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**A STUDY ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF  
APPROACHES TO TEACHING  
ENGLISH GRAMMAR**

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**Tezin Adı** : İngilizce Dilbilgisi Öğretimi Yaklaşımları Gelişimi Üzerine Bir İnceleme

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## ÖZET

Son dönemlerde yapılan çalışmalar öğretmen düşünceleri üzerine yoğunlaşmasına rağmen, İngilizce öğretmenlerinin dilbilgisi öğretimiyle ilgili düşünceleri ve bu düşüncelerin sınıf içerisindeki uygulamaya etkileri üzerinde durulmamıştır. Bu çalışmayla bu alandaki boşluğun doldurulması planlanmıştır. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı pedagojik dilbilgisi kapsamını ve dilbilgisi öğretimi yaklaşımlarını tanımlamak, yapılan araştırma ve anket sonucunda araştırmanın evrenini oluşturan Trakya Üniversitesi bünyesinde görev yapan İngilizce okutmanlarının İngilizce dilbilgisi öğretim yaklaşımları üzerine bilgilerini ve ne ölçüde bu yaklaşımlardan faydalandıklarını ortaya çıkarmaktır. Bu amaca ulaşabilmek için Trakya Üniversitesinde görev yapan okutmanlara (34 kişi) üç bölümden oluşan otuz sorulu bir anket uygulanmıştır. Anket sonuçları SPSS 10.0 istatistik programlarıyla elde edilen verilere göre analiz edilmiştir.

Çalışmanın Giriş Bölümünde araştırma problemi tanıtılmış, çalışmanın amacına ve önemine değinilerek çalışmanın sınırlılıklarına yer verilmiştir. İkinci bölümde dilbilgisine, dilbilgisi çeşitlerine, dilbilgisi öğretimine kısa tarihsel bir bakışa, dilbilgisi öğretimine yönelik yaklaşımlara ve alan yazında önemli isimlerin dilbilgisi öğretimindeki düşüncelerine yer verilmektedir. Üçüncü bölümde araştırma modeli, evren ve örneklem, veri toplama araçları ve veri analizleri hakkında ayrıntılı bilgi verilmektedir. Dördüncü bölüm, bulgular ve yorumlar kısmından oluşmaktadır. Bu bölümde problem ve alt problemlere ilişkin araştırma sonuçlarına istatistiksel verilerle yer verilmektedir. Çalışmanın son bölümü, Beşinci Bölüm ise çalışmanın sonucuna ve önerilere değinmektedir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Dilbilgisi, Dilbilgisi Öğretimi Yaklaşımları, Dilbilgisi Öğretimi Üzerine Öğretmen Görüşleri.

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## **ABSTRACT**

Despite a recent increased interest in the area of teacher belief systems in mainstream education studies, the beliefs of EFL teachers about grammar and the influence of such beliefs on their intentions and actions in classroom practices remain relatively unexplored. The present study seeks to fill the knowledge gap left by a scarcity of research in this area. The aim of the study is to redefine the scope of pedagogical grammar and approaches to teaching English grammar at Trakya University. This study explores the beliefs of the instructors regarding the approaches to teaching English grammar and to what extent they use those approaches in their classrooms. To reach this aim, a questionnaire consisting of thirty items with three parts was administered to 34 instructors who work at Trakya University. The findings have been analyzed with the help of SPSS 10.0 program.

In the Introduction, the problem; the purpose, the significance of the study and the limitations of the study are presented. In Chapter II; grammar and typology of grammar, a brief historical view of grammar teaching, approaches to teaching English grammar and teachers' beliefs in teaching grammar are dealt with. Chapter III includes research model, population and sampling, data collection and the analysis of the data. In Chapter IV the findings have been discussed. The last Chapter of the study, Chapter V consists of the implications and the results of the study.

**Key Words:** Grammar, Approaches to Teaching Grammar, Teachers' beliefs in Grammar Teaching

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. Background of the Study

Grammar, according to Rutherford (1987: 9) is “a necessary component of any language teaching programme” and thus plays an important role in language teaching. However, the focus on grammar in language teaching has been challenged with the emergence of teaching methodologies based on different learning theories. Such a challenge has influenced not only the content and the curriculum in language teaching, but also the implications for teaching grammar. Thus, a fresh look at grammar seems necessary to encourage linguists and language educators to rethink the role of grammar instruction.

There has been an on-going debate whether to teach or not to teach grammar. This is where teaching professionals don't seem to agree. On the one hand some consider grammar to be a necessity for the language teaching, on the other hand others think that a meaning-based approach should be adopted in the language curriculum.

As a result of innovations in the teaching of English, different views, approaches and methodologies to grammar teaching have emerged for ESL and EFL teachers to choose from and to suit their learners and classroom environment.

The language teacher has to be aware of these innovations and find ways of conveying his knowledge into the learners' heads. This process is greatly influenced by approaches to grammar teaching and teachers' belief systems including their feelings and understandings of approaches. As a result, understanding how these

beliefs influence teachers' decisions in the classroom and when they teach grammar, might give useful insights into how educational practice can be improved.

In this study an attempt is made to give a comprehensive picture of grammar teaching approaches and grammatical paradigms in second and foreign language teaching. Finally, a small-scale research is presented focusing on English teachers' belief systems on grammar teaching. The data, thus obtained, provides the basis for drawing conclusions about grammar teaching in the English classrooms at Trakya University.

## **1.2. Statement of the Problem**

There are several approaches to teaching English grammar. However, the approaches the teachers adopt vary depending on the teachers' beliefs as it was stated by Williams and Burden (1997: 56).

In this perspective, this study was conducted to find out the belief systems of instructors about approaches to grammar teaching at Trakya University.

The research has been designed to answer the following questions:

1. What are the instructors' self-perceptions on their knowledge of grammar, grammar books and approaches to teaching English grammar?
2. Are the instructors for or against formal grammar instruction?
3. Which approach or approaches do the instructors adopt in teaching English grammar?
4. Is there a relationship between instructors' beliefs about approaches to teaching English grammar and their teaching experience?

In order to find answers to the research questions, a small-scale research involving 34 instructors of English was conducted. Their beliefs in grammar teaching were examined by the application of a belief inventory questionnaire. On the basis of the collected data, suggestions were offered to improve current grammar teaching practices at Trakya University.

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

The common issue which has emerged from the theoretical background of this study is that there is no well-defined taxonomy of approaches to teaching English grammar. This is due to the different views of professionals in grammar teaching. Different language teaching approaches have placed different emphasis on grammar in language teaching. When a new teaching approach emerges to rectify the inadequacy of the previous approaches, teachers who are the implementers of the new teaching approach may reserve their views and perceptions about teaching grammar according to the previous teaching approaches. These views and perceptions will shape their beliefs about teaching English grammar.

This study is aimed to find out the beliefs of the instructors in teaching grammar at Trakya University and to what extent they utilize *focus on forms*, *focus on form*, *grammaring* and *non-interventionist* approaches to grammar teaching.

### **1.4. Significance of the Study**

Nassaji and Fotos (2004: 126-145) in their article summarize the importance of reviewing the approaches to teaching grammar as follows:

*“With the rise of communicative methodology in the late 1970s, the role of grammar instruction in second language learning was downplayed, and it was even suggested that teaching grammar*

*was not only unhelpful but might actually be detrimental. However, recent research has demonstrated the need for formal instruction for learners to attain high levels of accuracy. This has led to a resurgence of grammar teaching, and its role in second language acquisition has become the focus of much current investigation.”*

As previously stated, in this study the major developments in the teaching of English grammar over the past few decades will be briefly reviewed; and by investigating the background of English language teaching practice at Trakya University, the belief systems of the instructors about approaches to teaching English grammar will also be revealed.

The findings of the study may be used as a content of any inservice teacher training course at Trakya University. In this way, teaching English grammar may become a discussed issue in which successful practices are adopted.

Another significance of the study is to integrate the innovations in recent research of grammar teaching into the curriculum of the ELT department at Trakya University.

Such a descriptive study on approaches to teaching English grammar hasn't been carried out at Trakya University so far, so this study is believed to provide significant contributions to English language instructors and may be a crucial resource for them.

## **1.5. Limitations of the Study**

This study is limited to:

- 1.** 2009-2010 academic year
- 2.** 34 instructors of English
- 3.** Instructors working at Trakya University

## 1.6. Definitions

In this section, basic terms especially the ones which were used commonly in this study will be defined and explained.

**Approach:** the theory, philosophy and principles underlying a particular set of teaching practices (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 29).

**Belief:** Mental acceptance of and conviction in the truth, actuality, or validity of something (<http://education.yahoo.com/reference/dictionary/entry/belief>).

**Cognition:** The store of beliefs, knowledge, assumptions, theories and attitudes about all aspects of their work which teachers hold and which have a powerful impact on teachers' classroom practices (Borg, 1998:19).

**Grammar:** The identification of systematic regularities in language (Batstone, 1994a: 136).



## **1.7. Abbreviations**

**GTM:** Grammar Translation Method

**DM:** Direct Method

**L2:** Second Language

**ALM:** Audio Lingual Method

**CLT:** Communicative Language Teaching

**SLA:** Second Language Acquisition

**TBL:** Task-based Learning

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### 2.1. Grammar

Various definitions of the term 'grammar' have been given in several dictionaries, and the term has also been defined by grammarians and others who work on language. Before starting the discussion of grammar, some of these definitions are as follows:

1. *"We shall use grammar in reference to the mechanism according to which language works when it is used to communicate with other people. We cannot see this mechanism concretely because it is represented rather abstractly in the human mind. One way of describing this mechanism is a set of rules which allow us to put words together in certain ways, but which do not allow others."* (Leech, Deuchar and Hoogenraad, 1982:51)
2. *"A description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. It usually takes into account the meanings and functions these sentences have in the overall system of the language. It may or may not include the description of the sounds of a language."* (Richards and Schmidt, 1992:161)
3. *"At its heart, then, grammar consists of two fundamental ingredients- syntax and morphology- and together they help us to identify grammatical forms which serve to enhance and sharpen the expression of meaning."* (Batstone, 1994b: 224)

4. *“Grammar is set of rules that define how words are combined or changed to form acceptable units of meaning within language.”* (Ur, 1996: 87)

5. *“...grammar(ing) is one of the dynamic linguistic processes of pattern formulation in language, which can be used by humans for making meaning in context-appropriate ways.”* (Larsen-Freeman, 2003: 142)

As observed in these definitions, the term ‘grammar’ refers to a common idea related to the overall structure of language, and this idea has found explanations in many different ways. In other words, they seek minimally to explain the same phenomena: how words are formed (morphology) and how words are combined (syntax).

Instead of discussing all these definitions one by one, an insight into the nature of the topic is desired to be given. By aiming to involve the purposes which are searching for pedagogical grammar in the learning environment and the real use of structures in the communicative context, the following interpretation of grammar by Leech for this dissertation is used:

*“I understand communicative grammar to mean an approach to grammar in which the goal is to explore and to formulate the relations between the formal events of grammar (words, phrases, sentences, and their categories and structures) and the conditions of their meaning and use. In linguistic terminology, this means relating syntax and morphology to semantics and pragmatics... ‘Grammar acquired progressively as a system... So grammatical*

*knowledge evolves organically, rather than growing in discrete steps” (1994:19).*

## **2.2. Types of Grammar**

The discussion of grammar types in literature is not clear and obvious. Crystal (2003: 208) distinguishes six types of grammar; descriptive grammar, prescriptive grammar, reference grammar, theoretical grammar, pedagogical grammar, and traditional grammar. On the other hand, Woods (1995: 5-13) puts forward another classification for grammar types: prescriptive and descriptive grammar, traditional grammar, phrase structure grammar, transformational-generative grammar and functional-systematic grammar.

However, Crystal’s and Wood’s lists are neither comprehensive nor adequate since they don’t provide a clear-cut classification. In their interpretation of grammar types, linguistic grammars are mixed with didactic grammars which have an aim to teach and also reflect the importance of grammar in language teaching.

The differing classification of grammar types and their interpretations raise questions of application for different purposes. These purposes constitute typology of grammars among which didactic grammar has a crucial role. Didactic considerations have a great effect on instructional practices, which are often referred to in the teaching process. In short, didactic grammars are important including descriptive grammar, prescriptive grammar, theoretical grammar and pedagogical grammar.

### **2.2.1. Prescriptive Grammar**

Till 16<sup>th</sup> century, Latin was the common language among nations, as a linguistics term, lingua franca. Latin language was dominant in the languages of science and trade and especially literature. In time, it started to give place to the

English language. A rise in English language resulted in English's becoming a lingua franca of today.

One of the reasons that speeded up the usage of English was the Industrial Revolution. Britain was the leading country in terms of industry and trade in the beginning of the 19th century. Most of the inventions of the Industrial Revolution were of British origin. The developments in England reached other countries and the foreigners needed to learn English to follow these developments. The developments spread to America after the World War II. There was one way to reach knowledge: English (Crystal, 1997:71-72).

In addition, Troike (1977, cited in Phillipson, 1992) adds that this remarkable development is ultimately the result of 17th, 18th, and 19th century British successes in conquest, colonization, and trade, but it was enormously accelerated by the emergence of the U.S.A as the major military power and technological leader in the aftermath of World War II.

In the meantime, there emerged an indispensable need for putting English in a set of rules. While making English rule-governed, the linguists adopted the rules of Latin. Since Latin was highly rule-governed, they had to adopt the rules that weren't in accordance with English itself. As a result, this brought about prescriptivism.

Grammars with rules that make distinctions between correct and incorrect forms are defined as prescriptive grammars. Richards and Schmidt (2002: 415) add that "prescriptive grammars are often based not on descriptions of actual usage but rather on the grammarian's views of what is best. Many traditional grammars are of this kind."

This argument can be pursued in Crystal (1997: 78) in more detail:

*“A manual that focuses on constructions where usage is divided, and lays down rules governing the socially correct use of language. These grammars were a formative influence on language attitudes in Europe and America during the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries. Prescriptive grammar states rules for what is considered the best or most correct usage. They are often based not on description of actual usage but rather on the grammarian’s view of what is best. Most of the traditional grammars are of this kind.”*

The view put forward above explains why many usage and style books for native speakers were written in the light of prescriptive grammar. One of the earliest and most influential prescriptive grammars is “Fowler’s Modern English Usage” (1926). These kinds of books put forward a set of standard rules. These rules are guidelines for a standard of English. From this perspective, the learners should learn the prescriptive grammar but they should also be provided with the information that in some cases those rules may be violated.

### **2.2.2. Descriptive Grammar**

The origins of descriptive grammar can be traced back to descriptive studies after Saussure’s views on language. Saussure argues that language should be studied synchronically rather than diachronically. With his views, linguistics based on descriptive studies came to light.

Akmajian et al. (1995: 7) state that “when linguists speak of rules, they are not referring to prescriptive rules. Rather, linguists try to formulate descriptive rules when they analyze language...”. Those descriptive studies had also great effect on grammar by making it descriptive at the same time.

Unlike prescriptive grammar, descriptive grammar tries to avoid making judgments about correctness, and concentrates on describing and explaining the way people actually use language. (Nunan, 2005: 3).

Partly for this reason, it is inevitable that descriptive grammar aims to describe language as it is actually used and represents speakers' unconscious knowledge or mental grammar of the language.

### **2.2.3. Theoretical Grammar**

Theoretical grammar has been dealt with by various authors. According to Corder (1973: 324), theoretical grammars are generative grammars that linguists use to gain insight into human language. They are often called scholarly grammars trying to validate a particular theoretical language model.

The line of argument has been further developed by Crystal (1992: 36). He has pointed out that “theoretical grammar, in this context, goes beyond the study of individual languages, using linguistic data as a means of developing insights into the nature of language as such, and into the categories and processes needed for linguistic analyses.”

The views put forward above shows that there is some uncertainty in the literature about the allocation of grammar books to the types of grammar. A classic illustration often cited is “A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language” (1985) by Quirk et al., being labeled as reference grammar by Crystal, but as descriptive grammar by the authors themselves.

The confusion about the identification of the different grammar types comes from the fact that the writers have completely different perspectives and target

audience in mind. Linguists, applied linguists and teachers have different reasons, perspectives and target audience when describing the same object, grammar.

#### **2.2. 4. Pedagogical Grammar**

“A grammar is expected to state rules in terms of general statements, to describe how structures behave in a predictable, rule-governed way” (DeCarrico and Larsen-Freeman in Schmidt, 2002: 20).

It is important in this context to try to distinguish between those rules. In defense of this view, three types of rules have been suggested by Thornbury (1999:11): prescriptive rules, descriptive rules and pedagogic rules. He defines pedagogic rules as “rules that make sense to learners while at the same time providing them with the means and confidence to generate language with a reasonable chance of success.” These rules that constitute a whole grammar are sometimes referred as pedagogical grammar.

Cameron (2001:100) states that “pedagogical grammars are explicit descriptions of patterns, or rules, in a language, presented in ways that are helpful to teachers and to learners.”

Thornbury (2006:92) handles the same topic as in the excerpt below:

*“Pedagogical grammar is more selective than a linguist’s grammar and while it is not intentionally prescriptive, it will probably be based on a standard form of the language. It will therefore exclude usages that are considered non-standard (such as I ain’t got none; Me and my sister went shopping), even when these are used by a large number of native speakers.”*



In support of this argument, Thornbury describes that most pedagogical grammars are formal rather than functional: they are organized around structural categories, rather than functional ones.

Pedagogical grammar is beneficial for language teachers as well as students. However, they apply it for different purposes.

As for pedagogical grammar for foreign language teachers, Cameron (2001:100) points to the fact that “teachers need an overview and description of the whole of the language that is to be taught”. A distinction should be made between native speaker teachers and non-native speaker teachers. While the aim of a pedagogical grammar for native speakers is to raise awareness of the mother tongue, a pedagogical grammar for non-native teachers aims to present the facts of language in a form which will help teachers to present grammar to their own learners.

Grammar for learners is referred to as practical grammar. It helps learners to learn a language and understand the rules of the target language. It can serve them a reference or course work, as Cameron (2001:100) states learners will encounter the pedagogical grammar bit by bit, as parts of it are introduced in textbook units.

### **2.3. A Brief Historical View of Grammar Teaching**

When the theoretical underpinnings of various approaches are analyzed, two main streams of thought can be distinguished. Rivers (1981:25) defines them as formalists and activists. Formalists emphasize studying language forms and learning the rules of those forms while activists emphasize the apprehension of those rules by the students. It should also be noted that activists prefer students develop a rule or generalization after they have heard certain forms and use them in a number of ways.

The key point to note is that formalists are usually concerned with the details of grammar. But, activists have consistently urged a functional approach to structure. Yet another important point to note between activists and formalists is that the formalists emphasize teaching of the language while the activists are more interested in providing opportunities for the students to learn the language (Rivers, 1981:26-27).

Whereas earlier accounts emphasized the mainstreams of thought under language teaching over centuries, it remains to ask how these tendencies took place in the methods and approaches in teaching English grammar.

In Europe before the sixteenth century, the only language which people wished to learn as a foreign language was Latin because it was supposed to promote learners intellectual ability. It was also thought that by learning Latin people became scholarly (Keskil, 2000:7).

After Renaissance, people started to be interested in other European Languages (Keskil, 2000: 7). When modern languages were thought as part of the curriculum in the early eighteenth century, they were generally taught using the same method as Latin. Kitao and Kitao have stated that the analysis of the grammar and rhetoric of Classical Latin was the model language teaching between eighteenth and twentieth centuries (<http://www1.doshisha.ac.jp/~kkitao/library/article/tesl-his.htm> ).

Late in the nineteenth century, the method came to be known as the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). GTM was dominant in Europe from the 1840s to the 1940s. In GTM grammar is taught deductively. Students are presented new grammar rules and are made to practice them through translation exercises (Larsen-Freeman, 1986:9-10).

Since GTM didn't attach importance to speaking, the demand for ability to speak a foreign language made many reformers begin to reconsider a new methodology. The new methodology was essentially based on the way children learn their native language.

Those ideas spread, and the Direct Method (DM) rose. It was developed as a reaction to GTM. In contrast to GTM, grammar rules are not explicitly taught; rather, they are assumed to be learned through practice. Students are encouraged to form their own generalizations about grammar through inductive method (Hadley, 2001:108-109).

In fairness to DM, yet the advocates of this method didn't realize that DM could be successful only if the students had high amounts of second language (L2) exposure in second language learning settings. In foreign language settings, where the exposure is limited to the hours of instruction in the classroom, DM usually resulted in fluency with no accuracy (Mojgan and Arshya, 2007: 36).

With the outbreak of the World War II in 1939, American Military authorities discovered that there was inadequate supply of interpreters for communication with their allies. In that war time setting, understanding a native speaker and speaking a language with near-native accent were the first priorities (Rivers, 1981:38).

Related to these arguments, Rivers (1981:40) points out:

*“The new emphasis on being able to communicate in another language led to the coining of the term ‘aural-oral’ for a method which aimed at developing listening and speaking skills first, as the foundation on which to build the skills of reading and writing. As ‘aural-oral’ was found to be confusing and difficult to*

*pronounce, Brooks suggested the term 'audio-lingual' for this method."*

As for grammar teaching in Audio Lingual Method (ALM), there is little or no grammatical explanation; grammar is taught via an inductive way rather than deductive way. The application of this concept in ALM techniques took the form of mimicry-memorization and structural pattern drilling.

In the late 1950s, Noam Chomsky's claim, that language learning is not habituated behavior but an innate human capacity, resulted in a reassessment of drill-and-repeat type teaching practices (Thornbury, 1999:21). The claim that we are equipped at birth for language acquisition also led to Krashen's belief, that formal instruction was unnecessary. His Natural Approach does away with both a grammar syllabus and explicit rule-giving. However, the lack of formal organization of grammar can cause error fossilization in the long-term run (Thornbury, 1999:21).

In 1960s, the work of the Council of Europe prompted the idea of grouping language exponents according to their communicative functions like apologizing, requesting, advising, etc. The studies led to the development of notional-functional syllabus. At that time, Dell Hymes proposed 'Communicative Competence' against Chomsky's 'Linguistic Competence'. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001: 153-154) communicative competence means what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech society. Notional-functional syllabus together with communicative competence formed the backbone of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

CLT is considered to consist of two versions put forward by Thornbury: 'shallow-end CLT' and 'deep-end CLT' (1999: 22). According to Thornbury, shallow-end version of CLT didn't reject grammar instruction, since this belief was around at about the time when Chomsky claimed that language was rule-governed.

During this period, grammar rules reappeared in course books and grammar teaching reemerged in classrooms.

Deep-end CLT, on the other hand rejected any type of grammar instruction. A leading proponent of this view was N.S. Prabhu who attempted to replicate natural acquisition processes by getting students to work through a syllabus of tasks (Thornbury, 1999: 22).

## **2.4. New Trends in Teaching Grammar**

With the rise of communicative methodology, the role of grammar was downplayed. The premise that the communicative methodology would help learners develop both communicative and linguistic competence didn't always happen (Nassaji and Fotos, 2004:126). However, recent research has shown that there is a need for formal instruction via attention to form; in other words, a focus on form. This has led to the revival of grammar teaching, and its role in second language acquisition has become the focus of current investigation.

The sense that we are experiencing a grammar revival has been underlined by the emergence of two influential theoretical concepts: noticing and consciousness-raising.

### **2.4.1. Noticing**

Noticing can be defined as a condition which is necessary if the language a student is exposed to is to become language that he or she intakes in (Doughty, 2003: 291). Harmer (2001: 73) also suggests that unless the student notices the new language, he or she is unlikely to process it, and therefore the chances of learning are slim.

Noticing is considered to be a lower level of form of consciousness. Therefore, it plays an important role in converting input into intake in second language learning.

Rather than teaching an item of language, teachers' job should be raising the noticeability of that item in the minds of the students; in other words, helping the students to notice it the next time and little by little.

### **2.4.2. Consciousness-raising**

Various definitions have been made for consciousness-raising by the leading professionals. However, these definitions have some conflicting ideas with one another. This is because how the professionals regard the term consciousness-raising.

The term consciousness-raising was first introduced by Sharwood-Smith (1981: 160). In their view of consciousness-raising, it refers to deliberate attempts on the part of teachers to raise learners' awareness of the formal features of the language.

As a next step, Rutherford (1987: 189) defines the term as "the drawing of the learner's attention to the features of the target language". It is important to realize that Rutherford's consciousness-raising focuses on aspects of grammar without necessarily using explicit rules or technical jargon. It helps learners to discover the rules of language for themselves by focusing on the target structures.

Ellis has also been among the supporters of the view "consciousness-raising" by suggesting that through consciousness-raising, learners become aware of particular features of the target language and form explicit presentation of what they are taught (1990: 15).

As already noted, the essential difference between Ellis' and Sharwood-Smith's consciousness-raising is that while Ellis' may include the presentation of explicit rules, it is unacceptable for Sharwood-Smith's.

Partly for Ellis' and some others' views on second language acquisition (SLA), it is important to have occasional lessons where learners' attention is drawn to forms, often in the shape of an explicit rule, involving discussion of examples, and some intellectual efforts (Ur, 2009: 4).

## **2.5. The Grammar Debate: To Teach or Not To Teach**

The role of grammar instruction in the second or foreign language curriculum has been under debate in the past thirty years. In order to find an answer to this question, researchers have investigated whether L2 instruction promotes L2 acquisition.

Some professionals adopt a "zero position". They claim that L2 learning is very similar to L1 acquisition; therefore the teaching of grammar has only minimal effect on the acquisition of linguistic competence in a second language (Fotos and Ellis, 1991:605). However, the claim put forward by these professionals has not been proved by empirical studies (Akar, 2005: 7).

Other professionals believe that instruction without attention to form may lead to the development of a broken and an ungrammatical form of language; thus, learners may run the risk of fossilization (Akar, 2005:7).

In support of formal instruction, the following four theoretical arguments from literature have been summarized by Nassaji and Fotos (2004: 127-128):

1. Some researchers, such as Schmidt (1990), proved that “noticing” is one of the necessities for learning to take place.
2. Some researchers, such as Pienemann (1984), found that grammar instruction can accelerate the process of learning some structures.
3. Swain (1985) and his colleagues concluded that the most effective way to improve the ability to use grammar accurately is to use formal instruction.
4. During the last twenty years, considerable empirical classroom teaching research has demonstrated that grammar instruction has great effect on SLA.

Besides the theoretical underpinnings stated above as to why grammar should be included in the curriculum, there are several reasons put forward by the other professionals:

5. Many EFL / ESL students are required to pass a standardized national and international exam to proceed with their plans, such as being accepted to a university, or progressing in their professions (Celce-Murcia and Hills, 1988: 4).
6. The study of a foreign language grammar will help students better understand their own language structure (Weaver, 1996: 7).
7. Without knowing the rules of a language, it is difficult to make comprehensible sentences (Swan, 2002: 151).



8. A good knowledge of grammar enables learners to communicate successfully (Swan, 2002: 152).

Apart from those stated above, in “How to Teach Grammar”, Thornbury (1999: 15-17) has also listed the following items:

9. Knowledge of grammar provides the learner with the means to generate a potentially enormous number of original sentences.
10. The teaching of grammar serves as a corrective against ambiguity.
11. Learners who receive no instruction fossilize sooner than those who receive instruction.
12. Since language is a gigantic mass for learners, grammar helps to reduce the enormity of the task by organizing it into need categories.
13. Grammar lends itself to a view of teaching and learning known as transmission by offering a structural system that can be taught and tested in methodical steps.
14. Regardless of the theoretical and ideological arguments for or against grammar teaching, many learners come to language classes with fairly fixed expectations as to what they will do there.

Judged by the accounts above, it seems clear that knowledge of grammar rules is essential for the mastery of a language, and it should be used as a means of discovering, comprehending and producing purposeful meaning within the context of real life language use (Akar, 2005: 9).

## **2.6. Form-focused vs. Meaning-focused Instruction**

When the accounts stated above have been analyzed, there lie two poles as to whether to teach grammar or not. While one is against any form of formal instruction, the other is in favor of grammar instruction. Just because of this reason, there seems to be two types of instruction: form-focused instruction and meaning-focused instruction.

A basic distinction has been drawn between form-focused and meaning focused instruction. According to Ellis (1990: 14-16), in the case of form-focused instruction, the learner is engaged in activities that have been specially designed to teach specific grammatical features. In the case of the latter, the learner is engaged in communication where the primary effort involves the exchange of meaning and where there is no conscious effort to achieve grammatical correctness.

At the same time, it could be argued that the term “form-focused instruction” serves as a generic term for any form of grammar teaching even “corrective feedback/ error correction”.

As for the application of form-focused instruction, Long and Robinson (1998: 15) suggest two types of form-focused instruction: “focus on forms” and “focus on form”, which will be discussed in detail in the following part.

## **2.7. Approaches to Teaching English Grammar**

The last twenty years have seen a change in focus on methodologies in the field of grammar teaching and learning. Those changes have led to the reorganization of taxonomies for grammar instruction.

Four approaches to teaching English grammar will be presented here: Focus on forms, focus on form, grammaring, and non-interventionist approach that calls for no explicit instruction. The taxonomy adopted from the recent research has been presented in Figure 1.

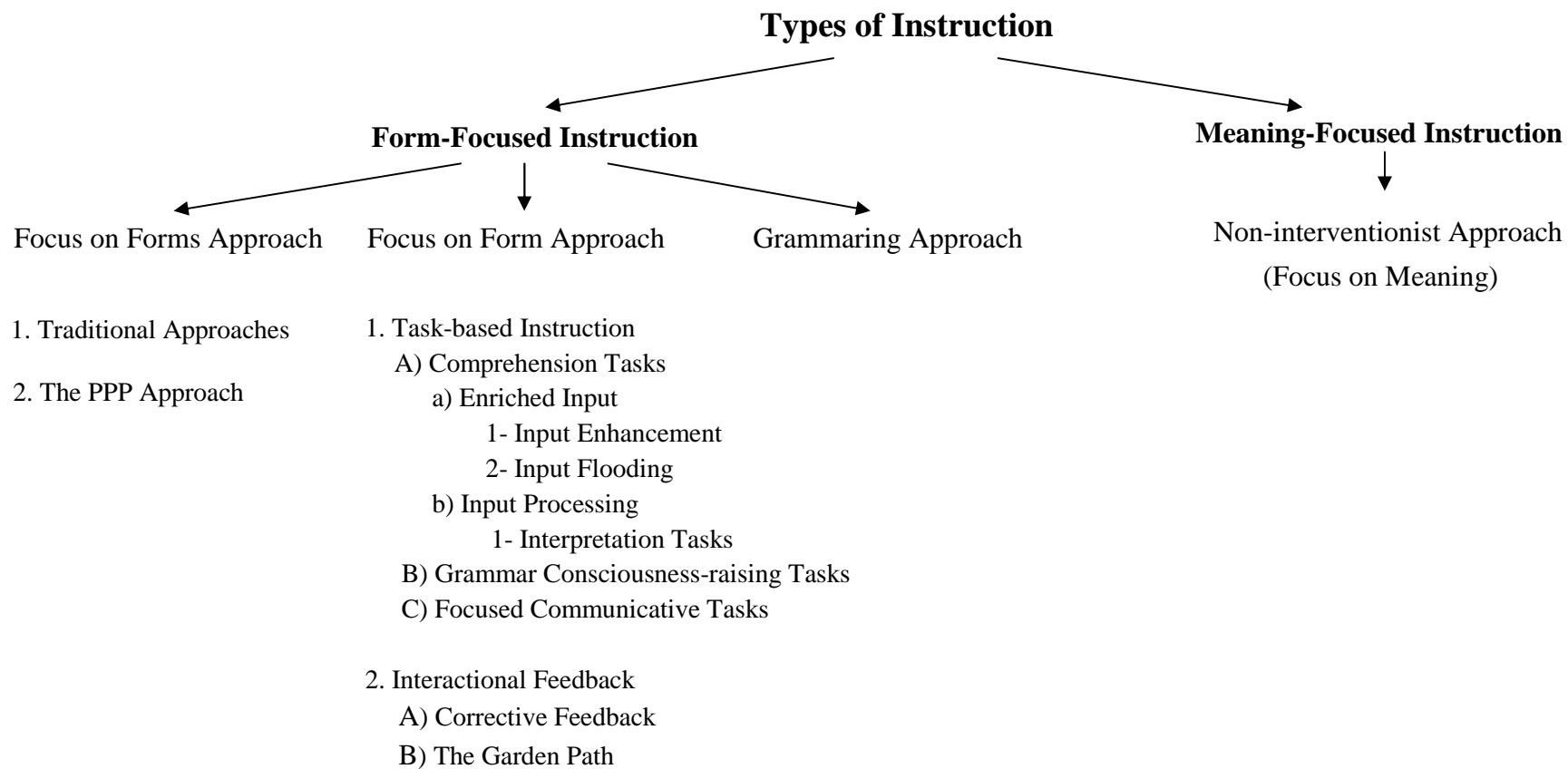


Figure 1: A Suggested Taxonomy of Approaches to Teaching English Grammar

### 2.7.1. Focus on Forms

The term “focus on forms” is used synonymously with the traditional approach to grammar teaching, which uses a synthetic approach to syllabus design and is accompanied by synthetic methods such as the Grammar Translation Method, the Audio-lingual Method or the PPP Approach.

Harmer (2007: 53) argues that:

*“Many language syllabuses and course books are structured around a series of language forms. Teacher and students focus on them one by one because they are on the syllabus. This is called “focus on forms” because one of the chief organizing principles behind a course is the learning of these forms.”*

Ellis (1991: 609) points out that most traditional approaches to grammar teaching are based on providing the learners with opportunities to use the target structure first in controlled practice and then in free or communicative practice.

Related to this statement, lessons with traditional grammar instruction are composed of three phases: presentation, practice and production, often referred to the “PPP” model. But nowadays it is also regarded as an approach since it takes a stand against the “focus on form” approach.

A distinction should be made between “focus on forms” and “focus on form”. The former starts with the presentation of the target structure and goes on to practice or developmental skills activity; the latter reverses the normal sequence, putting communication or developmental skills activity first rather than selecting and presenting a grammar structure in advance of its use in context (Larsen-Freeman, 2001: 256).

The *focus on forms* approach is opposed by authorities for several reasons. First, despite knowing the grammar rules, students fail to apply them in communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2009: 523). Second, it ignores the language learning process. Third, the idea that what you teach is what learners learn is simply not true (Pienemann, 1989: 54).

However, *focus on forms* is still the widely used grammar approach in second or foreign language teaching.

### **2.7.2. Focus on Form**

Different from the *focus on forms* approach, “focus on form” approach suggests drawing learners’ attention to linguistic forms as they arise in activities whose primary focus is on meaning (Cook, 2001: 39).

Harmer (2007: 53) points out that focus on form can happen at any stage of a learning sequence as the result of intervention by the teacher, or because students themselves notice a language feature.

Two means of *focus on form* approach have been proposed. These are as follows:

- Task-based Instruction
- Interactional Feedback

### **a. Task-based Instruction**

Many methodologists have concentrated not so much on the nature of language input but on the output that is carried through tasks that students are involved in.

In task-based learning (TBL) a task is defined as an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective (Rashtchi and Keyvanfar, 2007: 109).

Based on this definition, TBL is goal-oriented, leading to a solution as a product. Despite the emphasis on communication and interaction, it is important to note that the TBL approach is concerned with accuracy as well as fluency (McDonough and Shaw, 2005: 48).

If a task is designed in a way that the learner is free to convey their intended meaning with any linguistic resources they want, the task is considered to be unfocused. However some other tasks are designed in a way to elicit learners' attention to particular linguistic forms in order to accomplish the task. These types of tasks are labeled as focused tasks (Rashtchi and Keyvanfar, 2007: 111).

In the light of the above arguments, various focused tasks to grammar instruction have been proposed. The ones that have vital importance in the recent literature and that will be presented in this study are as follows:

- Comprehension Tasks
- Grammar Consciousness-raising Tasks
- Focused Communicative Tasks

## **a.1. Comprehension Tasks**

These tasks go under various names: comprehension tasks, interpretation tasks and structured-input tasks. According to Ellis (2003: 158) comprehension tasks are based on the assumption that acquisition occurs as a result of input-processing.

In these types of tasks, the input is contrived to induce noticing of predetermined forms; that is, syntactic processing is required (Ellis, 2003: 158).

This syntactic processing happens in two ways: Enriched Input and Input Processing.

### **a.1.1. Enriched Input**

It is believed that not all of the input that learners are exposed to is utilized as “intake” for learning. Therefore recent research in SLA has examined the role of attention in mediating input and learning.

Ellis (2001: 20) handles the idea by describing the aim of enriched input, “to induce noticing of the target form in the context of meaning-focused activity”.

According to Larsen-Freeman (2001: 257) one of the ways of promoting students’ noticing a particular grammatical structure is to highlight it in some fashion.

Highlighting (enriching) the input can be in the form of “input enhancement” and “input flooding” (Ellis, 2001: 21).



### **a.1.1.1. Input Enhancement**

Input enhancement is a method used for highlighting the target form by bold-facing, italicizing, underlining or capitalizing in order to draw students' attention to it (Larsen-Freeman, 2009: 525).

In so doing, as DeCarrico and Larsen-Freeman stated, certain features of the input becomes more salient to the learners and thus notice the form (2002: 31).

### **a.1.1.2. Input Flooding**

A second means of drawing learners' attention to the target form is input flooding. According to DeCarrico and Larsen-Freeman, it means that increasing the number of times that students encounter the target structure in a particular text (2002: 31). For example, talking about historical events would give learners abundant opportunities to notice the past tense.

This type of text adjustment is considered to be the most "unobtrusive" way of focusing on form by Doughty and Williams (1998: 258).

## **a. 1.2. Input Processing**

In a series of studies, Bill VanPatten and his colleagues argued that L2 learners have difficulty in attending simultaneously to meaning and form. To remedy this problem, VanPatten has proposed "Input Processing" (Larsen-Freeman, 2009: 524).

Input processing is a process whereby learners are guided to pay attention to a feature in the target language input (Lightbown and Spada, 2003: 133).

According to Ellis (2003: 159) processing instruction employs interpretation tasks.

### **a.1.2.1. Interpretation Tasks**

Aiming to pay attention to specific grammatical forms, some researchers designed activities called either grammar interpretation tasks or structured-input tasks. According to Thornbury (1999: 105) such tasks require learners to process input which has been specially structured so as to help them understand the target item. There is no immediate necessity to produce the item; or to use the meta-language.

Ellis (2003:160) lists some general principles for designing this kind of focused tasks:

- *An interpretation task consists of a stimulus to which learners must make some kind of response.*
- *The stimulus can take the form of spoken or written input.*
- *The response can take various forms, for example, indicate true-false, check a box, select the correct picture, draw a diagram, perform an action, but in each case the response will be completely non verbal or minimally verbal.*
- *The activities in the task can be sequenced to require first attention to meaning, then noticing the form and function of the grammatical structure, and finally error identification.*

- *Learners should have the opportunity to make some kind of personal response, i.e. relate the input to their own lives.*

### **a. 2. Grammar Consciousness-raising Tasks**

This approach has been dealt with by several authors. While some use the term “consciousness-raising tasks” (Ellis, 2001; Larsen-Freeman, 1991), the others preferred to use the term “grammar consciousness-raising tasks” (Nitta and Gardner, 2005) or “grammar tasks” (Ellis, 1991).

DeCarrico and Larsen-Freeman (2002: 30) define grammar consciousness-raising tasks as:

*“a pedagogical activity in which students are given data, such as a set of grammatical and ungrammatical sentences, and are encouraged to discover the grammatical generalization for themselves.”*

The definition stated above shows that grammar consciousness-raising tasks require learners to communicate with each other about target grammar structures; thus the grammar forms are the task content (Nassaji and Fotos, 2004: 135).

To address this argument, Ellis (2002: 166-172) suggests the following processes to take place in grammar consciousness-raising tasks:

1. *Noticing (the learner becomes conscious of the presence of a linguistic feature in the input, whereas previously she had ignored it)*

2. *Comparing (the learner compares the linguistic feature noticed in the input with her own mental grammar, registering to what extent there is a gap between the input and her grammar)*
3. *Integrating or restructuring (the learner integrates a representation of the new linguistic feature into her mental grammar)*

Grammar consciousness-raising tasks also have their limitation, though. Fotos and Ellis (1991: 623) state the following limitations:

1. *Some learners may not wish to talk about grammar. They may find it a boring topic or they may find it difficult to discuss because they lack the metalinguistic knowledge needed to do so.*
2. *Learners may resort extensively to the use of their first language during a grammar task.*
3. *It is also possible that consciousness-raising tasks are less suitable for beginners, partly because such learners are not able to talk in L2, and partly because grammar as a discussion topic is less appropriate at this level.*

### **a. 3. Focused Communicative Tasks**

Focused communicative tasks are the type of tasks that have become widely used since the advent of the task-based approach to second language teaching.

According to Ellis (2001: 21) the aim with focused communicative tasks is to provide opportunities for learners to produce a particular target form. This is done by designing tasks around a communicative setting. Such tasks have all the characteristics of communicative tasks. That is, meaning is primary and there is real-world relationship.

Acquisition of target forms is considered incidental, and not the intended purpose is the case with functional language teaching. Ellis (2001: 21) states that the distinction between focused communicative tasks and functional language teaching lies in the perspective that with the former learners see language as a tool which can be used to communicate in a near real-world communicative situation. With functional language teaching the perspective falls more heavily on the language on the particular form or forms that need to be dealt with in order to complete an activity successfully.

### **b. Interactional Feedback**

Feedback is also seen to be a necessary part of grammar instruction. Some have argued that feedback is not one-sided in L2 learning, and proposed the term “interactional feedback”.

Interactional feedback refers to various negotiations and modification strategies such as repetitions, clarification requests, confirmation checks, and the like which are made by learners or directed to them to facilitate understanding (Nassaji and Fotos, 2004: 132).

Some researchers have made a distinction between two types of negotiations; negotiation of meaning and negotiation of form.

While negotiation of meaning refers to conversational strategies used to signal or repair problems in communication; negotiation of form refers to interactional strategies used mainly to respond erroneously used forms (Nassaji and Fotos, 2004: 133).

As for the application of negotiation of form in L2 classes, there are two techniques: “Corrective Feedback” and “the Garden Path”

### **b.1. Corrective Feedback**

Corrective feedback is a technique which teachers usually apply in L2 classrooms. Lightbown and Spada (2003:172) points out that it is an indication to a learner that his or her use of the target language is incorrect. This includes a variety of responses that a language learner receives.

Corrective feedback can be explicit or implicit, and may or may not include meta-language.

Recent research draws attention to one of the implicit feedback, recasts. Recasts involve the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of a student’s utterance (Lightbown and Spada, 2003:105).

Recasts are thought to be one way in which learners acquire new linguistic structures or come to notice the ones they are using are not correct (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 447).

### **b.2. The Garden Path**

“The Garden Path” is another technique for negotiation of form by using negative feedback. Larsen-Freeman (2001: 257) states that garden path means giving

students information about structure without giving them the full picture, thus making it easier than it is.

In doing so, learners are deliberately encouraged to formulate their own general grammatical rules for the target language. When they overgeneralize the grammar rules, then they are overtly corrected.

The underlying assumption of this technique made by DeCarrico and Larsen-Freeman is:

*“When students overgeneralize the rule and commit an error, the negative feedback they receive will be more successful in their acquiring the exceptions than if they were given a list of exceptions in advance.” (2002:31)*

### **2.7.3. Grammaring Approach**

In this approach grammar is regarded as a skill rather than an area of knowledge (Larsen-Freeman, 2003: 143). Therefore, learning grammar should be much more than sorting knowledge about the rules, it should be a process of acquiring how to use the rules.

Several professionals used different terms for the approach. Batstone (1994) named it the “process approach” to grammar; Thornbury (2001) calls the process “grammaticization”; and Larsen-Freeman (2003) “grammaring”.

According to Larsen-Freeman (2009:526) the addition of ‘ing’ to grammar is meant to suggest a dynamic process of grammar using. This process can be pursued in Batstone (1994a: 104). For him, learners start using the language with

words in the early stages. Afterwards they appear to shift gradually from words to grammar. Thus, learners progressively learn to grammaticize, that is to say, apply grammar to their language.

Batstone (1994a:104) criticizes that while language learning may well follow this route, language teaching certainly does not. It starts from grammar to lexis rather than from lexis to grammar.

As noted above, learners should be provided with words instead of fully formed grammatical items, and should be allowed to do the grammaticizing for themselves.

In order to realize this goal, it is suggested that learners use their grammatical resources to develop and expand information presented in the form of notes in which grammatical features are reduced or even omitted (Cullen, 2008:225).

#### **2.7.4. Non-Interventionist Approach**

One of the most debated topics in SLA has been how language input should be presented in the language classroom. Some SLA researchers claim an approach that includes a focus on the grammatical form. In contrast, others contest that there is no place for a focus on grammar in L2. It is meaningful communication that should be emphasized.

This debate has recently been discussed in terms of non-interventionist (Johnson and Johnson, 1999: 150; Larsen-Freeman, 2009: 524) or focus on meaning (Ellis, 1994: 571).



The underlying assumption of non-interventionist position is that explicit grammar instruction has very little impact on the natural acquisition process; therefore studying grammar rules can never lead to their unconscious deployment in fluent communication. The only way to acquire grammar for students is to get exposure to comprehensible input in the target language, where the input is finely-tuned to the students' level of proficiency (Larsen-Freeman, 2009: 524).

The assumption put forward above explains why a focus on meaning approach that holds a non interventionist position is concerned with getting the L2 learner to concentrate solely on the understanding the message being conveyed.

A focus on meaning approach can be widely found in contemporary English language classrooms, in techniques such as Krashen and Terrel's Natural Approach, some content-based ESL instruction and immersion programmes (Ellis, 1994: 571).

The language teacher has to be aware of the approaches stated above on teaching English grammar. In addition to this, the belief systems of teachers should be closely examined in order to improve their further educational practices.

## **2.8. Teacher Cognition and Teachers' Beliefs**

The term "teacher cognition" is synonymously used with teachers' pedagogical knowledge in literature. The area started to emerge in America in the early 1970s with the aim of describing teachers' thoughts, decisions and judgments. Since then, the relationship between teachers' thinking and the impact of their knowledge and beliefs in instructional practices has increasingly attracted educational researchers' attention, first in America then elsewhere (Barnard and Scampton, 2008: 61).

According to Borg (1998:19) teacher cognition includes “the store of beliefs, knowledge, assumptions, theories and attitudes about all aspects of their work which teachers hold and which have a powerful impact on teachers’ classroom practices.

Teachers and learners bring into the classroom their own views of the target language, teaching methods and techniques. These views constitute their beliefs in language teaching. Borg (2001:186) defines teachers’ beliefs as a term usually used to refer to teachers’ pedagogic beliefs.

In their book, *Psychology for Language Teachers*, (1997: 56), Williams and Burden argue that teachers are highly influenced by their beliefs, which in turn are closely linked to their values and to their views of the world.

### **2.8.1. Teachers’ Beliefs in Grammar Teaching**

Another area of investigation within language teacher cognition is the teachers’ beliefs in grammar teaching. These beliefs play an important role in influencing teachers’ instructional decisions in grammar teaching.

Many teachers conduct their classes as they have always conducted them, unaware of the fact that approaches and methods accordingly objectives in language teaching may be changing around them (Rivers, 1981: 7).

Weaver (1996: 26-25) surveyed participants in her workshops and concluded that teachers teach grammar in traditional ways. Weaver states the following reasons:

1. Teachers are unaware of or do not believe the research.
2. Teachers believe that grammar study at least does no harm.
3. Teachers believe that it worked for them when they were students, because they are proficient in the language now.
4. Teachers feel that they have neither time nor the knowledge to create lessons around more constructivist approaches to teaching grammar.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1. Introduction

This present study is an attempt to give a comprehensive picture of grammar teaching approaches in foreign language teaching. In order to understand how instructors at Trakya University deal with the approaches to teaching English grammar, it is necessary to examine the beliefs that underlie instructors' instructional practices. Therefore, a questionnaire focusing on instructors' belief systems about English grammar teaching was conducted. The information thus gained provides the basis for drawing conclusions about grammar teaching in the English classrooms at Trakya University.

#### 3.2 Research Method

Despite the increased interest in the area of teacher beliefs, research in literature has focused on two areas: teachers' knowledge of grammar and teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching. In this context, this study is conducted with a descriptive method by which quantitative data was obtained. To be more specific, Ekmeççi asserts that the descriptive research methodology is used "to describe systematically the facts and characteristics of a given population or area of interest, factually and accurately" (Ekmeççi, 1997: 62).

#### 3.3. Population and Sampling

There are 48 English instructors working at Trakya University, The questionnaire was sent to the instructors via email, yet a total of 34 instructors responded to the questionnaire. The participants work at various departments within

the university. Their ages vary from 22 to 50. At the time of data collection, all the participants were in the middle of the second semester 2009-2010 academic year.

Since the number of instructors who were administered the questionnaire is 48 in total, there is no sampling from whom the survey findings are to be generalized. In this respect, it is aimed to investigate the whole population in this study.

### **3.4. Data Collection**

The research was quantitative in design, and the data for this study was collected via a belief inventory questionnaire (See the Appendix A). The preparation of the questionnaire will be described in detail in the following section.

#### **3.4.1. The Questionnaire**

A belief inventory questionnaire was administered to 34 instructors working at Trakya University. The questionnaire was designed to reveal what beliefs instructors at Trakya University hold about teaching English grammar. The questionnaire consists of three sections. Section one asks information about the backgrounds of the participants. Section two focuses on what participants think about their own knowledge of grammar and approaches to teaching English grammar. In section three, there is a 22-item questionnaire designed to reveal the beliefs of participants in the role of grammar and approaches to grammar teaching.

The majority of the statements in Section 3 of the questionnaire can be grouped into four thematic categories, which emerged as important issues in the second chapter. These categories investigated the theoretical background of teaching grammar. As mentioned on page 27, these are as follows:

1. Beliefs in a *focus on forms* approach (5 items)
2. Beliefs in a *focus on form* approach (10 items)
3. Beliefs in a *grammaring* approach (4 items)
4. Beliefs in a *non-interventionist* approach (3 items)

The items were placed in random order in the final questionnaire to avoid choices which might make a favorable impression. The random order of the statements was to see whether participants gave consistent answers to the four belief categories stated above.

Development of the questionnaire took place in several stages. Firstly, background reading led to the identification of certain approaches to teaching English grammar in literature. These approaches were later incorporated into the questionnaire. In the preparation of the test items, some of them were adopted from many previously tested questionnaires from literature (Richards et al.; Burgess & Etherington; Van Canh, L. & Barnard) Apart from the adopted ones, others were prepared by the researcher.

As for the scale construction, the questionnaire took the form of a five-point Likert-type scale with five choices (Strongly Agree - Agree - No Idea - Disagree - Strongly Disagree), and it consisted of 25 test items.

Secondly, in order to increase the face validity of the test, three experts at the ELT department of Trakya University were asked for their opinions about the test before administering it to the pilot group. According to the suggestions, two of the test items were excluded, and five items were reworded so as to eliminate ambiguous phrasing.

Thirdly, the first draft of the questionnaire was piloted to 5 lecturers who teach at the Faculty of Education, Trakya University. Their ages were between 27 and 48. This group was asked to take the test before administering it to the real participant group. The feedback gathered from this group was used to test the content validity of the test.

Dörnyei (2003: 74) states that “some multivariate statistical procedures require more than 50 participants; for factor analysis especially, we need a minimum of 100 but preferably more subjects”. Therefore it was impossible to apply factor analysis in this study. It was also impossible to use the split-half method, since the questionnaire cover four thematic areas of belief. Instead of it, test and retest method was used to check reliability.

Lastly, the final draft was prepared and then administered to 48 instructors working at Trakya University, but the questionnaires were responded by 34 instructors. Nevertheless, the data collected is valuable indicating the beliefs of a substantial portion of the population (48). This sample size exceeds the number 30 (70.83) which Cohen and Manion (1994: 77) describe as the minimum for useful statistical analysis.

After the administration of the test to the real participant group, the scores obtained from the questionnaire were evaluated by the researcher. Two months later, the questionnaire was again administered to the same group (34 participants) in order to check reliability. Coefficients of .6960 and .6784 were reported for the test and retest respectively. These reliability estimates generally fall between .60 and .80. Thus, a high level of reliability was achieved (See Appendix B).

### 3.5. Data Analysis

The data gathered from 34 instructors were statistically analyzed and interpreted. The statistical analysis of the data was computed through Windows Office 2003 Excel and SPSS 10.0 programs. In relation to the research questions (See 1.2. Statement of the Problem), the following statistical analysis types were used:

To display the participants' background (age, sex, gender, teaching experience and academic qualification), the results were evaluated on the base of frequency and percentile values.

To reveal instructors' self-perceptions about their knowledge of grammar, grammar books and approaches to teaching English grammar, the results gathered from Section II were also evaluated on the base of frequency and percentile values.

To determine which approach or approaches the instructors adopt in their teaching English grammar, the results gathered from Section III were evaluated on the base of frequency and percentile values.

To determine whether there is any relationship between instructors' beliefs about approaches to teaching English grammar and their teaching experience, the results gathered from Section III were evaluated by using chi-square test.

To determine significance throughout the study, the standard  $p < 0.05$  was used, which means that a result was considered statistically significant if it occurred (by chance) fewer than 5 times out of 100. While selecting the statistical procedures, an expert on statistics was consulted.



## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

#### 4.1. Background Information about Instructors

The first section of the questionnaire included demographic items which provide personal background of the participants. The following table summarizes some background data from the 34 participants.

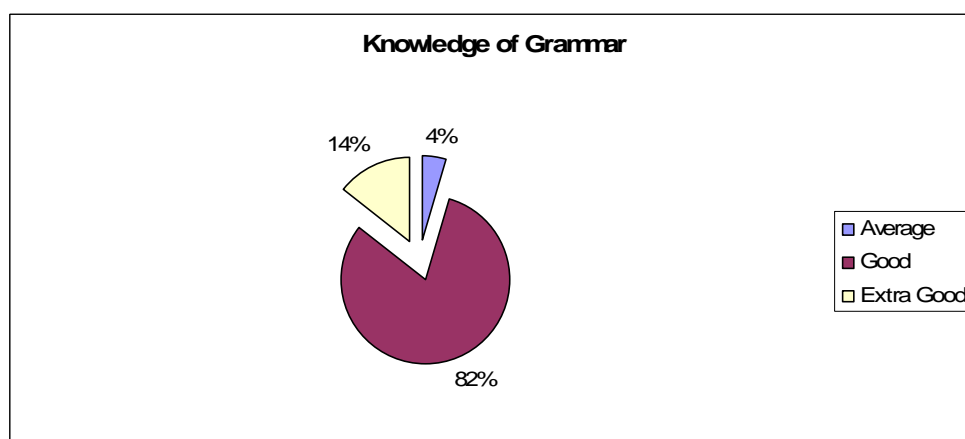
	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Female	23	% 67,6
Male	11	% 32,4
<b>Age</b>		
20-25	10	% 29,4
26-30	9	% 26,5
31-35	5	% 14,7
36-40	4	% 11,8
41-45	2	% 5,9
46 and more	4	% 11,7
<b>Experience</b>		
less than a year	6	% 17,6
1-4	7	% 20,6
5-8	8	% 23,5
9-12	7	% 20,6
13-16	1	% 2,9
17 + years	5	% 14,8
<b>Academic</b>		
BA	19	% 55,9
MA	15	% 44,1
<b>Teaching Level</b>		
Elementary	8	% 23,5
Pre-intermediate	11	% 32,4
Intermediate	5	% 14,7
Upper Intermediate	5	% 14,7
Advanced	5	% 14,7

*Table 1: Background information about instructors*

The majority of the participants that responded to the questionnaire were female, and most of them were between 20 and 30. Most of the participants have a bachelor's degree. Their teaching experience ranges from less than a year and a couple of decades. The majority of them teach at the pre-intermediate and elementary level.

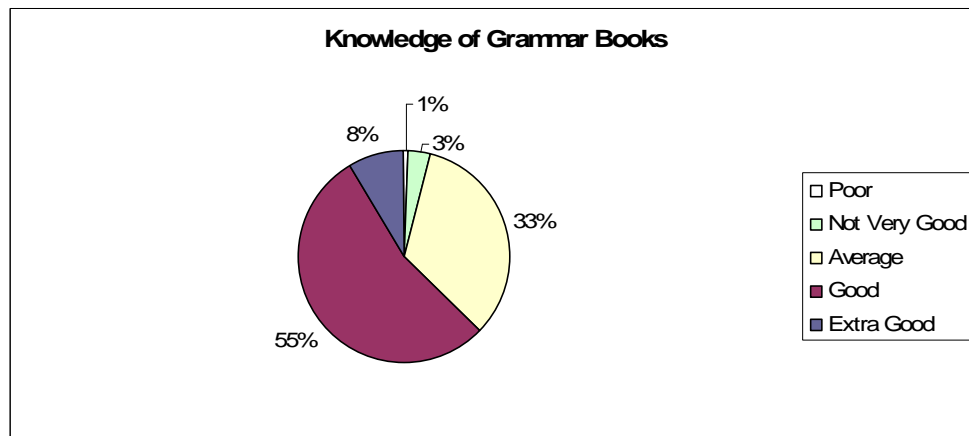
## 4.2. Self-perceptions of the Instructors

Section II of the questionnaire focused on teachers' self-perceptions about their knowledge of grammar, grammar books and approaches to grammar. The following figures give a summary of their answers.



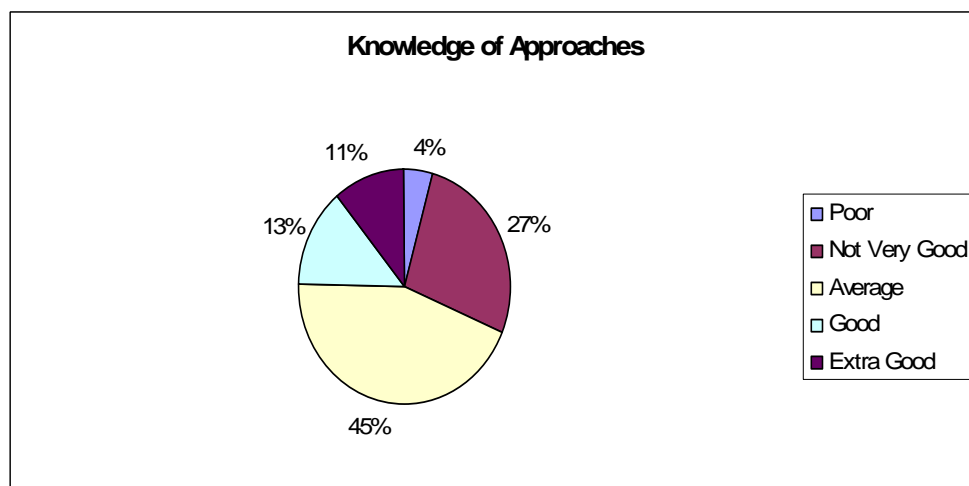
*Figure 2: Instructors' Self-perceptions on Knowledge of Grammar*

Related to the instructors' self-perceptions of "Knowledge of Grammar", it is evident that 82 % of the instructors think that they have a good knowledge of grammar. However, 4 % of the instructors believe that they have an average knowledge of grammar. In addition, as observed in Figure 2, only a small percent (14 %) of the participants think that they are competent in grammar.



*Figure 3: Instructors' Self-perceptions on Knowledge of Grammar Books*

The data drawn from Figure 3 shows that 55% of the instructors including the 'Extra good' 8% of all the participants are quite confident about their knowledge of grammar books. However, it can be deduced from the figure that 4% (Both 'Poor' and 'Not very good') of them are unsure about their knowledge of grammar books.



*Figure 4: Instructors' Self-perceptions on Knowledge of Approaches to Grammar*

According to Figure 4, when 4% (Poor) is combined with 27% (Not very good), it seems that 31% of the instructors are not aware of approaches to teaching English grammar. While almost a quarter (Both 'Extra good' and 'Good') of the instructors think that they are quite confident in approaches to teaching English

grammar, 31% of the instructors together with 45% who responded with an average knowledge of approaches show that a great majority of the participants are not competent in approaches to grammar.

### 4.3. Analyzing Instructors' Beliefs in Approaches to Teaching English Grammar

The study explores the beliefs of the instructors in four approaches to teaching English grammar defined in the review of literature and to what extent they use those approaches in their classrooms. To reach that aim, a questionnaire with three sections was administered to the instructors at Trakya University. The third section of the questionnaire consists of a Lykert type scale, where respondents had to indicate their agreement or disagreement in connection with different statements about grammar. In the first step, frequencies were computed to identify teachers' preferences concerning *Focus on Forms*, *Focus on Form*, *Grammaring* and *Non-interventionist*. The results are shown in the following figures:

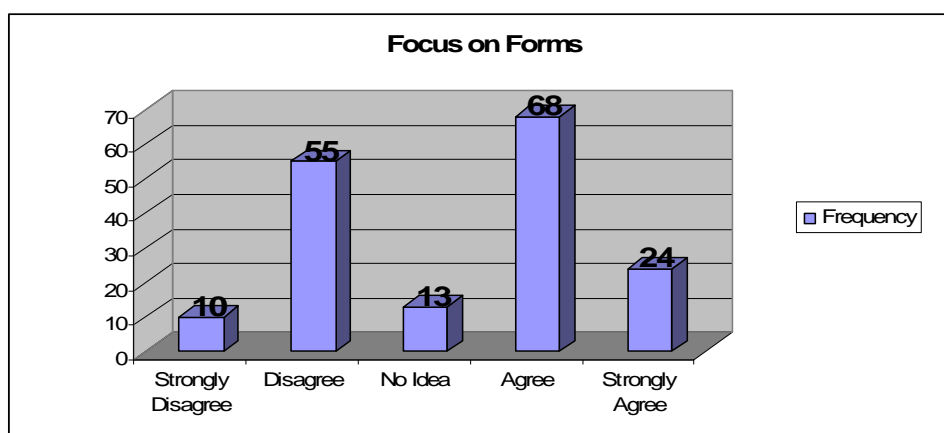


Figure 5: Instructors' Beliefs in Focus on Forms

Teachers' beliefs about *Focus on Forms* approach are presented in Figure 5. Related to this approach, five items from section three of the questionnaire were analyzed:

- *Item 5 (Improvement in grammatical accuracy is a direct result of drills and practice)*
- *Item 6 (It is best to give the grammatical explanation first and then practice the rule)*
- *Item 13 (After grammar practice phase, communicative practice should be done by the teacher)*
- *Item 18 (Controlled to free practice should be applied to students after the presentation phase) (rules presentation)*
- *Item 20 (Accuracy is a primary aim in teaching)*

Figure 5 shows the total frequency values of 34 participants' responses to the five items of *Focus on Forms*. It is deduced from the figure that most of the instructors favour a *Focus on Forms* approach. However, it is interesting that there is a relatively great number of teachers that 'disagree' (55%) in relation to the five statements.

The second approach to be investigated is *Focus on Form*.

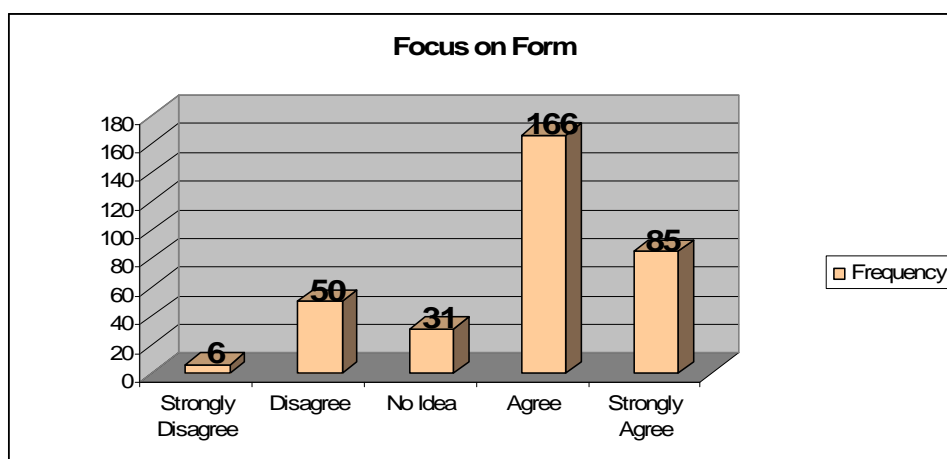


Figure 6: Instructors' Beliefs in Focus on Form

The following ten items from the questionnaire were analyzed in order to reveal the instructors' beliefs in *Focus on Form* approach:

- *Item 1 (Students should figure out grammar rules on their own by comparing contextual examples)*
- *Item 2 (Teachers should help learners to work out grammar rules for themselves)*
- *Item 3 (Teachers should devise focused communicative tasks that provide opportunities for learners to produce a particular target form rather than communicative activities)*
- *Item 7 (Teachers should not plan what grammatical features to cover beforehand; they should wait until students have difficulties or problems with certain features)*
- *Item 8 (By being given opportunities to pay conscious attention to target forms, but not being told the rules first, learners can notice and benefit from the input)*
- *Item 12 (Learners should be encouraged to create language by a process of trial and error) (Giving students information about structure without giving them the full picture ) - (The Garden Path)*
- *Item 14 (The teacher should start the lesson with communicative or developmental skills activity first, and then provide the form that have taken place in the communicative activity)*
- *Item 17 (Consciousness-raising tasks are good for making learners aware of target forms of L2)*

- *Item 19 (Teachers should provide students with enriched texts that make them notice the target language form)*
- *Item 21 (Learners should be guided to pay attention to some specific forms in the target structure)*

Figure 6 shows the total frequency values of 34 participants' responses to the ten items of *Focus on Form*. Related to the figure, it is clear that the majority of the instructors agreed with the idea of *Focus on Form*.

For the *Grammaring* approach, the following results were obtained from the instructors:

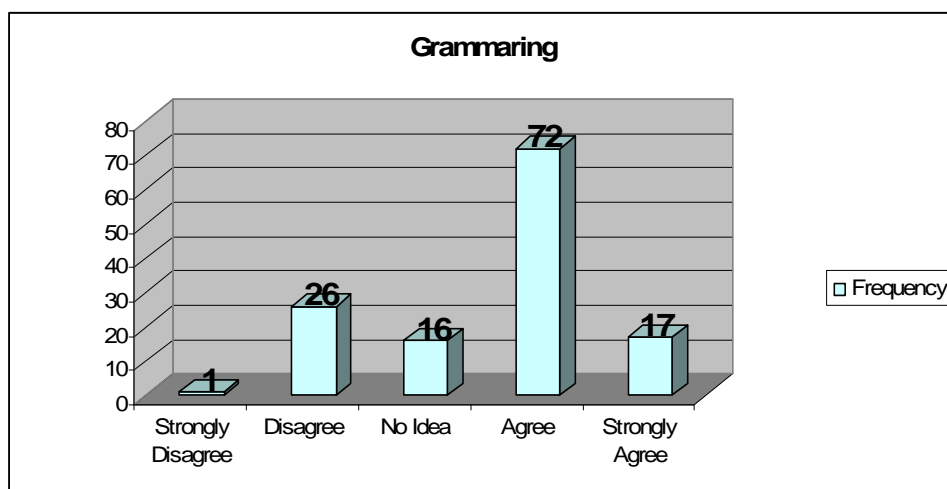


Figure 7: Instructors' Beliefs in Grammaring

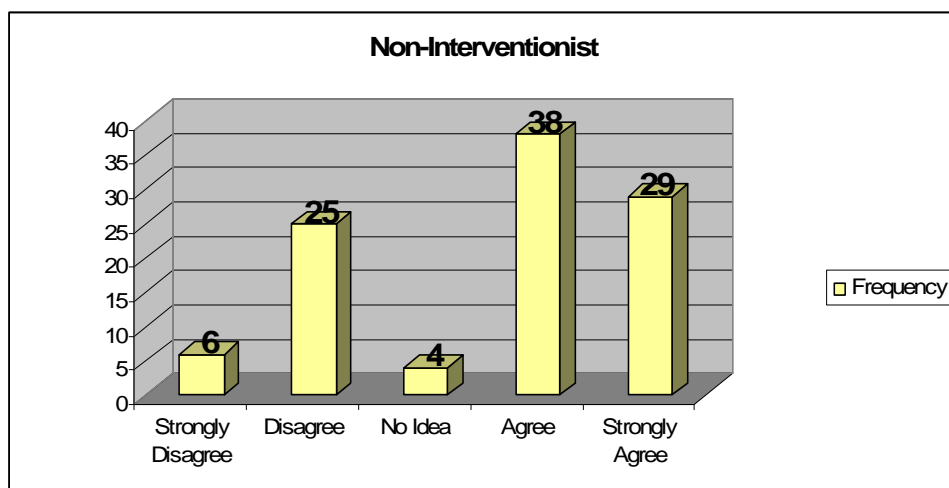
The following four items were analyzed in order to reveal the instructors' beliefs in *Grammaring* approach:

- *Item 10 (Grammar should be taught as a process rather than as a product)*

- *Item 11 (Learners should be provided with words instead of fully formed grammatical items)*
- *Item 15 (Teaching grammar means starting from lexis to rules rather than rules to lexis)*
- *Item 22 (Grammar is not a subskill but should be regarded as a fifth skill)*

Figure 7 shows the total frequency values of 34 participants' responses to the four items of *Grammaring*. As clear from the figure, a great majority of the instructors favour the *Grammaring* approach.

The last approach to be investigated is the *Non-interventionist* approach.



*Figure 8: Instructors' Beliefs in Non-interventionist Approach*

The following four items were analyzed in order to reveal the instructors' beliefs in *Non-interventionist* approach:



- *Item 4 (Grammar is learned implicitly through exposure to language in natural contexts)*
- *Item 9( Grammar explanations should be avoided by the teacher)*
- *Item 16 (If learners think about the rules while they are talking, it prevents them from communicating fluently)*

Figure 8 shows the total frequency values of 34 participants' responses to the four items of *Grammaring*. *Grammaring* is a common issue that has been discussed in the last ten years, so more than half of the participants, that is 67%, are in favour of the *Grammaring* approach. On the other hand, 31% indicated that *Grammaring* is not the approach they apply when teaching.

#### **4.4. Analyzing the Relationship between Approaches to Grammar Teaching and Teaching Experience**

As a next step the chi-square tests were used to see whether there were statistically significant relationships between the instructors' teaching experience and the approaches to grammar teaching.

Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-1</b> Students should figure out grammar rules on their own by comparing contextual examples.	Asmpy. Sig. ,365
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-2</b> Teachers should help learners to work out grammar rules for themselves.	Asmpy. Sig. ,756
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-3</b> Teachers should devise focused communicative tasks that provide opportunities for learners to produce a particular target form rather than communicative activities.	Asmpy. Sig. ,336

Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-4</b> Grammar is learned implicitly through exposure to language in natural contexts.	Asmpy. Sig. ,645
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-5</b> Improvement in grammatical accuracy is a direct result of drills and practice.	Asmpy. Sig. ,251
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-6</b> It is best to give the grammatical explanation first and then practice the rule.	Asmpy. Sig. ,202
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-7</b> Teachers should not plan what grammatical features to cover beforehand; they should wait until students have difficulties or problems with certain features.	Asmpy. Sig. ,604
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-8</b> By being given opportunities to pay conscious attention to target forms, but not being told the rules first, learners can notice and benefit from the input.	Asmpy. Sig. ,401
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-9</b> Grammar explanations should be avoided by the teacher.	Asmpy. Sig. ,368
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-10</b> Grammar should be taught as a process rather than as a product.	Asmpy. Sig. ,340
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-11</b> Learners should be provided with words instead of fully formed grammatical items.	Asmpy. Sig. ,321
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-12</b> Learners should be encouraged to create language by a process of trial and error. (Giving students information about structure without giving them the full picture)	Asmpy. Sig. ,487
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-13</b> After grammar practice phase, teachers should devise a communicative practice.	Asmpy. Sig. ,728
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-14</b> The teacher should start the lesson with communicative or developmental skills activity first, and then provide the form that have taken place in the communicative activity.	Asmpy. Sig. ,752

Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-15</b> Teaching grammar means starting from lexis to rules rather than rules to lexis.	Asmpy. Sig. ,628
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-16</b> If learners think about the rules while they are talking, it prevents them from communicating fluently.	Asmpy. Sig. ,142
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-17</b> Consciousness-raising tasks are good for making learners aware of target forms of L2.	Asmpy. Sig. ,373
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-18</b> Controlled to free practice should be applied to the students after the presentation phase (rule presentation).	Asmpy. Sig. ,373
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-19</b> Teachers should provide students with enriched texts that make them notice the target language form.	Asmpy. Sig. ,804
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-20</b> Accuracy is a primary aim in teaching.	Asmpy. Sig. ,331
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-21</b> Learners should be guided to pay attention to some specific forms in the target structure.	Asmpy. Sig. ,707
Teaching Experience	<b>Item III-22</b> Grammar is not a subskill but should be regarded as a fifth skill.	Asmpy. Sig. ,715

*Table 2: Teaching experience and approaches to teaching English grammar*

The findings in Table 2 indicate that the Pearson chi-square values under "Asymp. Sig" are higher than 0.05. In this sense, it is clear that there is no meaningful relationship between the instructors' teaching experience and their beliefs about approaches to teaching English Grammar.

## 4.5. Discussion

From the results, it seems possible to make some claims about the beliefs of instructors, working at Trakya University regarding both their competence in grammar, grammar books and approaches to teaching English grammar.

The first research question of this study sought to elicit instructors' self-perceptions about grammar, grammar books and approaches to teaching grammar. The findings of the study related to grammar knowledge revealed that instructors at Trakya University feel competent in grammar (See Figure 2). The underlying reason why they feel competent is perhaps that they had a grammar-based learning during their foreign language education.

The findings of the study showed that almost one third of the instructors are not competent in grammar books, since some certain books are imposed upon teachers to use in English lessons as well as having insufficient training in grammar materials. They are even unaware that they have received pedagogical grammar instruction. As a matter of fact, during the high school years and university education, the instructors have somehow been exposed to pedagogical grammar. As Çelik (2007: 25) states, pedagogical grammar is the type of grammar that is designed for language teaching purposes. In this respect, it can be concluded that grammar instruction that all foreign or second language learners receive is pedagogical and the grammar books are pedagogical as well. The possible reason underlying why the instructors are unaware of receiving pedagogical grammar is that, as a learner, they are not explicitly stated what type of instruction they learn grammar with.

As for the knowledge of approaches to teaching grammar, the findings indicated that most instructors are slightly familiar with *focus on form*, *grammaring* and *non-interventionist* approaches. Since those approaches are recently discussed among the ones used for more efficient teaching (Larsen-Freeman, 2009: 523-527),

the instructors at Trakya University are not familiar with them. Thus, they have some confusion whether they utilize them while teaching.

The analysis of the data for the second research question was aimed at instructors' beliefs as to whether to teach or not to teach grammar. As already stated by Ellis (1990: 14-16), there are two types of instruction. One is the form-focused instruction, and the other is the meaning-focused instruction. Of those which give place to grammar in the teaching process is the form-focused instruction which consists of *focus on forms*, *focus on form* and *grammaring* approaches. On the other hand, the instruction which avoids grammar in the teaching process is the meaning-focused instruction consisting of non-interventionist approach. The results of this study revealed that majority of the instructors who participated in the questionnaire favour form-focused instruction, since they mostly appreciate *focus on form*, *focus on forms* and *grammaring* approaches. As a result, it can be concluded that there should be a place for grammar in the English courses. This is compatible with the results of a similar study conducted by Ebsworth and Scweers (cited in Borg, 2003: 98). They also circulated questionnaires to a total of 60 university teachers of ESL in New York and Puerto Rico, and conducted informal interviews on eight of these, in order to explore their views about grammar instruction. According to this study, the majority of the teachers felt grammar should be taught, as well.

The analysis of the data for the third research question was aimed at determining which approach or approaches instructors adopt in teaching English grammar. When we examine what are the beliefs of the instructors about the approaches, the figures (See 5-6-7-8) suggest that they favor all four approaches. However, this data is contradictory because one cannot take both sides at the same time; either grammar should be taught or it should be avoided. Moreover, these findings indicate that in some lessons grammar can be viewed as a primary goal; in other lessons it can function only as reinforcement for promoting skills such as speaking, writing, reading and listening. That's why instructors choose their

priorities in accordance to their needs. This can be the explanation of why they appreciated all the four approaches.

Overall, it can be argued that *focus on form* and *grammaring* have recently emerged in literature (Ellis, 2001). However, it is interesting to speculate about the origins of the instructors' preferences. Without a much more in-depth study, it is difficult to determine the factors which influence teachers' beliefs in this area. Their beliefs may result from previous experiences. They may have been instructed in a class where grammar teaching is such a primary outcome and this could stem from teacher cognition about their previous experiences as students.

As for the fourth question, the question was whether there is a significant relationship between teaching experience and approaches to teaching grammar. In order to find an answer to this question, twenty two items in section three of the questionnaire were analyzed with chi-square tests. The analysis of the twenty two items, as already noted in section 4.4., indicated no significant relationship between instructors' beliefs regarding the approaches to teaching grammar and their teaching experience. This reveals that no matter how experienced the instructors are, they have similar beliefs about the approaches to teaching grammar.

## CHAPTER IV

### CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The research reported here has attempted to discover something about the state of grammar teaching at Trakya University in relation to approaches to teaching English grammar. The results denoted the use of approaches in teaching English grammar.

The review part of this study started with types of grammar and a brief historical overview of grammar teaching. Afterwards, the grammar debate: “to teach or not to teach” is dealt with. Section 2.7 highlighted the changing perspectives in teaching grammar.

For twenty years, grammar teaching has been dealt with in accordance with the SLA research. Owing to contributions of SLA research, the teaching of grammar has become a complex issue and requires expertise in several fields, accordingly. It might be unrealistic to expect that every language teacher will have the time to a full understanding of different approaches to teaching grammar. However, they should become as familiar as possible with a variety of approaches in order to evaluate their usefulness in different teaching contexts.

The research into the instructors’ beliefs in approaches to grammar teaching has contributed to our current understanding of grammar teaching at Trakya University and has brought light to some significant findings.

As previously noted, the study was a very limited one. Only 34 of the instructors completed the questionnaire. Despite this, it is felt that the results of the

study are in the same direction with the findings of Ebsworth and Scweers (cited in Borg, 2003: 98).

The first conclusion to draw from this study is that recent trends haven't had much influence on their beliefs. The approaches presented in this study don't exclude each other. This shows that instructors apply a variety of approaches unconsciously without any critical examination.

The second conclusion to draw is that effective trends in grammar teaching should be implemented at Trakya University, as well. The instructors with a clear understanding of new trends and approaches to teaching English grammar can help learners improve their grammatical competence.

On the assumption that conscious understanding of grammar plays an important role in teacher training programs, it is suggested that substantial time should be dedicated to the development of instructors' declarative knowledge of grammar.

As the results of this study indicated, most instructors are not prepared methodologically for implementing any four of approaches mentioned already in section 2.7.. Therefore, introducing an in-service training on how to implement pedagogical grammar in foreign language teaching would be necessary to bridge the existing gap between theory and practice.

The implication of the study is that professional experience may be unreliable; likewise, the SLA theories may be invalid. In this respect, it is necessary to investigate the relationship between explicit theories in published works and the implicit theories developed from teachers' professional practice.



It would be appropriate for further research in this area to consider the number of scales provided. Secondly, while the data provided useful information about teachers' beliefs, it is clear that expressed beliefs or attitudes need to be triangulated with observed activity (Dörnyei, 2007:45). Thus, more faithful research would explore the divergence between the beliefs of the participants and their actual practices. Lastly, further research is also needed into the instructors' knowledge of grammar and approaches to teaching grammar, using additional data collecting instruments such as interviews and classroom observations.

To sum up, it can be concluded that in language classrooms grammar teaching is taking place either in a form of a planned activity or a supportive tool for accuracy in language teaching. In this context, it is crucial that we should alter our approach to teaching grammar in order to meet the requirements of learners' age, interests and learning styles.

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### **Section II: Self-evaluation**

In this section you are asked to evaluate yourself on a scale by indicating your answer with a tick (✓) in the appropriate box.

	<b>Items</b>	<b>Extraordinarily good</b>	<b>Good</b>	<b>Average</b>	<b>Not very good</b>	<b>Poor</b>
<b>1</b>	What do you think about your own knowledge of grammar?					
<b>2</b>	What do you think about your own knowledge of grammar books? (E.g. descriptive, prescriptive, pedagogical etc.)					
<b>3</b>	What do you think about your own knowledge of approaches to grammar (focus on form, focus on forms, grammaring, non-interventionist approach)					

### **Section III: Teachers' beliefs in grammar teaching**

Following are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. I would like you to indicate your opinion by ticking (✓) the appropriate box next to each statement that best indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with it. If you **agree strongly**, mark a **5** on the scale; if you **strongly disagree**, mark a **1** on the scale.

1= strongly disagree

2= disagree

3= no idea

4= agree

5= strongly agree

Nr	Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Idea	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Students should figure out grammar rules on their own by comparing contextual examples.					
2	Teachers should help learners to work out grammar rules for themselves.					
3	Teachers should devise focused communicative tasks that provide opportunities for learners to produce a particular target form rather than communicative activities.					
4	Grammar is learned implicitly through exposure to language in natural contexts.					
5	Improvement in grammatical accuracy is a direct result of drills and practice.					
6	It is best to give the grammatical explanation first and then practice the rule.					
7	Teachers should not plan what grammatical features to cover beforehand; they should wait until students have difficulties or problems with certain features.					
8	By being given opportunities to pay conscious attention to target forms, but not being told the rules first, learners can notice and benefit from the input.					
9	Grammar explanations should be avoided by the teacher.					
10	Grammar should be taught as a process rather than as a product.					
11	Learners should be provided with words instead of fully formed grammatical items.					
12	Learners should be encouraged to create language by a process of trial and error. (Giving students information about structure without giving them the full picture)					

Nr	Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Idea	Agree	Strongly Agree
13	After grammar practice phase, teachers should devise a communicative practice.					
14	The teacher should start the lesson with communicative or developmental skills activity first, and then provide the form that have taken place in the communicative activity.					
15	Teaching grammar means starting from lexis to rules rather than rules to lexis.					
16	If learners think about the rules while they are talking, it prevents them from communicating fluently.					
17	Consciousness-raising tasks are good for making learners aware of target forms of L2.					
18	Controlled to free practice should be applied to the students after the presentation phase (rule presentation).					
19	Teachers should provide students with enriched texts that make them notice the target language form.					
20	Accuracy is a primary aim in teaching.					
21	Learners should be guided to pay attention to some specific forms in the target structure.					
22	Grammar is not a subskill but should be regarded as a fifth skill.					

*Thank you very much for your help!*

*If you have any questions about the questionnaire, please don't hesitate to ask me.*

**(alperaslan2003@hotmail.com)**

*Alper ASLAN*

## APPENDIX B/1

### Test Reliability

\*\*\*\*\* Method 2 (covariance matrix) will be used for this analysis \*\*\*\*\*

#### RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	III1	4.0588	.4222	34.0
2.	II2	3.4706	.8252	34.0
3.	II3	2.6176	1.0155	34.0
4.	III1	4.1176	.9460	34.0
5.	III2	4.3824	.5513	34.0
6.	III3	3.0588	1.0714	34.0
7.	III4	3.8235	1.0290	34.0
8.	III5	3.1765	1.0580	34.0
9.	III6	2.6471	1.1516	34.0
10.	III7	2.7353	1.0242	34.0
11.	III8	4.0000	.8165	34.0
12.	III9	2.7059	1.1423	34.0
13.	III10	3.9412	.6001	34.0
14.	III11	3.4118	1.0185	34.0
15.	III12	3.7647	.9865	34.0
16.	III13	3.9706	1.0867	34.0
17.	III14	4.2647	1.0242	34.0
18.	III15	3.4412	.9906	34.0
19.	III16	4.2059	1.2255	34.0
20.	III17	3.9412	.6937	34.0
21.	III18	3.7059	.9384	34.0
22.	III19	4.2059	1.0668	34.0
23.	III20	2.7059	1.2680	34.0
24.	III21	3.7059	.7600	34.0
25.	III22	3.4412	1.0785	34.0

N of Cases = 34.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables
Scale	89.5000	71.4091	8.4504	25

Item Means	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	3.5800	2.6176	4.3824	1.7647	1.6742	.3200

Item Variances	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	.9478	.1783	1.6078	1.4296	9.0200	.1306

R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   ( A L P H A )

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
III1	85.4412	70.7389	.0693	.7082	.6966
III2	86.0294	68.6355	.1531	.9524	.6936
III3	86.8824	66.6524	.2247	.8264	.6887
III11	85.3824	65.8797	.3018	.8422	.6824
III12	85.1176	66.5312	.5086	.9243	.6766
III13	86.4412	74.1328	-.2098	.8710	.7261
III14	85.6765	61.6194	.5404	.8050	.6602
III15	86.3235	63.8012	.3839	.9270	.6743
III16	86.8529	72.4323	-.1199	.9232	.7212
III17	86.7647	71.4581	-.0634	.8903	.7128
III18	85.5000	65.0455	.4326	.9081	.6741
III19	86.7941	72.8957	-.1431	.9052	.7230
III20	85.5588	67.2237	.3888	.7342	.6813
III21	86.0882	66.5071	.2326	.7003	.6880
III22	85.7353	63.3520	.4511	.7457	.6692
III23	85.5294	62.0749	.4761	.7629	.6650
III24	85.2353	59.8217	.6652	.9011	.6485
III25	86.0588	70.1176	.0187	.7379	.7055
III26	85.2941	59.3654	.5582	.8495	.6534
III27	85.5588	64.0116	.6230	.8992	.6651
III28	85.7941	65.6836	.3185	.8466	.6810
III29	85.2941	59.4260	.6593	.9215	.6474
III30	86.7941	74.4715	-.2134	.9015	.7340
III31	85.7941	67.3200	.2816	.8432	.6852
III32	86.0588	66.9055	.1893	.8054	.6921

**Analysis of Variance**

Source of Variation	Sum of Sq.	DF	Mean Square	F	Prob.
Between People	94.2600	33	2.8564		
Within People	948.8000	816	1.1627		
Between Measures	261.1482	24	10.8812	12.5323	.0000
Residual	687.6518	792	.8682		
Total	1043.0600	849	1.2286		
Grand Mean	3.5800				

**R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   ( A L P H A )**

Reliability Coefficients    25 items

Alpha =    .6960                      Standardized item alpha =    .7303



## APPENDIX B/2

### Retest Reliability

\*\*\*\*\* Method 2 (covariance matrix) will be used for this analysis  
\*\*\*\*\*

#### RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	III1	4.0588	.4222	34.0
2.	II2	3.4706	.8252	34.0
3.	II3	2.6176	1.0155	34.0
4.	III1	4.1176	.8796	34.0
5.	III2	4.3824	.5513	34.0
6.	III3	3.0882	1.1110	34.0
7.	III4	3.8529	1.0483	34.0
8.	III5	3.2353	1.1297	34.0
9.	III6	2.7059	1.2439	34.0
10.	III7	2.8529	1.2094	34.0
11.	III8	4.0588	.8507	34.0
12.	III9	2.7647	1.1297	34.0
13.	III10	4.0000	.6513	34.0
14.	III11	3.4118	1.0185	34.0
15.	III12	3.7647	.9865	34.0
16.	III13	4.0294	1.1142	34.0
17.	III14	4.2353	1.0168	34.0
18.	III15	3.4706	1.0220	34.0
19.	III16	4.1765	1.2178	34.0
20.	III17	3.9412	.6937	34.0
21.	III18	3.6765	.9119	34.0
22.	III19	4.2059	1.0668	34.0
23.	III20	2.7059	1.2439	34.0
24.	III21	3.7353	.7904	34.0
25.	III22	3.4118	1.0479	34.0

N of Cases = 34.0

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	N of Variables		
Scale	89.9706	70.3930	8.3901	25		
Item Means	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	3.5988	2.6176	4.3824	1.7647	1.6742	.3041
Item Variances	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	.9819	.1783	1.5472	1.3690	8.6800	.1462

## R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   ( A L P H A )

## Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
III1	85.9118	69.5374	.0962	.6627	.6778
III2	86.5000	68.1364	.1157	.8821	.6780
III3	87.3529	65.2656	.2497	.8188	.6675
III11	85.8529	64.7959	.3406	.8242	.6606
III12	85.5882	67.8253	.2493	.8506	.6705
III13	86.8824	73.8039	-.2433	.8526	.7139
III14	86.1176	63.0160	.3772	.7953	.6552
III15	86.7353	61.4127	.4351	.8184	.6481
III16	87.2647	70.2005	-.0650	.8581	.7016
III17	87.1176	68.0463	.0443	.8107	.6895
III18	85.9118	63.1738	.4803	.9028	.6500
III19	87.2059	70.6533	-.0809	.8918	.6998
III20	85.9706	66.5143	.3252	.8220	.6650
III21	86.5588	64.8601	.2740	.7948	.6653
III22	86.2059	62.7745	.4251	.7205	.6516
III23	85.9412	61.4510	.4408	.8279	.6477
III24	85.7353	59.7763	.6095	.8589	.6330
III25	86.5000	69.2879	.0036	.6910	.6895
III26	85.7941	58.5927	.5534	.7428	.6327
III27	86.0294	63.4234	.5872	.9017	.6475
III28	86.2941	64.8200	.3229	.8703	.6617
III29	85.7647	58.7914	.6396	.9051	.6280
III30	87.2647	74.5642	-.2662	.8929	.7216
III31	86.2353	66.1248	.2834	.8379	.6660
III32	86.5588	66.7389	.1493	.8160	.6769



## APPENDIX C

### Chi-Square Tests

#### Years of teaching experience and item 1

##### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16,267 <sup>a</sup>	15	,365
Likelihood Ratio	16,399	15	,356
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,996	1	,158
N of Valid Cases	34		

a. 24 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,03.

#### Years of teaching experience and item 2

##### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,990 <sup>a</sup>	10	,726
Likelihood Ratio	6,796	10	,745
Linear-by-Linear Association	,032	1	,859
N of Valid Cases	34		

a. 18 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,03.

### Years of teaching experience and item 3

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22,084 <sup>a</sup>	20	,336
Likelihood Ratio	27,305	20	,127
Linear-by-Linear Association	,005	1	,943
N of Valid Cases	34		

a. 30 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,03.

### Years of teaching experience and item 4

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,022 <sup>a</sup>	8	,645
Likelihood Ratio	6,844	8	,554
Linear-by-Linear Association	,724	1	,395
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 15 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,44.

### Years of teaching experience and item 5

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	23,807 <sup>a</sup>	20	,251
Likelihood Ratio	22,575	20	,310
Linear-by-Linear Association	,013	1	,909
N of Valid Cases	34		

a. 30 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,03.

### Years of teaching experience and item 6

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24,995 <sup>a</sup>	20	,202
Likelihood Ratio	26,721	20	,143
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,424	1	,233
N of Valid Cases	34		

a. 30 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,03.

### Years of teaching experience and item 7

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13,397 <sup>a</sup>	16	,644
Likelihood Ratio	13,244	16	,655
Linear-by-Linear Association	,631	1	,427
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 25 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,15.

### Years of teaching experience and item 8

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12,569 <sup>a</sup>	12	,401
Likelihood Ratio	11,227	12	,510
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,355	1	,244
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 20 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,15.

### Years of teaching experience and item 9

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13,008 <sup>a</sup>	12	,368
Likelihood Ratio	16,088	12	,187
Linear-by-Linear Association	,103	1	,748
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 20 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,44.

### Years of teaching experience and item 10

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9,027 <sup>a</sup>	8	,340
Likelihood Ratio	10,381	8	,239
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,250	1	,071
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 14 cells (93,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,30.

### Years of teaching experience and item 11

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13,683 <sup>a</sup>	12	,321
Likelihood Ratio	17,519	12	,131
Linear-by-Linear Association	,219	1	,640
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 20 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,59.

### Years of teaching experience and item 12

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11,490 <sup>a</sup>	12	,487
Likelihood Ratio	13,614	12	,326
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,517	1	,061
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 20 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,30.

### Years of teaching experience and item 13

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11,337 <sup>a</sup>	15	,728
Likelihood Ratio	13,113	15	,594
Linear-by-Linear Association	,169	1	,681
N of Valid Cases	34		

a. 24 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,06.

### Years of teaching experience and item 14

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8,411 <sup>a</sup>	12	,752
Likelihood Ratio	7,483	12	,824
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,482	1	,115
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 20 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,15.



### Years of teaching experience and item 15

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9,862 <sup>a</sup>	12	,628
Likelihood Ratio	12,738	12	,388
Linear-by-Linear Association	,278	1	,598
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 20 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,44.

### Years of teaching experience and item 16

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12,210 <sup>a</sup>	8	,142
Likelihood Ratio	14,312	8	,074
Linear-by-Linear Association	,346	1	,556
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 15 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,15.

### Years of teaching experience and item 17

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8,652 <sup>a</sup>	8	,373
Likelihood Ratio	10,381	8	,239
Linear-by-Linear Association	,517	1	,472
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 14 cells (93,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,30.

### Years of teaching experience and item 18

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	21,410 <sup>a</sup>	20	,373
Likelihood Ratio	22,139	20	,333
Linear-by-Linear Association	,031	1	,861
N of Valid Cases	34		

a. 29 cells (96,7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,03.

### Years of teaching experience and item 19

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,558 <sup>a</sup>	8	,804
Likelihood Ratio	4,059	8	,852
Linear-by-Linear Association	,459	1	,498
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 15 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,15.

### Years of teaching experience and item 20

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22,186 <sup>a</sup>	20	,331
Likelihood Ratio	23,460	20	,267
Linear-by-Linear Association	,216	1	,642
N of Valid Cases	34		

a. 30 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,06.

### Years of teaching experience and item 21

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8,946 <sup>a</sup>	12	,707
Likelihood Ratio	11,128	12	,518
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,449	1	,229
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 19 cells (95,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,30.

### Years of teaching experience and item 22

#### Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12,417 <sup>a</sup>	16	,715
Likelihood Ratio	14,428	16	,567
Linear-by-Linear Association	,928	1	,335
N of Valid Cases	27		

a. 25 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,15.