price*. Repeat after me. *An important factor*

Students: *An important factor*

Teacher W: *in our decision*

Students: *in our decision*

Teacher W: *was the price*

Students: *was the price*

Teacher W: Okay. This is simple. What does it mean?

Students: (tries to do some part of the translation)

Teacher W: (translates the sentence word by word) Price, what is price, p-r-i-c-e, Chen?

Student Chen: “價格”.

Teacher W: Right. Very good. “價格”. They are probably a company, needing to make purchase at lower price so as to earn more. *Price* is “價格”, and “要素” is called *factor, factor*. Okay, vocabulary 15, repeat after me, *career*.

Students: *Career*.

Teacher W: *Career*.

Students: *Career*.

Teacher W: *Career* is a noun. “事業” or “職業” is called *career*. The explanation here:

life of professional work. Professional is “職業” (explains in Mandarin). Okay, there is another word that is similar to this. Do you know what it is? Starting with “o”. Occupation (teacher writes down), write down this word. Often when you look for a job, you have to fill in a form, in which there are items such as name, sex, and date of birth. Career or occupation is one of these. The example sentence: *She has started on a nursing career*.

Students: *She has started on a nursing career*.

Teacher W: *She has started on a nursing career*.

Students: *She has started on a nursing career*.

Teacher W: *Nursing* is “看護的” (translates the sentence in Mandarin). Nursing career, work of “護理” or “看護”. Okay. Here *has started*, *has/have* + *P.P.* (past participle). What tense is it? Underline *has started*.

Students: Present continuous form.

Teacher W: No, present perfect, *have/has* + *P.P.* Any questions? Let's look at vocabulary 16, *marriage*. Repeat, *marriage*.

Students: *Marriage*.

Teacher W: *Marriage*.

Students: *Marriage*.

Teacher W: Marriage is “婚姻”. It’s explanation, the state of being legally joined as husband and wife. (translates in Mandarin). Marriage is a kind of legal relationship, so those illegal ones would be called “affairs”. Marriage is a noun. Look at its adjective, *married*. Repeat, *married*.

Students: *Married*.

Teacher W: *Married*.

Students: *Married*.

Teacher W: Married is “已婚的”. “已婚的” is called married. The first example sentence, *Their marriage lasted only three years*. Please repeat, *Their marriage*

Students: *Their marriage*

Teacher W: *lasted only three years*.

Students: *lasted only three years*.

Teacher W: What does it mean?

Two students: (try to translate it into Chinese)

Teacher W: That’s right. *Last* here is used as a verb, meaning “持續”, “維持” (translates in Mandarin). For modern people, this is kind of ...

Students: Long.

Teacher W: Yeah. Okay, any questions to this example. The second sentence, *What name did she take when she got married?* Please repeat, *What name*

Students: *What name*

Teacher W: *did she take*

Students: *did she take*

Teacher W: *when she got married?*

Students: *when she got married?*

Teacher W: (translates in Mandarin) Do you have any questions? Look at your textbook. Okay, vocabulary 17, please repeat, *friendship*.

Students: *Friendship*.

Teacher W: *Friendship*.

Students: *Friendship*.

Teacher W: *Friendship* is a noun. It is uncountable, and sometimes can be countable.

Normally it is uncountable, meaning “友誼”. “友誼” is uncountable because it is abstract. The explanation here says, *state of being friends* (translates in Mandarin). The example sentence, *Real friendship is more valuable than money*. Please repeat, *Real friendship*

Students: *Real friendship*

Teacher W: *is more valuable*

Students: *is more valuable*

Teacher W: *than money*.

Students: *than money*.

Teacher W: Okay. What does it mean?

Students: (Translate some part into Chinese).

Teacher W: Right (translates in Mandarin). *Valuable* here is an adjective, “有價值的”.

How to say its noun? It's called *value*, v-a-l-u-e. So value is a noun, “價值”; while *valuable* is the adjective, “有價值的”. *Real* here is also an adjective, “真正的” (translates the sentence again). Okay, let's look at vocabulary, *pursue*. Repeat after me, *pursue*.

Students: *Pursue*.

Teacher W: *Pursue*.

Students: *Pursue*.

Teacher W: Pursue is a verb, “追尋”, “追逐”, or “追捕”. The explanation here, *to chase or to follow* (translates in Mandarin). It's noun, “追捕者” is called *pursuer*. Please repeat, *pursuer*.

Students: *Pursuer*.

Teacher W: *Pursuer*.

Students: *Pursuer*.

Teacher W: Pursuer, “追捕者”. Here is another noun, *pursuit*. *Pursuit*.

Students: *Pursuit*.

Teacher W: *Pursuit*.

Students: *Pursuit*.

Teacher W: It is also a noun. Let's have a look at the example sentence one, *The police are pursuing an escaped prisoner. The police*

Students: *The police*

Teacher W: *are pursuing*

Students: *are pursuing*

Teacher W: *an escaped*

Students: *an escaped*

Teacher W: *prisoner*.

Students: *prisoner*.

Teacher W: *Escaped* is “逃脫的”. It is an adjective here, and its original form is *escape*, e-s-c-a-p-e, *escape*, “逃脫” or “逃離”, which is a verb. *Prisoner* is “囚犯” or “犯人” (translates the sentence word by word in Mandarin). Example sentence two, *The deer ran faster than its pursers*. Repeat, *The deer*

Students: *The deer*

Teacher W: *ran faster*

Students: *ran faster*

Teacher W: *than its pursers*.

Students: *than its pursers*.

Teacher W: What is *deer*, Li?

Student Li: “親愛的” (dear)

Teacher W: “親愛的”, wrong.

Student Chen: “鹿”.

Teacher W: “鹿 (deer)”, that’s right, “鹿”. *Faster* is an adverb. Its pursers are those who want to capture the deer (then teacher translates the whole sentence). Let’s finish the third sentence, *One of the boys’ favorite pursuits is stamp collecting*. Repeat after me, *One of the boys’ favorite pursuits*

Students: *One of the boys’ favorite.....favorite*

Teacher W: *favorite pursuits*

Students: *is stamp collecting*.

Teacher W: *is stamp collecting*. What is *stamp*?

Students: “郵票”.

Teacher W: What about *collecting*?

Students: “收集”.

Teacher W: So *stamp collecting* means?

Students: “收集郵票”.

Teacher W: “收集郵票”, that’s right (translates the whole sentence into Chinese). As I have told you, what should the noun after “one of” be like? It must be plural nouns, so there would be one of the plural nouns. Circle the “s” in the word *pursuits*. Circle the “s” in the word *pursuits*. Any questions? Look at vocabulary 19 on page 214. Repeat after me, *psychologist*.

Students: *Psychologist*.

Teacher W: *Psychologist*.

Students: *Psychologist*.

Teacher W: *Psychologist* is a kind of person, “心理學家”. What is this word from? Let’s look at the next word, “心理學”, *psychology*.

Students: *Psychology*.

Teacher W: *Psychology*.

Students: *Psychology*.

Teacher W: *Psychology* is “心理學”. People who study in this area are called psychologists. Look at the explanation of psychologist here: *A person who studies the human mind and human behaviour* (translates and explains in Mandarin). So, psychologists try to understand why human have certain behaviours from studying what’s in their mind and their motive. So a *psychologist* is “心理學家”. “心理學”, *psychology*. Let’s read it again, *psychology*.

Students: *Psychology*.

Teacher W: The next one is an adjective, “心理學的”. Please read it, *psychological*.

Students: *Psychological*.

Teacher W: *Psychological*.

Students: *Psychological*.

Teacher W: It is an adjective. Let’s look at the example sentence. *Psychologists help people deal with their emotional problems*. Please repeat, *Psychologists*

Students: *Psychologists*

Teacher W: *help people*

Students: *help people*

Teacher W: *deal with*

Students: *deal with*

Teacher W: *their emotional problems.*

Students: *their emotional problems.*

Teacher W: Good. Underline *deal with* first, *deal with*. What does it mean? “處理” or “解決”. What is *emotional*? We’ve learned this adjective. What does it mean? It’s “心理的”, “情緒的”. *Emotional problems* are “情緒的問題” (teacher translates and explains the sentence in Mandarin). Let’s read it one more time, *Psychologists*

Students: *Psychologists*

Teacher W: *help people*

Students: *help people*

Teacher W: *deal with their emotional problems.*

Students: *deal with their emotional problems* (voice goes down).

Teacher W: *deal with*

Students: *deal with*

Teacher W: *their emotional*

Students: *their emotional*

Teacher W: *problems.*

Students: *problems.*

Teacher W: The second example sentence. *His father*

Students: *His father*

Teacher W: *is a famous psychologist;*

Students: *is a famous psychologist;*

Teacher W: *he studies*

Students: *he studies*

Teacher W: *psychology*

Students: *psychology*

Teacher W: *at Harvard.*

Students: *at Harvard.*

Teacher W: Which school is *Harvard*?

Students: “哈佛”.

Teacher W: “哈佛”, that’s right, very good (teacher translates the sentence into Chinese).

Is the punctuation mark between the two sentences a comma or a semicolon?

Students: Semicolon.

Teacher W: Circle the semicolon. What’s the difference between a comma and a semicolon here? There is supposed to be a conjunction, such as and, so, but, or because, etc. to connect the two sentences. Since there is no conjunction here, the semicolon plays the role of a conjunction. If there is a conjunction, a comma instead of a semicolon would be used. Example sentence three, *The doctor said his illness has psychological, not physical causes.* Let’s read it, *The doctor said*

Students: *The doctor said*

Teacher W: *his illness*

Students: *his illness*

Teacher W: *has psychological,*

Students: *has psychological,*

Teacher W: *not physical causes.*

Students: *not physical causes.*

Teacher W: Illness is a noun, “疾病”. *Physical* is “心理的”, and *causes* mean “原因” (teacher then translates the sentence in Mandarin). Any questions? Okay, vocabulary 20. Read it together. *Optimistic.*

Students: *Optimistic.*

Teacher W: *Optimistic.*

Students: *Optimistic.*

Teacher W: *Optimistic* is an adjective, “樂觀的”. Look at its explanation, *feeling that everything will work out for the best* (teacher translates in Mandarin). For example, an optimistic person would think that he/she will succeed, even not, it's no big deal. He/she can try again. On the other hand, a pessimistic person would think in the bad, opposite way. This is how different an optimistic and a pessimistic person are. The noun is *optimism*. Repeat after me, *optimism*.

Students: *Optimism.*

Teacher W: *Optimism.*

Students: *Optimism.*

Teacher W: *Optimism* is “樂觀主義”. Usually when you see -ism at the end of nouns, it means “~主義”. The next noun, “樂觀主義者”. People who always hold optimist attitude are called optimist. Please repeat, *optimist*.

Students: *Optimist.*

Teacher W: *Optimist.*

Students: *Optimist.*

Teacher W: Optimist, “樂觀主義者”. Example sentence, *we should face the world with an optimistic attitude*. Please repeat.

Students: *We should face the world with an optimistic* (the sound goes down)

Teacher W: *optimistic*

Students: *optimistic*

Teacher W: *attitude.*

Students: *attitude.*

Teacher W: Okay. What does this sentence mean?

Students: “我們應該用樂觀的態度...面對世界”.

Teacher W: That's right. “我們應該用樂觀的態度...面對世界”. Is “face” here a noun or a verb?

Students: A verb.

Teacher W: That's right. *Optimistic* is “樂觀的”, and *attitude* is “態度”. So “樂觀的態度” is *optimistic attitude*. The article being used is “an”, which is because

optimistic starts with a vowel sound, o. Circle “an” (teacher repeats her translation again). Any questions? Okay, example sentence two, *Mary is a woman of optimism*. Please repeat, *Mary is a woman*

Students: *Mary is a woman*

Teacher W: *of optimism*.

Students: *of optimism*.

Teacher W: What does this mean?

Students: “Mary 是一個...”

Teacher W: “Mary 是一個怎麼樣？”

Students: “樂觀主義的女人”

Teacher W: That is to say, “Mary 是一個很樂觀主義的人”. *Mary is a woman of optimism*. “瑪麗是一個很樂觀主義的人”. Any questions? Okay, the next example sentence, *Being an optimist, she always has hopeful feelings about life*. Please repeat, *Being an optimist*,

Students: *Being an optimist*,

Teacher W: *she always*

Students: *she always*

Teacher W: *has hopeful feelings*

Students: *has hopeful feelings*

Teacher W: *about life*.

Students: *about life*.

Teacher W: (translates in Mandarin) *Hope* is “希望”, and *hopeful* is “充滿希望的”. Those pessimistic people would often do many stupid things to themselves once they fail to achieve their aim. Therefore, we should be as optimistic as possible, having optimism attitudes towards life. Any question? Okay, vocabulary twenty-one. Read it together, *empathy*.

Students: *Empathy*.

Teacher W: *Empathy*.

Students: *Empathy*.

Teacher W: *Empathy* is a noun, “移情作用” or “同理心”. It’s explanation here is quite long, *being able to understand the feelings of someone else by imagining yourself as that person* (teacher translates in Mandarin). For example, when you see someone going through a very sad thing that you have experienced before, you have deep feelings for that person. This is called empathy. Understand? Do you understand?

Students: Yes.

Teacher W: Look at the example sentence, *She felt great empathy with the parents of handicapped children*.

Students: *She felt great empathy with the parents of...*

Teacher W: *handicapped children*.

Students: *handicapped children*.

Teacher W: (teacher translates and explains in Mandarin). Any questions? Okay, let’s look at vocabulary 22, read it together. *Polish*.

Students: *Polish*.

Teacher W: *Polish*.

Students: *Polish*.

Teacher W: *Polish* is a verb. It means “琢磨”, “使完美、使光亮”. For example, some people have the habits of polishing their shoes, although I know most of you don't do it. Its explanation here are, *to make something as perfect as possible* (translates in Mandarin), or *to rub something to make it shining* (translates in Mandarin). Okay? Polish is a verb, and it can also be used as a noun, meaning “光澤”. For example, some people's hair has very beautiful polish. Again, polish can be a verb and a noun. As for the adjective, “完美的、光亮的”, is polished. Please repeat, *polished*.

Students: *Polished*.

Teacher W: *Polished*.

Students: *Polished*.

Teacher W: Just add “- ed”, and polish becomes an adjective, “完美的、光亮的”. Okay.

The example sentence, *He polished his piano skills by practicing everyday*.

Please read, *He polished his piano skills*

Students: *He polished his piano skills*

Teacher W: *by practicing everyday*.

Students: *by practicing everyday*.

Teacher W: Okay. What does it mean?

Students: 藉由練習

Teacher W: That's right (teacher translates the sentence). By + V-ing means “through doing something”, circle “by”. It is a preposition, so the verb coming after it should be V-ing, present participle). Any questions? So the second sentence, *My father polishes his car once a week*. Read it together. *My father*

Students: *My father*

Teacher W: *polishes his car*

Students: *polishes his car*

Teacher W: *once a week*.

Students: *once a week*.

Teacher W: Underline *once a week*. What does it mean?

Students: “一週一次”.

Teacher W: “一個禮拜一次”, *once* means “一次”. Then how do you say “一個月一次”?

One student: *Once a month*.

Another student: *Twice a*

Teacher W: “一個月一次(once)”

Students: *Once a month*.

Teacher W: That's right. What about “一年一次”?

Students: *Once a year*.

Teacher W: Very good. How do you say “兩次”, then?

Students: *Twice.*

Teacher W: How to spell?

Students: *T-w-i-c-e.* (some say t-w-i-a-c-e).

Teacher W: Good, twice. Then “三次”?

Students: *Third....*

Teacher W: “三次” is *three times*. When there are more than three times, we say number + times. Times here mean “次數”. So “四次” is?

Students: *Four times.*

Teacher W: Very good. *Four times*. Do you see that here, “s” is added to time, which doesn’t mean time because time is uncountable. Understand? (teacher goes back to translate the example sentence). One more example sentence, *We will give the floor a thorough polish tomorrow*. Repeat after me, *We will give the floor* (school bell rings)

Students: *We will give the floor*

Teacher W: *a thorough polish tomorrow.*

Students: *a thorough polish tomorrow.*

Teacher W: Okay, time is up. We’ll continue tomorrow.

(Eva 1)

June 21st, 2005

Teacher E: Yesterday, we've talked a lot about the images of animals, “動物的意象”. We have learned that images of animals may differ from culture to culture, although many of them give people of different cultures the same image. For example, how do Chinese and Japanese think of cranes and tortoises?

Students: Long life?

Teacher E: That's right. But they probably don't mean the same to westerners. Apart from the image of slyness, foxes also have magical powers in our culture, but do they in the west?

Students: No.

Teacher E: Yes, to westerners, they are simply sly animals. What about the image of mice? Are they the same in the east and the west?

Students: Um...

Teacher E: Look at the bottom of page 4, line 12, mice are believe to have no courage. What Chinese proverb do we use to describe someone with no courage?

Students: “膽小如鼠” (as coward as a mouse).

Teacher E: So, do you see the similar expressions?

Students: Yes.

Teacher E: Today we are going to continue on page six, giving you more examples. Okay, let's have a look at line 34. Let's read them first. “*Let sleeping dogs lie.*”

Students: “*Let sleeping dogs lie.*”

Teacher E: “*You can take a horse to water,*

Students: “*You can take a horse to water,*

Teacher E: *but you can't make him drink.*”

Students: *but you can't make him drink.*”

Teacher E: *Which proverbs have animals*

Students: *Which proverbs have animals*

Teacher E: *as their subjects*

Students: *as their subjects*

Teacher E: *in your own language?*

Students: *in your own language?*

Teacher E: *You have already seen*

Students: *You have already seen*

Teacher E: *the expression*

Students: *the expression*

Teacher E: “*as quiet as a mouse.*”

Students: “*as quiet as a mouse.*”

Teacher E: *There are a lot of*

Students: *There are a lot of*

Teacher E: *similar expressions*

Students: *similar expressions*

Teacher E: *with “as....as....”*

Students: *with “as...as....”*

Teacher E: *They are called*

Students: *They are called*

Teacher E: *Similes.*

Students: *Similes.*

(continue to read to the end of the reading)

Teacher E: Now, what other animals do we see here?

Some students: Horses.

Others: Chickens?

Teacher E: Horses and chickens, right. What else?

Students: Bees.

Teacher E: That's right. Okay, let's go back to line 34. "*Let sleeping dogs lie.*" Literally this sentence means leave the sleeping dogs alone instead of waking them up. The extended meaning is "別惹是生非、自找麻煩 (don't ask for trouble)". Next, "*You can take a horse to water, but you can't make him drink.*" It means you may provide your horse with water, but you can't force it to drink. If it doesn't drink, there is nothing you can do about it. (all these were translated in Mandarin). It says, "*Which proverbs have animals as their subjects in your own language.*" Here, which is used to indicate "one or some in a limited amount of things". When the amount of things is not limited, we would use "what", instead of "which". Proverbs means "諺語", and as here means "作為". Subjects are "主詞", or "主題". In Chinese, what proverbs do you remember?

Student Chang: "好狗不擋路 (a good dog doesn't get in the way)".

Student Yang: "牛牽到北京還是牛 (if you carry a bull to Beijing, it remains to be a bull)".

Student Wen: "又要馬兒好，又要馬而不吃草 (You can't ask the horse to be good without offering it food)".

Teacher E: That's right. We actually have plenty of them. Continue on line 39, *You have already seen the expression "as quiet as a mouse."* Here have already seen is present complete form. With *have + p.p.* (past participle), it indicating that the action "see" was already done. *Expression* means "表達法、用語", and *as...as means* "像...一樣". Do you remember the meaning of *as quiet as a mouse*?

Students Cheung: "像老鼠一樣安靜".

Teacher E: Indeed. They are called *similes*. *Simile* is an important word in literature, so please remember it. Every English major has to learn it in university. We have learned this word earlier, it means "明喻". Have you learned it in your Chinese class?

Students: Yes.

Teacher E: When we describe something indirectly, usually using the form "as...as...", or "be like...", then it is called a simile. If we say that something is another thing,

the description is called a metaphor. For example, if I say “月兒像檸檬 (the moon is like a lemon)”, I use simile. When I say “月兒是檸檬”, I use the metaphor. Do you understand?

Students: (some nod)

Teacher E: If I say “You are as sweet as sugar”. What do I use?

Students: Simile?

Teacher E: Good. What about “You are my chocolate”.

Students: Metaphor.

Teacher E: Very good. I guess you should understand now. Okay, the next sentence is another example. “*As proud as a peacock*” is a simile with a bird as its subject (teacher translates in Mandarin). If we say, “Mary is a proud peacock”. That would become a...?

Students: Metaphor.

Teacher E: Good. Next sentence, *This shows that in English the image of the peacock can mean not only beauty but also pride.* What does *not only...but also...* mean?

Students: 不只...而且還...

Teacher E: That’s right. Please notice that “*also*” can usually be omitted. “*Not only...but also...*” is a “coordinating conjunction”, which means what comes after not only and but also should be coordinative. As you see, what comes after not only is a noun, beauty, so what follows but also is another noun, pride. Do you understand? (teacher then translates the whole sentence in Mandarin). Can I move on?

Students: (nod)

Teacher E: Okay, next sentence. *A chicken has an image of fearfulness or cowardice. If you call somebody a chicken, it means he is a coward, not brave enough to do something* (teacher translates in Mandarin). Do we have similar expression in Chinese proverbs? Which animal do we use to describe a coward?

Student Chang: Do we use mouse?

Teacher E: Yes. What is it?

Some students: “膽小如鼠” (as cowardly as a mouse).

Teacher E: It’s obvious that in both Chinese and English, mice give people very different images. As we have seen in the reading yesterday, the expression “as quiet as a mouse” is more commonly used. Do you remember? Let’s go on, *Some fish have special images in English. One of them is a shark.* (teacher translates in Mandarin). Can you think of any expressions in Chinese that are about shark?

Students: (silence)

Teacher E: (pause). We don’t seem to have any. Let’s find out the image of sharks in English in the following reading. *We may call people sharks if they deal with others unfairly,* (teacher translates). *Deal with* is an important phrase we learned in this lesson. It means “對待” or “處理”. Please mark under *unfairly* to indicate that it is an adverb used to modify the verb phrase, deal with. In other words, in English, those who are mean and nasty to others are called sharks. This sentence is not finished yet, an example is given, *such as by*

tricking them out of their money. Underline *by*, which means “藉由...的方法”. (teacher writes down on the blackboard and asks students to copy down) Here, *trick* is a verb. “*Trick sb. out of sth.*” means to cheat someone in order to get something (teacher translates the whole sentence). Do you understand what I say?

Students: (nod)

Teacher E: Okay, more expressions about animals are given in the next paragraph. *Two kinds of insects have the image of being very busy: bees and ants.* What animals are regarded as very hard working in Chinese expressions?

Some students: Buffalos...

Some students: Bees.

Teacher E: What about ants?

Student Li: Yes, we use that, too.

Teacher E: We can see from this sentence that Westerners also have similar expression. It says that bees and ants give people the image of being very busy, which indicates they are hard-working animals. *Therefore, you can describe a person who has a lot of work to do by saying, “She’s as busy as a bee.”* (teacher translates the sentence) We have underlined *by* earlier, which means exactly the same here, “藉由...的方法”. What is the author using here, simile or metaphor?

Students: Um...simile.

Teacher E: Very good, it’s simile again. A metaphor would be like, “She is a busy bee.” We’re finally come to the last paragraph. *Every language has words and expressions which describe the characteristics of some animals.* (teacher translates in Mandarin) You may find that this sentence in the conclusion paragraph echoes the earlier reading. Lastly, “*Sometimes these animals have the same images in a foreign language as they do in Chinese; sometimes they don’t.*” Please underline “*the same...as.*”, which means “像...一樣” (teacher translates in Mandarin). I think have mentioned about this at the beginning of this class. Do you remember?

Students: Yes.

Teacher E: It is very essential for us to learn about different expressions, different customs, etc. of different cultures. Actually, not only animals, but colours and numbers, for instance, also mean very differently in different cultures. For example, seven might be a lucky number in many different countries. What about the unlucky one in our culture?

Students: Four.

Teacher E: Exactly. Since four sounds so similar to death in Chinese, you can never see the fourth floor in any hospitals in Taiwan, can you?

Student Lai: No. No patient would choose to stay in room 4 on the fourth floor. The family would get mad if that happen.

Teacher E: However, in the west, the number 13, not 4, is regarded as an unlucky number. I think this originates from the last supper that Jesus had with his 12 disciples, the Bible story. What about colour? What is the color of Chinese New Year?

Students: Red.

Teacher E: That's right. People give the red envelopes and wear red clothing to symbolize good luck. But in some culture, people use yellow instead of red to decorate everything during the New Year. For some culture, red even symbolizes "danger" or "warning" instead of good luck. What do all these tell us?

Students: To learn more about other culture.

Teacher E: Yes, this is very important. If we are too ignorant, we might easily offend others when we are abroad or in a different culture. Many of you may travel abroad, work or even live with people from different cultures one day.

Students: (laugh) What if we never leave Taiwan?

Teacher E: Who knows? It is always a good thing to learn as much as you can before it is too late. No one can tell you where you are going to live or work in the future. Even if you are going to spend all your life in Taiwan, you cannot become a frog in the well, supposing that the sky is just as small as you see.

Students: (laugh)

Teacher E: Any other thoughts?

Students: (silence)

Teacher E: All right, then. Let's have a look at the post-reading. Part One is reading for the main idea. Check the main idea of the reading. I'll give you a few seconds, read the three sentences and decide which is the right answer. (pause for a while) So, which do you think is the main idea of this lesson?

Student Li: Number 3?

Teacher E: Number 3, *Chinese and Japanese animals look very different from those in America or Britain* (teacher translates in Mandarin). Is this right?

Students: (looking unsure)

Teacher E: Well, the description itself is correct. However, don't you find it too narrow in terms of being the main idea of the lesson? Is this the only message that the lesson tries to convey to us readers?

Students: (expressing disagreement)

Teacher E: Which would suit better, then?

Students: Two? (the bell rings at the moment)

Teacher E: Number two. *Different cultures hold different ideas about animals. So they may characterize the same animals in different ways* (teacher translates in Mandarin). Do you think this covers what this lesson wants to express?

Students: Yes.

Teacher E: That's the right answer. Please tick in the space that comes before number two. Any questions? Can you understand what I mean?

Students: (nod)

Teacher E: All right. Time's up for today. We'll continue on part two of the post-reading tomorrow. Let's take a break now.

(Eva 2)

June 22nd, 2005

Teacher E: All right. Yesterday we finished part one of the post-reading on page 7. We will start from part two, reading for details today. Please turn to page 7 and get your pens ready. Okay, indicate T (True) or F (False) for the following statements. Number one. *For speakers of English, the fox can have a sly or magical meaning.* Is this true or false, Ruth?

Ruth: *False.*

Teacher E: Is Ruth correct?

Some students: Correct.

Teacher E: That's right. Foxes have a sly or magical meaning only for Chinese and..?

Students: Japanese.

Teacher E: Exactly. Right. Number two: *The image of a peacock in English is not pride but beauty.* Is this statement true, Ling?

Ling: *False?*

Teacher E: Is she right?

Some students: Yes.

Teacher E: Right answer. Please tick in the box of F. A peacock means not only pride but also beauty. That is, a peacock has more than just one image to people who speak English. Next page, number three. *The saying that babies are brought by the stork comes from Japan.* Dave, is this true or false?

Dave: *True?*

Teacher E: (to everyone) Is it?

Students: (some disagree and some are unsure)

Teacher E: Did I tell you the origin of the stork?

Some students: Yes, you did.

Teacher E: Where did I say this saying is from?

Students: Europe?

Teacher E: Yes, it originates from Europe instead of Japan. So, is this statement *true or false?*

Students: *False.*

Teacher E: It's a false statement. Maybe you forgot my story, Dave. Okay. Number four: *When a person is like a mouse, he/she is very likely to be brave.* This is an easy one. Everybody, is this *true or false?*

Students: *False.*

Teacher E: Correct. This is obviously false. We have the similar expression in Chinese, don't we? Number Five: *If you call somebody a chicken, it means he/she has no courage.* True or false, Jade?

Jade: *True.*

Teacher E: Is she right?

Students: (nod)

Teacher E: Please tick in the box true, then. Next statement. *A white elephant means*

something that is of no use. What do you think?

Students: This is true.

Teacher E: Yes. Remember the story that originates from Thailand? The things that are precious yet useless could be regarded as white elephants. Any questions to this point?

Students: No.

Teacher E: Then I'd like to continue on expansion on page 18, more information about the images of Animals. Please turn to page 18. *Look at the pictures and the descriptions below and then answer the questions on the next page* (teacher explains the instruction in Mandarin). First, a sheep. *A sheep is someone who always follows others and cannot think for himself/herself* (teacher translates in Mandarin). Let's have a look at the exercise, question one on the next page. If a teenager is a sheep, he/she might _____. (A) *gets nervous easily* (B) *be willing to help others* (C) *smoke because all his/friends do so* (teacher translates each choice in Mandarin).

Students: C?

Teacher E: That's right. Many of the teenagers would rather follow their friends than thinking for themselves. This is the power from the peers. I believe many of you would often do the same. When you look back as a grown up some day in the future, you may feel what you did before was ridiculous. But you just don't feel it right now. All right, the second expression has a turkey as its subject. *A turkey is a foolish person, or something that is a total failure* (teacher translates in Mandarin). So, look at question number three as the questions don't match the picture. When we say the movie was a real turkey, it means the movie was _____. (A) *a success* (B) *a failure* (C) *a hit*. What do you think?

Students: B.

Teacher E: Good. A turkey doesn't seem to have a positive image to people. The next express, *someone is so hungry that he/she could eat a horse* (teacher explains in Mandarin). Do we have similar saying in Chinese?

Students: Eating like a wolf or tiger?

Teacher E: Well, that's the way we describe how a starving person eats. We use animals as subjects, too, although the meaning is different from this one here. Okay, question two on page 19: If you are very hungry, you are likely to _____. (A) *fly like a pig* (B) *eat a horse* (C) *have butterflies in your stomach*.

Students: B.

Teacher E: That's right. Or in Chinese, we can say you are so hungry that you eat like a wolf or tiger. Next, *when people don't think that something will happen, they may say if it happens, "pigs might fly."* (teacher translates in Mandarin). So question five, We don't believe Jack would quit smoking. Jack would quit smoking when _____. (A) *pigs might fly* (B) *it is monkey business* (C) *you will sweat like a pig*

Students: A.

Teacher E: That's right. A is the correct answer. The last one, *someone who has butterflies in his/her stomach is very nervous*. What do we say when we are nervous

seeing someone we like very much?

Students: Deer running?

Teacher E: Yes, we say we have deer running in our heart, don't we? In English, people say "*butterflies flying in the stomach*". I find them to be quite similar, which is interesting. Let's look at question four on the next page. Before appearing on the stage, the singer _____. (A) *can eat a horse* (B) *had a cat in his mouth* (C) *had butterflies in his stomach*

Students: C

Teacher E: All right. We finish this part and I hope you've learned more English expressions concerning animals. Here, I'd like to provide you a few more English saying. Please write these down. (Teacher begins writing down more expressions, and students begin to write for a while.) Have you finished writing? Please hurry as we still have much to do. Are you ready?

Students: (some nod while others are still writing)

Teacher E: Okay, I am not going to wait any longer. Let's look at the first one, *a dog-eat-dog world*. It means a very cruel and competitive world (teacher writes down its Chinese meaning). Another one is *monkey business*. It has actually appeared once on page 19. Do you think it is a good business or a bad one?

Students: A bad one?

Teacher E: Indeed. It seems monkeys give us an image of not being sincere or upright. Monkey business refers to being naughty or something not so serious (teacher writes down its Chinese meaning). You guys might like to use the next one. He is a dead duck, meaning he is in great trouble or he is over. At your age, you might be most interested in *the birds and the bees*? Any ideas about what it refers to?

Students: No.

Teacher E: Okay, it refers humorously to things between men and women, or sex and sexual reproduction.

Students: (smile)

Teacher E: Speaking of birds, there is an expression that is exactly the same in English and in Chinese. Any idea what it is?

Students: (silence)

Teacher E: Here it is, *the early bird catches/gets the worm*.

Students: 早起的鳥而有蟲吃。

Teacher E: Exactly, please write it down. Let's move on to Expansion Part Two, Check It Out on page 20. We have five pictures with five different animals here. Read the instruction first. *You are going to hear 5 statements (A-E) by five animals in the woods. Listen carefully and write A, B, C, D, E that best describes each picture.* Now, listen carefully and decide which animal is the first speaker. Are you ready?

Students: Yes.

Teacher E: Okay.

(Teacher plays the CD.) The following are the contents:

Animal A: *Hello, I am a peace-loving animal. I fly high in the sky. I prefer love and peace rather than war and hatred.*

Teacher E: Can you recognize it?

Students: (silence)

Teacher E: Hello, *I am a peace-loving animal. Peace-loving, 愛好和平的.*

Students: 鴿子 (doves).

Teacher E: That's right. *I fly high...*(teacher repeat the recording and translates in Mandarin) So, which picture is that?

Students: Number 2.

Teacher E: Please write the letter A under picture number 2. Listen to the second animal. (teacher plays the CD)

Animal B: *People often think I'm lazy, dirty, and stupid.*

Some students: Number one.

Some students: 豬 (pigs).

Teacher E: You know this one well. You all know what it means by lazy, dirty, and stupid. Let's finish it.

Animal B: *Oh, please be fair to me.*

Teacher E: (teacher makes a pause on the CD) *fair* means 公平的. Obviously the pig thinks that the images people have of them is not fair to them.

Animal B: *Though I sweat a lot, I am a tidy animal.*

Teacher E: Have you all heard that pigs are smart animals with fairly high IQ in terms of animals?

Students: Yes. It's no news.

Teacher E: So, it is rather strange why generally pigs give us such images as being stupid. Next one.

Animal C: *People say "I never forget." To tell the truth, I am forgetful sometimes. Some animals have even better memories than I do.*

Teacher E: Any ideas which animal this is? People say, "I never forget". Which animal has good memory according to the reading?

Students: Elephants.

Teacher E: So, this is picture number...

Students: Five.

Teacher E: That's right. Put the letter "C" under picture five. Animal D.

Animal D: *Don't you think I look very intelligent?*

Teacher E: *Intelligent* means “聰明的、有智慧的”

Animal D: *In children's books, I am always described as a teacher-very learned and smart.*

Teacher E: *Learned and smart. Learned* is an adjective, meaning “博學的”. *Smart* is again“聰明的”. So the animal is...

Students: :”貓頭鷹” (the owl).

Teacher E: Correct. That's picture number three. The last one.

Animal E: *People always think that I am a slow animal.*

Students: “烏龜” (the turtle).

Teacher E: Yes, that's the only picture left, picture number four. Let's finish this part.

Animal E: *I know I move slowly, but I am the winner in the game with the rabbit. Don't you remember?*

Teacher E: All right, you all know the story of “龜兔賽跑”. So that's it. Studying is the same. If you study every day, you will finally see your progress. The only thing is you got to be patient and persistent. Never give up. Remember, slow and steady wins the race. Any questions regarding this practice?

Students: No.

Teacher E: At the bottom of this page is the writing practice. The focus of this practice is on “concluding sentence”. Look at the topic first, *end a paragraph with a concluding sentence*. What follows is a brief description of a concluding sentence. (Teacher reads and explains in Mandarin.) *A composition without a clear conclusion will leave readers feeling dissatisfied or confused. To achieve a sense of completeness, the concluding sentence(s) can bring readers back to the main ideas by restating or summarizing the major point(s)*. Just like reading a book or watching a movie, we readers/viewers would never be happy not being able to see the ending to them. The same rule applies to a composition. Therefore, a concluding sentence not only gives the readers a finishing feeling but also reminds the readers what the main idea/focus of the composition is. Do you see what I mean?

Students: (nod)

Teacher E: We've got exercise here. Let's choose the best concluding sentence for each of the following paragraphs. Number one, (teacher reads and translates to students) *cockroaches can live in the middle of a desert or in a kitchen. They can live on almost anything from flowers to soap. They can even survive without any food or water for up to a month. In a word, _____*. (A) *cockroaches can be found even in ships at sea* (B) *no animal knows more about how to survive than cockroaches* (C) *cockroaches like living with people because there's always food around*. Which sentence do you think best bring the readers back to the main idea of the paragraph and thus can be used as a concluding sentence?

(the bell rings)

One or two students: Sentence C?

Teacher E: Do you think the main idea of the paragraph is that cockroaches like to live with people? Any other answer?

Students: B?

Teacher E: Correct. The paragraph focuses on how strong cockroaches are as survivors on earth. Does this make sense to you?

Students: Yes.

Teacher E: Good. We'll continue tomorrow, then.

(Ruby 1)

July 5th, 2005

Teacher R: (in Mandarin) OK, let's turn to Lesson Three, page 48. Let's have a look of the poet, Robert Frost, sitting on a big stone. I'll ask you how you feel after watching his photo. Later, those two guys who are eating breakfast will have to answer me. OK, Liu, what is your feeling after viewing the poet's photo?

Student L: He's very cool.

Teacher R: What about Chen? What do you think?

Student C: His eyes are pretty big.

Student A: Very handsome.

Teacher R: (in Mandarin) Well, actually, Robert Frost is a very great American poet in the 20th century. When I was a freshman as an English major, the very first work that we read in the first term was Frost's poems. In the States, every senior high school student has to read and memorize his poems. I have done some research and found that many lines from Frost's poems were used in many movies. As you can see, both these pastoral poems have to do with farms or fields. Robert attended Harvard University, although he didn't finish his studies there. Frost once worked as a farmer but then realized that his lifework was to write poems. That was why he sold his field and flew to England. His first collection of poems was popular and he won great fame. He went back to the States, bought a field, and began his career as both a farmer and a poet at the same time.

Next, let's look at his first poem on page 50. The title says, The Road Not Taken, which means the road that was not chosen. (teacher R writes on the board and repeats what she said again). The poem comprises four paragraphs, so it can be regarded as a complicated one. Each paragraph consists of five complete sentences. You may find that in the 21st century, many sentences in poems become less complete, and some even have only one word. Now, let's read it over first,

*Two roads diverged in a yellow wood,
And sorry I could not travel both
And be one traveler, long I stood
And looked down one as far as I could
To where it bent in the undergrowth;*

*Then took the other, as just as fair,
And having perhaps the better claim,
Because it was grassy and wanted wear;
Though as for that, the passing there
Had worn them really about the same.*

*And both that morning equally lay
In leaves no step had trodden black.
Oh, I kept the first for another day!
Yet knowing how way leads on to way,
I doubted if I should ever come back.*

*I shall be telling this with a sigh
Somewhere ages and ages hence:
Two roads diverged in a wood, and I--
I took the one less travelled by,
And that has made all the difference.*
(Students read after the teacher in English.)

Teacher R: (in Mandarin) OK, I will literalise the first paragraph. Two roads diverged in a yellow wood (teacher draws on the blackboard and repeats), where there are piles of yellow fallen leaves This (pointing on the picture she draws) is the wood with many fallen leaves, and there might be many trees along the road. Is it okay? And here, stepping on the yellow leaves, you see two diverged roads. Next sentence, “*And sorry I could not travel both*”, (teacher writes on the board and explain in Mandarin). Poets are different from us, who would simply walk as we like. They would think, “if I choose road A, I will have to give up road B, and vice versa.” *And be one traveler, long I stood.* Here, long I stood means “I stood long (for a long time).” I stood here thinking about this question and making another move. *And looked down one as far as I could. To where it bent in the undergrowth;* Please underline this sentence (Teacher translates the sentence and explains its to students and asks them to write down the Chinese meaning of it). Undergrowth here means the grove of trees. Let me stop here and ask you a question, “what season do you think it is?” When you read a poem, I think you can put your head aside. You should have the “feeling” first, but how could your feeling arise? Think about in what season the traveler begins his trip. When?

Some students: Autumn.

Teacher R: OK, some of you say autumn. Any other answers?

Students: (silence)...

Teacher R: Lin, you said that it should be autumn. Which word or sentence makes you think so?

Student L: The fallen leaves.

Teacher R: Fallen leaves from where? Sometimes we have fallen leaves in spring, too. Which word is the key to your answer?

Student L: Yellow.

Teacher R: You're right. Now let's stop and think, if the poem is changed to, "In spring, I come to the diverged roads in a wood where the leaves are all green. I have no idea which way to go." Or "In summer, I came to the diverged roads, wet all over with sweat. Or "In winter, frozen to death, I come to the wood and don't know which road to choose." Think about why the poet chose autumn

among the four seasons, which give us very different feeling. Autumn gives us the feeling of, I think, being cool. It is more like winter in Taiwan. But in the tropical Taiwan, we don't feel too cold in winter. In the temperate country, the average temperature in autumn might be around 15 Celsius. It is the most comfy and dry time of the year, when you will have lots of inspiration with your brain working well. In summer, a traveler can't wait to find a shade to avoid the sunshine; whereas in winter, a traveler will be so desperate to find a shelter or a village that considering which way to go becomes a less important issue. Do you understand what I mean? So, the scene of this poem has been carefully selected.

Next, you can obviously see that there are two roads to choose from (teacher emphasizes the picture on the board again). *And looked down one as far as I could. To where it bent in the undergrowth;* (teacher draws on the blackboard and tries hard to explain this sentence by using both the picture and Mandarin). Can you imagine the scene and feel the poem now? There is another thing that I'd like to add, which is called "visual image, auditory image, and tactile image" (teacher writes down these terms and their Chinese meanings, then she waits for the students to copy them down). Please note down these, which may become part of the reading test. I will give you an example: the images of "roads, diverged, yellow fallen leaves" would immediately jump to your front as you read along the poem, provided that you have enough imagination. You may even feel the breeze on your face and body. So, the poet builds the imaginary world for you, the readers. These descriptions all bring up your sensual experience. You have to imitate this when you do your composition, that is, using different types of images to present the picture to your readers.

Paragraph two is about the second road. *Then took the other, as just as fair,* Please write "beautiful (in Chinese)" under the word "fair (teacher writes on the board)." The sentence, "*And having perhaps the better claim,*" means "the road perhaps has the better claim (meaning reason) than the first one. Here, the poet looks at the other road and thinks, "maybe it is more persuasive in making me to choose among the two." "*Because it was grassy and wanted wear;*" Here wanted means "lacks"; while wear means "abrade." Please write them down (teacher writes on the board and explains further). Grassy means being covered with lots of grass. So this means the road is less walked on by travellers. Next, circle the two words "as for" and underline "the passing there" in the sentence, *Though as for that, the passing there.* As for means "even though we say so"; while "the passing there" means the passer-by. (teacher writes on the board and waits for the students to write.

(Teacher then explains the next sentence, *Had worn them really about the same*). The number of travellers on each of the road is actually the same. But at this time of the year, the other road seems to be less worn.

Let's continue on the next paragraph, "*And both that morning equally lay*",

now add “both roads” here. (teacher writes on the blackboard and translates in Mandarin). *In leaves no step had trodden black.* (again, teacher translates in Mandarin). From this line I have a feeling that the poet is a careful observer. He not only noticed the leaves on the trees, but also whether the leaves on the ground just fell from the trees or if they had already been trodden. The dirtier the leaves look, the more travellers had passed the road.

Here I am reminded of a personal experience of mine. Once a friend came to visit me and then left for her sister who lives at the dorm of NTU (National Taiwan University). I had an unplanned visit to make after she left for a while, so I didn't ask which room she lives in before my visit. Guess how I finally find her?

Student: You smell?

Teacher R: No. I tried to look for her room according to the colour, style, brand, and size of her sneakers. I just began from the ground floor, checking the shoes left outside the door one room after another. Then I finally saw her sneakers outside one room on the second floor. My friend was very surprised when she answered my door. What I want to say is, reading this poem can help us pay more attention to things that we never notice before in our life. Maybe many inspirations would occur. If you don't develop your ability of observation, you won't be able to think. You can't have any input and won't have any feelings as you walk along a road like the poet. So, I suggest that each of you should develop this kind observational ability, which will also be very helpful to your own studies.

It's so hot today. Let's just stop here and take a rest.

(Ruby 2)

July 6th, 2005

Teacher R: Open your textbook and turn to page 50. Let's read it again and you will have to memorize it. Okay.

Teacher R: *The Road Not Taken.*

Students: *The Road Not Taken.*

Teacher R: *Two roads diverged in a yellow wood,
And sorry I could not travel both
And be one traveler, long I stood
And looked down one as far as I could
To where it bent in the undergrowth;*

*Then took the other, as just as fair,
And having perhaps the better claim,
Because it was grassy and wanted wear;
Though as for that, the passing there
Had worn them really about the same.*

*And both that morning equally lay
In leaves no step had trodden black.
Oh, I kept the first for another day!
Yet knowing how way leads on to way,
I doubted if I should ever come back.*

*I shall be telling this with a sigh
Somewhere ages and ages hence:
Two roads diverged in a wood, and I--
I took the one less travelled by,
And that has made all the difference.*

(Students read sentence by sentence after the teacher in English.)

Teacher R: Yesterday we were at the second line in paragraph three. *Oh, I kept the first for another day!* This means that the poet will walk on the other road some day in the future. *Yet knowing how way leads on to way,* Okay, here (teacher writing on the blackboard) Knowing is shortened from “I know”. Copy down what I have written on the board so that you won’t forget when you review it at home: How waste these are to wait. I know that the diverged roads will eventually merged, leading to the same destination. For example, some people may go straight to work instead of going to university after they graduate. After working for years, they can sit for the entrance exam and enter university. The route that they choose may be different, but the results would remain the same. Although many cases show that many people just give up their studies, never going back to school once they start working. *I doubted if I should ever come back.* The poet wondered if he would be back. He is obviously a reflective person.

Let’s now look at the last paragraph, the highlight of this poem. *I shall be telling this with a sigh,* with means “帶著”; while *sigh* means “嘆息”(teacher writes down the Chinese translation of “with” and “sigh” explains in Mandarin) Here “*shall be*” uses what we call in grammar “future continuous tense”. Please write it down. This means the action “tell” will be happening at a certain moment in the future. *Somewhere ages and ages hence:* Please write down, here somewhere means some place (in Mandarin). Put brackets on the words “ages and ages”; it means many years later. It’s a very good phrase, so underline it. Are you ready to move on? Okay. *Two roads diverged in a wood, and I-- I took the one less travelled by, And that has made all the difference.* Everything becomes different. As the example I gave you earlier, life of those

who choose to work after graduating from high school will definitely be very different from that of those who continue their studies.

Listen, yesterday I have told you that when you compose a composition, you can describe what you see and hear. At the same time you can also use some exclamation to allow the readers to see the picture you try to present. In this poem, actually there doesn't exist any regret (teacher writes on the board), no regret. What it implies is that once you take one road, you have to give up the other one. There is no way back; in other words, everybody has different fate. All of you have come to this senior high school, so your fate tells you that you have to spend three years here. All this would be different if you chose another school to go to. Some of you may feel regret, and some of you are happy, and some may have other very different feelings. We can never predict which choice will be better in the end, and I cannot tell you, either. Some day you have to choose a major before entering university. You may consider doing Japanese, English, medicine, etc. Once your decision is made, there is no way back.

Okay. Now let's go back to page 49 and finish paragraph two of the reading. Repeat after me, (students repeat sentence by sentence) *The rural image involves the point, the poet's awareness of their relationship with nature is felt as some of his most memorable images which not only move us with their serene beauty but inspire us by addressing life's universal questions. In The Road Not Taken, Frost presents a traveller walking through the autumn woods. The speaker comes to a fork in the road, which symbolize the sort of major turning point that any of us must confront in life.*

Okay, please underline several important sentences in this paragraph. Line 16, *the poet's awareness of human's ...major relationship with nature...* underline the whole sentence as it is a very important sentence. Next, underline line 21, *from which, which symbolize the soul of major turning point... life.* Let's have a look of the explanation of the poem from the author who writes the reading. The first sentence, the author points out that the most common in Frost's poem is *the rural image*, “田園意象” (teacher writes the Chinese meaning of rural image on the blackboard). Next, in his poem, underline *point to*, do you see it, “指出” (teacher writes down the Chinese meaning). Point to a strong humanPlease write down “人文氣息”. His poem often shows strong “人文氣息”.

The next sentence is longer and more complicated. Please listen carefully. *Poet's awareness, poet* is “詩人” and *awareness* means “意識到”, write these down. Okay. The poet's “意識”. What was he aware of? The *relationship*, 關係”, between human beings and the nature. *Is felt*, “被感覺到”. Next,

underline “*in*”, when will you feel it? *Some of his most memorable images*, meaning being felt in some of his most unforgettable images. Underline “*most memorable*”, memorable is an important word. (teacher waits for a few seconds). Okay, here “*which*” represent the images already mentioned. These images not only move us...*Move* means “打動(touch)”. Circle “*with*”, which means “用”...*with their serene beauty*, “寧靜的美感”.

More importantly, *inspire us*, *inspire* means “啟發”. Write down the meanings of the vocabulary you don’t know. In what way does he inspire us? In his poems, he often revels to us life’s universal questions. (teacher translates this in Mandarin) These questions are many, including choices you make. What happens if you choose A, choose B, or choose neither of them? So in your life, there are so many choices for you to make, and you need to use you brain to think each time you choose. He says that *In The Road Not Taken*, *Frost presents a traveller* (teacher translates in Mandarin), underline *walking* and changes it to “who walks” (teacher writes on the board). How does he walk? Okay, he walks across the autumn woods. *The speaker comes to a fork in the road* (teacher translates in Mandarin). The next line is important, *which symbolize the sort of major turning point...* Underline the word *symbolize*, which means “象徵”. Okay, you have to understand each line here. *Symbolize the sort of major turning point* (teacher translates in Mandarin)...*that any of us* (teacher translates in Mandarin) *must confront in life*. Okay, the word *confront* is important, and it means “面臨”(teacher writes its Chinese meaning on the blackboard).

Finally, let us give a conclusion to this poem. Share with me your thoughts. Simply say what you want, and I just like to know your thoughts and feelings. There is no standard answer to it. I’ll give you five minutes to discuss with your classmate.

(five minutes later) What date is it today? Okay, it’s the sixth. Number six.
(school bell rings)

Appendix E: Questionnaire

Senior High School Students' Attitudes and Perspectives of Language Teaching and Learning in Taiwan

(Date)

Dear students,

I am a student of the EdD programme in Applied Linguistics and ELT at the University of Warwick, U.K. Currently I am gathering data for my doctoral thesis and would be grateful if you would assist me by completing the following questionnaire. This questionnaire aims to explore your personal attitudes towards communicative language teaching and its current application in the English classroom. Your response will make a great contribution to my study as well as future research. There is no right or wrong answer to each question. Please follow the instruction and answer honestly without any worry as all the data on the questionnaire will be kept confidential. The results obtained will only be used for my research.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Your sincerely,
I-Fang Chung

* There are five parts in this questionnaire. Please read each statement below carefully and decide whether you agree or disagree with them. Then tick in the box that best reflects your true feeling.

Part One. General Attitudes towards English Learning at School

No.	Items	SD	D	NC	A	SA
01	I like learning English.					
02	Learning English is very essential.					
03	English is a difficult subject to learn.					
04	I look forward to having English class every day.					
05	I am happy with the way that my English teacher teaches us.					
06	I am active and initiative in learning English in class.					
07	English class at school is generally lively and interesting.					
08	We have too many English classes at school.					

Part Two. Perceptions of Current Classroom Instruction

No.	Items	SD	D	NC	A	SA
09	My English teacher spends most of the time in introducing vocabulary and grammar rules in class.					
10	I seldom have the chances to communicate with my teacher or classmates in English in an English class.					
11	My English teacher is always the dominator in class.					
12	Our English textbook in use doesn't help in enhancing my communicative ability in English.					
13	My English teacher mostly uses Chinese as the medium of instruction in class.					
14	My English teacher often designs communicative activities for us to interact with classmates in English.					
15	What I mostly do is to repeat after my teacher when I open my mouth to speak English in class.					
16	My teacher ensures that we can use English fluently and effectively in real life situations.					
17	My English teacher doesn't correct me whenever I have errors in using English.					
18	The dialogues we do in English class are mostly mechanical dialogues appear in the textbook.					
19	The chief aim of our English class is to prepare us to take exams and get good grades.					

20	Our textbook contents are authentic and contain lots of real life English usage.				
21	I don't like the English textbook that we currently use.				
22	Our English tests, monthly and final exams are mainly grammar-based.				
23	Our teacher would provide us with some materials that are close to daily life (such as English newspapers, magazines, pop songs) to assist our learning.				

Part Three. Attitudes towards Communicative and Non-Communicative Activities

No.	Items	SD	D	NC	A	SA
24	I learn English best by working in pairs or small groups to practice communicating in English.					
25	I am afraid of speaking English in front of the whole class because I feel ashamed when I make a mistake.					
26	I think my English teacher speaks too little English in class.					
27	In my opinion, the best way to learn English is not to be afraid of making mistakes but try to use it as much as possible.					
28	In an English class, I like to work in pairs or small groups to practice communicating in English					
29	I don't want my teacher to immediately correct me whenever I make a mistake in speaking English.					
30	I would rather keep quiet listening to my teacher talking than opening my mouth speaking English in class.					
31	I think English class should focus mainly on grammar instruction.					
32	I learn English most efficiently by memorizing grammatical rules and doing drills in sentence patterns.					
33	I like my English teacher to use mainly Chinese as a medium of instruction in class.					
34	We students instead of teachers should be the centre playing the main part in an English class.					
35	I like to learn English through English newspapers, magazines or pop songs.					

36	In English class, learning grammar well is more important than practicing speaking English in a communicative way.					
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Part Four. Students' Needs and Goals in Learning English

No.	Items	SD	D	NC	A	SA
37	Currently, the most important goal of mine in learning English is to perform well in the entrance exam so that I can enter an ideal university.					
38	For me, learning English outside of school is more helpful in promoting my communicative ability in English than learning at school.					
39	English teaching at my school is effective in helping me to use English fluently and effectively.					
40	I wouldn't want to learn English if I am not preparing to enter university.					
41	My chief aim of learning English now is learning to use it fluently and effectively in real life situations.					
42	English teaching at our school can't meet my needs.					
43	From my viewpoint, enhancing my communicative ability in English is more important than getting good grades in exams.					

* Please complete the following blank, tick or choose the answers as appropriate.

Part Five. Personal Background Information

() 44. Gender (1) Male (2) Female	School name: _____
() 45. Programme (1) Senior High (2) Comprehensive	
() 46. Major (1) Science (2) Arts (3) Other, please state _____	
() 47. Mother Tongue (1) Holo (2) Hakka (3) Mandarin (4) Indigenous Languages (5) Other, please state _____	
() 48. You begin learning English at (1) kindergarten (2) junior grades in elementary school (3) middle grades in elementary school (4) senior grades in elementary school (5) junior high school	
() 49. You have learned English for (1) 5 years (including) or less (2) 6 ~9 years (3) 10 years (including) or above	

- () 50. Do you go to a cram school to learn English after class now? (1) Yes (2) No
- () 51. How many sessions of English class do you have per week?
 (1) 4 or below (2) 5 (3) 6 (4) 7 or above
- () 52. The average number of students in your English class is
 (1) 11~20 (2) 21~30 (3) 31~40 (4) 41~50 (5) above 51
- () 53. Your academic ranking in the previous semester in your class is
 (1) 1-10 (2) 11~20 (3) 21~30 (4) 31~40 (5) 41~50
 (6) Other, please state _____
- () 54. From your own experience, which of the following activities have your school teacher asked you to perform in English in class?
 (1) role play (2) create dialogues in groups (3) group discussion (4) none of these
 (5) others (please describe) _____
- () 55. (Continue on the above question. Please skip if you choose 4 as your answer) How often does your teacher arrange the activity (activities)?
 (1) once a week (2) once every 2~3 weeks (3) once a month (4) once every semester
 (5) other (please state) _____
- () 56. Among the following aspects, which do you consider to be the most difficult to learn?
 (1) listening (2) speaking (3) reading (4) writing (5) other (please state)

- () 57. What is your biggest challenge in learning English now?
 (1) too much vocabulary to memorize (2) not interested in English (3) can't
 communicate with others in English when necessary (4) don't understand grammar
 (5) lack of the environment to practice speaking English (6) other (please state)

Part Six. Other Comments or Thoughts Regarding the Questions or Questionnaire (Optional but Welcomed)

Please State: _____

Thank you very much for your time and help.

Appendix F: The Descriptive Data of the student attitude towards some of the questionnaire items

Item 2. Learning English is very essential.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	18	2.1	2.1	2.1
2	23	2.7	2.7	4.9
3	55	6.6	6.6	11.5
4	338	40.3	40.3	51.8
5	404	48.2	48.2	100.0
Total	838	100.0	100.0	

Item 3. English is a difficult subject to learn.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	120	14.3	14.3	14.3
2	319	38.1	38.1	52.4
3	242	28.9	28.9	81.3
4	137	16.3	16.3	97.6
5	20	2.4	2.4	100.0
Total	838	100.0	100.0	

Item 4. I look forward to having English class every day.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	58	6.9	6.9	6.9
2	212	25.3	25.4	32.3
3	432	51.6	51.7	84.1
4	107	12.8	12.8	96.9
5	26	3.1	3.1	100.0
Total	835	99.6	100.0	
Missing 9	3	.4		
Total	838	100.0		

Item 17. My English teacher doesn't correct me whenever I have errors in using English.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	126	15.0	15.1	15.1
	2	471	56.2	56.4	71.5
	3	188	22.4	22.5	94.0
	4	42	5.0	5.0	99.0
	5	8	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	835	99.6	100.0	
Missing	9	3	.4		
Total		838	100.0		

Item 19. The chief aim of our English class is to prepare us to take exams and get good grades.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	198	23.6	23.7	23.7
	2	327	39.0	39.2	62.9
	3	155	18.5	18.6	81.5
	4	123	14.7	14.7	96.3
	5	31	3.7	3.7	100.0
	Total	834	99.5	100.0	
Missing	9	4	.5		
Total		838	100.0		

Item 21. I don't like the English textbook that we currently use.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	74	8.8	8.9	8.9
	2	119	14.2	14.2	23.1
	3	485	57.9	58.0	81.1
	4	131	15.6	15.7	96.8
	5	27	3.2	3.2	100.0
	Total	836	99.8	100.0	
Missing	9	2	.2		
Total		838	100.0		

Item 25. I am afraid of speaking English in front of the whole class because I feel ashamed when I make a mistake.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	85	10.1	10.1	10.1
2	320	38.2	38.2	48.3
3	212	25.3	25.3	73.6
4	175	20.9	20.9	94.5
5	46	5.5	5.5	100.0
Total	838	100.0	100.0	

Item 29. I don't want my teacher to correct me immediately whenever I make a mistake in speaking English.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	176	21.0	21.0	21.0
2	374	44.6	44.7	65.7
3	202	24.1	24.1	89.8
4	74	8.8	8.8	98.7
5	11	1.3	1.3	100.0
Total	837	99.9	100.0	
Missing 9	1	.1		
Total	838	100.0		

Item 37. Currently, the most important goal of mine in learning English is to perform well in the entrance exam so that I can enter an ideal university.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	187	22.3	22.3	22.3
2	407	48.6	48.6	70.9
3	117	14.0	14.0	84.8
4	101	12.1	12.1	96.9
5	26	3.1	3.1	100.0
Total	838	100.0	100.0	

Item 39. English teaching at my school is effective in helping me to use English fluently and effectively.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	120	14.3	14.4	14.4
	2	308	36.8	36.8	51.2
	3	319	38.1	38.2	89.4
	4	83	9.9	9.9	99.3
	5	6	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	836	99.8	100.0	
Missing	9	2	.2		
Total		838	100.0		

Item 43. From my viewpoint, enhancing my communicative ability in English is more important than getting good grades in exams.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	12	1.4	1.4	1.4
	2	57	6.8	6.8	8.2
	3	167	19.9	19.9	28.2
	4	342	40.8	40.8	69.0
	5	260	31.0	31.0	100.0
	Total	838	100.0	100.0	

Appendix G: Compare attitudes among different programmes by using t-test

Scale/Programme	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (p)
(Main Scale)	(775)					
Senior High	554	128.31	12.441	-.762	328.526	.447
Comprehensive	221	129.24	16.195			
(Subscale 1)	(827)					
Senior High	587	24.92	4.626	-1.282	391.837	.201
Comprehensive	240	25.43	5.361			
(Subscale 2)	(808)					
Senior High	576	39.52	6.414	-1.246	353.535	.213
Comprehensive	232	40.26	8.094			
(Subscale 3)	(824)					
Senior High	588	42.62	5.273	.923	822	.356
Comprehensive	236	42.23	5.645			
(Subscale 4)	(827)					
Senior High	591	21.18	3.332	-1.878	825	.100
Comprehensive	236	21.86	3.578			

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Appendix H: Compare attitudes among different mother tongues by using one-way ANOVA

Scale/Mother Tongue	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig. (p)
(Main Scale)	(775)	(128.58)	(13.613)		
Holo	396	128.30	12.981	2.172	0.090
Hakka	184	127.12	14.089		
Mandarin	175	130.67	14.389		
Indigenous	20	129.30	13.203		
(Subscale 1)	(827)	(25.07)	(4.853)		
Holo	420	24.80	4.701	2.241	0.082
Hakka	195	24.82	5.233		
Mandarin	190	25.78	4.675		
Indigenous	22	26.00	5.300		
(Subscale 2)	(808)	(39.73)	(6.941)		
Holo	409	40.08	6.663	1.378	0.248
Hakka	191	38.87			

Mandarin	186	39.88	6.841		
Indigenous	22	39.32	7.729		
			5.428		
(Subscale 3)	(824)	(42.51)	(5.381)		
Holo	420	42.23	5.142	1.665	0.173
Hakka	193	42.37	5.464		
Mandarin	188	43.27	5.848		
Indigenous	23	42.48	4.670		
(Subscale 4)	(827)	(21.38)	(3.415)		
Holo	424	21.29	3.246	0.760	0.517
Hakka	193	21.23	3.591		
Mandarin	188	21.68	3.656		
Indigenous	22	21.73	2.882		

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Appendix II: Chinese Version

附錄一：焦點訪談邀請函

(Invitation Letter for Focus Group Interview)

_____ 同學，您好：

我是英國華威大學 (The University of Warwick) 應用語言學暨英語教學研究所博士生，主要的研究領域在於高中生對於學校英語教學與學習的態度。

個人計畫透過焦點訪談的方式，來進行論文相關資料之蒐集。個人誠摯邀請您來參加此一小組的訪談 (共六人)。此一訪談將會在 (時間、地點) 舉行。希望您能夠在訪談中提供您對於學校英語學習的看法。個人保證訪談的內容僅供個人研究之用，絕無外流之虞，並將會以匿名的方式發表。

非常感謝您的協助，並期待能與你在 (時間、地點) 相見。

敬祝 學安

鍾儀芳 敬上

2005 年 月

附錄二：焦點訪談問題 (Focus Group Interview Questions)

焦點訪談

Jan. 23, 2005

學生基本資料

姓名: _____

班級: _____

性別: _____

年齡 (實歲) : _____

初學英語之年紀: _____

英語共學了 _____ 年

第一部份、一般性問題

1. 請問您對目前英文課 (非英會課) 的感覺是如何?
2. 英文課當中, 你最喜愛的部分是 (例如: 課文閱讀/單字/文法/延伸活動/測驗/小考或其他)?
3. 你最不喜愛的部分又是?
4. 你在學習英文的過程當中, 所面臨最大的問題或挑戰是什麼?

第二部份、有關上課方式

1. 上英文課 (非英會課) 時, 老師以及你花最多的時間在做什麼?
2. 你能否告訴我, 你的英文老師在上課時, 會在什麼樣的情況下, 並且用何種方式使用英語及國語? 對此, 你的感覺是什麼? 你希望老師多說/少說一些英語/國語?
3. 你能否告訴我, 在上英文課時, 你又會在何種情況下, 並且用何種方式使用英語及國語?
4. 你的老師多常要求你們以兩人一組或更多人一組的方式進行合作式的活動?
5. 能否給我一些例子, 說明你曾經做過的分組活動。並且描述老師是要求你們怎麼進行?

第三部份、學生的態度與看法

1. 你對於你的老師教你文法或是你學習文法的方式有什麼看法？你覺得你的老師是否在課堂上花太多/太少時間教文法？你喜歡目前這種教學方式嗎？為什麼？
2. 你對於在課堂上學習去跟你的同學用英文溝通有何看法？你認為為什麼你的老師或教科書會要求你試著用英文和同學對話或溝通？
3. 如果我告訴你，學習語言的一種好方法，就是不要去太在意犯錯，而要盡可能常常去使用它，你是否同意此種說法？為什麼？如果老師在課堂上不立即糾正你的錯誤，而是盡量讓你們多說多練習，你會有何看法？
4. 你心目中最理想的老師在課堂上應該是扮演何種角色？
5. 你覺得怎麼樣的課堂活動對你的英文學習最有幫助？
6. 你認為你在學校學英文的主要目的或需要為何？就你而言，達成這些目標或需要的最佳方法是什麼呢？

附錄三：中文問卷 (Questionnaire Chinese Version)

臺灣高中生對於英語學習以及溝通式教學法 在英文課堂上運用的看法與態度

親愛的同學，

您好，我是英國華威大學 (The University of Warwick) 應用語言學暨英語教學研究所博士生，目前正在準備博士論文的資料蒐集。接下來要麻煩您填寫的這份問卷，目的在於了解溝通式英語教學法在您英文課堂上的實施現況。個人非常重視您寶貴的意見，請真實地表達您個人對於下述問題的看法，不必要有任何的顧忌。本問卷以匿名的方式進行，所得之資料也僅供個人研究之用，故無任何個人資料外流之虞。

非常感謝您的合作！

鍾儀芳 敬上

2005 年 8 月

* 本問卷共有五個部分。請先仔細閱讀每一部分的陳述，決定您是否同意，然後在

其後最適合的空格處打勾。

第一部分、對於學校英文課的態度

No.	問題	非常 不同意	不同意	沒意見	同意	非常 同意
01	我喜歡學英文					

02	學英文是必要的					
03	英文是一門困難的科目					
04	我每天都期待上英文課					
05	我喜歡目前老師上英文課的方式					
06	上英文課的時候我的態度是主動積極的					
07	學校的英文課生動有趣					
08	我們上太多英文課了					

第二部分、目前英文課上課的方式

No.	問題	非常 不同意	不同意	沒意見	同意	非常 同意
09	課堂上我的英文老師大部分的時間在教單字與文法					
10	我們上英文課時，老師和同學、或同學之間很少有機會用英文對話溝通					
11	上英文課時我的老師總是扮演主導者的角色					
12	我們現在所使用的英文課本對增進我的英語溝通能力沒有幫助					
13	在英文課上我的老師主要是以國語教學					
14	我的英文老師常設計可讓同學彼此間用英文互動的活動					
15	英文課上我開口說英文時候，都是在跟著老師念單字、句子及課文					
16	我的老師盡量培養我們在實際的生活中，能沒有困難地用英文來表達自己					
17	在英文課上，每當我使用英文方面犯錯時，我的老師不會馬上糾正我					
18	我們在英文課時所做的對話練習，大部分是課本					

	裡面已寫好的對話內容				
19	我們英文課的主要目標是在為考試作準備				
20	我們英文課本的內容是生活化的				
21	我不喜歡我們現在所使用的英文課本				
22	我們英文的平常考、月考及期末考內容大多是以考文法為主				
23	我們老師在課堂上會補充一些生活化的英語教材(如英文報章雜誌、流行歌曲等)				

第三部分、對於溝通式與非溝通式教學方式的態度

No.	問題	非常 不同意	不同意	沒意見	同意	非常 同意
24	我認為在課堂中兩人一組或分小組練習用英文溝通的方式，會有最好的學習效果					
25	我害怕在全班面前說英語，因為我怕說錯會丟臉					
26	我覺得我的老師在英文課上英文說的太少					
27	學習英文最好的方式之一就是不怕犯錯，盡可能多去使用它					
28	英文課我喜歡兩人一組或分小組，盡可能地練習用英語溝通					
29	每當我在說英文方面犯錯時，我不希望老師立即糾正我					
30	上英文課時，我寧願安靜地聽老師講課、而不願開口說英文					
31	我覺得英文課應該以文法講解為主					
32	我認為熟記文法規則以及做句型練習，是學英文最有效的方式					
33	上英文課時，我喜歡老師用國語來講解					

34	英文課堂上的主角應該是學生，而老師是扮演輔助的角色					
35	我喜歡從英文報紙、雜誌、電影或流行歌曲當中去學習英文					
36	在英文課把文法學好，比用溝通的方式來練習說英文更重要					

第四部分、學習英文的需要與目標

No.	問題	非常 不同意	不同意	沒意見	同意	非常 同意
37	我目前學英文最重要的目標在於通過考試，以進入理想的大學就讀					
38	對我而言，在校外學英文比在學校學的更有助於提升我的英語溝通能力					
39	我們學校的英語教學有助於我流利地使用英語					
40	若不是為了升學，我不會想學英文					
41	我現在學英文最主要的目的，在於學會能在實際的生活情境中去流利地使用它					
42	我們學校的英語教學無法滿足我的需求					
43	我認為增進我的英文溝通能力比考試得到好成績要來的重要					

第五部分、學生背景資料

() 44. 性別 (1) 男 (2) 女	就讀學校 _____
() 45. 你現在就讀的是 (1) 普通高中 (2) 綜合高中	
() 46. 組別 (1) 自然組 (2) 社會組 (3) 其他 (請說明) _____	
() 47. 母語是 (1) 閩南語 (2) 客家語 (3) 國語 (4) 原住民語 (5) 其他 _____	

- () 48. 最早學英語是在
(1) 幼稚園以前 (2) 幼稚園時 (3) 國小中低年級 (4) 國小高年級 (5) 國中
- () 49. 學英語共學了 (1) 5 年 (包括) 以下 (2) 6~9 年 (3) 10 年以上
- () 50. 現在有沒有上補習班補英文? (1) 有 (2) 沒有
- () 51. 學校一個禮拜有多少堂英文課?
(1) 4 節 或更少 (2) 5 節 (3) 6 節 (4) 7 節或更多
- () 52. 在學校你們的英文課班上平均人數是
(1) 11~20 (2) 21~30 (3) 31~40 (4) 41~50 (5) 51 人以上
- () 53. 上學年你在班上的總成績排名大約是
(1) 1-10 (2) 11~20 (3) 21~30 (4) 31~40 (5) 41~50 名
(6) 其他 (請說明) _____
- () 54. 學校老師曾在英文課上要求你們用英文進行過下列何種活動 (可複選)?
(1) 角色扮演 (2) 分組自己編對話演練 (3) 小組討論 (4) 都沒有過
(5) 其他 (請稍加敘述) _____
- () 55. (接上題, 選 4 者跳過此題) 多久會進行一次?
(1) 每週 (2) 2~3 週 (3) 每個月 (4) 每學期 (5) 其他 (請說明) _____
- () 56. 你覺得英文最困難的是那哪一方面?
(1) 聽 (2) 說 (3) 讀 (4) 寫 (5) 其他 (請說明) _____
- () 57. 你現在學英文最大的挑戰是
(1) 太多單字要背 (2) 對英文沒興趣 (3) 當有需要的時候, 我無法用英文
跟人溝通 (4) 文法弄不懂 (5) 缺乏練習說英文的環境 (6) 其他 (請說明)

第六部分、其它意見 (若對以上問題或此問卷有任何想法, 歡迎提供給我)

感謝您的時間與耐心回答 Thanks a lot for your help!