

Influences on the cognition and classroom practices of Japanese teachers of English¹

William Green

Introduction

Teachers' practices are influenced by cognitive structures and processes made up of thoughts, beliefs, attitudes, assumptions, knowledge and principles that teachers have about their teaching. Studying teacher cognition means looking at the origin, characteristics and development of these cognitive structures with the aim of understanding the relationship between cognition and practice. Understandings thus reached are useful in informing in-service and pre-service teacher education programmes, in curriculum renewal projects, in basing pedagogical innovations in local practices, and in other projects which are heavily dependent on the co-operation of teachers (Breen et al., 2001: 471-472).

Many of the studies of language teacher cognition have been associated with pre-service training courses and novice teachers (e.g. Bailey et al., 1996; Farrell, 1999, 2003; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Johnson, 1992, 1994, 1996; Moran, 1996; Numrich, 1996; Richards & Pennington, 1998) and many have been conducted in ESL contexts in English-speaking countries (e.g. Bailey, 1996; Breen et al., 2001; Burns, 1992; Golombek, 1998; Mullock, 2006; Nunan, 1992; Smith, 1996; Woods, 1991, 1996). Recently there have been calls for research in a broader range of contexts; for example, at the end of his review of language teacher cognition research, Borg (2003) argues that "the

1 この論文のオリジナル版は、英国のカンタベリー・クライスト・チャーチ大学の「最先端」言語教育学会で示されました。そのプレゼンテーションは札幌大学の財政的援助によって可能になりました。

range of contexts studied to date is, in global terms, perhaps not representative of language teaching settings” and advocates further research in mainstream educational contexts, particularly schools, where non-native teachers work with large classes of students. In this paper I report a study of a group of teachers whose cognitions and practices have largely gone unstudied: experienced Japanese teachers of English working at a Japanese university.

Research question

As well as contributing to the field of language teacher cognition research by studying a previously unstudied group of teachers, this investigation also aimed to answer another of Borg’s calls for more research “into the less immediate factors behind language teachers’ decisions - e.g., prior learning and professional experience” in order to gain “a more holistic understanding of language teachers’ practices and cognitions” (Borg, 2003: 98). To do this, I adopted Borg’s framework for teacher cognition research (Borg, 2006: 283), which proposes that there are three key areas which influence teachers’ pedagogic thinking and practices: schooling, which includes experiences of classrooms while still a student, and which is likely to shape cognitions and perceptions of initial training; professional coursework, which is more likely to influence teachers’ behaviour if it acknowledges their existing cognitions; and contextual factors, including teaching experience. I based my research question on these three areas: What factors appear to influence the pedagogic cognitions and practices of Japanese teachers of English at a Japanese university? Specifically, how are they influenced by their schooling, professional coursework, and the context in which they work?

Research context

The research was conducted in the English department of a Japanese university where the curriculum is drawn up by the head of department in consultation with colleagues. Some modules or courses in reading, writing, spoken communication and so on are supplemented by teachers volunteering other courses, often based on their research interests. The resulting curriculum is made up of a list of course titles: teachers are responsible for designing, implementing and assessing the courses which they are assigned to teach. Teachers are additionally required to provide a description of the course for the students' handbook² together with a list of lesson titles, with a brief outline of each lesson's contents. Occasionally a teacher is given a little more direction from the department than just the course title, so for example in one of the reading lessons I observed the teacher had to use a literary text, not just any reading material. This approach to the curriculum clearly allows teachers a great deal of flexibility in what and how they choose to teach.

The Japanese teachers of English in this institution work alongside native English-speaking teachers. These two sets of teachers are assumed to have different strengths and to make different contributions to language education. Curriculum decisions about courses and suitable teachers for them are predicated on these assumptions, so for example, Japanese teachers are allocated grammar and reading courses, and native English-speaking teachers are assigned spoken communication courses. In what follows, I look primarily at the cognitions and practices of the Japanese teachers of

2 The students receive a handbook at the beginning of each school year which details all the courses available in their department. Some courses are required but are taught by a number of different teachers; students can choose which teacher's course they attend. There are also a number of elective courses which the students select on the basis of the course descriptions printed in the handbook.

English.

The five participating Japanese teachers of English had between 15 and 25 years' teaching experience, and their ages ranged from their mid-30s to their late 40s. Four of the five teachers held a Master's degree, either in English linguistics or literature, or in English language education, and one teacher held a PhD in English literature. Four of the five teachers were also qualified schoolteachers. An analysis of the influence of the teachers' training and teaching experience, as well as of their language learning experiences, will form a major part of this paper.

Research methods

When I began the study I had little idea of what or how my Japanese colleagues were teaching in their English classes. I therefore began by holding preliminary interviews (PI) with two Japanese teachers, JT1 and JT2. These interviews were semi-structured, and used two basic questions: "What do you do in the language classroom?" and "Why do you choose to do that?" Transcription and analysis of the resulting data informed my subsequent planning of the main study, and provided useful background information about what to expect in classroom observations.

I discussed with the teachers which of their lessons would be suitable for observation. The teachers needed to feel that the lesson chosen would be a fair representation of their work, as far as that was possible, and one which they would be comfortable teaching with an observer and a video camera present. I observed and took notes on each lesson, while video-recording from the back of the room, and I also recorded the teacher's voice with a lapel microphone attached to a MiniDisc recorder. At the end of the working day,

the teacher whose lesson I had observed met me and together we watched the video of the lesson, the teacher commenting on each classroom activity, the motivations and reasons for using it, and the thoughts he or she had had while teaching. I then transcribed the stimulated recall interviews and produced a detailed description of each lesson, complete with timings, adding these data to those from the preliminary interviews. I also asked the teachers to complete a background questionnaire, in which I asked about their own learning experiences, their teacher training, teaching experience, and views on language and language teaching.

Findings 1: Pre-service professional coursework

Four of the five teachers in the study had received teacher training while they were undergraduates. In the preliminary interviews, background questionnaire and stimulated recall interviews I asked about training experiences and their influence on the teachers. Overall, the teachers found it hard to recall the formal pre-service teacher education which they received as undergraduates, and tended to be somewhat dismissive of this training. For example, the teacher training course which enabled JT2 to qualify as a high school English teacher consisted of one lesson a week about the theory of education, and a two week teaching practice at the high school from which JT2 had himself graduated. In his questionnaire (QR) response, JT2 remembered the teacher of the theoretical course being “demanding”, but otherwise didn’t remember anything about the course (JT2 QR: 2a). In his teaching practice he taught 15 classes over the two week period; JT2 noted in his background questionnaire that he had received some “comments on his teaching” from his supervising teacher. He also reported that his supervising teacher had advised him to write

a lesson plan for each lesson, and that this was something that he still tried to do (JT2 QR: 2a). As this was the only influence of his training JT2 could recall, it would seem that his training had little effect on his own teaching.

JT5's four-year undergraduate degree was in English education, which meant she received a more fully developed training in English education than her colleagues, but it also took her some effort to recall what she had done during her training. After several prompts from me in the stimulated recall interview (SR), she said:

JT5: All I remember is that there were no conversation classes at all at that time, what we did in class was mostly learning new grammar and translation [...] When I did practice teaching I used tapes, and did a lot of kind of drill things, repeating vocabulary and filling in. (JT5 SR: 590-599)

I inferred from JT5's tone of voice and general demeanour at this point that she did not consider this training to be influential on her current practices, and of the techniques she mentioned, she used only translation in the lesson I observed, and this was limited: "I don't want to spend the whole time for translation, if they can understand the text as it is in English that's fine with me" (JT5 SR: 316-317).

The teachers struggled to recall their pre-service teacher training and were largely dismissive of its relevance to their work as university teachers of English. This may be because initial teacher training in Japan is intended only as an induction into the profession (e.g. Leonard, 1997; Shimahara, 1998; Yonesaka, 1999), with the real teacher development coming in in-service programmes organized by groups of teachers working in schools (Shimahara, 1998; Stigler & Hiebert, 1999), or it may be because the training was not related to the teachers' pre-service cognitions about teaching. Whatever the

reason, the teachers had to look elsewhere in their experience for teaching ideas.

Findings 2: Prior learning experiences

The teachers in this study were working with only a course title to guide them, and with little recall of their pre-service training they turned, perhaps unsurprisingly, to their own language learning experiences to inform their teaching practices. In this section I identify a range of learning experiences which the teachers believe influence their professional practices. These include “formal” experiences, i.e. in teacher-led classrooms at school and university; what I term “self-initiated” experiences, e.g. studying in student-organized groups, and self-directed study at home; and in informal situations. I prefer the broader term “prior learning experiences” used throughout Borg (2006) to encapsulate these, rather than the narrower “schooling” of the diagrammatic representation of his analytic framework (Borg, 2006: 283). The experiences also have a range of influences on the teachers’ practices, from providing specific classroom techniques, through shaping more general preferences for classroom procedures, to facilitating an understanding of students’ characteristics.

Formal learning experiences

Two of JT5’s formal language learning experiences combined to influence her to choose to teach a modern American play in her required reading course.

Her experiences at school in Japan influenced her to empathize with her somewhat reticent students. She perceived a difference between students not wanting to participate in class by “speaking out”, and not speaking out because they are shy or nervous about

speaking in front of their peers and in front of the teacher.

Especially I was nervous about speaking English, well of course I was nervous about speaking English with native speakers, yes, but a different kind of nervousness in the classroom with other Japanese students. I think I felt kind of- it was kind of awkward for Japanese to speak English (JT5 SR: 88-91)

She reported recognizing a similar nervousness in her students. She argued in her stimulated recall interview (JT5 SR: 425-427), that speaking in the role of a character in a play was a way for students to overcome their reticence in class, as an intermediary stage or as preparation for the type of self-expression required of them in native-speaker teachers' classes.

The second influence of formal education on JT5's decision to use a play in her reading class came in drama courses that she took as an exchange student at a college in the United States (JT5 QR: B4). JT5 commented at some length in both the questionnaire and the stimulated recall interview on the influence of these courses on her language learning and teaching.

I took an acting class and that helped me a lot for correcting pronunciation or I don't know, until then English sentences were just- I did the translation automatically, pick up the dictionary and put this word, change this English word to this Japanese word. I did translation that way but after taking acting class and thinking about character - of course living abroad has something to do with it I guess - but after taking acting class I could feel- I could picture the scene or I could imagine in what situation this sentence could be heard (JT5 SR: 371-378)

JT5 identified these courses in the USA as very significant in her own learning. First of all, they made her aware of English as a living language in which people express their "thoughts and feelings"

(JT5 QR: B4); secondly, this led her to a more sensitive approach to translations than her previous, rather automated technique; thirdly, they helped her appreciate the importance of context in shaping utterances, and enabled her to imagine suitable contexts for any decontextualized examples of language that she came across; and finally, they made her more confident in speaking English.

I finally overcame the sense of shyness as to speaking English in front of people. Voice Production gave me the confidence too, since I learned how to fix my pronunciation by myself. (JT5 QR: B4)

JT5 hoped to bring all of these benefits to her students by using a play as the literary text for the compulsory reading class which I observed. She asked the students to read dialogues from the play aloud with a partner, while she moved around the classroom helping the students with their intonation, pronunciation and listening skills; at the end of this assisted practice session, JT5 selected students to perform the dialogue in front of the other students. In this way, JT5 felt she was helping her students “to overcome that shyness about speaking English, especially when other Japanese people are around” (JT5 SR: 378-379); and by working on their pronunciation and diction with the students JT5 hoped to develop their confidence and language skills in the way that hers had been in drama class.

In this section we have seen how a teacher’s teaching is informed by those learning experiences and practices which she considers contributed to her success as a language learner. Medgyes’ (1999) suggestion that non-native teachers of English have more empathy for their students finds support in JT5’s data; her experiences in high school helped her form a view of Japanese students in general, which she draws on in her sympathetic approach to reticent students in her classes. This manifestation

of a teacher's and students' common language and educational background helps to show how learning experiences inform teachers' thinking and practices. I have tried to show how JT5's experience in formal drama and voice production classes in the US influences her teaching; this experience interacts with her experience in the Japanese education system and provides her with a way of rectifying some of the shortcomings she perceived in her formal language education.

Self-initiated learning experiences

Self-initiated learning experiences are those experiences which students have while studying English both without a teacher, and without a teacher's direction.

In the second part of his class that I observed, JT2 used an English conversation programme from NHK radio (NHK is the state broadcaster, the equivalent of the BBC in the UK) which is also available as a textbook with an accompanying CD. In his preliminary interview (PI) JT2 reported how he used this radio programme successfully to improve his spoken English and listening comprehension:

I started learning how to speak in English at the age of 25. I started at that time, I started listening to the English speaking programme on NHK, and that helped me a lot. Yes, it was very effective, and so that's my conclusion, yeah, yeah just imitating and just changing some words is enough, or maybe a better way to communicate. (JT2 PI: 323-328)

At the age of 25, JT2 had been studying English for about 13 years, yet he perceived the radio programme as being the reason for his ability in spoken English. His formal experiences in school, he states, did not lead to productive language proficiency: "I was taught in a

traditional school system, so I never learned how to speak, or maybe write in English [...] in my generation I think there are few Japanese teachers who learned how to speak in high school or in college.” (JT2 PI: 508-514).

JT2’s preference for teachers who act as role models for their students (PI: 380-392) led him to use the textbook-with-CD version of the NHK radio programme in his class, in the same way that he used, and continues to use, the programme:

This is the way I do it, I repeat the sentence after the radio programme and I try to learn the new words and phrases and try to remember and try to learn by heart, you know [...] I think that helped me to improve my English, so I expect the students to do the same thing. (JT2 SR: 519-524)

This part of JT2’s self-initiated study, the radio programme, seems to have had a more far-reaching influence on JT2’s thinking than just its use in one class. Students using the radio programme were asked to memorize a large number of sentences verbatim, which JT2 did, compiling what he termed a mental “database” of phrases and sentences which he adopts or adapts for his own purposes (JT2 PI: 1009-1011). Although JT2 noted that he had “changed from using the database to speaking freely, without noticing” (JT2 PI: 1010-1011), the idea of the database with its associated need for memorization, adoption and adaptation of model sentences permeates JT2’s thinking about teaching. For example, when imagining himself teaching Japanese as a foreign language overseas, he still imagined himself using a textbook and teaching model sentences from it: “It’s strange but I think I should be doing the same thing, teaching the model sentences, ‘please repeat after me,’ the same thing, right, and change some words and say something.” (JT2 PI: 934-936). Similarly, in his writing class, which we discussed in the preliminary interview,

JT2 told me that he used a textbook with model sentences that he asked students to use and adapt to express their own meanings, rather than attempting to construct their own sentences.

JT2 summarized his thinking with a pun which he borrowed from a colleague. The Japanese word for English composition is “*eisakubun*” which is made up of three parts: *ei* meaning English; *saku* meaning “to make”; and *bun* meaning “sentence”. Thus the word literally means English-make-sentences. JT2’s colleague proposed, and JT2 agreed, that a better approach for Japanese students would be *eishakubun*, in which the verb *saku* is replaced with the verb *shaku* meaning “to borrow” and resulting in the literal meaning English-borrow-sentences. Producing language thus becomes a process of borrowing pre-formed sentences for one’s own use, rather than constructing one’s own meaning from scratch (JT2 PI: 308-315).

Informal learning experiences

JT2 told me that during his sabbatical at an American university he wrote a lot of email, to his students and colleagues back in Japan of course, but also as a key part of his research in the USA, contacting colleagues, exchanging ideas, and so on. As a result, when he returned to Japan and began to teach a writing course for the first time, he decided that writing email would be a useful exercise for his students:

Yeah, I planned the course as it is because I think for Japanese people it’s very important or useful to write an email [...] that’s my idea, right, when I was in the States I wrote a lot of emails, more than paper or something. (JT2 PI: 131-133)

He found a textbook which was designed to teach students how to write email. It envisioned students on exchange programmes in the US, and had lessons based on potential situations in which

such students might find themselves; for example, writing an email to their supervisor introducing themselves and requesting a first meeting, writing a request for an extension to a deadline, and so on. The textbook, JT2 told me, provided model sentences and exercises comprising sentences with words omitted, which the students had to complete and assemble in order to write the required email, which they were then to send to JT2, who took the role of the American college professor. Here again we see JT2's preferred mode of English study in operation: students are asked to borrow and adapt model sentences in satisfying the demands of the coursebook.

When she moved to America at the age of 35, JT4 did not speak or understand very much English. She reported feeling very inferior to everyone around her:

I was so insecure and I remember my feeling of inferiority, I felt like I was a kindergarten kid in America at the age of 35, and I felt so inferior to other people. (JT4 SR: 887-889)

As a result of this, JT4 identified very strongly with the low level students in the class that I observed. She perceived them to have an inferiority complex as a result of their experiences in high school, where they had done badly in tests, and been ignored or belittled by their teachers. Remembering her own feelings of inferiority in America, she said "I just didn't want my students to feel that way" (JT4 SR: 889) and explained how she therefore set about creating a "relaxed" atmosphere in the classroom. She argued that it was better for the students to have a pleasant time in class, perhaps not studying very hard, but enjoying their time with English at college, so that they may be motivated to study by themselves after graduation, in much the same way that JT4 had done. An unpleasant experience with a demanding English teacher, however, might scare the students away from English for good. Thus, JT4's long-

term view of learning English, derived from her own perceived late start with the language, is an additional contributing factor in her “relaxed” approach to teaching, aimed at fostering in her students a sustainable motivation to study.

Summary of PLLE influences

The prior learning experiences presented here permeate multiple aspects of the teachers’ professional cognition and practices. So, for example, JT2’s preference for using and adapting model sentences derived from the NHK radio programme is also seen as a suitable framework for teaching writing. JT4 is determined not to make her less able students feel inferior in her language class, having herself experienced strong feelings of inferiority in the USA; this contributes to her goal of creating a relaxed atmosphere in her lessons, where the students can enjoy their study. JT5’s concern for teaching language in context because of the importance of context in creating meaning, which is evident in her use of plays in her reading class, arose in part from her experiences in the USA. These links between different aspects of the teachers’ experiences and their cognition begin to form themes in the teachers’ thinking, which support findings by other researchers (e.g. Johnson, 1996; Smith, 1996; Woods, 1991, 1996) that teachers hold consistent sets of beliefs and assumptions about language learning and teaching which affect their individual interpretations of classrooms, curricula, materials, and students. It seems to be the case with the teachers in this study that a small number of identifiable prior learning experiences inform these sets of beliefs in a coherent and pervasive way.

Findings 3: Contextual factors

Some of the contextual factors which influence the teachers

have been alluded to in previous sections. Students are always a major influence on teachers' thinking and practices, and JT5's reticent students and JT4's less able students are good examples of this influence in this study. In this section I have chosen to focus on two other aspects of the context in which these teachers work: the curriculum, and the Japanese teachers' expatriate colleagues.

The curriculum

We saw in the Research Context section above how the English language curriculum in the department in this study was made up of a series of course titles. In her Reading II course, which had to be based on a literary text, we have seen how JT5 was able to take advantage of the flexibility in the curriculum to use a play, which lent itself to JT5's learning experience based preferences for teaching language in context, for making students aware of pragmatic aspects of communication, and for helping them to build their confidence in speaking English aloud, while working on their intonation and pronunciation. JT2 generally responded to the freedom afforded by the curriculum by selecting a textbook that he considered suitable for each course. JT2's textbook selection is partly driven by his own learning experiences, so as we have seen, he uses the same NHK English conversation textbook as he used in learning how to speak English himself, and selected a writing textbook which suited his preference for adopting and adapting model sentences, which he derived from his success with the NHK system. In JT2's case, as in JT5's, the lack of curricular guidelines allows him to select and teach material consonant with his own beliefs about language, teaching and learning.

The provision of a course title without any further guidance is not always seen in a positive light, however. JT3, for example,

has a background teaching in a private language school, where teachers are provided with a more detailed curriculum. Working in this context, JT3 became accustomed to comprehensive curricular guidance, something she does not receive in the institution where this study took place. JT3 refers to this lack of direction from the department in a question to me:

I'm not quite sure, so this is also my question, what is the goal of this class? How far should I, or how deeply should I instruct the students to write? Thank you! [laughter] (JT3 SR: 185)

It is clear that JT3 experiences a tension between her desire for goals on which to base her course, and the department's lack of provision in this area. In the required first-year writing class which I observed, she appeared to use the textbook to help resolve this tension. The textbook brings with it a set of goals for the course overall, together with goals for each lesson. It seems possible that selecting and following a textbook in this course minimizes the tension between JT3's preference for clear goals in her course and the absence of a detailed curriculum. While this curriculum-based tension is not fully resolved by JT3 basing her lessons on the textbook, it is at least assuaged to the point where JT3 has a workable framework for her course.

The institution's relaxed language curriculum is received positively by JT2 and JT5, as it enables them to adopt pedagogic materials and practices based on their own successful learning experiences. JT3, however, would prefer more guidance from the department, as her experience teaching in a language school has accustomed her to working with a detailed curriculum. She turns to a textbook to provide her with the structure she requires in her lessons and course, but unlike JT2 and JT5, this does not seem related to aspects of her own experiences. These findings represent

an addition to the work done to date on the influence of curriculum on teachers' thinking and practices. The first existing position, exemplified by Woods (1991), holds that teachers' beliefs, assumptions and knowledge will influence teachers' individual interpretations of a curriculum, and that ELT programmes must allow for these interpretations. The second position, found in Smith (1996) and Nunan (1992), holds that when curricular objectives of a course are only loosely defined the relative freedom allowed the teachers permits them to plan their own courses, and has little influence on their decision-making. This second position seems to be close to JT2 and JT5's situation, but JT3 represents an additional position, in which the loosely defined curricular goals are seen not as a freedom but as an omission which hinders the teacher's work.

Colleagues

The teachers in this study work largely in isolation from their colleagues. They have their own offices where they prepare their lessons, and usually they would go directly from their office to the classroom, teach their lesson, and return to their office. There is no teachers' room where they can meet before and after lessons, or any formal arrangement for the exchange of ideas, and there is no culture of peer-observation in the department either.

The situation is such that the Japanese teachers in this study have no firsthand experience of their expatriate colleagues' classes, and vice versa; this does not, of course, prevent one group of teachers from making assumptions about the other. JT2 exemplifies a general perception among the Japanese teachers that the role of the native English-speaking expatriate teachers (ETs) is to teach communication:

People say Japanese teachers are interested in teaching

grammar or something right, and native or expatriate teachers teach how to communicate. That's the typical answer right, so for me maybe the same, yeah, for the most part (JT2 PI: 499-501)

Because of the presence of the ETs, and JT2's perception of their role, he felt that using the NHK textbook in the "communication" part of his class to be an adequate response to the students' desire for "practical" English, because "for the Japanese teachers it's difficult to conduct or plan a conversation class [...] so I expect native speakers, the native teachers to do that kind of class" (JT2 PI: 924-925). In JT2's view, the ETs' strengths lie in their abilities in spoken communication, freeing JT2 to concentrate on translating and explaining English texts, areas in which Japanese teachers are comparatively strong:

I think that's important and good for Japanese teachers to teach, right. Maybe native speaker teachers can teach the phrases, but they don't- it's difficult for the native speakers to convey the meaning in Japanese (JT2 PI: 148-150)

The clear delineation of JTs' and ETs' teaching roles in the teachers' perceptions frees each group of teachers from what is seen as problematic for them, and allows them to concentrate on teaching to their strengths. Teachers can, of course, work in the other group's strong area (ETs can provide translations or explanations in Japanese; JTs can, like JT2, teach spoken communication in some way) whenever this is thought to be beneficial for the students, but such practices are not perceived to be a key area of responsibility. Despite working in isolation, the JTs have perceptions and make assumptions about the native English-speaking teachers which have some effect on their own practices; teachers feel a sense of additional freedom in that they can teach to their own strengths with a clear

conscience (this is equally true of the native English-speaking teachers, who feel able to gloss over grammar in their lessons, as they assume that this is taught – and taught better – by the Japanese teachers). It is evident from the data analysed here that Japanese teachers' perceptions of the expatriate teachers contribute to their own sense of their pedagogical role.

Conclusion

This study set out to answer recent calls for research into the cognitions of non-native English-speaking teachers working in mainstream educational contexts; it also aimed to examine the influences on the cognition and practices of such teachers.

The Japanese university teachers of English who participated in the study had little recollection of their professional coursework, and turned to their own learning experiences in order to find ways of teaching English. These experiences had been in formal classrooms, informally, and in self-directed learning; they tended to have extensive effects on the teachers' thinking and practice. These ranged from JT5's literary text selection and JT2's choice of a textbook, to JT4's preference for relaxed classroom dynamics and JT5's empathy for her reticent students, to the overall design of JT5's reading course and JT2's writing course.

The teachers' imaginative utilization of their prior learning experiences was facilitated by the curriculum, which provided the title of a course but did not dictate specifically what or how it should be taught. The presence of a group of native English-speaking teachers in the department afforded all of the teachers a further degree of freedom, in that each group had generally accepted strengths and corresponding responsibilities and was not required to teach beyond these.

References

- Bailey, K. M. (1996). The best laid plans: Teachers' in-class decisions to depart from their lesson plans. In K. M. Bailey & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Voices From the Language Classroom: Qualitative Research in Second Language Education* (pp. 15-40). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bailey, K. M., Bergthold, B., Braunstein, B., Fleischman, N. J., Holbrook, M. P., Tuman, J., Waissbluth, X., & Zambo, L. J. (1996). The language learner's autobiography: Examining the "apprenticeship of observation". In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp. 11-29). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36, 81-109.
- Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher Cognition and Language Education*. London: Continuum.
- Breen, M. P., Hird, B., Milton, M., Oliver, R., & Thwaite, A. (2001). Making sense of language teaching: Teachers' principles and classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(4), 470-501.
- Burns, A. (1992). Teacher beliefs and their influence on classroom practice. *Prospect: A Journal of Australian TESOL*, 7(3), 56-66.
- Farrell, T. S. C. (1999). The reflective assignment: Unlocking pre-service English teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching. *RELC Journal*, 30(2), 1-17.
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2003). Learning to teach English language during the first year: Personal influences and challenges. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 19, 95-111.
- Freeman, D., & Richards, J. C. (Eds.). (1996). *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Golombek, P. R. (1998). A study of language teachers' personal practical knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(3), 447-464.
- Johnson, K. E. (1992). Learning to teach: Instructional actions and decisions of preservice ESL teachers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(3), 507-535.
- Johnson, K. E. (1994). The emerging beliefs and instructional practices of preservice English as a second language teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 10(4), 439-452.

- Johnson, K. E. (1996). The vision versus the reality: The tensions of the TESOL practicum. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp. 30-49). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Leonard, T. J. (1997). Evaluating student teachers' teaching practice [Electronic Version]. *The Language Teacher*, 21. Retrieved 6/4/07 from <http://jalt-publications.org/tlt/files/97/jun/shareleonard.html>.
- Medgyes, P. (1999). *The Non-native Teacher* (2nd ed.). Ismaning, Germany: Hueber.
- Moran, P. R. (1996). "I'm not typical": Stories of becoming a Spanish teacher. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp. 125-153). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mullock, B. (2006). The pedagogical knowledge base of four TESOL teachers. *Modern Language Journal*, 90(i), 48-66.
- Numrich, C. (1996). On becoming a language teacher: Insights from diary studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(1), 131-153.
- Nunan, D. (1992). The teacher as decision-maker. In J. Flowerdew, M. Brock & S. Hsia (Eds.), *Perspectives on Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 135-165). Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.
- Richards, J. C., & Pennington, M. (1998). The first year of teaching. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *Beyond Training* (pp. 173-190). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Shimahara, N. K. (1998). The Japanese model of professional development: Teaching as craft. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 14(5), 451-462.
- Smith, D. B. (1996). Teacher decision making in the adult ESL classroom. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp. 197-216). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Stigler, J. W., & Hiebert, J. (1999). *The Teaching Gap*. New York: The Free Press.
- Woods, D. (1991). Teachers' interpretations of second language teaching curricula. *RELC Journal*, 22(2), 1-19.
- Woods, D. (1996). *Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching: Beliefs, decision-making and classroom practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Yonesaka, S. (1999). The pre-service training of Japanese teachers of English [Electronic Version]. *The Language Teacher*, 23. Retrieved

16/3/07 from <http://www.jalt-publications.org/tlt/articles/1999/11/yonesaka>.