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Teachers' Cognition Formation and Reformation for Teaching EFL Writing: A Study of College English Teachers in China

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ABSTRACT

English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) teachers in China find that teaching English writing to students is less effective than teaching English listening, speaking, and reading. Although, currently, EFL teacher education is highly valued both by the policy makers and university administrators in China, little research has been reported on EFL teacher cognition about EFL writing. Because teacher cognition about their teaching is closely related to how they conceptualize the work they do and the practice in which they engage, it is imperative to investigate them. My review of the relevant literature shows that while much research has been carried out into teacher cognition about English grammar teaching, there is little research into teacher cognition about the teaching of EFL writing.

This study, therefore, attempts to bridge this gap using a mixed-methods approach and to contribute to the literature on language teacher education in general and EFL teacher education in mainland China in particular. To address the overarching research question, "What is Chinese EFL teacher cognition about the teaching of EFL writing?" a questionnaire was developed and distributed to 332 teachers of College English (CE). CE is a general English course required to be taken by all students in universities in China. Using purposive sampling, seven EFL teachers were selected from those who participated in the questionnaire study for a follow-up study using pre-observation interviews, classroom observations, and post-observation interviews to seek an in-depth understanding of their cognition.

The questionnaire presented a holistic picture of Chinese College English teacher cognition about teaching and learning EFL writing. The findings indicated that

participants believed that the CE courses should focus on the structure and content of writing instead of grammar and vocabulary; the teaching of EFL reading indirectly played an important role in improving students' EFL writing proficiency; there was inadequate time allocated to EFL writing instruction; limited support from their universities contributed to the unsatisfactory teaching of EFL writing in China. Participants also reported that the available CE textbooks were ineffective as the major resource for the teaching of EFL writing. Teachers' criteria used to mark students' writing reflected their belief that the focus of teaching of EFL writing should include structure, content, grammar and vocabulary. Statistical analysis of teachers' backgrounds indicated slight differences in their cognition about the teaching of English writing to EFL students, related to age group, gender, academic qualification, professional qualification and years of teaching experience.

Results of the in-depth study into teacher cognition and practice showed that while agreeing with the need to include teaching of EFL writing in the CE curriculum, these teachers acknowledged the unsatisfactory outcomes of the teaching of EFL writing. They reported that they believed that the nature of CE writing teaching was to teach students to express their ideas in English through a logical and well-organized structure. However, it was observed that in classroom teaching practices their teaching focus shifted from writing strategy instruction to grammar, vocabulary and translation to improve students' language ability. Factors frequently reported by participants to hinder effective teaching of EFL writing included limited time allocated to the teaching of writing, students' low language proficiency, unmotivated students, large class size and the lack of policy support from universities. Adopting Bakhtin's "dialogism" as the theoretical framework, these factors were analysed, together with teachers' backgrounds, schooling, education

and working experiences. They were found to serve as various "voices" in the dialogic formation and reformation process of teacher cognition. Systematic analysis of participants' (re)formation process of teacher cognition suggested the process was highly individual.

It is hoped that the study will contribute to our knowledge about teacher cognition and practices in relation to the teaching and learning of EFL writing in Chinese universities. University administrators, CE textbook writers and teacher education policy makers could draw on the findings of the study to provide better resources for CE teachers in Chinese universities to implement the teaching of EFL writing more effectively. Implications of the study and further recommendations are also addressed in the thesis.

DEDICATION

To my late grandparents

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Reflecting on my PhD study experience in New Zealand, I felt very grateful to many people who walked together with me in this special journey.

Firstly, I would like to thank my main supervisor, Professor Lawrence Zhang, for his continuous support and professional guidance in my academic journey. His instant replying to my emails and outgoing personality made my Ph.D. study experience a pleasant one. My thanks also go to my co-supervisor, Dr. Rebecca Jesson, who always provided quick and critical feedback on my thesis drafts although she had a very heavy work load both in teaching and research.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CE = College English

CET-4 = College English Band Four for Non-English Majors

CET-6 = College English Band Six for Non-English Majors

EFL = English as a Foreign Language

ELT = English Language Teaching

ESP = English for Specific Purposes

ESL = English as a Second Language

L1 = First Language

L2 = Second Language/Language Other than First Language

CLT = Communicative Language Teaching

NEST = Native English Speaker Teacher

NNEST = Non-Native English Speaker Teacher

SLA = Second Language Acquisition

MoE = Ministry of Education

IETLS = International English Language Testing System

TESOL = Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

LSRWT = Listening Speaking Reading Writing and Translating

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Chapter Overview

This thesis reports research on teacher cognition in relation to English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) writing teaching in China. The participants are College English (CE) teachers from nine universities located in Eastern China. This chapter first defines the key term of "teacher cognition" followed by a description of the study context. Next, the research questions, rationale and significance of the study are addressed respectively. Chapter One concludes by describing the organisation of the thesis.

1.2 Teacher Cognition

Researchers in the field of teacher cognition commonly adopt Borg's definition of teacher cognition as "the unobservable cognitive dimension of the teacher - what teachers know, believe and think" (Borg, 2003, p. 81). It is believed that teacher cognition could exert strong influence on teachers' instructional teaching practices (Basturkmen, 2012; T. S. Farrell & Filion, 2014; T. S. Farrell & Bennis, 2013; T. S. Farrell & Ives, 2015; Pajares, 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Watson, 2015). Teacher cognition is regarded as "an enveloping term" that includes similar domains including beliefs and self-perception (Feryok, 2010, p. 272). When drawing on a wider definition of teacher cognition, researchers concede that all of the terms including knowledge, values and beliefs are intertwined (Poulson, Avramidis, Fox, Medwell, & Wray, 2001). Moreover, Borg (2012) also includes attitudes, identities and emotions as part of teacher cognition because of their common feature of being "unobservable" (Borg, 2003, p. 81) .

Such a definition suggests that "language teachers have cognitions about all aspects of their work and that these can be described using various psychological constructs which I collectively refer to as teacher cognition" (Borg, 2006, p.283). Borg (2009) pointed out that the concept of teacher cognition embraces other terminologies such as beliefs and knowledge. In this study, it is specified at the beginning that the concept of teacher cognition is an embracing concept incorporating belief, identity and knowledge.

Borg (2006) developed two figures to illustrate research on teacher cognition. The first figure shows the categories of current research on teacher cognition. The second figure presents factors influencing language teacher cognition.

Figure 1.1 Categories of Research on Teacher Cognition

Generic processes
(e.g. planning, interactive decision-making, instructional concerns)

Pre-service teachers

In-service teachers

Domain-specific processes
(e.g. grammar, reading, writing and sub-activities in each domain)
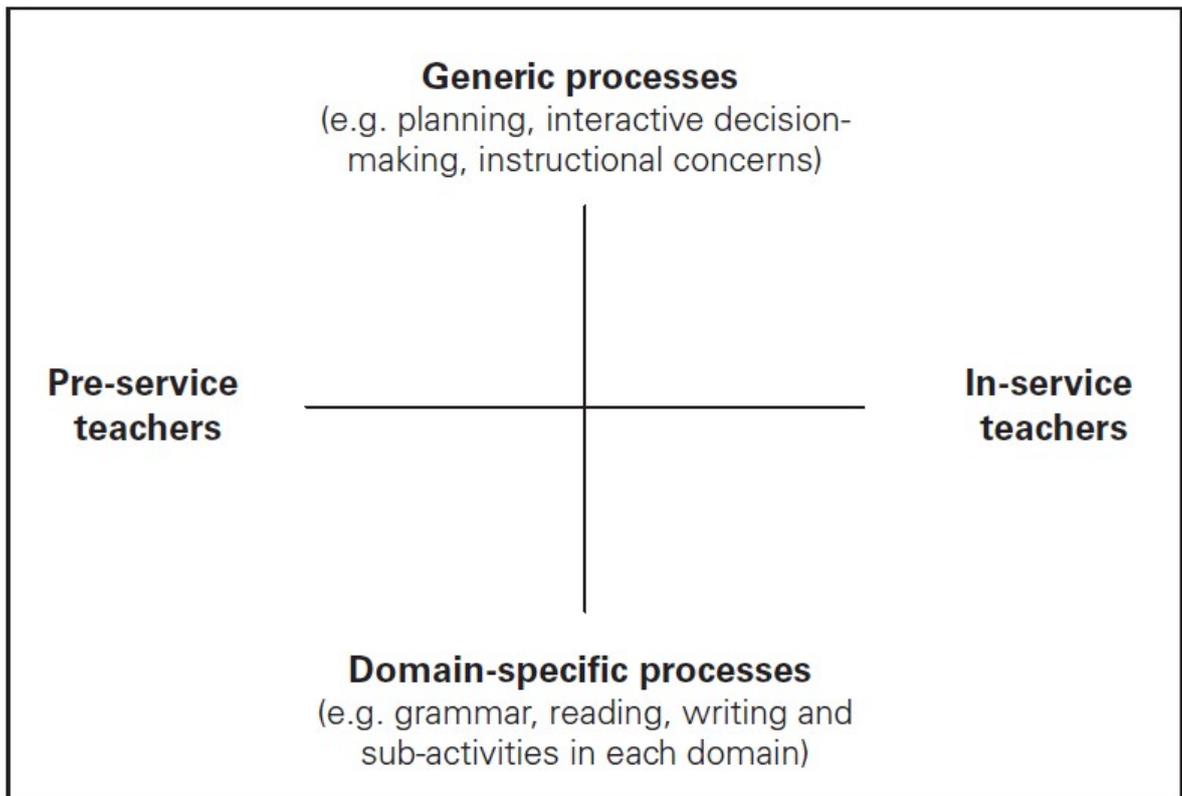
Observation (structured, unstructured; nine dimensions in Table 8.2)	**Self-Report Instruments** (questionnaires, scenario-rating tasks, tests)
Verbal Commentaries (structured, scenario-based, repertory grid, semi-structured, stimulated recall, think-aloud)	**Reflective Writing** (journals, autobiography, retrospective accounts, concept mapping)

Borg (2015, p. 332)

Figure 1.2 Factors Influencing Language Teacher Cognition
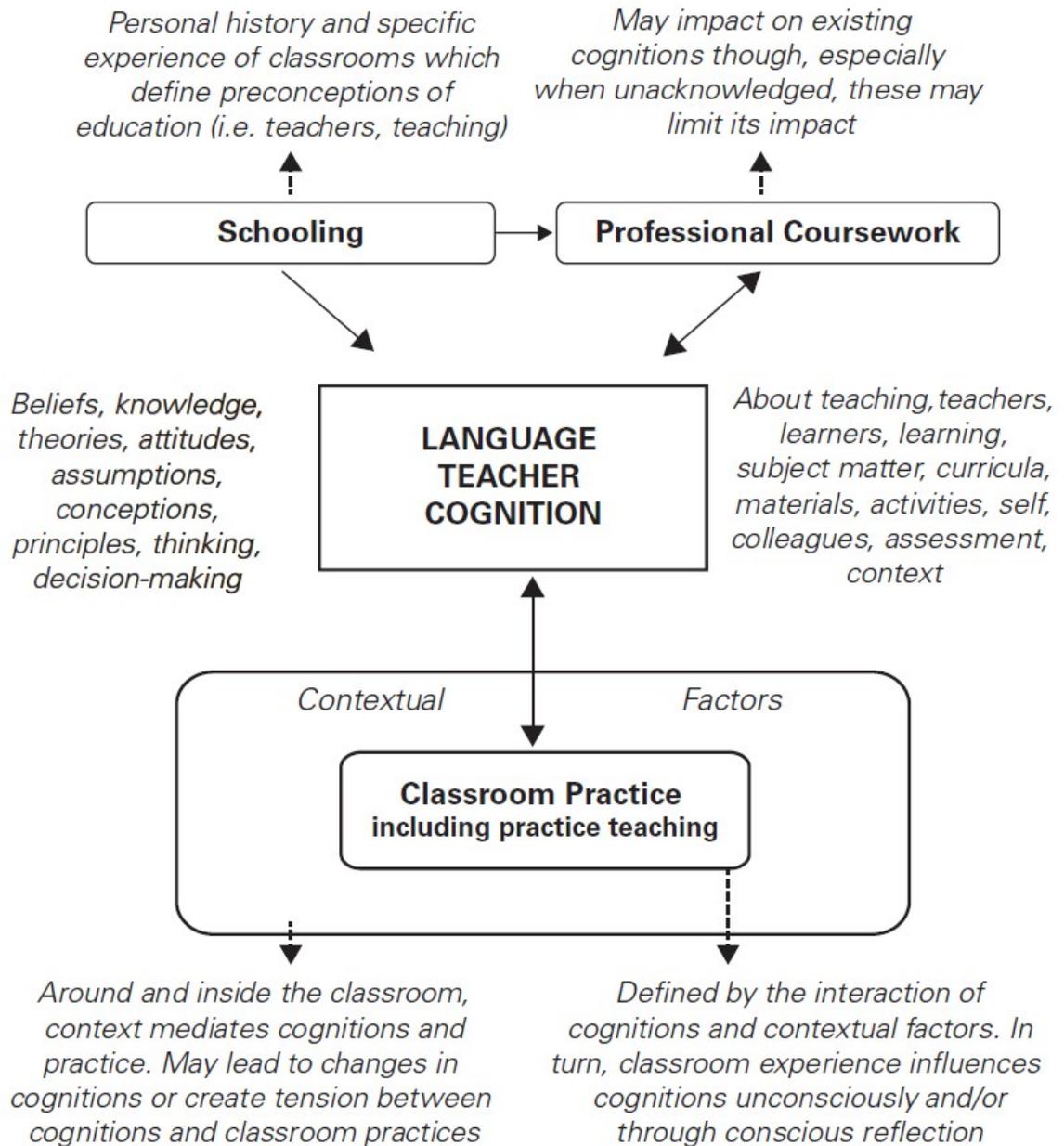
Borg (2015, p. 333)

1.3 Research Context

1.3.1 Educational System in China

As the present study was carried out in universities in eastern China, it is necessary to describe the educational system in China as background to the research. As shown in Table 1.1, the Chinese educational system is composed of seven stages.

Table 1.1 Stages of Chinese Educational System

Sequence	Stages	Years of study
1	Pre-school education	Three
2	Primary school education	Three
3	Junior high school education	Three
4	Senior high school education	Three
	Junior vocational education	Two
5	Undergraduate programme	Four
	Higher vocational education	Three
6	Graduate programme	Two to Three
7	Doctoral programme	Three to Four

English is established as an independent subject from junior high school education or from primary school in some large cities. English is a major part of both high school entrance examinations and university entrance examinations in mainland China. In tertiary level education, English is normally required as a compulsory course for one or two years depending on the English proficiency of the students. In summary, English is considered as a national educational undertaking in China (L. J. Zhang, 2013a).

In Chinese universities, especially universities in the eastern part of China, most CE teachers have master's degrees. A doctor's degree is a prerequisite nowadays when recruiting teachers for some top quality universities. Teachers with a master's degree are qualified to be appointed as lecturers. The title of Associate Professor could be available either to teachers with a doctor's degree or lecturers with five years' teaching experience.

1.3.2 Foreign Language Requirements for Chinese University Students

1.3.2.1 The Definition of College English in China

The College English course is a general term for the compulsory English courses taken by all Chinese tertiary level students who are non-English major students. The CE course plays an important part in general education in Chinese universities.

1.3.2.2 Teaching Requirements for College English Curriculum

According to the latest education decree, English Requirements for College Students by Ministry of Education in China issued by the Chinese Ministry of Education, the CE course should account for 10% (approximately 16 academic credits) of the total academic credits for college students studying for their bachelor's degrees. The aim of CE teaching is to enhance students' English communication ability and equip them with effective and essential communication skills in English.

Three levels of students' language proficiencies ranging from low to high are recognized for CE, as presented in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2 English Requirements for College Students by Ministry of Education in China

	Low standard	*Medium standard*	*High standard*
Listening	Can understand English lectures and commonly used English spoken language; can understand English broadcasting and TV programmes at the delivery speed of 130 to 150 words per minute; master basic listening skills.	Can understand English lectures; can understand English broadcasting and TV programmes at the delivery speed of 150-180 words per minute; can understand English lectures on their subjects.	Can understand English broadcasting and TV programmes; can understand native speakers' normal speed conversations; can understand courses and lectures in English on their subjects.
Speaking	Can use English for daily oral communication; can have brief discussions on familiar topics; master basic speaking skills.	Can deliver fluent conversation on common topics with precise pronunciation and proper intonation.	Can deliver fluent discussion on common or specialised topics; can present and participate in academic discussions at international conferences.

Reading	Can understand easy articles with a reading speed of 70 words per minute; can scan longer articles with a speed of 100 words per minute; can understand English newspapers with the help of a dictionary; can understand the articles in subjects; master basic reading skill.	Can understand articles in common newspapers and magazines with a reading speed of 70-90 words per minute; scan longer articles with a speed of 120 words per minute; can generally understand reviews on subjects	Can understand difficult articles in newspapers and magazines; can easily understand English literature articles in specialised areas.
Writing	Can finish expository texts with a speed of 120 words per 30 minutes; master basic writing skills.	Can write articles on common topics, academic abstracts and essays with a speed of 160 words per 30 minutes.	Can write reports and papers on specialised areas; can express ideas in written language; can write instructions or argumentations with a speed of 200 words per 30 minutes with a clear expressed idea, amplified content, clear structure and logic.
Translating	Can translate from English to Chinese with a speed of 300 words per hour; Can translate from Chinese to English with a speed of 250	Can translate English academic articles in specialised areas with the help of a dictionary; Can translate from English to Chinese	Can translate English academic articles in specialised areas and articles in English newspapers with the help of a dictionary; Can translate from English to

	words per hour; no enormous mistakes or misunderstandings in the translated work.	with a speed of 350 words per hour; Can translate from English to Chinese with a speed of 300 words per hour;	Chinese with a speed of 400 words per hour; Can translate from Chinese to English with a speed of 350 words per hour;
Vocabulary	4795 words and 700 phrases	6395 words and 1200 phrases	7675 words and 1870 phrases

1.3.2.3 College English Tests for University Students in China

There are two kinds of English tests for college students in China:

1) College English Test Band 4 (CET-4): for first or second year undergraduates

2) College English Test Band 6 (CET-6): for the second, third or fourth year undergraduates and postgraduates.

The CE tests were first put forward in 1987 in mainland China with the primary aim to enhance CE teaching quality. Students who had passed CET-4 were qualified to take CET-6. Before 2005, university students needed to pass CET-4 to gain their bachelor's degrees. In some high-ranking universities, passing CET-6 was also compulsory for achieving a degree. There was an important reform in the CE Tests policy in 2005. From 2005, the total score of CE Tests was changed from 100 to 710. At the same time, passing the CE Tests was not necessary for obtaining a degree. In CET-4 and CET-6, listening and reading account for 35% each and translating and writing constitute 15% each. Students are allowed 30 minutes to write 120 to 180 words for CET-4 and 150 to 200 words for CET-6 based on the information given in the instructions.

1.3.3 College English Curriculum in China

As stated in the latest "Teaching Requirements for the College English Curriculum", issued by the Ministry of Education in China in September 2007, the CE curriculum should be set according to the situation in each school. There are different levels of CE to choose from due to the different language proficiency of the students. In most universities in China, university students will be tested, on their entry to the university, and allocated into different levels of the CE course. The CE courses are taught in the first two years. Besides the CE courses, there are some optional courses for students, which include English public speaking, English academic writing and English films introductory.

The Chinese academic year is divided into two terms starting from September each year. The second term starts in March and ends in late June or early July. Each term lasts for 18 to 19 weeks, with 16 weeks of teaching usually followed by two to three weeks for examination or assessment. Each college teaching unit is one 45 minute session and one course usually take two periods (100 minutes altogether with ten minutes break in between) at a time. Different subjects have different academic credits. The subjects related to students' majors always carry more academic credits than the CE course which means more time is spent on major subjects than on the CE course. On average, the CE curriculum comprises four hours weekly and lasts throughout the first or the first two academic years (S. Wang & Wang, 2011). Generally, the CE course has four periods allocated over two days every week. Currently the CE course in Chinese universities are divided into two sessions: Listening and speaking; Reading and writing. In the majority of universities in China, there are one listening and speaking session and three reading

and writing sessions on a two-weekly basis. Table 5.1 shows a sample of the CE teaching syllabus in the context of Chinese universities.

Traditional teaching method dominated CE class in old days. After the curriculum reform launched by MoE in China around 2000, it has been advocated to adopt Communicative Language Teaching Method (CLT) in the CE classroom. According to Richards and Rodgers (2014), traditional teaching method is product-oriented and teacher-dominated. In a traditional teaching methods classroom, repetition and memorization are emphasized. Skills are often learned through practice. A CLT classroom is process-oriented. Teachers in a CLT classroom work as facilitators and learners are engaged in communication.

1.3.4 College English Teacher Training and Promotion in China

Since data analysis in this study took into account the participants' background including teacher training and the promotion scheme in mainland China, the introduction of the context concerning this area is presented in this section. Many studies suggest that "lack of teacher training and support from affiliated organizations has contributed to the poor teaching quality in China" (Zhou, 2014, p. 516). In China, although college teachers have to gain teachers' qualification certificates before implementing teaching practices, teachers are not necessarily from teacher-education universities (L. J. Zhang, 2004a; L. J. Zhang, 2004b). Under such circumstances, it is very common for postgraduate students who majored in English to teach CE in universities. After becoming in-service teachers, they claim that they need more training in the teaching process (Buss, 2016; F. Liu & Xia, 2011; H. X. Wang, 2009). In some high-ranking universities, teaching training activities are carried out every year including lectures delivered by experts in teaching and technical teaching skills training. However, language teachers in China do not have

many opportunities to "enhance their teaching knowledge" (H. X. Wang, 2009, p. 11). Currently, as advocated by Cai (2010), English education at tertiary level is changing from general English to ESP (English for Specific Purposes). CE teaching is in the process of transitioning and many Chinese scholars are conducting research focusing on the redesigning of CE teacher training programmes at both pre-service and in-service level. It is expected that the current study will add to the research literature on EFL teacher education in the context of the teaching of English writing to EFL students in China.

Teachers' promotion in China is highly dependent on an individual's capability. As teacher promotion was frequently mentioned in the interviews in this research, a general picture of the CE teacher promotion scheme covering the nine universities will be introduced. Teachers with doctoral degree are more likely to be appointed as lecturers and those without doctoral degrees are appointed as assistant lecturers. To progress from assistant lecturers to lecturers and from lecturers to senior lecturers (assistant professors), two to five years working experience and a different number of academic publications are required. Some universities also require applicants to participate in, or be the sole leader of, at least one national research project. Requirements for promotion to a full professor differ from university to university, although a high number of publications, extensive working experience and project participation are all needed. Meeting these requirements is not necessarily a guarantee of promotion, as candidates compete with other applicants. All in all, promotion in the nine universities considered in this study is highly competitive.

1.3.5 Marking Criteria of Students' English Writing

Students' writing, combining the official marking criteria for the CET-4 writing task and the IELTS writing task, is mainly judged on the following four aspects: 1) Task response; 2) Coherence and Cohesion; 3) Vocabulary diversity; and 4) Grammar accuracy and range (College English Test Committee, 2016; IELTS committee, 2018).

1.3.6 Tiers of Universities in This Study

Chinese universities are officially classified into three tiers by the Ministry of Education in China. Tier 1 universities refer to national key universities including those chosen as "985 or 211"[1] universities. Tier 2 universities are provincial universities which are mainly governed and supported by local government. Tier 3 universities are small scale public and private universities most of which specialize in one particular area (Xuanhai, Mingyang, Qi, & Hui, 2011).

1.4 Rationale and Significance

The primary incentive for this study stems from the situation that research on EFL teacher cognition still remains an "uncharted territory" compared with research on cognition of teachers of other subjects (Borg, 2015, p. 176). The important role that teacher cognition plays in influencing and shaping the way teachers teach is well documented. For instance, Ernest (1989) posited that teachers with a similar knowledge base might differ in their teaching practices due to differences in their cognition. Burns (1992) , furthermore, concluded that teachers' mental processes should be placed "at the heart of teaching and learning" (p. 64). Cumming (1989) similarly explained that

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[1] 985 universities were nominated by the government of the People's Republic of China as the leading world-class universities in China. Currently there are about 40 985 universities in China. 211 universities were selected by the government of the People's Republic of China as a second class universities. There are around 100 211 institutions in China nowadays.

teachers' personal cognition or beliefs were even more important than the "prescribed models of educational theory" in influencing what happened in the classroom (p. 47). In China, English education was valued at different levels of the Chinese educational system (Lam, 2005; Wette & Barkhuizen, 2009; L. J. Zhang, 2008). Given the importance of research on teacher cognition and the value placed on English education in China, the following eight factors provide a strong justification for the current study.

1) There is a scarcity of research into EFL writing teachers' cognition and practice. The rapid growth of teacher cognition research since the 1970s has led to a large amount of research on language teachers' cognition in general. However, little attention has been paid to EFL writing teachers' cognition. About 80% of English teachers worldwide are non-native English speakers (Braine, 2010) with multilingual speakers accounting for a significant proportion of the student population (Ortmeier-Hooper & Enright, 2011). According to the Chinese National Statistics Year Book in 2017, there were a total of 24 million students enrolled as tertiary level students in mainland China with seven million students enrolling as first year students in 2017 (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2017). However, a review of the literature revealed little research into writing and EFL writing teachers' cognition and practice (Borg, 2015; Gilliland, 2015). This study seeks to contribute to the research on EFL teacher education in mainland China as well as EFL teacher education globally.

2) The field of EFL writing teacher education has received little attention. Although teacher education has become a mainstream study for a long time, little attention has been given to "writing teacher education" globally (Hirvela & Belcher, 2007, p. 125) especially to second language (L2) writing teacher education (Leki,

Cumming, & Silva, 2008). English writing is believed by scholars (Harris, Graham, MacArthur, Reid, & Mason, 2011) to be the most complex task in developing English language proficiency as it is "recursive, strategic and multidimensional" (p. 188). Despite the importance of English writing skills for the students' academic and future career development, second language writing teachers are mostly "inexperienced" and "under-prepared" (Johns, 2009; Tremmel, 2001). Recent studies show that high school teachers had no or little preparation for teaching language (Ardila-Rey, 2008) or second language writing (Gilliland, 2015; Larsen, 2013; L. J. Zhang, 2016). Even a teacher with a master's degree in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) in the USA was reported to feel unprepared to help the language learners (Malsbary & Appelgate, 2014). The education of English writing teacher is seriously under-developed outside the USA (Lee, 2011b), despite its paramount importance in foreign language education (L. J. Zhang, 2013b). The teaching of EFL writing is often regarded as the most challenging task for teachers and it is also the most difficult language skill to learn for students (J. Wang, 2014; L. J. Zhang, 2013b). Until very recently, EFL writing instruction in China was still considered as a "Cinderella" in Chinese national English language syllabus at all levels (L. J. Zhang, 2016, p. 207). As writing in English is considered an advanced language skill, English writing is less emphasised in the CE course compared with listening, reading and speaking teaching (J. Wang, 2014; S. Wang & Wang, 2011). In the research into teacher cognition, most studies have focused on primary and secondary level teachers (L. Li, 2013; Nishino, 2012). The current study focuses on tertiary level EFL writing instruction in mainland China, which has the largest population of EFL student writers.

3) English writing is a neglected area in the Chinese foreign language curriculum.

Compared with instruction of other language skill namely English listening, speaking, reading and translating, English writing is a neglected area in the Chinese foreign language curriculum (H. Wang, 2014; S. Wang & Wang, 2011). As English language has become more and more important, demands for English language teaching have increased too. In mainland China, the CE course is a compulsory course in all universities. However, an English writing course, such as academic writing in English, was provided for English-major students by a few universities only (You, 2004b, p. 254). A small number of universities offer English writing as an optional course for non-English major students. For example, in the university where the researcher is employed, CE is a credit course that all the first year and second year university students have to take. The levels of the courses differ according to students' language proficiency. English writing courses are provided at the intermediate and advanced levels for English-major students, with an English writing course as an optional course at a more basic level offered to students in other majors. The number of students who have opportunities to take an English writing courses is much lower than those who take the CE course.

4) Potential teachers in China lack training in how to teach the CE course.

The quality of an educational system depends on the quality of its teachers (UNESCO, 2015). In addition, since English language has become more and more important, demands for English language teaching has increased too (Crystal, 2003). Due to the significant role teachers have played in the whole educational system, teacher education is valued highly by many scholars worldwide (Richards, 2008). Literature showed scholars' pessimistic views towards teacher training especially in field of language teacher training. It is claimed that the ESL/EFL teacher education programmes have little impact on teachers (Peacock, 2001). In China, teacher education has been of interest to

the government, schools and teachers themselves. Although training in subject knowledge and the other essential skills including computer literacy are increasingly offered to prospective teachers in China, it is argued that they lack training on how to teach (Zhou, 2014). The current study aims to contribute to the literature base on language teacher education in general and EFL teacher education in mainland China in particular.

5) Writing instruction in mainland China is dominated by exam-oriented cultures. Although the latest educational decree "Teaching Requirements for CE Curriculum" specified that the purpose of the CE course is to enhance language learning strategy and cross-cultural communication skills. Mainland China (L. Zhang & Zhang, 2013) and Hong Kong (Lee, 2011b) are still heavily dominated by an exam culture. Teachers in mainland China tend to place excessive value on instilling vocabulary and grammatical knowledge as the CE Tests (CET) evaluate the students' learning performances in these areas.

6) English writing is a skill that many Chinese students have not developed well. Compared with other language skills including reading skills, which is highly valued by English teachers in China, English writing is a skill that many Chinese students have not learned well. According to IELTS statistics, writing scores are lower than scores for listening, speaking and reading. Although English writing ability plays a crucial role in students' academic achievement, Chinese students consider writing in English as the most challenging and difficult skill to develop competency (Ong & Zhang, 2013; Y. Zheng & Cheng, 2008).

7) New knowledge contribution is made possible by adopting *dialogism.*

Bakhtin's theory, *dialogism,* as the analytical framework, has been adopted in the current study for a deeper analysis of the phenomena in question. A search of the literature reveals that almost no research on teacher cognition has been done within Bakhtin's *dialogism* framework. In this sense, this study is the first tentative piece of work using Bakhtin's theory in understanding teacher cognition. The relevance of the theory to the current study and how the theory is applied to data analysis are discussed in Section 2.3.3 and Section 2.3.4.

1.5 Research Questions

The preceding brief review of literature about teacher cognition revealed there has been "little research on teacher cognition in writing instruction" within EFL teaching contexts (Borg, 2006, p. 135). This explorative study aims to answer the following broad questions:

1) What is EFL College English teachers' cognition about students' writing in EFL?

2) What is EFL College English teachers' cognition about the teaching of English writing to EFL students?

3) Are there any differences in teachers' cognition about the teaching of English writing to EFL students with reference to teachers' age, gender, or working experiences? If yes, what are the differences?

4) What is the relationship between teacher cognition and teaching practices? To what extent does the teachers' stated cognition converge with, or diverge from, their actual teaching practices in the classroom?

5) What factors contribute to the (re)formation of teacher cognition? How is teacher cognition (re)formed?

1.6 Organisation of the Thesis

The thesis comprises seven chapters. Chapter One introduces the background, context and rationale, presenting research questions as well as crystalizing definitions used in the study. Chapter Two provides a detailed review of the literature on teacher cognition, language teacher cognition, EFL teacher cognition and EFL writing teacher cognition and identifies the research gaps in the existing literature. Chapter Two also provides the theoretical frameworks and analytical frameworks which guided the research design and data analysis. Chapter Three describes the design of the study, the data collection procedures and the data analyses process. Chapter Four and Five report in detail on data from both the questionnaire and multiple case studies. In Chapter Six, findings from both quantitative and qualitative data are integrated into one in-depth discussion in relation to the literature reviewed in Chapter Two. In Chapter Seven, a summary of the research findings is presented together with a discussion of the study's contributions, limitations and suggestions.

1.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter first clarified the definition of teacher cognition adopted in this study. It then addressed the background and context of the study including the educational system in China and provided information about the CE courses in Chinese universities. Following that, the research questions and the rationale of the study were outlined. The chapter concluded by outlining the organization of the thesis.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL

FRAMEWORK

2.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter commences with a review of the existing literature in the field of teacher cognition, language teacher cognition in general, and EFL writing teacher cognition in particular, including studies conducted in other parts of the world as well as in mainland China. Since the scope of the current study is within the field of language teacher cognition in the context of tertiary institutions in China, the main body of part one of the chapter focuses on language teacher cognition, with studies on the relationship between teacher cognition and practice examined in the first part. The second part of this chapter presents the theoretical framework underpinning this study. The chapter concludes by identifying some research gaps from four perspectives which have led to this study.

2.2 Literature Review

A critical review of the literature on teacher cognition reveal that studies on teacher cognition can be divided generally into two themes based on two research aims: explorative studies to identify cognition and studies juxtaposing relationships between teacher cognition and teaching practices.

2.2.1 Definition of Teacher Cognition

Borg (2003) defines teacher cognition as "the unobservable cognitive dimension of the teacher-what teachers know, believe and think" (p. 81). In teacher cognition research, however, distinctive terms are used interchangeably to describe the concept (Borg, 2015).

Such terms include, but are not limited to, "beliefs" (Crawley & Salyer, 1995; Ford, 1994; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1993), "conception" (Hewson, Kerby, & Cook, 1995; Thompson, 1992), "knowledge" (F. M. Connelly & Clandinin, 1988; Grossman, Wilson, & Shulman, 1989; Wilson, Shulman, & Richert, 1987) and "cognition" (Borg, 2006; Borg & Burns, 2008; Phipps & Borg, 2009).

The definition of teacher cognition in studies in this field can be mapped in a chronological order. In the seminal work of Pajares (1992), it is stated that if the purpose of research on teacher beliefs is to inform teaching practices, it is necessary to define teacher belief. Studies which followed, however, find that it is challenging to differentiate beliefs from knowledge (Richardson, 1996). Teachers believe that components of "knowledge, beliefs, concepts, and intuitions are inextricably intertwined" (Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001, p. 446). Woods (1996) similarly integrate beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge to form a broader concept of BAK (beliefs, assumptions and knowledge).

In this study, the definition of "teacher cognition", provided by Borg (2003), is adopted. Teacher cognition is meant to refer to "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching-what teachers know, believe, and think" (p. 81). Borg's (2003) definition in this study is a broader concept and an umbrella term of teachers' mental lives (Walberg, 1977) incorporating cognition, belief, knowledge and conception. According to Borg (2006), as noted above, there are generally two lines of inquiry within research on teacher cognition. First, there are studies exploring cognition of teachers, while other studies examine both cognition and teaching practices. These two lines of inquiry are reviewed separately in the following sections.

2.2.2 Studies on Teacher Cognition

2.2.2.1 General Teacher Cognition

Borg (2006) offers an historical overview of teacher cognition research in his book reviewing studies on teacher cognition from a broad perspective. According to Borg (2006), a conference organized by the National Institute of Education in 1975 in the United States has marked the beginning of the research into teacher cognition. In the group report, experts argued:

> It is obvious that what teachers do is directed in no small measure by what they think. To the extent that observed or intended teaching behaviour is "thoughtless", it makes no use of the human teacher's most unique attributes. In so doing, it becomes mechanical and might well be done by a machine. If, however, teaching is done and, in all likelihood, will continue to be done by human teachers, the question of relationships between thought and action becomes crucial (National Institute of Education, 1975, p. 1).

This report emphasises the importance of studying the teachers' psychological processes as well as studying their teaching behaviours (Borg, 2009). From then on, the research on teacher cognition has been thriving and gradually become a mainstream field of inquiry. Borg (2009) states that the large volume of research on teacher cognition has led to several literature reviews which are worth mentioning (Ball & McDiarmid, 1989; Calderhead, 1996; Carter, 1990; Carter & Doyle, 1996; Fang, 1996; Grossman, 1995; Munby, Russell, & Martin, 2001; Richardson, 1996; Thompson, 1992; Verloop et al., 2001). Gilliland (2015) asserts that there has been little recent research into teachers' understanding of the teaching of second language writing at either high school or tertiary

level. Borg (2015) also argues that teacher cognition research in relation to language teaching, especially on second language teaching, still merits further attention.

2.2.2.2 Language Teacher Cognition

Based on the fact that teacher cognition plays an important part in the conceptualization of language teaching (L. J. Zhang & Said, 2014), language teacher cognition research has emerged as a mainstream line of inquiry in the field of second language teacher education (Basturkmen, 2012; Freeman, 2002; K. E. Johnson, 2006).

An extensive search of the literature reveal that diversified topics regarding language teacher cognition have been investigated. Topics have been varied, and include teaching and learning (Doyle, 1997), decision-making processes study (Woods, 1996), teacher change over time (L. J. Zhang, 2005), of second language teacher cognition development (Tsui, 2003), relationships between teacher cognition and teaching practices (Lee, 2008a; Tsui, 1996), and teacher identity (L. J. Zhang & Zhang, 2015). In contrast with the amount of studies on the above topics, a limited number of studies have been identified that focus on language teacher cognition in relation to aspects of language skills instruction, such as the teaching of English listening, speaking, reading, writing, and translating. Studies of teacher cognition in grammar teaching, however, are well documented (e.g., Andrews, 1997; Andrews, 1999; Borg, 2001; Borg & Burns, 2008; T. S. C. Farrell & Lim, 2005; T. S. C. Farrell, 1999; Graus & Coppen, 2016; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Phipps & Borg, 2009), and a few scholars have also focused on teacher cognition about reading instruction (Meijer, Verloop, & Beijaard, 1999; Meijer, Verloop, & Beijaard, 2001; Vaish, 2012), the teaching and learning of vocabulary (X. Gao & Ma, 2011; Macalister, 2012), the teaching of pronunciation (Baker, 2014; Buss, 2016), the teaching of listening (Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2014) and the teaching of

speaking (Baleghizadeh & Nasrollahi Shahri, 2014; Goh & Chen, 2014). However, only a small number of studies on teacher cognition are in the field teacher cognition about the teaching of writing (Burns, 1992; Cumming, 2003; Tsui, 1996). Research into in-service EFL writing teacher cognition is even scarcer.

According to the research focus reported, it appears that there is more research into pre-service teachers' cognition than in-service teachers' cognition (Altan, 2012; Busch, 2010; Mak, 2011; Yuan & Lee, 2014; Yuan & Lee, 2015). Borg (2003) also points out that, while research on language teacher cognition frequently focus on native English-speaking teachers, there have been limited research on non-native English speaking teachers.

There have been a number of studies on pre-service teachers' beliefs. Mattheoudakis's (2007) longitudinal study, using the questionnaire of Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) as a main research tool (Horwitz, 1987), has investigated pre-service EFL teachers' belief changes over a three-year educational programme. The author reports that, although participants have gradually developed their beliefs during the programme, their teaching practicum has not led to changes in their beliefs. Also using the BALLI questionnaire, Altan's (2012) study of 217 full-time undergraduate students in different years enrolled in English Language Teaching programmes at seven state universities in Turkey, finds that some of the beliefs held by pre-service teachers have confirmed their training experiences while some other beliefs might go beyond educators' or trainers' expectations. The study of Altan (2012) suggests that teacher educational programmes should encourage prospective teachers to explore their beliefs to help them adjust better to teaching practices after graduation. In contrast, a mixed methods study

finds significant changes in beliefs over one professional SLA course taken by 381 pre-service teachers (Busch, 2010). Participants in this study attribute their pre-test beliefs to "language learning experience in high school" (Busch, 2010, p. 318). Macalister (2012) has carried out a study with 60 pre-service teachers in a language teacher educational programme in Malaysia, which has found that participants' beliefs mostly resembled their educators' beliefs. A survey study on pre-service teacher beliefs about grammar instruction in Dutch universities, involving 832 participants, reveals that teachers supported form-focused, explicit and inductive instruction (Graham et al., 2014). In summary, findings of the above studies suggest that cognition of pre-service teachers is in a process of development over their learning or training experiences. Some of their cognition resembles those of their educators while others are influenced by other factors which either have mediated or constrained their cognition.

Although studies on in-service teachers' cognition are not as many as those on pre-service teachers, as reviewed above, in-service teachers' cognition and practice have also attracted many scholars' attention. Using a mixed methods study, Vaish (2012) investigates teacher beliefs about bilingualism through a reading intervention programme. The results of the study show that teachers believe in the immersion approach as well as the role mother tongue has played in the process of English learning. Grounded in naturalistic inquiry, Allen's (2013) research contributes to the field of teacher cognition research by identifying five distinct groups of beliefs amongst the teachers towards developing second language (French) proficiency. Her study also suggests teachers' personal experiences and their interactions with native French speakers have influenced the formation of teacher beliefs. Allen (2013) concludes that her findings largely align with what has been reported in the literature on language

teachers' cognition about foreign language learning. Baleghizadeh (2014) has demonstrated the "interwoven nature" of learning experience and teaching cognition (p. 738) in a qualitative study on three in-service teachers' cognition about how to learn and teach English speaking skill in EFL context. In reporting a survey on 60 in-service teachers' cognition and practice of pronunciation teaching, Buss (2016) concludes that participants in the study hold positive attitudes towards the teaching of pronunciation and espouse the traditional teaching method to teach pronunciation, but reports they need more training to teach pronunciation. Goh and Chen (2014), in their study on teacher beliefs towards the teaching of English speaking among teachers in China, however, reveals that teachers believe in developing students' communicative competence rather than linguistic proficiency. To sum up, findings of the above studies of in-service language teachers' cognition suggest that teachers' learning and personal experiences have played an important role in the process of teacher cognition formation. The above studies, nonetheless, reveal that teacher cognition patterns differ according to the contexts with results that are not consistently aligned with those in the previous literature.

To conclude, the studies on language teacher cognition reveal that cognition of both pre-service teachers and in-service teachers is in the process of changing. Factors mediating, or constraining teacher cognition appear to include learning experience, personal experience and other contextual factors. Some pre-service teachers' cognition align with their educators or their training experiences while others go beyond the teacher educators' expectation. This review of the literature contributes to an understanding of teacher cognition about the teaching and learning of English writing in the Chinese tertiary EFL context.

2.2.2.3 EFL Writing Teacher Cognition

The research on EFL writing teacher cognition remains an "uncharted territory" compared with the research on cognition of teachers who teach other subjects (Borg, 2015, p. 176). Existing studies (e.g., Burns, 1992; Cumming, 1990; Cumming, 1992; Cumming, 2003; Diab, 2005; Scott & Rodgers, 1995; Sengupta & Xiao, 2002; L. Shi & Cumming, 1995; Tsui, 1996) on writing teacher cognition in foreign language contexts are reviewed by Borg (2015). More recently, studies in this area have been burgeoning (e.g., Ferris, 2003; Ferris & Hedgcock, 2013; Ferris, 2011; Goldstein, 2005; Hyland, 2003a; Hyland, 2004; J. Liu & Edwards, 2002).

Similar to studies on language teacher cognition generally, studies on EFL writing teacher cognition include both studies on teacher cognition and factors which contribute to the formation of teacher cognition, and studies on clarifying the relationships between cognition and practice. Shi and Cumming (1995) claim that teachers' conceptions of teaching writing are highly individualized instead of showing a general pattern. Cumming (1990), in a comparative study, concludes that novice and experienced writing teachers hold different cognition on the assessment of students' writing activities. Among scholars in the field of EFL writing teacher cognition, Lee (2011a; 2010; 2013a; 1998; 2003; 2013b), a very productive researcher, has noticed that little research has been conducted on EFL writing teacher cognition and she has become one of the first scholars combining teacher cognition/belief and the teaching of EFL writing. Lee's qualitative studies, focusing mainly on secondary school English writing teachers in Hong Kong, have generated fruitful results in the field of EFL teacher cognition especially in EFL writing teacher cognition. She has identified a gap between teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices, particularly in relation to feedback provisions:

"Though teachers think that textual coherence is essential to writing instruction, their focus in teaching and evaluating students' writing is primarily on grammar" (Lee, 1998, p. 69). Lee (2011a) suggests that a lack of teacher training, a lack of support from the key stakeholders and practical constraints may have contributed to the existing gap between EFL teachers' beliefs and practices. Yigitoglu (2011; 2014), using mainly qualitative research methods, has carried out studies comparing native and non-native EFL writing teachers' beliefs about how their experiences in writing in their first and second languages have influenced their beliefs about the teaching of English writing. The main finding of her studies is that both the L1 and L2 writing proficiency are crucial in teachers' implementation of writing teaching practices in the classroom. Another recent noteworthy study on writing teacher cognition with secondary ESL teachers by Larson (2013) claims that a large number of teachers are not well prepared to teach L2 writing in the classroom (see also L. J. Zhang, 2016). Reichelt (2009) concludes after research in a range of EFL contexts, including Poland, Germany, China and Japan, that EFL writing teachers tend to consider themselves as general English teachers rather than teachers of English writing.

To conclude, the studies on EFL writing teacher cognition show that teachers believe that the teaching of EFL writing are ineffective and that EFL writing teachers tend to regard themselves as general English teachers who would sometimes reinforce grammar teaching in class (Reichelt, 2009; Reid, 1993; Zamel, 1985). The effectiveness of the teaching of EFL writing is affected by teachers' "lack of experience and knowledge' (Reid, 1993, p. 22) or a lack of "training and support from stakeholders" as argued by Lee (2011a, p. 6). Moreover, findings of some studies suggest that teacher cognition is highly individualized (L. Shi & Cumming, 1995) and factors such as age or pedagogical

expertise have influenced the formation of teacher cognition (Cumming, 1990; Larsen, 2013).

In general, studies indicate that the teaching of EFL writing is a neglected area both in English writing teaching practices and in EFL writing teacher education. Teachers' lack of experience and unpreparedness has affected the effectiveness of the teaching of English writing to EFL students. EFL writing teachers tend to view themselves as general English teachers instead of English writing teachers. EFL writing teachers appear to have to confront many obstacles such as lack of support from universities and curriculum constraints in their teaching practices.

2.2.2.4 Language Teacher Cognition in Chinese Context

Although research into teacher cognition in mainland China has emerged as a mainstream field of inquiry in the last decade, it still lags behind studies carried out in the West, both in time and in scope (Y. Gao & Li, 2007). At the beginning stage, a number of Chinese scholars have translated research on teacher cognition from English to Chinese (X. Liu & Shen, 2006; X. Zhang, Lin, & Shen, 2004). Research undertaken in China have included the teaching of grammar (Q. Gao & Liu, 2008), the teaching of writing (P. Zhang, 2008; X. Zheng, 2006) and examinations of teachers' occupational identities (Wu, 2008; Xia & Feng, 2006).

Most studies on teacher cognition in the Chinese context have been qualitative case studies, which makes generalisation of the outcomes difficult. A case study of three CE teachers in mainland China shows that teacher's beliefs are constantly changing and are influenced by many factors including "national teaching reforms, the setting of the curriculum, new materials and new teaching methods study" (X. Zheng & Jiang, 2005,

p. 21). Another study by Zhou (2014) suggests that, in China, EFL teachers need training and support from the administration level. You (2004a) also identify that most English teachers in China have reported difficulties including large class sizes, the dominant exam-driven attitudes of the students, lack of training in teaching writing for teachers and the varied language proficiencies of the students. Yi (2013) discovers, in a case study, that two pre-service teachers have abandoned innovative approaches to teach writing because of the assessment demands of English writing for the students.

To sum up, studies on language teacher cognition in China suggest that a large number of negative factors contribute to the ineffectiveness of English teaching, especially the teaching of EFL writing when being compared with the teaching of other language skills instruction. Further research on EFL writing teacher cognition in Chinese context is clearly needed. Thus, one aim of the current study is to describe the situation of Chinese tertiary English writing teaching, including the effectiveness of English writing teaching and factors that influence, positively or negatively, EFL writing teachers' cognition and practice. The qualitative studies reviewed above have served as a platform on which to base the current mixed methods study.

2.2.2.5 Research Methods Adopted in Studies on Teacher Cognition

Borg (2015) states that there are "a wide range of methodological possibilities available" to research teacher cognition, each with "strengths and pitfalls" (p. 328). Horwitz (1985; 1987; 1988) has developed a self-report questionnaire, BALLI, to investigate pre-service teachers' beliefs regarding language learning and teaching, which is covering five aspects: teachers' beliefs about foreign language teaching aptitude, the nature of language learning, the difficulty of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivations. Later on, an adapted version of the questionnaire has been

used by other scholars including Peacock (1998) to investigate the relationship between students' and teachers' beliefs towards language learning and teaching.

Later, due to the "unobservable" characteristic of teacher cognition, qualitative studies have emerged in this field (Borg, 2003, p. 81), with interviews used as the major data collection tool to elicit teacher cognition. Many studies have used interviews as the main instrument with a few studies using observation and stimulated recall interviews (Yigitoglu & Belcher, 2014). Borg (2015) argues that investigation of teacher cognition should also involve what happens in the classroom and not only rely on self-report instruments in order to better represent the beliefs of teachers more effectively.

To sum up, research methods of studies on teacher cognition have developed from early use of questionnaires to later qualitative studies. Viewing teacher cognition as "unobservable psychological process" (Borg, 2003, p. 81) calls for studies using mixed methods, combining self-report instruments, such as questionnaires, with interviews and classroom observations. Data collected through various ways can be regarded as both methodological triangulation and data triangulation, and be compared and synthesized to address the research questions.

2.2.3 Studies on Relationships between Teacher Cognition and Teaching Practices

Another branch of research on teacher cognition aims to clarify the relationships between teacher cognition and teaching practices. Different studies have argued for either consistent or inconsistent relationships between the two. Research consensus has been limited to that teacher cognition influences teachers' practices (Pajares, 1992).

Recent studies in the field of teacher cognition and practice argue that teacher cognition plays an important role in mediating teaching practices in classrooms (Basturkmen, 2012; T. S. Farrell & Filion, 2014; T. S. Farrell & Bennis, 2013; T. S. Farrell & Ives, 2015; Min, 2013; Watson, 2015). In turn, teaching practices also exerts an influence on teacher cognition (Richardson, 1996). Some of these studies have tried to identify the relationships between teacher cognition and practice, but results indicated either consistency or inconsistency between the two. A number of reviews of the studies on the relationship between teacher cognition and teaching practices have been produced (e.g., Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2015; Fang, 1996; Min, 2013).

Adopting a number of different research methods, Borg (1998; 1999; 2001) has carried out empirical studies on the relationships between teacher cognition about the teaching of English grammar and teachers' actual practices in the classroom. His findings reveal that teachers' beliefs have influenced their decision-making process and teaching practice. Similarly, Johnson's (1992) study of 30 ESL teachers in a range of elementary, secondary and college level schools in the U. S. finds out that more than half of the participants have demonstrated consistency between their beliefs and practices. Min (2013) similarly, in a study of a teacher and 18 English majored second year university students, posits that there is congruence between the teacher's belief and her practice. To sum up, in addition to confirming teacher cognition's impact on teaching practices, the above studies also show consistency between teacher cognition and practice.

Despite the large body of research confirming the consistency between teacher cognition and practice, other studies have produced opposite conclusions. Graden (1996), for example, finds inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and their actual teaching

practices in a study involving six secondary French and Spanish teachers. Among factors contributing to such inconsistencies, Graden (1996) concludes that teachers had to compromise their beliefs to adjust to students' needs. Teacher participants in his study believe that reading comprehension exercises could facilitate students' reading proficiency development, however, in practice, due to students' "poor performance", teachers are constrained from assigning many reading comprehension exercises, thus having to compromise their beliefs (Graden, 1996, p. 387). In a single case study, Li (2013) finds that her teacher participant's belief does not always align with practice, because she has to adjust her classroom practice due to the test-oriented education system. Another survey in England of 115 foreign language teachers' stated beliefs and stated practices about listening pedagogy reveals that teachers' beliefs are not always consistent with their practices due to a listening "task completion" requirement (Graham et al., 2014, p. 53). Some researchers propose that context, or constraining factors, including curricular requirements, classroom management, and proficiency of students have resulted in the inconsistency between cognition and practice (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2015; Graden, 1996; L. Li, 2013).

Both matched and mismatched relationships between teacher cognition and practice are also found by Phipps and Borg (2009). In a similar vein, in the context of Hong Kong, Lee (2008a; 2008b) finds both consistent and inconsistent relationships between teacher cognition and practice in a series of her studies into secondary school English teachers.

A limited number of studies into the relationships between teacher cognition and teaching practices in the Chinese context show both consistency and inconsistency between the two. A study shows that, although teachers hold clear beliefs about effective

EFL teaching and are competent to apply their beliefs in their teaching practices, there are significant differences between teacher cognition and practice (Xiang & Borg, 2014). In Xiang and Borg's (2014) mixed methods study involving 57 participants in the first stage survey study and 20 in the in-depth second stage, the researchers argue that the reasons for this mismatch are student factors (students' low proficiency in English language), institutional factors (large classroom) and teacher factors (lack of training, reduced personal accomplishments). In a qualitative study with four secondary school EFL teachers in China, Zheng's (2013) study reveals that participants hold different types of beliefs and that the interaction of these beliefs has influenced their teaching practices. Another qualitative study, using interviews and classroom observations, into three secondary school teachers' cognition and practices related to task-based language teaching, has identified that beliefs in task-based learning and teaching are strongly associated with communicative activities in the classroom, but there are differences among the teacher participants of different age groups in the implementation of teaching practices (X. Zheng & Borg, 2014).

To sum up, research on the relationships between teacher cognition and practice in different contexts find both consistency and inconsistency between the two. Studies also report that a mismatch might be due to student factors, teacher factors, institutional factors and curriculum factors. This study seeks to clarify the relationships between Chinese tertiary level EFL writing teachers' cognition and their practices as well as to investigate factors contributing to such relationships.

2.2.4 Studies on Factors Influencing Teacher Cognition

Factors identified as influencing teacher cognition have included teachers' learning experiences, their teaching experiences and their backgrounds (F. M. Connelly,

Clandinin, & He, 1997; T. S. Farrell & Filion, 2014; Grossman, 1990; K. E. Johnson, 1994; Zeng & Murphy, 2007). Borg (2015) categorises factors contributing to language teacher cognition as teachers' schooling experience, teachers' professional coursework, classroom experience and contextual factors (refer to Figure 1.2). Schooling experience refers to teachers' language learning experience; professional coursework means the professional education received by teachers; classroom experience is interpreted as the teaching experience of teachers themselves; contextual factors are a broad category of factors other than the previous three factors (e.g., educational systems, educational policy, students' feedback, size of the classroom and influence of peer teachers).

There are studies describing the schooling factor mediating the formation process of teacher cognition. Nespor (1987) concludes that the schooling experience of participants in his study has played an important role when designing their teaching activities as school teachers. Baleghizadeh (2014) confirms the interrelationship between learning experience and teacher cognition through a qualitative study of three EFL in-service teachers. Another study tracking 37 pre-service teachers' beliefs as an evolving process reveals that schooling experience played a critical role in the cognition formation and reformation process (Ng, Nicholas, & Williams, 2010).

Borg (2011) embarks a longitudinal study with six English teachers in the UK to examine the influence of an educational programme for in-service teachers. Findings of this study illustrate the strong influence this professional programme has on the participants by either changing their previous beliefs about teaching and learning or reminding teachers about the importance of beliefs.

Contextual factors also mediate the formation of teacher cognition and could influence teaching practice (Borg, 2015; K. E. Johnson, 2009; Kalaja, 1995; Peacock, 2001). Borg (2015), concludes that contextual factors could directly or indirectly influence teaching practices by first changing teacher cognition. Lee (2008a) identifies ten mismatches between teacher cognition and teaching practice related to contextual factors. Policy and exam pressures are given as major reasons for the incongruence. Another study by Mak (2011), which has tracked how a pre-service EFL teacher's belief about Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has evolved during a one-year teacher education programme, finds that culture-related contextual factors have influenced the participant's beliefs. A comparative study on teacher cognition about the teaching and learning of vocabulary with four groups of teachers finds cognition differences both between teachers in Hong Kong and mainland China and between pre-service teachers and in-service teachers (X. Gao & Ma, 2011). For instance, Hong Kong teacher participants emphasise vocabulary memorisation while teacher participants in mainland China place more emphasis on learning vocabulary through use. Pre-service teacher participants in Hong Kong believe in teaching lexical knowledge to students while in-service teachers endorse vocabulary learning strategy instruction. Findings of their study confirm the mediating function of contextual factors in forming teacher cognition, identified in the previous research of Peacock (2001) and Johnson (2009).

Classroom teaching practice is considered a contextual factor (Borg, 2015). While it is commonly agreed that teacher cognition exerts enormous influence on teaching practices, what happens in the classroom may change or reinforce teachers' cognition as teachers tend to reflect on their own teaching behaviours to become be better teachers (Borg, 2015). Studies have confirmed the mediating function teaching practice has played on

teacher cognition by concluding that teachers either actively compare the outcomes of their different teaching methods, or choose the more effective method in the classroom (Nespor, 1987), or change their beliefs because of students' feedback (Moran, 1996).

To sum up, this section summarized research based on Borg's (2015) categorisation of factors influencing teacher cognition: schooling experience, professional coursework and contextual factors (see Figure 1.2). The current study aims to contribute to the literature base by either confirming, or adding a layer to, Borg's (2015) categorisation of factors influencing the (re)formation process of Chinese tertiary level EFL writing teaching cognition.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

2.3.1 Theoretical Frameworks for Studying Teacher Cognition

Although research on teacher cognition has been thriving recently, Feryok (2010) argues that there is no "commonly agreed" theory about teacher cognition (p. 272). Pavlenko (2007) also concludes that a "lack of theoretical framework" in the research field of teacher cognition is a major limitation within this domain (p. 167). Although the increasing body of research on teacher cognition has shown many attempts to "impose some structure on this field" (Borg, 2006, p. 280), most of the findings are still "descriptive" and remained "atheoretical" (Kubanyiova, 2012, p. 25). Kubanyiova (2012) states,

> Exploring different conceptual frame works could enrich our understanding of how language teachers develop their cognition. Systematic empirically driven theory-building efforts which integrate and, if necessary, challenge theorising from across the disciplinary and

epistemological spectrum may therefore be an essential next step in advancing this field." (p. 26)

A review of the small body of literature applying theories into research on teacher cognition has suggested that teacher cognition is "complex, dynamic, contextualised and systematic" (Borg, 2006, p. 272). In other studies, sociocultural and critical approaches serve as theoretical staples in this domain of research (Kubanyiova, 2012). For example, Feryok (2010) has applied Complex Dynamic System Theory to explain language teacher cognition. Similarly, Kiss (2012) draws on Complexity Theory in his qualitative study of student teachers' learning during an intensive postgraduate course of second language teacher education and concludes that the process of teacher learning is a dynamic, nonlinear, and chaotic one. Zheng (2013; 2015) from China contributes to the field of teacher cognition by applying Complexity Theory to her studies on teacher beliefs and practice. Three of Golombek's (2015; 2004; 2014) studies apply Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory (Vygotsky, 1978) to study teacher cognition from the emotional aspects of language teacher learning. Johnson (2015), also adopting Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory, analyses the significance of the dialogic interaction between teacher educators and teachers in teacher educational programmes.

To sum up, the empirical research described above focus on different characteristics of teacher cognition: Complex Dynamic System Theory describes the dynamic characteristic of teacher cognition without giving reasons for how cognition was formed and changed; Sociocultural Theory emphasises the social factors mediating the formation process of teacher cognition or constraining teaching practices. Theories adopted in the research above contrast with the limited studies which have applied *dialogism* in studying teacher cognition.

2.3.2 Dialogism

2.3.2.1 Dialogism

This study is based on the theoretical framework of Bakhtin's *dialogism*. According to Bakhtin (1986), *dialogism* also means utterance. In his view, the speaker is always responding to others' words:

> Any speaker is himself a respondent to a greater or lesser degree… he presupposes not only the existence of the language system, but also the existence of preceding utterances, his own and others'- with which his given utterance enters into one kind of relation or another… Any utterance is a link in a very complexly organized chain of other utterances. (p. 69)

Dialogism, which has provided an analytical lens to many previous studies in regard to first language and second language writing, is the core of Bakhtin's concepts (Holquist, 2002). Dialogical relationships "are an almost universal phenomenon, permeating all human speech and all relationships and manifestations of human life — in general, everything that has meaning and significance" (Bakhtin, 1984, p. 40). Teacher cognition in this study, a form of human consciousness, is thus dialogic in the way that teachers' thoughts are exposed to different feelings, opinions and factors at all times (Baxter, 2014).

Dialogism, as Bakhtin (1981) proposed, consists of the external components of dialogue and internal *dialogism*. External *dialogism* means the external components that structure the dialogue (Bakhtin, 1981). Markova (2006) interprets external dialogue as the real dialogue when people speak to other people. There are two interpretations of internal *dialogism*. The first kind is the dialogical relationship between the word and its object:

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Between the word and its object, between the word and the speaking subject, there exists an elastic environment of others, alien words about the same object, the same theme …. Indeed, any concrete discourse (utterance) finds the object at which it was directed already as it were overlain with qualifications, open to dispute, charged with value, already enveloped in an obscuring mist—or, on the contrary, by the 'light' of alien words that have already been spoken about it. It is entangled, shot through with shared thoughts, points of view, alien value judgements and accents. The word, directed towards its object, enters a dialogically agitated and tension-filled environment of alien words, value judgements and accents, weaves in and out of complex interrelationships, merges with some, recoils from others, intersects with yet a third group. (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 276)

Bakhtin (1981) defines internal *dialogism* as the dialogical relationship towards an alien word in the listener's response. By using alien, Bakhtin (1981) interprets: "each of us has his or her own language, point of view, conceptual system that to all others is alien" (p. 423). However, Bakhtin (1981) calls for more studies on internal *dialogism:* "Dialogue is studied merely as a compositional form in the structuring of speech, but the internal *dialogism* of the word (which occurs in a monologic utterance as well in a rejoinder) … is almost entirely ignored" (p. 279).

Besides being applied to research on literary studies, Bakhtin's *dialogic* theory has been adopted in other research fields (Hermans & Hermans-Konopka, 2010). Baxter (2014) uses *dialogic* theory in his research on gender issues in the workplace. The *dialogic* theory is also applied in another study on practices in bilingual or multilingual education (Blackledge & Creese, 2014). As for the implication *dialogism* has for the research on language teaching and learning, the revolutionary book "Dialogue with Bakhtin on Second and Foreign Language Learning" (Hall, Vitanova, & Marchenkova, 2005) has

become a seminal piece of work in connecting the Russian scholar Mikhail Bakhtin's theoretical insights to second and foreign language learning. In one of the chapters of the book, Braxley (2005) uses Bakhtin's concepts of "*dialogism*" and "*speech genres*" to study how international graduate students master academic English writing. She describes students' academic writing processes as dialogue processes with the students' friends, tutors, instructors and text. The concept of "*dialogism*" also serves as a theoretical framework for analysing the process of problem-solving of two learners of a new language, Swahili (Platt, 2005). Platt (2005) describes in detail the completion processes of problem-solving activities of the two participants and notes that one of the participants appears to be a good language learner after analysing their dialogic activities. Kostogriz (2005) focuses on the L2 literacy learning in multicultural classrooms using the Bakhtin's notion of *dialogism*. All of the above studies focus on the students' learning processes without mentioning teachers' teaching activities which give space for the present study combing *dialogism* and teacher cognition about the teaching of EFL writing.

In particular, the following two studies, in which Bakhtin's *dialogic* theory are applied to research on teacher cognition and teacher identity, have inspired the current study. Adopting Bakhtin's concepts of *voice* and *authoritative/persuasive discourse,* Werbińska (2018) reports his findings of a longitudinal study on an EFL teacher's evolving dialogical nature of identity. Akkerman and Meijer (2011) advocate the application of *dialogic self t*heory, combining Bakhtin's *dialogism* theory and *self* theory, to the studies on teacher identity and teacher development. In their (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011, p. 317) study, the formation process of teacher identity is interpreted as not only

"multiple, discontinuous and social" but also "unitary, continuous and individual" (p. 317).

2.3.2.2 Heteroglossia and Polyphony

A fundamental concept of *dialogism* is *heteroglossia. Heteroglossia* refers to "the complex, dynamic, and creative forces of the life of languages on the macro level" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 738), "*Dialogism* is the characteristic epistemological mode of a world dominated by *heteroglossia*" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 426). The term *heteroglossia* is coined by Bakhtin from two Greek words hetero (meaning other and different) and glossia (meaning tongue and language) (Norris, 2010). *Heteroglossia* is the English translation of the Russian term "raznorechie", which means differentiated speech (Hayward, 2011), or the social diversity of speech types (Bailey, 2012, p. 499). The concept of *heteroglossia*, which could be interpreted literally as language or speeches of others, has been adopted in studies of literary criticism and other empirical studies. For instance, Menard-Warwick (2011) has examined how English popular culture influenced Chilean EFL teachers' decisions to become teachers and their pedagogy.

Heteroglossia can be understood as *different-languagedness* which implies linguistic variations in terms of "geographical, regional, socio-ideological diversity, as well as shared language practices" (Skidmore, 2016, p. 33) or markers of social identity (p. 46). *Polyphony* refers to many-*voicedness* which can be interpreted as unique voices of individual people (p. 34). Some researchers treat *heteroglossia* and *polyphony* as synonyms (Werbińska & Ekiert, 2018). In this study, *heteroglossia* and *polyphony* are regarded as synonyms which were formed by different utterances. Utterances are considered as results of interactions among different *voices.*

2.3.2.3 Voice

Another basic concept of *dialogism* is *voice*. *Voice* is the "speaking personality, the speaking consciousness" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 434). According to Bakhtin (1984), the significance of *voice* lies in the fact that "what must be discovered and characterized here is not the specific existence of the hero, not his fixed image, but the sum total of his consciousness and self-consciousness, ultimately the hero's final word on himself and on his world" (p. 48). In the preface to Bakhtin's book, Emerson (1984) explains that Bakhtin's *voice* is "not just words or ideas strung together: it is a 'semantic position', a point of view on the world, it is one personality orienting itself among other personalities within a limited field" (p. xxxvi). Cazden (1993) interprets Bakhtin's concept of speaking consciousness as that of one person speaking or writing in a particular context to others. Thus, *voice* means the language produced by the speaking person and addressed to others (Cazden, 1993).

Bakhtin's *voice* is considered as ideological (Emerson, 1984) and dialogical. On the one hand, voice is ideological since it is a "semantic position" (Emerson, 1984, p. xxxvi), being recognized as an articulated language and could express point of view and opinion. *Voice* is dialogical because one's voices are stimulated by, or overlapped with, other voices (Bakhtin, 1981). In other words, *voice* is accompanied by other voices at all time. There are two kinds of speech: internal speech and external speech (Bakhtin, 1984). External speech happens between different utterances while internal speech could be considered as interaction between different silent *voices*. Based on this conceptual, this study argues that the (re)formation process of teacher cognition is dialogic contributed by the co-work of different *voices* through internal speech.

2.3.3 Relevance to the Study

Dialogism, as Baxter (2014) interprets, means that all human consciousness, including the mental formation and reformation process of teacher cognition, is inherently dialogic. Thus, teachers are constantly influenced by various opinions and feelings in the (re)formation process of their cognition. The current study uses *dialogism* as a bridge to analyse the data collected (mainly qualitative data). To identify the *voices* and their interactions leading to the formation and reformation process of teachers' cognition, Bakhtin's (1981) dialogical constructs of *voices* and *heteroglossi*a are adopted in this study as the theoretical and analytical framework. Teacher cognition is conceived as being formed, or in the process of being formed, through the dialogues between teachers' previous knowledge, experience and current experience. How EFL writing teachers' cognition is (re)formed is investigated in this study by using *dialogism, voice, heteroglossia* as elements in the theoretical and analytical framework.

Bakhtin's *dialogism* is adopted in this study mainly because the process of the (re)formation of teachers' cognition can be regarded as the processes of the dialogues (through internal speech) between teachers' previous experiences as students and the current in-service teaching practices, between teachers' pre-service training and current in-service teaching practices, between teachers' own thinking and stakeholders' policy, between students' response and teachers' adjustment of teaching behaviour and between teachers' teaching plan and teaching activity. These factors are treated as *voices* forming *heteroglossia* (internal speech), thus causing the dialogic (re)formation of teacher cognition.

2.3.4 Application to the Study

Inspired by the ubiquitous nature of *dialogism*, the study argues that the (re)formation process of teacher cognition is a dialogical process. By treating factors mediating teacher cognition's (re)formation as various *voices*, this study aims to explore the (re)formation process of CE teacher cognition about teaching and learning EFL writing in the context of Chinese tertiary level education units. It is argued that *heteroglossia/polyphony*, which are formed by the interaction of different *voices*, has resulted in the (re)formation process of teacher cognition. Through line by line coding to the interview transcripts, *voices* emerged from the transcripts of interviews carried out in Stage Two of the study. Various voices work together, through internal speech, either by centrifugal force or centripetal force to form or reform teachers' cognition. This process is further explained in Chapter Six in detail.

It is noted that Bakhtin's *dialogism* is only used in this study to analyse part of the qualitative data and to answer the last research question: "What factors contribute to the (re)formation of teacher cognition? How is teacher cognition (re)formed?" It does not form the central theoretical framework of the study.

2.4 Research Gaps

2.4.1 Insufficient Research on Chinese EFL Writing Teacher Cognition

An aim of the study is to contribute to the body of research on EFL writing teachers' cognition and practice in the context of Chinese universities. In particular, the study aims to answer research questions including what Chinese EFL writing teachers think about the teaching and learning of EFL writing, how they implement their English writing teaching practices, and how their cognition has formed and changed. A critical review

of the aforementioned studies suggests there is little research in the field of EFL writing teacher cognition in Chinese universities (Hirvela & Belcher, 2007). Among the existing studies, only "a small number have investigated how L2 writing is taught in classrooms and how writing teachers perceived the teaching and learning of L2 writing" (Yang & Gao, 2013, p. 129). As mentioned in Chapter One, China has an enormous number of EFL learners and teachers. Although teacher education has been gaining increasing attention, in-service training for English writing teaching remains "undeveloped" in China (Yang & Gao, 2013, p. 130). Given that what teachers think would influence their teaching practices is well established, more empirical studies are needed to understand further teacher cognition in the Chinese context. The current study aims to contribute to the literature on teacher cognition research in the context of China by examining the cognition of teachers in respect to the teaching and learning of EFL writing and identifying the factors that influence the formation process of teacher cognition, as well as juxtaposing relationships between teacher cognition and their teaching practices.

2.4.2 Response to the Call for Mixed Methods Research

Due to the nature of cognition, most of the studies reviewed in this chapter are carried out qualitatively, with a small number of studies adopting quantitative methods reported in the literature. By adopting a mixed methods research method, the current study synthesizes the findings of both quantitative data and qualitative data with the aim to generate a holistic picture of teacher cognition in the context of Chinese universities. The adoption of a mixed methods approach could serve as a methodological and data triangulation to enhance the reliability and trustworthiness of the findings.

2.4.3 Dialogical (re)Formation Process of Teacher Cognition

Another aim of the study is to make a theoretical contribution by applying *dialogism* to the analysis of research findings of the study. To date, there is an increase in research on teacher cognition worldwide, as can be seen in the special issues published by two leading journals on language teaching and learning (e.g., *TESOL Quarterly*, 2016; *Modern Language Journal*, 2015). However, a gap is found through the review of the literature that very few studies have examined language teacher cognition from Bakhtin's conceptual framework (Werbińska & Ekiert, 2018).

2.4.4 Theory or Praxis: L2 Teaching Theory Development and Teaching Practices

This study discusses the relationship between pedagogical knowledge in teacher education and teachers' classroom teaching practices. In particular, this study questions whether second language teacher education in China is effective in developing competent EFL writing teachers in the classroom. As Johnson (2006) states, the debate over whether theory or disciplinary knowledge should be the core of the knowledge base of teacher education has led to more studies to unravel the complex interwoven relationship between teaching theory and teaching practices. A review of the literature shows that many scholars (see for example, Cumming, 2001; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Hyland, 2003b) have contributed to research on theories of second language teaching. However, although theories, as well as their implications for teaching practices are well documented, empirical studies on how teachers learn to teach and how they teach in classroom remain scarce (Hirvela & Belcher, 2007; Leki et al., 2008). In response to the call, this study, therefore, aims to investigate EFL writing teacher cognition about teaching theory and how teachers apply theory into their teaching practices.

2.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a critical review of the literature in the field of teacher cognition and introduced the theoretical framework underpinning the analysis of the qualitative research results of the study. The literature reviewed was mainly from three categories: explorative studies aiming to identify teacher cognition in different contexts, studies juxtaposing teacher cognition and teaching practices, and studies on factors contributing to the formation of teacher cognition. The first part of the literature review followed a hierarchical order from general teacher cognition, language teacher cognition, EFL writing teacher cognition to language teacher cognition in the Chinese context. Following the literature review, this chapter further described the theoretical framework underpinning the data analysis of the study. Firstly, the definitions of *dialogism* and *voices* were presented, followed by an explanation for the reason to adopt the theoretical framework of the *dialogism* theory in the current study. How the theoretical framework was applied in the data analyses stage was addressed. Chapter Two concluded by identifying research gaps stimulating the current study from four aspects: a response to the call for more studies on teacher cognition and teaching practices in Chinese EFL context; a response to the call for mixed methods studies on teacher cognition and practice; a response to the call for applying dialogism to studies on teacher cognition; a response to the call for more studies examining the effectiveness of pedagogical knowledge training for language teachers.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter provides a justification for the research design and describes the data collection and data analysis processes in detail. The chapter concludes by addressing ethical considerations and limitations of the research design.

3.2 Research Aims

The current study has four main research aims on which the five research questions presented in Chapter One (Section 1.5) are based. The first is to investigate EFL Chinese CE teachers' cognition about teaching writing in EFL to tertiary level students as well as their cognition about their own writing in EFL and students' writing in EFL. The second aim is to identify cognition differences among teachers of different ages, genders, with different qualifications and experiences. The third is to observe whether teachers' reported cognition and their practices in classrooms are consistent. The last aim is to investigate what influences the development of teachers' cognition, in particular, what factors contribute to their cognition (re)formation, for example, whether their cognition is influenced by their academic qualifications, their ages, students' feedback or their own teaching experiences.

3.3 Research Design

3.3.1 Research Paradigm

In social science, the major "distinction" in research methodology is between qualitative research and quantitative research (Creswell, 2014; Dörnyei, 2007, p. 24). The research

paradigms, also known as worldview, underpinning these two main research methodologies are constructivism and positivism respectively (Creswell, 2014; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). However, the ongoing debate between quantitative purists and qualitative purists has seen the rise of mixed methods research methodology named as the fundamental principle of mixed research (B. Johnson & Turner, 2003). Mixed methods research is defined as using approaches "for the purpose of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration" (R. B. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007 p. 123). Mixed methods research refers to studies that combine qualitative and quantitative research methods together (Creswell, 2014; Dörnyei, 2007, p. 24). The research paradigm underpinning mixed methods research is pragmatism. Creswell (2014) asserts that a pragmatic world view "derives from actions, situations and consequences rather than antecedent conditions" (p. 10).

Methods of data collection should be chosen according to what the researcher wants to discover (Burns, 2010). A mixed methods study is useful to address or cross-validate "relationships between variables" (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012, p. 558).With the main aim to discover CE teachers' cognition about the teaching of EFL writing both in general and in detail in the current study, a mixed methods research approach, which used various data collection methods to discover both the breadth and depth of understanding (R. B. Johnson et al., 2007) was adopted. Creswell (2014) states that, based on the sequence of collecting data, a mixed methods study can be divided into three basic designs, convergent parallel mixed methods, explanatory sequential mixed methods and exploratory sequential mixed methods. Dörnyei (2007) divided mixed methods research into nine types according to different research emphases and sequences. The current study is a sequential mixed methods study (Creswell, 2014) which was also

called a "QUAN+QUAL" study (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 169). Following this sequence means that the quantitative data and the qualitative data were collected and coded separately to establish whether the data were convergent or divergent. Specifically, the research design combined a questionnaire as Stage One and an in-depth study as Stage Two. The main purpose of this design is to provide a holistic picture and to seek depth and breadth of data while testing how different types of findings "corroborate" and "complement" each other (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 172).

Another reason for the adoption of mixed methods research is to draw on the strengths and minimise the weaknesses of both types of research (L. M. Connelly, 2009; R. B. Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). For mixed methods research, we can use a larger sample as a "norm group" against which the subsample's characteristics and performance results can be "evaluated" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 273). Thus, many researchers welcome the use of both quantitative research and qualitative research as a means to generate richer data instead of regarding quantitative research and qualitative research as creating "a clear-cut dichotomy" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 20).

In addition, this study followed a mixed methods paradigm because mixed methods research itself is an effective way of data triangulation (Creswell, 2014). According to Creswell (2014), triangulating the sources of data is a process of seeking convergence across qualitative and quantitative data. When combining both quantitative and qualitative research methods, the data analysis can take advantage of the strength of each method and lead to a more convincing analysis (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998)

3.3.2 Research Instruments

For this mixed methods research study, the following instruments were used for data collection: 1) Questionnaire on EFL Writing Teacher Cognition; 2) Interview; 3) Classroom observation and 4) Stimulated recall interview. Table 3.1 lists the research instruments adopted in the study.

Table 3.1 Research Instruments

Research Instruments	No.	Time
Questionnaire	332	15-20 minutes for each participant
Interview	7	60 minutes (30 minutes*2)
Classroom observation	7	180 minutes (90 minutes*2)
Stimulated recall interview	7	30 minutes (*1)

The reasons for adopting the above research tools are as follows. The relevant research literature reveals that using questionnaires in research has some disadvantages, including that respondents cannot expand on the issues (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Another concern is that participants may have different interpretations of the same question items (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Despite the above drawbacks, questionnaires are easy to use, do not require the presence of the researcher and are comparatively straightforward to analyse (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). Using a questionnaire, or a survey, makes eliciting answers to research questions possible, and economical, by selecting a sample from the population (Babbie, 1990). Furthermore, questionnaires are easy to construct in a systematic manner to find answers to research questions (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). The adoption of a questionnaire in the current study could also enhance the generalizability of results as a large sample size is involved in this study.

A case study is used because, as Cohen, Mansion and Morrison (2007) state, a case study is extremely helpful when the researcher cannot control the events (p. 181). They believe

that the adoption of a case study can "blend a description of event with the analysis of them" (Cohen et al., 2007). The second stage of the current study used interviews and classroom observations as the main instruments for data collection. The strength of an interview is that it attempts to discover what is inside a person's head (Tuckman & Harper, 2012), and can lead to insights into beliefs of teachers during their planning for teaching and practice. The strength of a classroom observation is that "the researcher can gain and record first-hand information" (Creswell, 2014, p. 191) of what the teacher does in practice. Borg (2006) argued that he was sceptical about the results of research into teacher cognition if the research was carried out without reference to what happens in classrooms (p. 227). Therefore, in order to confirm that teachers do what they say they do in teaching practices, classroom observations were conducted in the study.

3.3.2.1 Questionnaire on EFL Writing Teacher Cognition

3.3.2.1.1 Questionnaire Development

After reviewing literature on research into teacher cognition about the teaching of English writing, the researcher found no existing questionnaires designed specifically for EFL teacher cognition within, or beyond, the context of Chinese higher education. The current questionnaire was developed through a two-phase process of item generating and piloting. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) have argued that the credibility and quality of the items used in the questionnaire can be enhanced if targeted participants contribute to the item-generating process. Three CE teachers, colleagues of the researcher in China, were invited to take part in item-generating process on a volunteer basis. Two related questionnaires, identified in the review of the literature, were referred to when generating items for the questionnaire in the current study: the 2007 Survey on Teaching writing conducted for The National Writing Project (Belden Russonello and Stewart Research

and Communications, 2007), and the Writing Teacher Questionnaire (National assessment of educational progress, 2011).

As the purpose of the study is to discover teachers' cognition and practices about the teaching and learning of EFL writing, the questionnaire established the following six themes: 1). What constitutes a piece of good-quality student writing? 2). What are criteria to judge a good student writer? 3). What could help students to become good English writers? 4). What could help teachers to teach writing more effectively? 5). How does a teacher teach CE EFL writing? 6). What resources contribute to the teaching of writing in EFL? After two rounds of discussion with the three colleagues, 25 items were chosen to form the Questionnaire on EFL Writing Teacher Cognition. The questionnaire consisted of both Likert-scale questions and open-ended questions. Likert-scale questions were included because it is a simple, versatile and reliable research tool (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010) used widely in quantitative research. Some scholars argue that one obvious disadvantage of using questionnaires is that participants are limited to a scales report without further elaborating on certain aspect. Therefore, open-ended questions were included to supplement the pre-set statements in the current questionnaire as suggested by Graham et al. (2014). Items one to 20 were designed as Likert-scale questions while items 21 to 25 were open-ended questions. Since the target participants were all competent English users, language of the questionnaire remained as English, which was the same as the original questionnaire, to enhance the reliability of the questionnaire. The main themes represented by items are shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Themes of Questionnaire Items

Theme	*Items*
What constitutes a piece of good-quality student writing?	Item 1; Item 22;
What are criteria to judge a good student writer?	Item 2; Item 3;
What could help students to become good English writers?	Item 12; Item 13; Item 6; Item 7; Item 8; Item 9; Item 10; Item 11; Item 19;
What could help teachers to teach writing more effectively?	
How does a teacher teach CE EFL writing?	Item 4; Item 5; Item 14; Item 20, Item 21; Item 23; Item 24;
What resources contribute to the teaching of writing in EFL?	Item 15; Item 16; Item 17; Item 18; Item 25;

The questionnaire then underwent piloting process. 18 participants were invited to the pilot procedure among whom 12 were PhD candidates and six were CE teachers in China. The participants were invited to complete the questionnaire and provide suggestions on both the content and format. Based on their feedback, the questionnaire was then modified as follows: 1) some grammar mistakes were corrected; 2) the instructional line of the second part of the questionnaire was changed to bold to be catchier; 3) ambiguous language was explained further. For instance, choice J. *Independent reading on a regular basis* in item 8a was clearly specified and examples of independent reading added to clarify this item. The revised version was: J. Independent reading on a regular basis— for example, educational journals, books, or the Internet.

3.3.2.1.2 Structure of Questionnaire

The questionnaire was divided into two parts: the first part gathered demographic information of the participants; the second part used a five-point Likert-scale to generate

a holistic picture of the participating EFL writing teachers' cognition in relation to teaching and learning writing in English; and the third part had open-ended questions so that the participants could express themselves more fully in regards to their cognition and practices about the teaching of English writing to EFL students

3.3.2.2 Interview

According to Creswell (2014), the interview, also known as "verbal commentary" (Borg, 2009, p. 189), has been adopted frequently in qualitative research since it is an effective way to gain in-depth information. As a "versatile research instrument", it is regularly used for studies in applied linguistics (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 134). Interviews, including semi-structured interview and stimulated recall interviews, appear to be research tools used the most commonly in the study of language cognition (Borg, 2009). In order to better conduct the interview in the study, aspects of advantages of this research instruments are reviewed as follows. Creswell (2014) asserts that there are four advantages to use interviews in qualitative studies. Firstly, compared with the use of questionnaires, interviews can elicit more information. The interviewer can ask questions in which they are interested, and the interviewee can be more involved in the study by elaborating on their thoughts on the subject. Secondly, interviewers can discuss with interviewees any unexpected answers that might have arisen in the questionnaire. Thirdly, interviews allow interviewees to share any responses in the questionnaire with interviewer that might have been influenced by their attitude, mood or experiences. Finally, interviews allow interviewees to add their perspectives to the research topic which may broaden researchers thinking about the issue.

Interviews are generally categorised into structured interviews, un-structured interviews and semi-structured interviews (Dörnyei, 2007). Semi-structured interviews were chosen

for this study because they were flexible and allowed the interviewer the freedom to bring up new questions as a result of what the interviewee says or to ask the interviewee to elaborate on a response (Kvale, 1996). The interviewees are encouraged to talk in an open-ended manner on the topics (Borg, 2009). Fraenkel (2012) defines semi-structured interviews as formal "verbal questionnaires" composed of questions designed by the researcher to elicit specific answers from interviewees which can "gain more insight into people's ideas, opinions and their experiences" (p. 451). As the research aim of the study is to discover what the teachers think, know and believe, interviewees were encouraged to elaborate on what they were thinking about the teaching and learning of EFL writing. However, to control the study better and to avoid extra irrelevant information being included, the interviews were designed to follow a series of questions; that is, interviews in this study were designed as semi-structured. In addition, participants could choose either English or Chinese as the interview language to maximize participants' involvement in the interview.

The first interview was crucial for building mutual trust between the interviewer and the interviewee; in the first interview, the aim of which was to facilitate further academic interviews, the researcher just "had a chat" with the participants. The following interviews were conducted according to a list of pre-set questions, with each interview lasting for 30 to 40 minutes (see Appendix G). Participants were also asked to expand on their responses to the questionnaire items. Interviews were audio-recorded for later transcription and analysis with participants' permission. Participants were informed about the purpose of the interviews, and told that their identities would not be disclosed to a third party and pseudonyms would be used in research reports. In doing so,

participants participating in the study were encouraged to reveal their true thinking and ideas without anxiety and nervousness.

To sum up, the current study adopted interviews as the main research tool in Stage Two. Through interviews, the researcher could elicit more information than provided in the responses to the research questions in the questionnaire, including the reasons or factors contributing to participants' answers. Most importantly, through the interviews, the researcher could investigate further factors that contributed to the development of teacher cognition. Data gathered from interviews and the questionnaire could serve as to triangulate the data to better answer the research questions with greater reliability and validity.

3.3.2.3 Classroom Observation

Observation, as a widely-used data collection strategy (Creswell, 2014), is also advocated by Borg (2015) to be included in teacher cognition research as previous research suggests that what teachers say might not be consistent with what they do in the classroom (e.g., Bao, Zhang, & Dixon, 2016; Lee, 2008a). Observation is carried out in a naturalistic environment in which the observer can notice and record participants' behaviors in detail. According to Burgess, there are four kinds of field roles in observational research: complete participant, participant-as-observer, observer-as-participant and complete observer (Burgess, 1984, p. 80). In this study, the researcher acted as a complete observer which was also named non-participant observer in order to minimize disturbance to the classrooms.

In Chinese universities, one typical lecture lasts for 100 minutes consisting of two periods of 45 minutes with a 10-minute break in between. Each classroom observation

in this study lasted for two periods (90 minutes). One of the reasons for conducting classroom observation over two periods was that CE teachers usually design their teaching practices to finish one unit[2] in two periods. Therefore, it was better and easier for the researcher to observe the whole unit teaching practices which can reflect teachers' cognition process when planning for the whole unit. The other reason was that by observing the classroom 90 minutes in a single session, the researcher could minimize disturbance to the classroom teaching. The classroom observation was audio-recorded and used for the stimulated recall interview following the observation and for later data analysis.

To sum up, there were two main reasons why classroom observations were used in this study. The first was that observation was considered an effective way to gather data in studies of teacher cognition (Borg, 2015). Secondly, data gained from classroom observations could complement or challenge data from the questionnaire and interviews. Observations, thus, could enrich the data resources as well as provide a form of data triangulation.

3.3.2.4 Stimulated Recall Interview

Using the audio-recordings of the interviews and field notes from the observations as the stimuli for the interview, each stimulated recall interview lasted for 30-40 minutes. In this interview teachers commented on their classroom activities especially on any classroom performances that appeared to be inconsistent with the cognition, or beliefs, they had expressed in the previous interviews. The interviewer and the teachers discussed the possible reasons for these adjustments. Teachers were also encouraged to

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[2] There are usually eight units in most of the CE textbooks used in China. Each unit comprises two parts: intensive reading text and extensive reading text. In making teaching plan, CE teachers view two periods as a whole teaching slot to design their teaching practices.

elaborate on the reasons why a particular teaching method was chosen to implement their cognition in practice. As the teachers' preparation for stimulated recall interview would influence the results of the study, shortening the time between the classroom observation and stimulated recall interviews is recommended (Borg, 2006, p. 220) as some participants might forget certain aspects of the event (Green, 1998). Some scholars argue that stimulated recall interviews would not best present teachers' thinking due to the time period elapsed between the stimuli and interview (Calderhead, 1981; Lyle, 2003; Yinger, 1986). In this study, therefore, the stimulated recall interviews were arranged as soon as possible after the classroom observation in order to minimize memory loss and maximize the validity of the results. In the first interview the teachers were informed that the stimulated recall interview would preferably be directly after the classroom observation.

3.3.3 Research Procedure

Comprising a questionnaire, interviews and classroom observations, this study took place in nine Chinese universities from May 2015 to December 2015. Table 3.3 presents the timeline of the study.

Table 3.3 Research Procedure

Timeline	Procedure	Participants	Instrument
May to June 2015	Questionnaire piloting	12 PhD candidates and six Chinese CE teachers	The questionnaire
September 2015	Stage One: Quantitative data collection	332 CE teachers in nine universities in China	The questionnaire
October to December 2015	Stage Two: Qualitative data collection	seven CE teachers	Interviews and Classroom observation

3.3.3.1 Stage One: Questionnaire-based Study

In Stage One of the study, a quantitative method was used to get an overview of Chinese CE teachers' cognition on EFL writing learning and teaching. In this stage, 332 teachers

participated in the study voluntarily to complete the questionnaire which contributes to answering the first three research questions:

1) What is EFL College English teachers' cognition about students EFL writing?

2) What is EFL College English teachers' cognition about the teaching of English writing to EFL students?

3) Are there any differences in teachers' cognition about the teaching of English writing to EFL students with reference to teachers' age, gender, or working experience? If yes, what are the differences?

Among the participants who had shown their willingness to take part in Stage Two, seven teachers were chosen through purposive sampling, ensuring a balance of participants' age, gender, academic qualifications and working experience. Detailed explanation is provided in Section 3.4.2.1.

3.3.3.2 Stage Two: Case Study

Stage Two adopted a multiple case study approach divided into three phases: initial semi-structured interviews; classroom observations; stimulated recall interviews. At the beginning of the study, one semi-structured interview was conducted by the researcher with the teachers to investigate the teachers' demographic situation and general cognition about EFL writing and the teaching and learning of EFL writing. During the 14-week teaching period, as mentioned previously, classroom teaching practices were observed twice to evaluate the teachers' practices in relation to what they had reported in their previous interview. Following each classroom observation, a stimulated recall interview elicited the additional or modified cognitive knowledge of the teachers. In addition to answering the first three research questions, the purpose of Stage Two was

to provide answers to fourth and fifth research questions. Table 3.6 presents a detailed timeline of Stage Two of the study.

4. What is the relationship between teacher cognition and teaching practices? To what extent does the teachers' stated cognition converge with, or diverge from, their actual teaching practices in the classroom?

5. What factors contribute to the (re)formation of teacher cognition? How is teacher cognition (re)formed??

3.4 Data Collection

3.4.1 Stage One: Questionnaire

3.4.1.1 Participants or Population and Sampling

Creswell (2014) states that "A discussion about participants and site might include four aspects identified by Miles and Huberman (1984): (a) the setting (i.e., where the research will take place), (b) the actors (i.e., who will be observed or interviewed), (c) the events (i.e., what will be observed or interviewed doing), and (d) the process (i.e., the evolving nature of events undertaken by the actors within the setting)" (p. 189). This section will be elaborated according to such a sequence.

The population of the study was CE teachers in nine universities in Shanghai city, Jiangsu Province and Zhejiang Province in China because the researcher was familiar with the tertiary level educational system in these areas. According to Dörnyei (2007), convenience or opportunity sampling method is "the most common sample type in applied linguistic research" (p. 98). Adopting a convenience sampling method, CE teachers in the above three places were chosen as potential participants in the study. There were a large number of universities in the above three places from which the

researcher chose 19 universities to establish initial contacts based on a convenience sampling method. Among the 19 universities, the numbers of Tier 1, Tier 2 and Tier 3 were six, seven and six respectively. When choosing the sample universities, the researcher ensured that universities in all three Tiers (refer to Section 1.3.6 for division of university Tiers in China) were contacted, to ensure the sample was "very similar to the target population in general characteristics" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 98).

The researcher contacted the Dean of CE Departments in 19 universities by email. Nine Deans replied and gave permissions to access to their CE teachers. Two Tier One universities, three Tier Two universities and two Tier Three universities participated in the study.

After gaining permission of Deans of CE Departments in these nine universities in Shanghai City, Zhejiang Province and Jiangsu Province, 480 hard-copy questionnaires were mailed to the teaching secretaries, who distributed them to all CE teachers in their departments seeking potential participants to complete the questionnaire voluntarily. Finally, 332 hard-copy questionnaires were returned to the researcher with a satisfactory (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010) response rate of 69.2%. The demographic information of participants in Stage One is presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Stage One Participants' Profile

Category	*Description*	*N*	*%*
Age	20-25	13	3.9
	26-30	32	9.6
	31-35	90	27.1
	36-40	88	26.5
	41-45	56	16.9
	46-50	28	8.4
	51-55	18	5.4
	56+	7	2.1
Gender	Male	54	16.3
	Female	268	80.7
	Not to say	10	3.0
Education background-1	Bachelor Degree from a university in China	46	13.9
	Bachelor Degree from a university in a foreign country	3	.9
	Master's Degree from a university in China	196	59.0
	Master's degree from a university in a foreign country	28	8.4
	PhD from a university in China	46	13.9
	PhD from a university in a foreign country	7	2.1
	Other	6	1.8
Education background-2	Degree obtained from a normal university* in China	168	50.6
	Degree obtained from other universities in China	164	49.4
Teaching experience	Less than 5 years	53	16.0
	5-10 years	70	21.1
	10-15 years	101	30.4
	15 years or more	108	32.5
Time spent in English Speaking Countries	None	136	41.0
	Less than 6 months	94	28.3
	6-12 months	53	16.0
	More than one year	49	14.8

*A normal university in mainland China refers to teacher training universities.

Among the 332 participants who completed the questionnaire, 268 were female (80.7%) and 54 were male (16.3%). A majority of participants held master's degrees (67.4%). The percentages of those holding bachelor's degrees and doctoral degrees were 14% and 16% respectively. Regarding age group division, those from 31 to 40 accounted for more than half of the participants. Fewer participants fell into age groups 26-30 and 41-45. Young (20-25) and older (51 +) teachers was less represented with a percentage of 3.9% and 7.5% respectively. The number of participants who had graduated from a normal university were similar to those from non-normal universities. The highest percentage (32.5%) of participants had more than 15 years teaching experience, while 16% were novice teachers. Almost half of the participants (41%) had no overseas experience, while 94 participants had spent less than six months in English-speaking countries. 14.8% of the participating teachers had more than one year of overseas experience.

Similar to other studies, (e.g., Xiang & Borg, 2014), the demographic information of participants generally reflected the distribution of CE population nationwide. Firstly, teacher participants were not evenly distributed into different age groups. As can be seen in Table 3.4, teachers aged 31-35 and 36-40 accounted for 30% each. This may be explained by the reform to expand the university students' enrolments starting in 1999 (J. H. Shi, 2005). In response to the expansion, universities in China have recruited more young teachers, including CE teachers. Secondly, there were more female than male CE teachers. Chen and Wu (2011) described the imbalance between female and male CE teachers in China, with female CE teachers in China largely outnumbered male CE teachers (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2017). Thirdly, participants holding master's degrees accounted for the majority of the participating sample. Due to the large population in China, the job market is competitive. A review of the CE teacher

recruitment advertisements in China reveal that a master's degree, even a doctoral degree in quality universities, is a prerequisite for obtaining a teaching or research position at universities in China.

3.4.1.2 Data Collection Procedures

Before the study, an electronic advertisement to recruit participants was prepared by the researcher. After gaining approval from Deans of the nine universities to access the CE teachers, teaching secretaries of the local CE Teaching department assisted the researcher to do the advertisement in early September 2015. Hard copy questionnaires, identification forms and Participant Information Sheets were mailed from the researcher to the secretaries. Completed questionnaires and identification forms were then sent back to the researcher after about three weeks.

3.4.1.3 Reliability and Validity

Validity means the extent to which items in the questionnaire accurately represent the concept they claims to measure (Punch, 2014). Validity is further divided into internal validity and external validity (Roberts, Priest, & Traynor, 2006, p. 43). Internal validity, consisting of content validity, criterion-related validity and construct validity (Punch, 2014), is achieved by conducting a pilot study and comparing items with other existing research tools which have been validated (Roberts et al., 2006). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), a statistical method, is often adopted to assess construct validity of quantitative research (Brown, 2014, p. 1). External ability refers to that the sample chosen should better represent the characteristics of the population (Black, 1999). In the current study, several measures were implemented in order to increase the validity. First of all, the questionnaire items were chosen by four frontline CE EFL teachers in China and then discussed with the researchers' supervisors. By the time the final version of the

questionnaire reached the participants it had been through many rounds of modifications. Furthermore, the questionnaire was piloted before putting into use. These procedures worked together to enhance the content validity. Secondly, items in the questionnaire were chosen from two existing questionnaires which had already been validated thus criterion-related validity was achieved.

Internal consistency, which represents the reliability in quantitative study, is a measurement based on the correlations between different items on the same scale or dimension. Internal consistency was measured using statistical procedures such as Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Creswell, 2014; Cronbach, 1951; Dörnyei, 2007). Cronbach's alpha coefficient on items in the questionnaire was obtained (See Chapter Four) in this study. The results were all higher than the recommended .70 representing a good internal consistency of all items.

3.4.2 Stage Two: In-depth Study

3.4.2.1 Participants or Population and Sampling

Of the 332 participants in Stage One, 14 teachers showed an interest in participating in Stage Two by ticking "I wish to participate in Stage Two", with their contact details provided in the identification forms included in the questionnaires. The criteria for selection of participants were stated clearly in the Participant Information Sheet (See appendix B). It was also stated in the Participant Information Sheet that the teachers, who were not selected, were welcome to contact the researcher for further information of the study if they were interested. In the explanation letter, the researcher ensured that if participants who were not chosen were still interested in participating in Stage Two,

they were welcome to undergo the same process as those who were chosen. Their data, however, would not be included in the study.

The criteria for selection, to maximize the participants' diversity, are noted below:

1. The age groups of participants in Stage One are represented.

2. The male/ female ratio is similar to that in Stage One (2:8).

3. A range of academic qualifications are represented.

4. A range of teaching experience is represented.

5. Participants are from different universities.

Seven participants who met the above criteria were invited to take part in Stage Two through this purposive sampling method. The profile of participants is listed in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Stage Two Participants' Profile

Pseudonym	Gender	Educational Background	Teaching Experience	Professional Title	Overseas experience	Tier of University
Yiming	Female	B-Chinese University M-US university	6 years	Lecturer	2 years in the US	Tier 3
Hui	Female	B-Chinese university; M-Chinese university; D-Chinese university	12 years	Lecturer	None	Tier 2
Junping	Male	B-Chinese university; M-Chinese university	10 years	Lecturer	None	Tier 2
Wenhao	Male	B-Chinese university; M-Chinese university	15 years	Lecturer	None	Tier 1
Yan	Female	B-Chinese university; M-Chinese university	10 years	Assistant Professor	1 Year Visiting Scholar in the UK	Tier 2
Shuang	Female	B-Chinese university; M-UK university; D-UK university	1 year	Lecturer	6 years in the UK	Tier 1
Yangfan	Female	B-Chinese university;	22 years	Assistant Professor (Head of department)	6 month Visiting Scholar in the US	Tier 3

B stands for bachelor's degree. M stands for master's degree

The seven participants all worked in CE departments in the seven universities. Two participants worked in Tier One universities, two in Tier Three universities and three came from Tier Two universities. For ethical considerations, pseudonyms of the participants were used in the study to ensure anonymity. A brief description of each participating teacher is provided below.

Story of Yiming

Yiming entered a Tier Two University in Central West China majoring in English in 2002 after "failing in her national college entrance examination" (Yiming, Interview 1). With the "expansion of university enrolment" from 1999 in China, there was a severe

shortage of CE teachers, thus the criteria for recruiting CE teachers was relatively low. Her English teacher at university, a self-taught English learner, had no background in English education, and Yiming was dismayed by her teacher's "terrible" (Yiming, Interview 1) English pronunciation. Not satisfied with her undergraduate education background and having a love for English leaning and teaching, she continued her study in the US after gaining her bachelor's degree. The two years' learning experience in the US had a positive influence on her own English learning and also teaching of English. After graduation, she started teaching both courses of CE and Practical Reading to non-English major students at a Tier Three university in Shanghai in 2009 with a master's degree in TESOL. Before this full-time job, Yiming had been working as a part-time Mandarin tutor in the US and an English language advisor in the "Language Centre for International Students" in a US university. During her six years' full-time teaching experience, Yiming has taught students with various majors from accounting, travel and hotel management to music. She was familiar with teaching students of different language proficiency.

Story of Hui

Hui began her CE teaching career at a Tier Two university after obtaining her master's degree in 2003 from a normal university in Southeast China. She worked as a visiting scholar from 2011 to 2012 at Beijing Foreign Studies University (one of the top foreign language universities in China). During her 12 years' teaching experiences at the same university, she developed her own way of teaching English to non-English major students.

Story of Junping

Junping came from a family of low economic status in China, and he was determined to improve the living status of his family. Being the only male child in his family, Junping worked very hard as a student and his parents had high expectations of him. As he was the first university student in his home village, Junping chose English for his university major because English-major students were able to find a well-paid job after graduation. In 2003, Junping started his first job as an English teacher in a university in Northwest China. After four years' full time teaching, he decided to resign and do further study because he was not satisfied with his salary. At the time of the present study, Junping had been working as a CE teacher in a Tier Two university in Shanghai for six years.

Story of Wenhao

In the late 20th century, due to the national rush to learn English, an English major became a popular major to choose from among university students. Wenhao continued his postgraduate study in order to secure a teaching position at a university after graduating from a normal university in 1998. From 2001, after gaining his master's degree in English language and literature, Wenhao started his teaching career in a Tier One university. As a member of the CE department, Wenhao also taught "Western Culture" to second year university students and "General Academic English" to postgraduate students other than CE to undergraduate students.

Story of Yan

Yan started her current teaching position in 2008 after gaining a master's degree in English language and literature at a well-known foreign language university in Shanghai. Yan had similar studying and teaching experiences as Junping. After graduating from a Tier One university in Central west China, Yan started her first teaching job at a Tier

Three university in her home province. Dissatisfied with the relatively isolated teaching and research environment of the first university, Yan resigned and pursued further study for three years. A master's degree from a highly-regarded Tier One university specializing in foreign language in Shanghai as well as her previous teaching experience made Yan a competitive job seeker when she graduated. After becoming a CE teacher in University E, Yan worked hard in both teaching and research, and was promoted to Associate Professor at the age of 32. At the time of the present study, Yan was teaching CE and academic writing to undergraduate students in University E.

Story of Shuang

Shuang had the least teaching experience of all the participants in the study. By the time of the present study, Shuang had less than one year teaching experience. With a bachelor's degree in English gained from a Chinese university, Shuang did her postgraduate study specializing in Education in the UK, gaining her master's and doctoral degree. She started her teaching career in a Tier Two university in China one year before this study was carried out. Shuang was teaching the CE course to undergraduate students and an "Academic English Writing" course to postgraduate students at the time of this study.

Story of Yangfan

Yangfan had 26 years' teaching experience in CE and ESP. A Tier Three university in her home province provided her first teaching job in 1990. In 2005 she was transferred to a Tier Three university (University G) in Shanghai. Being the head of CE teaching department, Yangfan allocated much of her time to administrative management including policy making and teacher training. As students enrolled in University G had

low English proficiency, Yangfan spent most of the classroom teaching time in basic English language skill instruction.

3.4.2.2 Data Collection Procedures

Stage Two was a qualitative study employing a multiple case study approach. Creswell (2014) defines case study as: "a design of inquiry found in many fields, especially evaluation, in which the researcher develops an in-depth analysis of a case, often a programme, event, activity, process, or one or more individuals" (p. 14). Cases are bounded by time and activity, and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time.

Stage Two was divided into three phases: semi-structured interviews; classroom observations; and stimulated recall interviews, as described in section 3.3.3.2. Interviews and classroom observations were audio recorded by the researcher with participants' permission. Interview transcripts, classroom observation field notes, teachers' teaching practices audio recording transcripts and stimulated recall transcripts were collected by the researcher. Stage Two of the current study spanned approximately ten weeks from October 2015 to December 2015. The detailed data collection timeline is listed in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6 Research Timeline of Stage Two

Week	Research conducted	Time Duration
Week one and two	Initial interview	30-40 minutes
Week three to six	The first classroom observation	90 minutes
	The first stimulated recall interview	30-40 minutes
Week seven to ten	The second classroom observation	90 minutes
	The second stimulated recall interview	30-40 minutes

3.4.2.3 Trustworthiness

Compared with reliability and validity in quantitative research, trustworthiness is used to support the quality of qualitative research (Rolfe, 2006). Trustworthiness is interpreted as credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Credibility means how credible the results of a qualitative study are (Shenton, 2004). To address the trustworthiness of a qualitative study, triangulation including methodological triangulation (Morse, 1991), data triangulation and the use of other informants are recommended (Kimchi, Polivka, & Stevenson, 1991; Patton, 2015). Transferability refers to that to extent the findings of a study could be applied to other research (Shenton, 2004). Ways to enhance transferability include detailed reporting of participants and research settings as well as research findings to familiarise readers with the context of the study. Dependability is defined as the extent to which the research instrument, data collection and analysis process are reliable (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). An inquiry audit (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 31) and member check (Creswell, 2014) are recommended to enhance the research dependability. Confirmability concerns the degree to which the data is interpreted objectively in order to facilitate the process during which the research result could be verified or corroborated by others (Jensen, 2008; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Creswell (2014) recommends introducing ways to avoid researchers' bias in both data collection and analysis for confirmability in a qualitative study. The following methods adopted in this study were used to enhance the trustworthiness of the study.

Firstly, as Morse (1991) explains, methodological triangulation refers to the use of at least two methods in the study. A mixed methods study itself is a way of triangulation (Creswell, 2014). In the current study, methodological triangulation was achieved by adopting both qualitative and quantitative methods. In addition, multiple data sources

from the study served as data triangulation (Kimchi et al., 1991). Specifically, data gained from the questionnaire and in-depth study could be corroborated to answer the research questions. For the in-depth study itself, three kinds of data served as the data resource. Different types of data resources brought various perspectives to data analysis to enhance the trustworthiness of information gained from the study to address research questions.

Furthermore, several methods were applied for the data collection and analysis process to enhance the transferability, dependability and confirmability of the study. First of all, during the interviews, participants could choose either English or Chinese as the interview medium language. All the participants chose to use Chinese, to better express themselves and avoid causing any misunderstandings. Participants could also choose where the interviews took place; some chose to be interviewed at a school office while others chose cafés or other places outside the university. These measures enhanced the trustworthiness of and enriched the data gained from the interview. During the classroom observations, the researcher acted as a non-participant observer to minimize intrusiveness in the classroom and increase the objectivity of data collection in the classroom observation. Teacher participants wore a pin microphone for recording during the classroom observation to reduce interference from students' voices.

Before analysing the qualitative data, the researcher implemented the following procedures: to enhance the dependability of the interview and classroom observation, transcripts and translations were sent back to the participants to check; participants were invited to delete or revise any information before data was analysed; and another PhD student audited the research by checking the accuracy of both data transcripts and

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translations randomly chosen from the data pool. Additionally, the data collection procedures and instruments were supervised by the researcher's supervisors who were experienced in qualitative research.

3.5 Data Analysis

There are four types of data in this study: questionnaire results; interview transcripts; classroom recording transcripts and field notes. The methods to analyse these data are listed in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7 Data Analysis Methods

Type of data	Analysis method
Questionnaire results	Statistical analysis and content analysis
Interview transcripts	Thematic analysis and content analysis
Classroom recording transcripts	Content analysis
Field notes	Content analysis

The transcripts and questionnaire results were analysed using NVivo (professional software used in qualitative research analysis) and SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) which are designed for qualitative study and quantitative study respectively.

3.5.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative data obtained from Stage One created general self-reported information on CE teachers' cognition about and practice of the teaching of EFL writing. Results of the survey study were used to address research questions one, two and three. Quantitative data gained from the first two parts of the questionnaire were subjected to quantitative analysis using SPSS directly. There were five open-ended questions in part three of the questionnaire. Item 21, 23, 24 and 25 were themed and quantified and then subjected to quantitative analysis, with the exception of item 22 which could not be quantified. For example, item 23 "What do you think is the most difficult part in writing in English

(grammar; vocabulary; planning; organization)?" The answers based on percentages were quantified by treating as numbers in order to facilitate the overall statistical analysis. Qualitative data obtained from item 23 and other descriptive answers were subjected to content and thematic analysis.

Raw quantitative data results were first inputted into a data base in the software SPSS (Statistical package for the Social Sciences) 25.0 for Windows. After checking for missing data, internal consistency and normality distribution, descriptive statistics including mean values, frequencies, and standard deviations were computed. In order to answer research questions one to three, inferential statistical analyses including independent sample *t*-test and ANOVA were calculated to identify significant relationships between teachers' demographic information and cognition and practice variables in part two of the questionnaire.

3.5.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Creswell (2014) explains that the analysis of qualitative data includes: 1). Preparing for data; 2). Reading through data; 3). Coding data; 4). Coding the test for description to be used in the research report; 5). Coding the test for themes to be used in the research report. This process is described as a "transcribing-pre-coding and coding-growing ideas-interpreting and concluding" sequence (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 246). The process of data analysis description in this study is elaborated in such a sequence.

3.5.2.1 Interview and Classroom Observation

3.5.2.1.1 Transcribing and Translating Data

Transcribing data in this study involved those data sets from audio recording of both interview and classroom observation transcripts. Data analysis and collection processes

are interwoven with each other (Miles & Huberman, 1984). In other words, data analysis is related to before, in and after data collection. Since immediate transcribing of data could influence the data collection procedures that follow, in this study, data was transcribed immediately after data collection. For instance, in the initial interview with Yiming, the researcher found that she was a firm believer of that her overseas study experience had influenced her teaching to a great extent. The researcher thus adjusted questions in the following semi-structured interview to ensure Yiming could maximize her elaboration on this point. Secondly, the interview audio was transcribed and translated verbatim from Chinese to English with the aim to maintain the original in data transcription (Bucholtz, 2000). As another method to check the accuracy of transcribed and translated data, transcriptions were sent to participants for feedback. Most of the participants provided their feedback on time with no change suggested. Only one participant requested the deletion of a brief story she had shared with the researcher during the interview which she regarded as private. The classroom observation audio data was transcribed and similarly sent back to the participants. However, due to the large amount of transcribing work of the classroom observation, not all of the audio data was transcribed. The researcher repeatedly listened to the audio clips with reference to classroom observation field note and only a small fraction of audio data relating to English writing teaching was transcribed and translated into English when necessary.

3.5.2.1.2 Pre-coding and Coding Data

Coding is regarded as a "key process" in qualitative study (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 254). The aim of analysing interview transcripts is to reveal emerging themes and patterns of teachers' cognition about the teaching and learning of EFL writing (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Thematic analysis based on the discovery of themes and patterns, was used mainly to code the interview data. Content analysis was applied to the analysis of

classroom observation audio transcripts and field notes in order to describe teaching practices more effectively. In the current study, all the data gained from interviews were coded using qualitative data process software, NVivo. Transcripts from classroom observation were coded manually. During the initial coding period, the interview data were allocated into several categories (nodes) according to topics of the interview. The categories are listed in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8 Nodes Used in Qualitative Analysis

Grandparent Nodes	Parent nodes	Nodes
	how to teach and learn EFL writing	how to learn to write in EFL
		how to teach EFL writing
		role of teacher
		the most effective method of the teaching of English writing to EFL students
		viewpoint on writing model
		most important aspect of the teaching of English writing to EFL students
		most important aspect in EFL writing
		suggestions to new teachers
	judge writing works	judge written works
		feedback
		peer review or teacher correction
		problem of students' writing
	relationship	teaching writing and reading
cognition about the teaching of EFL writing		Chinese writing and English writing
		teaching writing and grammar
		teaching writing and translation
		teaching writing and listening speaking
	teaching theory and teaching style	teaching theory
		teaching style
	confusions when teaching writing	
	LSRWT-which is the most difficult	LSRWT-which is the most difficult to teach
		LSRWT-which is the most difficult to learn
	time allocation to EFL writing instruction	
	textbook influence	
	importance of the teaching of English writing to EFL students	
	what helps you the most in your EFL writing teaching	
	writing skill	
	writing strategy	
teacher experience	personal experience; introduction of	

who influence your cognition (style)	the course and class teachers' own effective methods to learn EFL writing teacher's writing learning experience teacher's own experiences' influence on the teaching of English writing to EFL students
cognition about writing in English	relationship between Chinese writing ability and English writing ability writing task of students problems in students' writing
cognition about other things	Which is better at training teachers? A normal university or a non-normal university? teachers training opportunities academic writing and College English reform teaching practicum test-oriented education College English course helps to improve students' EFL writing

3.5.2.1.3 Further Coding

After categorising, thematic analysis was used to find patterns. The node "best way to teach CE EFL writing" provided an example. Participants' views on this code were themed into two groups: 1) Integrating the teaching of English writing into the teaching of English reading; 2) Teaching CE EFL writing through writing practices. During the

process of further coding of the data, memos were written, as recommended by Dörnyei (2007), so that the researcher could "have a better view of the themes and patterns of the data while emphasising individual differences" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 254). This procedure also facilitated the next step: interpreting data and drawing conclusions.

3.5.2.1.4 Interpreting, Reporting Data and Drawing Conclusion

Qualitative data analysis provides a 'zigzag' pattern (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 243) instead of a linear process of quantitative data analysis. Qualitative data analysis should start immediately alongside the data collection to find themes for generalization among participants (Erickson, 1986). Qualitative research conclusions are not completely gained near the end of the study. According to the nature of qualitative research, qualitative data collection and analysis are always circular and overlapped (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 124). Conclusion drawing also involves the initial data analysis including coding, memo writing and tentative conclusion drawing (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 257). Therefore, the qualitative data analyses in this study adopted constant comparison and contrast (Corbin, 2015). Themes were repeatedly compared and contrasted with each other both inter-case and cross-case in order to draw conclusions to answer the research questions.

Detailed multiple case study results were reported in Chapter Five with an inter-case and cross-case discussions in Chapter Six.

3.5.2.2 Field Notes

Field notes can be divided into two categories: descriptive and reflective (Bogdan, 2007). In this study, both descriptive and reflective field notes were taken by the researcher to supplement data to classroom observation. The field notes data were summarised into

different settings to establish to what extent teachers' cognition was reflected in their practice. Field notes were coded and themed by the researcher manually.

3.6 Data Triangulation

There are four types of data triangulation including methodological triangulation, data triangulation, investigator triangulation and multiple triangulation (Denzin, 1970). In the current study, methodological triangulation and data triangulation were implemented. A mixed methods research itself is an effective way of data triangulation (Creswell, 2014). In addition, to enhance the validity and data triangulation, three factors were taken into account. Firstly, since sending transcripts back to participants for their check could enhance the credibility of the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), all the transcripts were sent to the participants to check before data analysis. Secondly, the stimulated recall interviews were conducted as soon as possible after the classroom observation to ensure that teachers remembered most of their activities clearly. Finally, during the data analysis process, to avoid the influence of the her own EFL teaching experience and biases, the researcher tried to be as open as possible, and to accept the possibilities presented by the participants (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000).

3.7 Ethical Considerations

The study was approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants' Committee (UAHPEC) with the reference number 014468 (See Appendices A to F). In addition, the following ethical issues were also addressed.

1). Participation in the study

It was clearly stated in the Participant Information Sheet that participation by the teachers in the study was voluntary. In the first stage, since it was anonymous, the completion of the questionnaire showed consent to participate. In the second stage, the participants

received participant information letters explaining, in detail, the study purpose, process, timeframe and implications. It was also stated that teachers could express requests to receive update of the results of the study.

2). Classroom observation recording

In the initial interview, the researcher asked teacher participants' permission to audio record the interview and classroom observation. All the seven participants agreed on the recording process.

3). Anonymity

Anonymity was strictly kept in the study. No coding schemes were used to identify the participants in the questionnaire. Pseudonyms were used to report findings of the in-depth study.

4). Confidentiality

The access to the consent forms and all the data collected were strictly limited to the researcher.

5). Informed consent

In Stage One, the completion of the questionnaire was viewed as consent to participate in the study. In Stage Two, participants completed written consent forms.

6). Participants' rights to withdraw

It was clearly stated in the Participant Information Sheet that participants had the right to withdraw at any time before the end of the study.

7). Audio-recording

Since audio-recording might bring uneasiness to the teachers as well as the students, the following measures were adopted.

a). The teachers were asked to wear a pin-microphone recorder to minimise the voice of the students.

b). The teachers had the right to edit or delete the transcripts of the audio-recording.

8). Exclusion of potential participants in Stage Two

a). The criteria for choosing participants among applicants into the in-depth study was clearly stated in the identification form

b). An explanation letter was sent to those who were not chosen after the selection.

c). In the explanation letter, the researcher ensured that if those who were not chosen were still interested in participating in Stage Two, they were welcome to undergo the same process as those who were chosen. Their data, however, would not be included in the study.

3.8 Limitations of the Research Design

There were two limitations inherent in the design of the current study, which needed to be pointed out so that the findings would be interpreted with these constraints in mind.

3.8.1 Intrusiveness

Classroom observation is viewed as an intrusive data collecting method (Borg, 2006, p. 227). In designing the observation, many factors were taken into account including the observer's field role, recording method and equipment, as well as the observation times and length of each session. The details of observation were designed and improved in the pilot study and modified (where necessary) after discussion with the participant teachers before conducting the observations. In this study, the researcher acted as a complete observer (also called non-participant observer) in order to minimize the disturbance to the classrooms

3.8.2 Observer Paradox

Cowie (2009) labels the observer's paradox as the main issue in observation: "the act of observation will change the perceived person's behaviour" (p. 177). There are two factors which can influence observer's paradox: the field roles of the researcher and the level of disclosure of the aims of the study. As mentioned previously, in order to minimize the intrusiveness into the classroom, the researcher acted as a complete observer in the classroom, which meant she did not participate in any way, including not commenting on the teachers (even if requested), not participating in the classroom activities or communicating with teachers or students in the classrooms. Cowie (2009) holds the view that if the aims of the study are disclosed fully, the observed person may concentrate on certain areas in an unnatural way. At the same time, concealing information can lead to suspicion and impair mutual trust between researcher and the observed teachers (Borg, 2006). The observer effect usually occurs most strongly during the first observation (Duff, 2008). To address this problem, the researcher decided to be cautious about including the data collected from the first observation. With this in mind, the first interview of the study was designed to be a "chat" to gain only the demographic information and establish mutual trust.

3.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter reported the research design of the study in detail including the methodology incorporated into the research design. Data collection and analysis procedures were explained and data triangulation methods, ethical concerns and limitations of the research design were addressed.

Chapter 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS FROM THE QUESTIONNAIRE

4.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter reports findings obtained from Stage One of the study, which was designed to examine Chinese EFL teachers' general cognition towards teaching and learning EFL writing. Data were collected via self-report questionnaires. Section 4.2 presents the descriptive analysis of the questionnaire results. Section 4.3 reports the results of the questionnaire from two aspects. Section 4.3.1 and 4.3.2 are about teacher cognition organized into themes. Section 4.3.3 is about difference of teacher cognition categorised by different background of participants. The chapter concludes by summarizing the results of quantitative findings.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics of Questionnaire Findings

Quantitative data collected were first screened and cleaned for missing values, internal reliability and normal distribution. Missing data were manually examined. The missing value cases, which were less than 10%, were excluded pairwise, that is, cases were excluded only if they were missing the data required for the specific analysis (Pallant, 2016).

4.2.1 Internal Reliability and Normality of the Questionnaire

When designing a questionnaire, a key issue is the scales' internal consistency. The most commonly used indicator of internal consistency is Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Pallant, 2016, p. 101). DeVellis (2016) argues that ideally Cronbach's alpha coefficient should be higher than .7. Table 4.1 below shows Cronbach's Alpha Value for the 31 closed-

ended question items in this questionnaire was .906 indicating a high level of internal consistency.

Table 4.1 Cronbach's Alpha Value

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N
.906	13	31

As seen in Appendix K, the *p* value in Kolmogorov-Smirnov shows that the data are not normally distributed. This is considered as "very common in large-sampled research" (Pallant, 2016, p. 63). However, the current study takes skewness and kurtosis as measures of normality. Data are assumed to be normally distributed if the standardised skewness values were between 0 and |3.0| and standardised kurtosis values do not exceed |8.0| (Field, 2013). Therefore, the 31 closed-ended questions display univariate normal distribution (Kline, 2011). Thus, the data were qualified for further inferential analyses including ANOVA.

4.2.2 Descriptive Statistics of Close-ended Questions in the Questionnaire

Descriptive statistical analyses showed that the mean scores of the closed-ended questions of the questionnaire ranged from 3.07 (item 7) to 4.72 (item 1a) with the standard deviations ranging from .646 (item 1e) to 1.077 (item 7). The median value of the 31 mean scores was 4.05. Skewness and kurtosis values ranged from -1.693 (item 1e) to -.095 (item 18) and from -.601(item 7) to 4.595 (item 1e) with the only exception of Item 1a whose skewness (-3.513) and kurtosis (13.568) exceed the cut-off values of |3.0| and |8.0|. Thus, the 31 items display univariate normality distribution (Kline, 2011). Appendix J presents the descriptive statistics of close-ended questions in the questionnaire. To present a holistic picture of teachers' views on different items, Table 4.2 shows the mean values of items in descending order.

Table 4.2 Descriptive Statistics of the Questionnaire

Items	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1a: An effective piece of English writing should include: A. A clear structure	4.7	0.74	-3.51	13.57
1e: An effective piece of English writing should include: E. Relevant content	4.6	0.65	-1.69	4.60
8: Reading helps students to learn how to write.	4.5	0.7	-1.48	2.59
1b: An effective piece of English writing should include: B. Correct grammar	4.5	0.73	-1.52	2.68
20f: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: F. Learn to read.	4.5	0.66	-1.06	1.48
20a: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: A. Improve critical thinking ability.	4.5	0.72	-1.37	2.184
20e: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: E. Gain organizational skills.	4.4	0.67	-0.97	0.82
3: Good writers have skills of planning before starting writing.	4.4	0.77	-1.34	1.84
20h: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: H. Learn to analyse and bring details together.	4.4	0.68	-0.89	0.51
1c: An effective piece of English writing should include: C. Moderate cohesive devices	4.4	0.73	-0.94	0.60
1d: An effective piece of English writing should include: D. Varied vocabulary	4.3	0.75	-0.85	0.47
9: The process of re-writing helps students to learn how to write.	4.3	0.74	-0.78	0.42
20b: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: B. Learn how to communicate effectively.	4.3	0.76	-0.71	-0.13
20d: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: D. Improve grammar.	4.2	0.7	-0.38	-0.52
20g: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: G. Gain a large vocabulary.	4.2	0.72	-0.57	0.11
11: The best way to improve writing is through writing itself.	4.1	0.86	-0.88	0.59
20c: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: C. Become more creative.	4.1	0.78	-0.66	0.25
10: Process writing helps to build a good writer.	4.1	0.75	-0.46	0.10
6: Model compositions help students to learn how to write.	4.1	0.8	-0.85	1.24
17: The university I am working in should provide me with enough support to teach writing.	3.9	0.87	-0.56	-0.13

5: Good writing teachers are good writers themselves	3.9	0.93	-0.55	-0.14
2: Good writers are those who know grammar rules well.	3.9	0.97	-0.58	-0.19
19: Computers and other new technologies are helpful in teaching students to write well.	3.8	0.79	-0.44	-0.09
15: My education experience should provide me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	3.8	0.79	-0.51	0.41
13: It is better to learn English writing in an English-speaking country.	3.6	0.99	-0.41	-0.19
16: My education experience has provided me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	3.6	0.93	-0.41	-0.20
14: Teachers should correct their students' mistakes in their writing work at the beginning since it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	3.6	0.95	-0.39	-0.34
12: Students are more likely to be good writers in English if they are good writers in Chinese.	3.5	1	-0.27	-0.53
4: Good writing teachers give many assignments to the students.	3.3	0.93	0.05	-0.36
18: The university I am working in has provided me with enough support to teach writing.	3.2	1	-0.10	-0.33
7: Translating from text in their first language helps students to learn how to write.	3.1	1.08	-0.04	-0.60

Concerning the five evaluation criteria of English writing, most participants agreed that an effective piece of English writing should include a clear structure ($M = 4.7$), relevant content ($M = 4.6$) and correct grammar ($M = 4.5$). While most participants agreed that it was important to include cohesive devices ($M = 4.4$) and varied vocabulary ($M = 4.3$), these two items were ranked lower. Most teacher participants endorsed the effectiveness of reading in helping students to learn how to write in English ($M = 4.5$), and two items (item 8 and item 20f, $M = 4.5$ both) referring to reading contributing to students' writing proficiency, were agreed to by most participants. This suggests that most of participants believed that reading in English plays an important role in improving students' writing in English. Fewer participants agreed that their educational experiences and their home universities have provided them with enough knowledge and support to teach English writing ($M = 3.6$ and $M = 3.2$ respectively). However, the mean values of item 17 and item 15 ($M = 3.9$ and $M = 3.8$ respectively) suggest that though teachers were not

satisfied, they felt they needed greater pre-service education and support from their schools. Teacher participants moderately supported the significance of writing ($M = 4.1$), re-writing ($M = 4.3$) and process writing ($M = 4.1$) to improve English writing expertise. There was little support for giving a large number of assignments to students and ask students ($M = 3.3$) and for asking students to translate from their first language to English when writing ($M = 3.1$).

4.3 Findings

In this section, research findings of close-ended questions and open-ended questions in the questionnaire are reported. Whether or not demographic information played a role in teachers 'cognition is explained.

4.3.1 Results of Close-ended Questions

4.3.1.1 Theme One: What Constitutes a Piece of Good-Quality Student Writing

Table 4.3 presents the frequency, percentages and mean scores of items in theme one: What a piece of good-quality students' writing is. 81.6% participants strongly agreed that a clear structure was a necessary element in English writing. Other factors which participants strongly agreed contributed to a good piece of English writing were content (62%), grammar (53.6%), cohesive devices (50.9%) and vocabulary (45.5%). When adding the percentages of strongly agree and agree together, the ranking of the five elements showed a similar pattern. Thus, a ranking of the role of elements in English writing could be: structure (95.2%), content (94.5%), grammar (92.5%), cohesive device (87.3%) and vocabulary (85.6%).

Table 4.3 Teacher Cognition about a Good Piece of Writing

Items	Frequency and Percentage					M	SD
	1*	2	3	4	5		
1a: An effective piece of English writing should include: A. A clear structure	8 (2.4%)	1 (0.3%)	7 (2.1%)	45 (13.6%)	271 (81.6%)	4.72	0.74
1e: An effective piece of English writing should include: E. Relevant content	2 (0.6%)	0	16 (4.8%)	108 (32.5%)	206 (62%)	4.55	0.65
1b: An effective piece of English writing should include: B. Correct grammar	1 (0.3%)	0	24 (7.2%)	129 (38.9%)	178 (53.6%)	4.47	0.73
1c: An effective piece of English writing should include: C. Moderate cohesive devices	1 (0.3%)	1 (0.3%)	40 (12%)	121 (36.4%)	169 (50.9%)	4.37	0.73
1d: An effective piece of English writing should include: D. Varied vocabulary	1 (0.3%)	3 (0.9%)	44 (13.3%)	133 (40.1%)	151 (45.5%)	4.3	0.75

*1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

4.3.1.2 Theme Two: What Are Criteria to Judge a Good Student Writer

In terms of criteria to judge a competent student English writer, the majority (53.6%) of participants endorsed the skills of planning before writing. In contrast, only 29.8% of the participants strongly agreed that knowledge about English grammar was a prerequisite of good English writers. This suggests that as the former core of English instruction, grammar teaching was decreasing in popularity among CE teachers in Chinese context.

Table 4.4 Teacher Cognition about Criteria of a Good Student Writer

Items	Frequency and Percentage					M	SD
	1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*		
3: Good writers have skills of planning before starting writing.	1 (0.3%)	9 (2.7%)	25 (7.5%)	119 (35.8%)	178 (53.6%)	4.4	0.77
2: Good writers are those who know grammar rules well.	5 (1.5%)	23 (6.9%)	83 (25%)	122 (36.7%)	99 (29.8%)	3.86	0.98

*1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

4.3.1.3 Theme Three: What Could Help Students to Become Good English Writers

Responses to theme three items suggest that teacher participants did not strongly endorse the two aspects noted to improve students' writing in English: an English language environment and writing expertise in Chinese. Given that the average mean score of the closed-ended questions in the questionnaire was 4.05, the mean values of item 13 ($M = 3.61$) and 12 ($M = 3.45$) indicate that participants do not strongly support the view that an English speaking environment could facilitate students' learning of English writing and students who were good writers in Chinese could do better in writing in English than those who were not good at writing in Chinese. Approximately one third of the participants agreed that it was better to learn English in an English-speaking country. Similarly, only one third of the participants appeared to believe that students who were competent Chinese writers would be good English writers. Table 4.5 shows the results.

Table 4.5 Teacher Cognition about What Helps to Be a Good English Writer

Items	Frequency and Percentage					M	SD
	1*	2	3	4	5		
13: It is better to learn English writing in an English-speaking country.	9 (2.7%)	31 (9.3%)	106 (31.9%)	122 (36.7%)	64 (19.3%)	3.61	0.99
12: Students are more likely to be good writers in English if they are good writers in Chinese.	8 (2.4%)	52 (15.7%)	102 (30.7%)	121 (36.4%)	49 (14.8%)	3.45	1.00

*1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

4.3.1.4 Theme Four: What Could Help Teachers to Teach EFL Writing more Effectively

Teacher participants reported ranking agreement with items identifying elements which help students develop writing in English proficiency as follows: reading, re-writing, writing, using models of writing, using technological resources and translating from Chinese into English. Table 4.6 below suggests that teachers believed in the important role reading plays in enhancing students' writing proficiency, as most participants (59.6%) strongly agreed that reading helps students learn how to write in English. A majority of the teachers also agreed that engaging in writing can lead to improving writing. The teachers, however, did not agree (22.3%), or felt neutral (35.2%), with the statement that translating from first language improves students' English writing proficiency. This indicates that the traditional translating method of teaching English writing has lost its popularity among teachers.

Table 4.6 Teacher Cognition about What Helps to Teach EFL Writing More Effectively

Items						M	SD
	Frequency and Percentage						
	1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*		
8: Reading helps students to learn how to write.	1 (0.3%)	4 (1.2%)	21 (6.3%)	108 (32.5%)	198 (59.6%)	4.5	0.70
9: The process of re-writing helps students to learn how to write.	1 (0.3%)	2 (0.6%)	44 (13.3%)	140 (42.2%)	145 (43.7%)	4.28	0.74
11: The best way to improve writing is through writing itself.	3 (0.9%)	9 (2.7%)	58 (17.5%)	129 (38.9%)	133 (40.1%)	4.14	0.86
10: Process writing helps to build a good writer.	1 (0.3%)	4 (1.2%)	64 (19.3%)	165 (49.7%)	98 (29.5%)	4.07	0.75
6: Model compositions help students learn how to write.	3 (0.9%)	1 (0.3%)	52 (15.7%)	171 (51.5%)	97 (29.2%)	4.05	0.8
19: Computers and other new technologies are helpful in teaching students to write well.	0	20 (6%)	75 (22.6%)	175 (52.7%)	62 (18.7%)	3.84	0.79
7: Translating from text in their first language helps students to learn how to write.	25 (7.5%)	74 (22.3%)	117 (35.2%)	84 (25.3%)	32 (9.6%)	3.07	1.08

*1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

4.3.1.5 Theme Five: How does a Teacher Teach CE EFL Writing

Although, overall, teachers strongly agreed that to teach EFL writing, they should teach students how to read (81.6%; $M = 4.45$). Agreement on teaching students how to read was followed by agreement on helping students to improve critical thinking ability (56.3%, $M = 4.45$) and teaching students organizational skills (50.9%, $M = 4.42$). Grammar, vocabulary and creativity were valued by teachers, but to a lesser extent than teaching students to read, helping students to improve critical thinking ability and organizational skills. Enhancing students' creativity was least agreed on by teachers. In the follow-up interviews, teachers reported that the low English proficiency of students was the reason why teachers did not agree with enhancing students' creativity in

classroom teaching since most of the teaching time was spent on helping students to improve their language proficiency. The mean score of item 4 (Good writing teachers give many assignments to the students) was the lowest at 3.28 which appears to reflect the current situation of the teaching of EFL writing in China, limited time is spent on EFL writing and very few writing exercises are assigned to students. As a result, the improvement of students' writing has become challenging for universities, teachers and students as a whole. Table 4.7 presents more information within this theme.

Table 4.7 Teacher Cognition about How to Teach EFL Writing

Items	Frequency and Percentage					M	SD
	1*	2	3	4	5		
20f: F. Learn to read.	1 (0.3%)	1 (0.3%)	7 (2.1%)	45 (13.6%)	271 (81.6%)	4.45	0.66
20a A. Improve critical thinking ability.	1 (0.3%)	5 (1.5%)	23 (6.9%)	116 (34.9%)	187 (56.3%)	4.45	0.72
20e: E. Gain organizational skills.	0	4 (1.2%)	21 (6.3%)	138 (41.6%)	169 (50.9%)	4.42	0.67
20h: H. Learn to analyse and bring details together.	0	4 (1.2%)	26 (7.8%)	141 (42.5%)	161 (48.5%)	4.38	0.68
20b: B. Learn how to communicate effectively.	0	6 (1.8%)	46 (13.9%)	138 (41.6%)	142 (42.8%)	4.25	0.76
20d: D. Improve grammar.	0	2 (0.6%)	50 (15.1%)	165 (49.7%)	115 (34.6%)	4.18	0.70
20g: G. Gain a large vocabulary.	0	6 (1.8%)	43 (13%)	170 (51.2%)	113 (34%)	4.17	0.72
20c: C. Become more creative.	1 (0.3%)	7 (2.1%)	55 (16.6%)	153 (46.1%)	116 (34.9%)	4.13	0.78
5: Good writing teachers are good writers themselves	4 (1.2%)	18 (5.4%)	86 (25.9%)	126 (38%)	98 (29.5%)	3.89	0.93
14: Teachers should correct their students' mistakes in their writing work at the beginning since it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	5 (1.5%)	40 (12%)	93 (28%)	139 (41.9%)	55 (16.6%)	3.6	0.95
4: Good writing teachers give many assignments to the students.	6 (1.8%)	56 (16.9%)	142 (42.8%)	94 (28.3%)	34 (10.2%)	3.28	0.93

*1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

4.3.1.6 Theme Six: What Resources Contribute to the Teaching of Writing in EFL

Responses to items in theme six suggest that teacher participants agreed that they had not received sufficient training and support from their working universities to teach EFL writing in the CE course. The mean score of item 17 (The University I am working in should provide me with enough support to teach writing) was 3.92 indicating that participants agreed that schools should provide enough support for teachers to teach EFL

writing. However, the results of item 18 (The University I am working in has provided me with enough support to teach writing.) suggests that participants were not satisfied with the support provided by their home universities. Similar situation was applied to item 15 (My education experience should provide me with enough knowledge to teach writing) and item 16 (My education experience has provided me with enough knowledge to teach writing). More than half of the participants agreed (52.4%), or strongly agreed (17.8%), that pre-service training for teachers should provide them with enough knowledge. The mean score of item 16 was lower suggesting that, though more than 50% participants agreed or strongly agreed, overall the participants believed that their pre-service training regarding providing them with enough knowledge to teach EFL writing needed to be improved. Table 4.8 presents descriptive statistics of teacher participants' self-reported cognition about the training and support they received.

Table 4.8 Teacher Cognition about English Writing Teaching Support

Items	Frequency and Percentage					M	SD
	*1**	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*		
17: The university I am working in should provide me with enough support to teach writing.	1 (0.3%)	22 (6.6%)	68 (20.5%)	154 (46.4%)	87 (26.2%)	3.92	0.87
15: My education experience should provide me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	2 (0.6%)	15 (4.5%)	82 (24.7%)	174 (52.4%)	59 (17.8%)	3.82	0.79
16: My education experience has provided me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	5 (1.5%)	36 (10.8%)	97 (29.2%)	143 (43.1%)	51 (15.4%)	3.60	0.93
18: The university I am working in has provided me with enough support to teach writing.	17 (5.1%)	60 (18.1%)	135 (40.7%)	89 (26.8%)	31 (9.3%)	3.17	1.00

*1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

4.3.1.7 Summary

This section presented data to answer the first two explorative research questions from a quantitative perspective. The first two research questions address EFL CE teachers' cognition about students' writing in EFL and the teaching of English writing to EFL students. Findings suggest that CE teachers value structure and content over language proficiency aspects such as grammar and vocabulary when judging students' writing. They agreed that structure and students' planning before writing were important. In contrast, language knowledge aspects in English writing including grammar, cohesive devices and vocabulary knowledge were not valued as greatly by teacher participants. Their stated cognition about how best to improve English writing ranged from reading (with the highest mean value), writing practice (with moderate mean values) to learning from models of writing and translating from their first language (with the lowest mean

values). The teachers also agreed that teaching students how to read could indirectly help to develop students' writing expertise. In order to help students to learn to write in English, teachers recorded higher rates of agreement with that teachers should help students to learn to read in English, to develop critical thinking ability, to learn organization skills and communicative ability than to teach students grammar and vocabulary. Teacher participants agreed least with allocating a large number of assignments and depending on teachers to correct mistakes to improve students' EFL writing. Teachers also reported their dissatisfaction with the teacher preparation they received from their pre-service training units and the support they gained from the university they worked in to teach English writing to EFL students.

4.3.2 Results of Open-ended Questions

4.3.2.1 Results of Open-ended Questions

Item 21 to 25 of the questionnaire were designed as open-ended questions. Item 21 (Overall, what percentage of your instructional time of teaching writing is spent on each of the following) is about writing teaching time allocation (percentage) on the following four aspects of writing: a) Development of ideas, b) Organization of ideas, c) Effectiveness of expression (e.g., sentence variety, word choice, tone) and d) Mechanics and conventions (e.g., spelling, grammar, punctuation). Responses exclude 11 missing values (11 participants did not answer item 21). The mean value of each part is listed in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Teacher Cognition about Time Distribution to Teach EFL Writing

Each part in Item 21	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
a. Development of ideas	5%	80%	28.13%	11.68
b. Organization of ideas	5%	80%	26.83%	10.39
c. Effectiveness of expression	5	70%	27.16%	12.23
d. Mechanics and conventions	0	80%	19.43%	10.42

Item 22 (What do you think is the nature of writing in English as a foreign language?) is an open-ended question in which participants were asked to describe the nature of writing in English. A word query was run using NVivo Software in order to find the words most frequently used to define the nature of writing in English. Table 4.10 lists words which appeared more than five times in participants' answers. Results indicate that the nature of writing in English is to "express" their "ideas" in English followed by "thinking" in English. Though used less frequently, some participants stated that the nature of writing in English is way of organizing text and being logic.

Table 4.10 Word Frequencies of Teacher Cognition about Nature of Writing in EFL

Word	Count	Similar Words
express	90	express, expressing, expression, expressions, expressiveness
ideas	75	idea, ideas
English	56	English
thinks	56	think, thinking, thinks
writing	56	write, writing
language	46	language
way	33	way, ways
organization	30	organization, organize, organized, organizing
communication	29	communicate, communicating, communication, communications
one	29	one
logical	28	logic, logical, logically
nature	25	natural, naturally, nature
effective	24	effective, effectively, effectiveness

foreign	20	foreign, foreigner, foreigners, foreigners'
clearly	19	clear, clearly
thoughts	17	thought, thoughts
native	16	native
make	15	make, makes, making
learning	14	learn, learned, learning
skills	13	skill, skills
students	13	students, students'
creative	12	creative
critical	12	critical, critically
development	12	develop, developed, developing, development
practice	12	practical, practice
structure	11	structure, structures
reading	10	reading
ability	9	ability
grammar	9	grammar
process	9	process
speaker	9	speaker, speakers, speakers'
understood	9	understood
vocabulary	9	vocabulary
writer	9	writer, writers
coherent	8	coherence, coherent
sentence	8	sentence, sentences
topic	8	topic, topics
understanding	8	understand, understandable, understanding
use	8	use, using
words	8	word, wording, words
different	7	different
feelings	7	feeling, feelings
important	7	important
output	7	output
correctly	6	correct, correctly
freely	6	freely
knowledge	6	knowledge
others	6	others
want	6	want, wants
written	6	written

appropriate	5	appropriate, appropriately
efficient	5	efficient, efficiently
know	5	know
properly	5	proper, properly
translation	5	translate, translating, translation
well	5	well

Item 23 (What do you think is the most difficult part in writing in English grammar; vocabulary; planning or organization? How much time is distributed to each of the five language skills instruction?) asked participants to choose the most difficult part in EFL writing among four aspects: grammar, vocabulary, planning and organization. There were 293 complete answers with 39 either partially or completely missing. Figure 4.1displays detail of the response.

Figure 4.1 Frequency of Self-Reported Cognition about the Most Difficult Part in EFL Writing
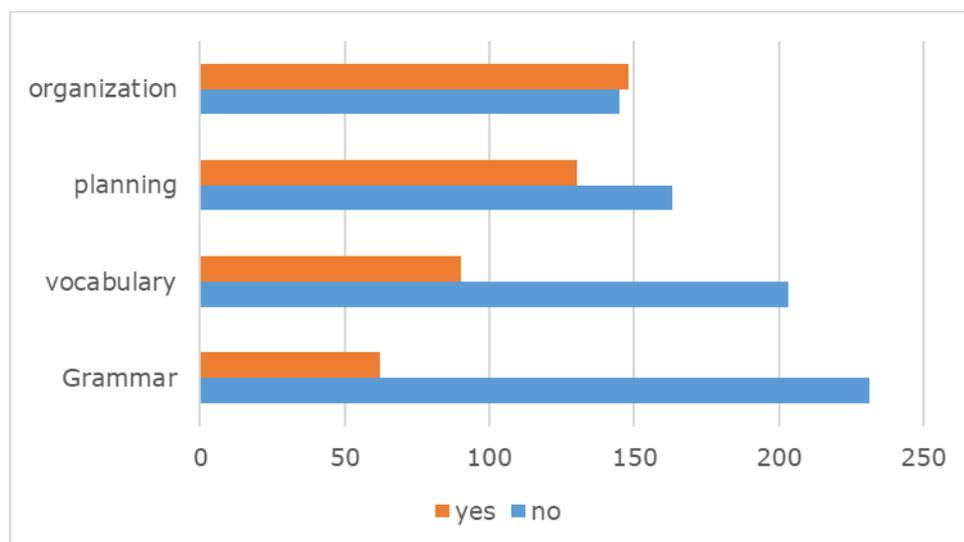
When asked which language skill was the most difficult for CE teachers to teach among listening, speaking, reading and writing (item 24), the majority of participants (62.5 %.) believed that writing was the most difficult skill to teach. 30.7% of the participants ranked speaking as the second difficult to teach, as reported in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2 Frequency of Self-Reported Cognition about Difficulty in Teaching Four English Skills
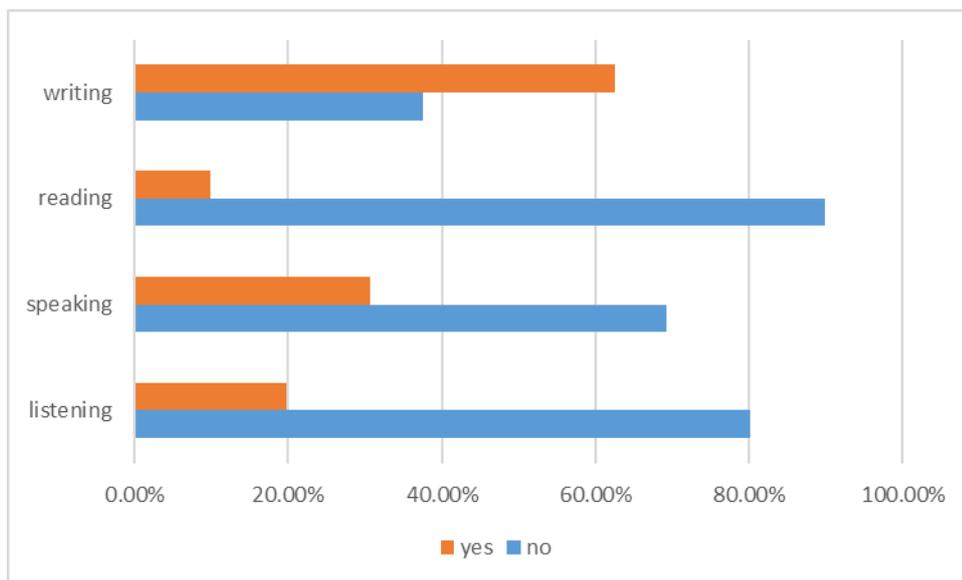
61.1 % of participants were dissatisfied with the effectiveness of their textbooks for writing instruction (item 25). As a range of CE textbook are used in Chinese universities, participants' opinions could not be used as evidence to judge textbooks' overall effectiveness in EFL writing instruction. Participants who were not satisfied with their textbooks to teach writing, however, provided suggestions to textbook writers on the following aspects. They are listed according to their frequency in participants' answers.

1) EFL writing needs to be included into textbooks as currently it is scarcely covered.

2) The out-of-date texts in the textbooks are not effective learning materials for learning either English reading or writing.

3) Compared with texts written by non-native English speakers, those written by native English speakers are more appropriate for inclusion in textbooks.

4.3.2.2 Resources Used by Teachers in Classroom

Item 7 asked which resources participants used to teach English writing to EFL students. Among the following (A) Ministry of Education Curriculum Framework for University

Teaching (48.2%). (B) CE Test Band 4 and Band 6 Guidelines (57.5%). (C) The Teaching Syllabus provided by the university (70.2%). (D) Textbooks (95.2%). (E) Electronic-resources (88.6%). and (F) Others (3%).

Most of the participants reported using textbooks as a resource indicating that CE teachers in Chinese context are highly dependent on textbooks. The quality of textbooks thus is likely to influence the teaching outcomes greatly. However, EFL writing is covered in only a small fraction of the textbooks in which teaching tasks are included.

Electronic resources were also referred to by 88.6% of the participants while 70.2% of participants also referred to their teaching syllabus when carrying out their teaching practices. Figure 4.3 presents resources used by teacher participants to teach EFL writing.

Figure 4.3 Resources Used to Teach English Writing to EFL Students
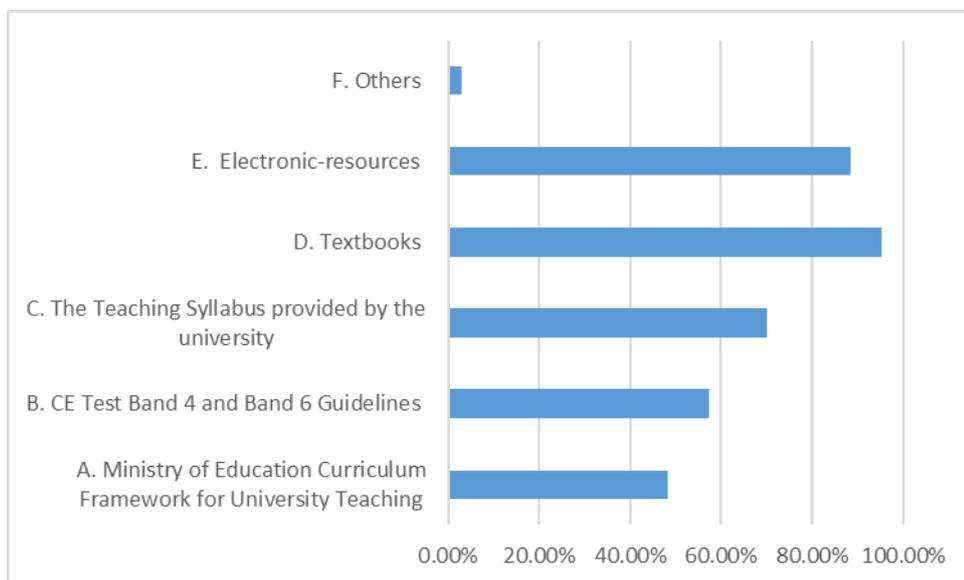
4.3.2.3 Instructional Language Used in Class

Figure 4.4 displays the frequencies of using English and Chinese as instructional language in Class. Results showed that teachers prefer to teach using the medium of English more often than Chinese. Whether teachers should use the L1 in the classroom

when teaching English is always under debate (Brooks-Lewis, 2009). In the follow-up interview, some teacher participants indicated that, although they preferred to teach using the medium of English, they still included a small amount of Chinese as an instructional language in the classroom. They further explained the reason that some students' language proficiency was too low to understand the English teachers used.

Figure 4.4 Percentage of Instructional Language Used in CE Class

- 80% English - 20% Chinese
- 90% English - 10% Chinese
- 50% English - 50% Chinese
- 70% English - 30% Chinese
- 60% English - 40% Chinese
- 95% English - 5 % Chinese
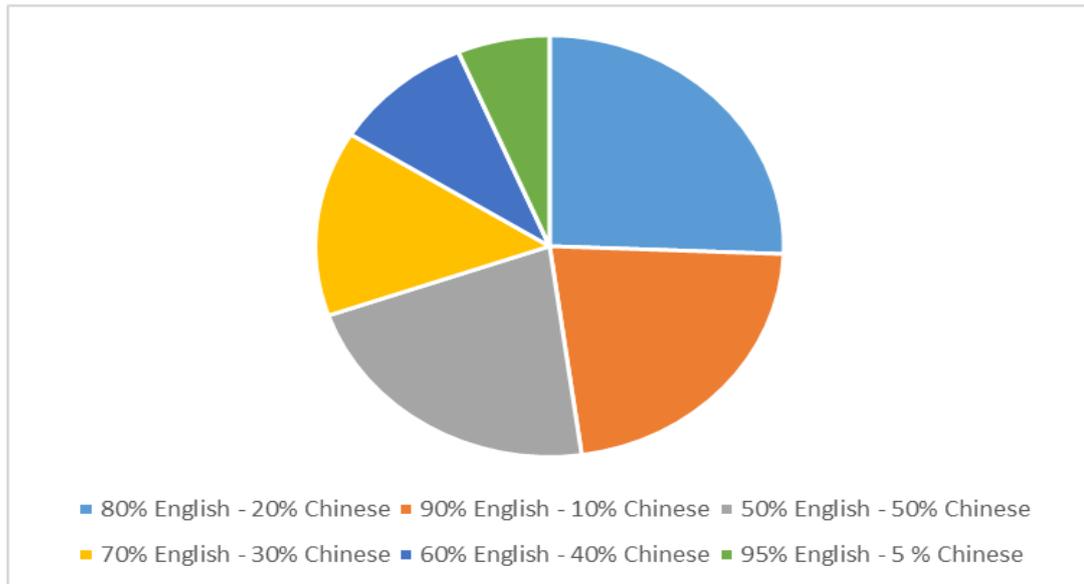
4.3.2.4 Summary

There were three aims of including open-ended questions in the questionnaire. Firstly, open-ended questions served as a supplement to closed-ended questions to answer the broad research questions which ask about EFL CE teachers' cognition about students' writing in EFL and teaching writing in EFL. Secondly, answers to open-ended questions could provide a better description of the context of teaching practices in a CE course. Thirdly, teacher participants were encouraged to elaborate on points covered by previous closed-ended questions. In this section, most of the teacher participants reported that they considered English writing as the most difficult of the four language skills including listening, speaking, reading and writing to teach. In self-reports of their classroom practice, teachers noted that, when the teaching of English writing to EFL students, they

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distributed time evenly to the development of ideas, organization of ideas and effectiveness of expression, with little time spent on writing mechanics and conventions or format. Teachers reported that English was used as the language of instruction more than Chinese, and that they depended on textbooks and teaching syllabus to teach CE courses with a moderate use of electronic resources.

4.3.3 Demographic Differences and Teacher Cognition Responses

This section presents findings on participants' cognition differences related to the demographics of participants namely age groups, genders, academic qualifications[3], professional qualifications[4], teaching experiences and overseas experiences. Table 3.4 lists population distribution in different groups. The second part reports cognition differences that arise in the open-ended questions in the questionnaire.

4.3.3.1 Cognition Differences Based on Age Group

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to explore the relationship of age to teacher cognition as shown in Appendix L. Participants were divided into eight age groups (Group 1: 20-25 years; Group 2: 26-30 years; Group 3: 31-35 years; Group 4: 36-40 years; Group 5: 41-45 years; Group 6: 46-50 years; Group 7: 51-55 years; Group 8: 56+ years). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in item 2 (F (14.649, 298.251) = 2.273. $p = .028$) and item 18 (F (14.497, 316.717) = 2.119. $p = .041$) among the eight age groups. As shown in Table 4.11, Post-hoc comparisons using the LSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 3 ($M = 4.36$) was significantly different from that for Group 6 ($M = 4.43$) in terms of item 2. This suggests that teachers in the age group 46-50 agreed with teaching grammar rules to students more than teachers in

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[3] Academic qualification refers to whether participants held a Bachelor's or Master's or Doctor's degree.
[4] Professional qualification refers to whether participants were graduated from a normal university or not.

the age group of 31-35. Since predominantly a traditional English teaching method was adopted by CE teachers in past years, it may be that, compared with younger CE teachers, older CE teachers were more influenced by the traditional English teaching methods which valued the instruction of grammar and vocabulary. Therefore, older CE teachers agreed that teaching grammatical rules was an important criterion. The statistical analyses found that teachers in Group 7 (age 51-55, *M* = 2.67) had a low level of agreement with Item 18 which suggests they believed they had received insufficient support from their universities. The small number of participants in Group 7 (n = 18), suggests this finding cannot be generalized to other populations.

Table 4.11 Post hoc LSD Results of Teacher Cognition Difference by Age Groups

Item	Group		Mean difference	*p*
2	Group 6: 46-50 (n = 28)	Group 2: 26-30 (n = 32)	0.65	.009
		Group 3: 31-35 (n = 90)	0.80	.000
		Group 4: 36-40 (n = 88)	0.54	.009
		Group 5: 41-45 (n = 56)	0.63	.005
		Group 7: 51-55 (n = 18)	0.58	.048
		Group 8: 56+ (n = 7)	0.89	.028
18	Group 7: 51-55(n = 18)	Group 1: 20-25 (n = 13)	-0.80	.028
		Group 2: 26-30 (n = 32)	-0.77	.009
		Group 5: 41-45 (n = 56)	-0.64	.018
		Group 6: 46-50 (n = 28)	-0.83	.006
	Group 3: 31-35(n = 90)	Group 2: 26-30 (n = 32)	-0.64	.048
		Group 6: 46-50 (n = 28)	-0.83	.03

4.3.3.2 Cognition Differences Based on Gender

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to compare responses to the 31 items (See Appendix M for a detailed table). There were statistically significant gender differences for item 3, item 7, item16 and item20f. Table 4.12 below shows the difference between male and female participants in four items. More female (*M* = 4.44) than male participants (*M* = 4.19) agreed that good writers have skills of planning before starting writing. More female (*M* = 4.50) than male participants (*M* = 4.28) also agreed that to

teach students to write in English, English teachers should focus on helping students to learn to read in English. More male participants (M = 3.39) than female participants (M = 3.00) agreed that "translating from text in their first language helps students to learn how to write". For item 16, male participants had a higher mean value for agreement than female (M_{male} = 3.85; M_{female} = 3.54 respectively). An explanation of this significant difference for item 16 may be that, 59.3% of total male participants had graduated from normal universities while the percentage for female participants was 49.3%. As pedagogical knowledge is provided by normal universities only, those who graduated from normal universities may be more satisfied with their pedagogical knowledge training than those from other universities.

Table 4.12 *t*-Test Results of Teacher Cognition by Gender

Items	Gender	N	M	SD	p
3: Good writers have skills of planning before starting writing.	male	54	4.19	.85	.024
	female	268	4.44	.75	
7: Translating from text in their first language helps students to learn how to write.	male	54	3.39	.98	.016
	female	268	3.00	1.08	
16: My education experience has provided me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	male	54	3.85	.86	.028
	female	268	3.54	.95	
20f: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: F. Learn to read.	male	54	4.28	.71	.025
	female	268	4.50	.64	

4.3.3.3 Cognition Differences Based on Academic Qualification

A One-way ANOVA (see Table 4.13) was run to establish cognition differences among participants with different academic qualifications. Participants were divided into seven groups based on academic qualification levels: Group 1: Bachelor degree obtained in a university in China; Group 2: Bachelor degree obtained in a university in a foreign country; Group 3: Master degree obtained in a university in China; Group 4: Master degree obtained in a university in a foreign country; Group 5: PhD obtained in a

university in China; Group 6: PhD obtained in a university in a foreign country; Group

7: Others. There were statistically significant differences at the $p < .05$ level for item 8

$(F (6,325) = 3.011. p = .007)$, item 20a $(F (6,325) =4.642. p = .000)$, item 20e $(F (6,325)$

$= 2.700. p = .014)$ and item 20f $(F (6,325) = 2.150. p = .048)$.

Table 4.13 ANOVA Results of Teacher Cognition Difference by Academic Qualifications

Items		df	F	p
8: Reading helps students to learn how to write.	Between	6	3.01	.007
	Within	325		
20a: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: A. Improve critical thinking ability.	Between	6	4.64	.000
	Within	325		
20e: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: E. Gain organizational skills.	Between	6	2.7	.014
	Within	325		
20f: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: F. Learn to read.	Between Groups	6	2.150	.048
	Within Groups	325		

Post-hoc comparisons using the LSD test indicates that participants with master's

degrees were more likely to agree that teaching of reading improved students' writing

proficiency than bachelor's degree holders, as shown in Table 4.14. Similarly, for items

20a, 20e and 20f which emphasise the importance of critical thinking ability teaching,

organizational skills teaching and reading teaching, the mean value of responses from

master's degree holders' (including a master's degree from a Chinese university or a

foreign university) and doctoral degree holders were higher than that of bachelor's

degree holders. No difference was found among participants who had graduated from

Chinese universities or foreign universities.

Table 4.14 Post hoc LSD Result of Teachers' Cognition Difference by Academic Qualification*

Item	Group		Mean difference	p
8	M China	B China	0.37	0.001
		B Foreign	0.93	0.021
	M Foreign	B China	0.39	0.018
		B Foreign	0.94	0.024
20a	B China	M China	-0.55	0.000
		M Foreign	-0.64	0.000
		D China	-0.46	0.002
20e	B China	M China	-0.27	0.011
	B Foreign	M China	-0.80	0.036
		M Foreign	-1.01	0.012
		D Foreign	-0.91	0.047
	M Foreign	B China	0.48	0.002
		D China	0.35	0.026
20f	B Foreign	M China	-0.86	0.024
		M Foreign	-0.87	0.028
	M China	D China	0.22	0.038

*B, M and D in the table refer to bachelor's degree, master's degree and doctoral degree.

4.3.3.4 Cognition Differences Based on Professional Qualification

To find differences between participants who had graduated from normal universities and those from other universities, an independent sample *t* test was run (see Appendix O for detailed results). Results showed that there were statistically significant differences between the two groups in item 1a; item 1e; item6; item8; item9; item10 and item13. Table 4.15 below shows how participants with degrees obtained from normal universities differed from those with degrees from other universities in China. With the exception of item 13, participants with degrees from other universities reported higher mean values for item 1a, item 1e, item 6, item 8, item 9 and item 10.

Table 4.15 *t*-Test Results of Teacher Cognition Difference by Professional Qualifications

Items	Professional Qualification	N	M	SD	p
1a: An effective piece of English writing should include: A. A clear structure	normal	168	4.64	.90	.046
	other	164	4.80	.53	
1e: An effective piece of English writing should include: E. Relevant content	normal	168	4.46	.73	.006
	other	164	4.65	.54	
6: Model compositions help students to learn how to write.	normal	168	3.96	.88	.027
	other	164	4.15	.70	
8: Reading helps students to learn how to write.	normal	168	4.39	.81	.004
	other	164	4.61	.54	
9: The process of re-writing helps students to learn how to write.	normal	168	4.17	.76	.005
	other	164	4.40	.60	
10: Process writing helps to build a good writer.	normal	168	3.97	.76	.014
	other	164	4.17	.72	
13: It is better to learn English writing in an English-speaking country.	normal	168	3.74	.92	.013
	other	164	3.47	1.04	

Differences between participants who had graduated from normal universities and those from other universities were in theme four of the questionnaire: What could help teachers to teach writing more effectively. Compared with participants who had graduated from other universities, participants who had graduated from normal universities reported less agreement with statements advocating for model compositions, reading, re-writing and process writing methods in enhancing students' English writing proficiency. Similarly, normal university graduate teachers appeared to regard a clear structure and content as less important criteria for good writing than did their colleagues from other universities. The mean value for agreement by participants from normal universities was higher than that of teachers from other universities in response to item 13 only, which stated that learning English in an English-speaking country could be more effective than in an non-English-speaking country.

4.3.3.5 Cognition Differences Based on Years of Teaching Experiences

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to explore the impact of years of working experience on participating teachers' cognition as shown in Table 4.16. Participants were divided

into four groups (Group 1: less than 5 years teaching experience; Group 2: 5-10 years teaching experience; Group 3: 10-15 years teaching experience; Group 4: 15 years or more teaching experience). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in item 1e (F (3, 328) = 2.702. p = .046), item 2 (F (3, 328) = 3.065 p = .028) item 10 (F (3, 328) = 2.667. p = .048) and item 20e (F (3, 328) = 3.347. p = .019).

Table 4.16 ANOVA Results of Teacher Cognition Differences by Years of Teaching Experience

Items		df	F	p
1e: An effective piece of English writing should include: E. Relevant content	Between	3	2.70	.046
	Within	328		
2: Good writers are those who know grammar rules well.	Between	3	3.07	.028
	Within	328		
10: Process writing helps to build a good writer.	Between	3	2.67	.048
	Within	328		
20e: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: E. Gain organizational skills.	Between	3	3.35	.019
	Within	328		

Post hoc comparisons suggested that participants with 10-15 years of teaching were less likely to endorse the statement that content was an important criterion in judging students' writing than novice (less than 5 years of teaching) teachers and experienced (15+ years of teaching) teachers, as shown in Table 4.17. Consistent with the differences between age groups, that older teachers endorse grammar teaching more than younger teachers do, teachers with 15 and more years of teaching experience were more likely to agree with teaching grammar rules than novice teachers were. The mean value for item 10 for the group with 5-10 years teaching experience was higher than for teachers with five or less years or 10-15 years of teaching experience, indicating that teachers with 5-10 years of teaching experience agreed with the importance of process writing more than their colleagues with less than five years' experience and those with 10-15 years of teaching experience did. Similarly, the mean value of responses by the group with 5-10 years teaching experience was higher than for the two groups of with more than 10 years

teaching experience for item 20e, which states it is important to teach organization skills to improve students writing. Post hoc comparison results are shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17 Post hoc LSD Results of Teacher Cognition Differences by Years of Teaching Experience

Item	Group		Mean difference	p
1e	less than 5 years	10-15 years	0.24	0.032
	15+ years	10-15 years	0.22	0.013
2	15+ years	5-10 years	0.45	0.003
10	5-10 years	less than 5 years	0.31	0.021
		10-15 years	0.28	0.014
20e	5-10 years	10-15 years	0.24	0.019
		15+ years	0.31	0.002

4.3.3.6 Cognition Differences Based on Years of Overseas Experiences

No significant differences were found among participants with different years of overseas experience. Appendix P showed the results of a one-way ANOVA of teacher cognition difference based on years of overseas experiences. A reason may be that the participants' overseas experience was seldom related to the teaching of EFL writing.

4.3.3.7 Cognition Differences in Open-ended Questions

Open-ended questions which could be quantified were input into SPSS. No significant differences were detected by selecting cases by different backgrounds. Items which could not be quantified were compared manually, confirming that no apparent differences identified.

4.3.3.8 Summary

This section addressed the third research question from a quantitative perspective. It reported on differences in teachers' cognition about teaching writing in EFL among teachers related to age, gender, and working experiences. Findings indicated that there were significant differences among participants of different age groups, gender, academic qualification, professional qualification and years of teaching experience, but

not in respect of years of overseas experience. In addition, no differences were identified in responses to open-ended questions in respect of any categories.

Age factor

Age factor influences teacher cognition in relation to the role of grammar in the teaching of EFL writing. Older CE teachers agreed on the importance of grammar teaching more than younger teachers. Another age related significant difference was that teachers in the 51-55 age group had a lower level of agreement than younger teachers on whether they received support from their working universities.

Gender, academic qualification, and professional qualification factors

Other differences identified were that female CE teachers appeared to value English reading as well as an ability to plan before writing more than male participants did, whereas more male participants than female participants agreed with translating from Chinese to English during the teaching of EFL writing. Participants with higher degrees were more likely than those bachelor's degree holders to agree with teaching reading, critical thinking ability, and organization skills to improve students' EFL writing proficiency. Teacher participants who had graduated from normal universities agreed less than participants from other universities that the following aspects improved students' writing proficiency: imitating models of writing, reading, re-writing and process writing. They also appeared to value a clear structure when judging students' writing less than teachers graduated from non-normal universities.

Years of working experience factor

Teachers with 15 and more years of teaching experience were more likely to agree on the importance of the teaching of grammar rules than relatively novice teachers. Teachers with 5-10 years teaching experience, however, appeared to value process writing and organization skills more than their colleagues in other age groups. Teachers with 5-10 years' experience agreed less on the importance of content in judging students' English writing than teachers with both less than five years and more than 15 years of teaching experience. These findings paralleled the differences identified between the age groups of the participants.

4.4 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, results of the questionnaire were reported. First, the descriptive features, reliability of the questionnaire and the normal distribution were described. Section 4.3 presented an analysis of key findings including participants' responses to the questions related to teacher cognition and differences in cognition according to the demographics of the participants. Results indicated that participants generally agreed on the importance teaching of English writing in the Chinese context. Participants reported, however, that the current English writing teaching is less than satisfactory. They claimed that effective instruction of English writing was hindered because of insufficient time to teach English writing in the CE course, as well as the low language proficiency of some students. There were differences in teachers' cognition related to age, gender, years of working experience, academic qualifications and professional qualifications. Teachers' overseas experience did not appear to significantly influence teacher cognition.

Chapter 5

RESEARCH FINDINGS FROM MULTIPLE CASE STUDIES

5.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter reports individual teachers' cognition and practices of seven case studies. To better present holistic features including the background information, cognition and practice of each teacher participant, cases are separately reported in this chapter. Each part starts with a brief context introduction of the participant, university and course. Then it elaborates on the individual teacher cognition from different aspects. Every case study concludes with a synthesized within case discussion. An inter-case summary is presented at the end of the chapter with cross-case discussion in Chapter Six.

5.2 Yiming

5.2.1 Introduction

Yiming was a novice CE lecturer with 6 years teaching experience. She started to teach tertiary level students in a Tier Three University (University A) in Shanghai, China after gaining her MA in TESOL from the United States. She worked as a part-time Mandarin teacher when pursuing her MA degree in the United States as well as a TESOL tutor in University language centre. During the classroom observations, Yiming acted as an outgoing and active teacher who was good at adjusting teaching path and interacting with students in classroom.

University A was a Tier Three private university in China. Different from the American situation where private universities are the prestigious ones, in China usually these

private universities are the institutions of the lowest standing. However, since University A was a private one attached to a Tier One foreign language university, English was thus a compulsory course for all the year one and year two students no matter what majors they are studying. Optional English courses such as public English speaking, academic English writing and English movie appreciation were provided for students in year three and four. Students in year one and two were required to hand in at least two pieces of writing during each term spanning 16 weeks. Meanwhile, teachers were required to provide written feedback to students at least two times per term. The classroom size was usually around 35 students which was much smaller than the CE course in other universities. Yiming expressed that in University A, CE course was neglected since textbooks for English major students were used to teach non-English major students in the CE course. The reason was that since English major students accounted for more than half of the total students in University A, the decision-making level in the university believed that it was convenient for teachers, who taught both English to English major students and CE to non-English major students, to use the same textbooks. Yiming believed that some contents of the textbooks for English major students were too difficult to non-English major students.

5.2.2 Cognition

5.2.2.1 Cognition about EFL Writing

Yiming believed that the best way to improve writing is through imitating passages from textbooks. This belief came from her strong sense of achievement when students applied the vocabulary or sentences structures she had taught them in their own writing. However, due to the different ways of thinking between people in China and Western countries, Yiming held on to the view that students can only learn from texts written by native

speakers from the language level instead of ideas and logic. When referring to the different ways of thinking she explained further that some Chinese students showed lack of logic in writing. According to Yiming, students tended to use similar evidences to support their points of view in writing. Another common problem was that very limited and sometimes repetitive choices of language structures were used in students' writing.

Yiming proposed that writing teaching method should be adjusted according to students' language proficiency. For those of relatively high language proficiency, she would adopt a vocabulary-centred teaching method. She believed that her way of vocabulary-centred teaching method was a way of teaching writing too. Yiming sometimes asked students to do condensed writing. That meant asking students to write a condensed version of the passages from textbooks. This was a concession since students are reluctant to complete long writings.

Yiming attributed her English writing skill improvement to four aspects. The first one was her postgraduate study experience in the United States since she needed to read a certain number of articles before completing her assignments. Secondly, reading academic materials was particularly helpful to her especially in her thesis writing. Thirdly, she enjoyed writing in English with various topics with the genres ranging from argumentation, description, essays and academic papers. Lastly, her writing proficiency was greatly helped from her own teaching practices. Each time she came across a good piece of writing, she learned something from it. To her, teaching experience improved her overall expressive ability, both in English speaking and English writing.

Yiming also pointed out that her graduate study was not helpful in her English writing. It was a kind of imitation writing mainly in her graduate study period which she did not like at all.

5.2.2.2 Cognition about the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

Yiming highly agreed with the importance of English writing teaching to tertiary level students in China. She believed that to lay a solid foundation of the English language was important for students in the first two years in university, and that basic training was necessary for students. She also thought English teaching reforms should be initiated from English course in Chinese primary schools. Different teaching methods should be applied correspondingly to students of various levels.

Yiming believed that the best way to improve English writing proficiency was through continuous writing. In the writing process, one-to-one correction was of great importance. However, given the large classroom size, it seemed impossible to do face to face correction in University A. On the other hand, although she welcomed students to hand in more than two pieces of written works to her each term, only one or two out of ten students would provide extra ones for review.

> Yiming: The only way to improve writing is through writing. My point is one-to-one correction is necessary. But it is not feasible since there are so many students in one class. Another effective element is teaching writing through reading. For example, you can emphasise the structure of an article when doing reading comprehension. Students writing skill come from reading too. For writing teachers, to learn some teaching methods towards writing is necessary. (Yiming, Interview excerpt, 21/10/2015)

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Yiming agreed that English teachers should put emphasis on vocabulary when teaching first or second year university students EFL writing. More time should be spent on sentence structure teaching to third and fourth year students in university.

Yiming was dissatisfied with the textbook when referring to effectiveness of textbooks on teaching students English writing. The content of textbook she used was "far from enough" to teach English writing. She complained that only 10% class time was spent on teaching writing with most of the time spent on teaching reading. However, although Yiming disagreed that teaching reading would positively influence students' writing proficiency, she still combined teaching reading and writing together through reading activities. For example, when she was teaching reading she could mention words or phrases that could be used in English writing. And she assigned some writing exercises at the end of each module and provided feedback to students.

Yiming reported that her teaching style was mostly influenced by her own characteristics. The teaching practices of one previous English listening teacher shed light on her own teaching method to a large extent. Yiming was a confident teacher and enjoyed her teaching process very much. She said: "I enjoy and am very proud of the teaching process especially when my students made achievement because of me." She reported that mastering teaching theories was not necessarily a part of being a good teacher. She expressed that good teachers knew what to teach and how to teach. The most important feature influencing the teaching style of teachers was their characteristics.

5.2.2.3 Cognition about Judging EFL Writing

With regard to judging students' written work, Yiming held on to the view that content and logic should be ranked as the first place, while language proficiency should come as

the second. Yiming reported that the most common problem in students writing was lack of ideas. It was very common in students writing that only one idea was repeatedly expressed by deliberately and sometimes mistakenly adopting attributive clauses. Yiming responded to these kinds of students with asking them to make outlines before writing.

> Yiming: When it comes to judging students' writings, I believe the most important is content and logic followed by language. Problems of my students' writing focus on content and logic structure. I would like to ask them to learn from making outline first. Langue should only be corrected gradually. You can imitate content and logic and make achievement in a short period of time. (Yiming, Interview excerpt 18/11/2015)

Yiming agreed that peer review was a good method to enhance students' writing proficiency. She was open to introduce it to class only if time permits. Yiming doubted whether her students were in favour of peer review. She said: "Although I believe peer review should be of help, to my estimation, students are too lazy to do this." Combined with the faculty requirement that teachers should provide feedback to at least two pieces of students writing on term basis, Yiming would do the correction only.

> Yiming: I feed frustrated when correcting students' works since there are so many mistakes including grammatical mistakes and even spelling mistakes there. Some of them just repeat one idea in an article without knowing it. (Yiming, Interview excerpt 18/11/2015)

5.2.2.4 Cognition about Feedback

When it comes to written feedback, since not many students handed in their writing to her, she had time to provide face-to-face feedback to students. She found this an effective way to enhance students' EFL writing ability. She provided various feedback to students according to their language proficiency level. To those learners of low English

competence, she asked them to hand in writing outline first followed by paragraph writing. Yiming described in the interview,

> Yiming: I will provide written feedback to students. I require them to write at least two pieces of writings each term. Some of them wrote more two and some even handed me one piece of writing each week. In this circumstance, I would have a face-to-face communication with them and discuss the writing together. For those of low language proficiency, I will ask them to divide writing process into several phrases. For example, they need to hand in outline this week for my check and then doing expand sentences exercises next week. One piece of writing is completed in almost a month. Very few of them will have second draft. I think second draft is quite useful. We do not have much time and students do not wish to write more. (Yiming, Interview excerpt 18/11/2015)

This represented that Yiming was a very diligent teacher who valued students' individual differences very much.

5.2.2.5 Pre-service and In-service Training

With regard to in-service training opportunities, Yiming expressed that there were regular meetings discussing teaching plans and teaching details with colleagues. However, she seldom used such kind of teaching plan. In University A, English writing course was only offered to English-majored students. She also expressed that if she had the opportunity to teach writing, she would firstly learn some writing teaching pedagogy such as how to improve writing and what kind of exercises were effective.

When it comes to what makes a qualified English teacher, Yiming held on to the view that her pre-service training from graduate level was enough for her to become a teacher. She believed that whether one could be a good teacher or not depended much on his or

her characteristic rather than pre-service and in-service training. She even doubted that other teachers' teaching practices could positively influence her own teaching. For her, the teaching process brought her sense of achievement which could make her carry on.

To Yiming, teaching practicum was important. Although she was not graduated from a normal university thus did not have teaching practicum, she still considered her plenty of opportunities to teach voluntarily in postgraduate study useful to her.

5.2.2.6 Test-oriented Education (CET-4 and CET-6)

Admitting that CE education in China was test driven, Yiming neither for nor against it. There seemed to be no discrepancy between test-oriented education in China and her teaching according to Yiming. In her teaching practices, vocabulary was always considered as a main part to teach. Since English tests in China were much vocabulary based, Yiming believed that her teaching was helpful for students to gain a higher score in tests.

5.2.2.7 Difficulties, Challenges or Confusions in the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

Yiming listed the main difficulties or confusions in teaching English writing were that the large number of students in classroom, huge work load to teachers and students' low language proficiency. She expressed, "It seemed almost impossible to teach English writing although students have writing tests in their CET-4 or CET-6. Teachers were not required to teach writing too in our university."

5.2.3 Teaching Practice

5.2.3.1 General Teaching Process

Yiming taught CE to second year students majoring in accounting and finance. Since University A was specialized in foreign language education, textbooks for English major students are used in the CE course for non-English-major students. The textbook Yiming taught was "An integrated English course" published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press. Normally there are around 35 students in her class. Students in the class I observed were majoring in accounting. Yiming expressed that students majoring in accounting had higher English proficiency than students in other majors she taught.

Yiming's class showed an active atmosphere. Teacher and students worked together through frequent interactions. She started her course by a brief reviewing of what they have learned from last course. There are eight units in this textbook. Each unit is divided into two parts. Part one is intensive reading composing of one piece of writing and exercises. Part two is made up of one shorter piece of writing and exercises. According to Yiming's teaching syllabus, eight academic periods equalling to 360 minutes in two weeks are spent on each unit. Details of time allocation of teaching the first two units serve as an example as shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Yiming's Teaching Syllabus

Week Number	Content	Time
1st Week	Listening and speaking	Two periods
07/09/2015-11/09/2015	Unit 1 Part I Intensive Reading comprehension	Two periods
2nd Week	Unit 1 Part I Exercises	Two periods
14/09/2015-18/09/2015	Unit 1 Part II Extensive Reading	Two periods
3rd Week	Listening and speaking	Two periods
21/09/2015-25/09/2015	Unit 2 Part I Intensive Reading comprehension	Two periods
4th Week	Unit 2 Part I Exercises	Two periods
28/09/2015-02/10/2015	Unit 2 Part II Extensive Reading	Two periods

Yiming expressed that she used her self-invented teaching method called "translation method" to teach intensive reading texts in class. She expressed that due to the low English proficiency, she has no other choices but to ask students to translate the texts first. Otherwise, students could have difficulty in understanding reading comprehension she explained. Before studying each intensive reading article, she asked students to write down translations of the whole article as homework. In class, she asked students to translate one paragraph followed by her explanation. In explaining the paragraph, she corrected students' translating mistakes and pointed out the language points including grammar, phrases and sentence structure. She also asked students to answer questions based on content of this paragraph. The two periods were spent on explaining the whole article. At last, Yiming concluded the course by assigning home work for students to accomplish.

In order to present a holistic picture of Yiming's teaching practices, the second classroom observation was arranged at explaining exercises of the same Unit. The exercises of Part I in the textbook consists of grammar exercises (sentence blank filling using existing words and phrases), error correction (most errors were grammatical errors) and sentence

or paragraph translation (both English to Chinese and Chinese to English). Since Yiming had asked students to do exercises as homework, in class she called students names to complete items one by one and then translate the whole sentence into Chinese. Yiming divided error correction into parts and assigned students into different groups to discuss their answers of error correction and then asked one representative to answer the reading comprehension questions. In completing translation part, Yiming only commented on students' translated versions and shared her translation version with them if necessary.

5.2.3.2 Teaching Practices Relating to the Teaching of English Writing

Differed from article teaching, exercises teaching could only focus on grammar points or sentence structure teaching concerning the teaching of EFL writing.

> Yiming: Please pay attention to this item class. The sentence structures used in this item is suitable for you to use in your writing. If you want to emphasise a particular point of view you could use 'if was …instead of …that… (Yiming, Classroom Observation 02/12/2015)

As mentioned in the interview, Yiming considered that error correction was another exercise which could improve students' EFL writing. In class, Yiming would call for students' attention to avoid such kind of errors in their later writing.

> Yiming: In this sentence we all know that "made up of" should be used. What is the difference between "made up of" and "made of"? Anyone knows? (…student's answering…) Very good. So in your writing you should remember to use "made of" when you express what is the material of something, right? (Yiming, Classroom Observation 02/12/2015)

Yiming also instilled the teaching of EFL writing into translation exercises. As mentioned above, self-invented "translation teaching method" was preferred by Yiming to adopt in class, she valued translation exercise especially Chinese to English translation

very much which, as she interpreted, also served as a method to improve students' writing ability.

> Yiming: How to say "塑造" in English? Anyone could name some word or phrase better than "make"? How about "mode into"? Do you guys agree it is better? If you are a marker of English writing, do you prefer "make" or "mode into"? "made into" seems better right?. Also this sentence structure "add…to…and you have a …" is suitable for your CET4 writing too. You can take note here. (Yiming, Classroom Observation 02/12/2015)

Being consistent with her teaching practices, Yiming encouraged students to memorize well-written sentences both from passages and exercises from textbooks. This was "my way to teach EFL writing", as she recalled in the interview.

5.2.4 Summary

Not graduated from a normal university, Yiming received nearly none education concerning teacher education. She admitted that she was aware of very few teaching theories. However, she had a few teaching tips developed in her own teaching experience. For example, she said: "I found that asking students to do a summary of last course is quite helpful to improve in my class." This goes in line with her teaching practices during classroom observation. Yiming preferred to use summary method both in article teaching and exercise teaching periods. Even after doing error correction exercise she would come back to review the error categories. She was satisfied with and even proud of her teaching method and teaching passion as well as her ability to establish a good teacher-student relationship. Yiming actively instilled English writing teaching into her teaching class including reading comprehension activity and exercise activity. She believed that her students should and could learn English writing through attending her CE class.

5.3 Hui

5.3.1 Introduction

Hui had worked as a CE teacher for 12 years in a Tier Two university (University B) in Shanghai, China. She was also a part-time PhD candidate when the study was carried out. She majored in English language and literature for both her MA and BA.

Despite her rich teaching experience, Hui was not confident about her own English proficiency. She was dissatisfied with her oral English particularly. To improve her own English, she regularly read Shanghai daily newspaper. Hui held on to the view that she did not have any teaching style and she does not "care about students' feedback" too. When it referred to who had brought influence on her teaching style she recalled,

> Hui: I am influenced by Professor Wen Qiufang who is my advisor when I was a visiting scholar in Beijing Foreign Language Studies University. I would consciously and unconsciously follow her teaching style. Communication between colleagues is not much effective and is only limited to those between good friends. I hope that my class is output-based, writing is thus very important. One should use output to express what is in his or her mind. (Hui, Interview excerpt 19/11/2015)

As a Tier Two university in Shanghai, University B offered academic English course to a small scale of students of high English proficiency. The CE course was provided to other students in year one and two. A hierarchy teaching system was applied in University B's CE course which meant that students of different language proficiency could choose suitable courses from different levels.

5.3.2 Cognition

5.3.2.1 Cognition about EFL Writing

Hui agreed that teachers should keep learning. She owed her English writing improvement to her domestic and overseas study experiences and visiting scholar experience. Another effective factor was reading. She admitted the role reading played in improving both students' and teachers' English writing skill.

With regard to the relationship between mother tongue writing proficiency and English writing proficiency, Hui reflected from her own experience and gained the conclusion that high proficiency in mother tongue writing would positively influence English writing expertise. She also mentioned one of her previous students as an example to support this.

5.3.2.2 Cognition about the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

Hui believed that in the teaching of English writing to EFL students, logic and coherence were the most crucial parts while grammar was of less importance.

> Hui: Before my PhD study, I find students' grammatical problems "unbearable". But now I think it is understandable. Since in my PhD study, some English majored students from first level university would commit grammatical mistakes too. (Hui, Interview excerpt 23/10/2015)

To be a competent English writer, students needed to practice for sure. Hui tried different types of writing exercises in her class. She said, "For example last time I asked students to write a summary of the film that I have shown in class. Students enjoyed that." Hui held on to that the improvement of English writing proficiency should be a fluctuation process instead of a linear process. According to her own understanding of second

language acquisition theory, she firmly believed in the effectiveness writing practice played in improve students' English writing proficiency. Three times writing practices each term was far from enough.

In addition, Hui argued that there was not separate English writing instruction in her class, writing skills were also taught when teaching reading comprehension as well as teaching English listening and speaking even. This worked more effective than instilling writing skills only and separately.

Hui was pessimistic about the outcome of the CE course on improving students' English writing proficiency. She believed the CE course could hardly improve students' writing simply because the number of students writing exercises each term is too few. Meanwhile, although being dissatisfied with current writing teaching, she could not think of other ways to improve their writing because of limited course time and heavy teaching tasks.

Hui believed that logic and coherence were the most important parts in the teaching of English writing. In her CE class, she emphasised logic and coherence when teaching English writing. Meanwhile, some effective writing teaching skills were gained in her 12 years teaching journey. She mentioned that one method works especially effective for her. In her CE class, she would ask students to summarize their mistakes and share it in a word document to class. Then both the student who had committed the mistakes and his or her classmates would take it seriously since these were common mistakes committed by their peers.

5.3.2.3 Cognition about Teacher's Role

Hui considered the role of teachers in improving students' English writing as "scaffolding" (she used this English word directly in our interview carried out in mandarin). She believed that it was more difficult for teachers to improve students' writing proficiency directly than to improve other language skills such as listening, reading and speaking. Hui endorsed the significance of providing feedback to students' writing.

5.3.2.4 Cognition about Judging EFL Writing

When it comes to cognition about evaluating students' EFL writing, Hui believed that coherent expressing students' ideas as a whole was the most important judging criterion. Although she believed that grammar was not the most important judging criteria, due to the low language proficiency of students, she had to point out and sometimes correct students' many grammatical mistakes when providing feedback to students.

5.3.2.5 Cognition about Feedback

Hui believed face-to-face discussion was the most effective method to improve students' writing. Due to time limit and large numbers of students in the classroom, she could only provide written feedback to them without face-to-face discussion. Though Hui believed that there should be more, student handed in three pieces of English writings to her each term.

> Hui: Three pieces of writing exercises a term is far from enough considering the importance of writing to contemporary college students. The main obstacles are time limit and less attention from the leaders. (Hui, Interview excerpt 23/10/2015)

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Previously, Hui did correct students' grammar mistakes in feedback. However, she found that this did not work very well because not everyone took her feedback seriously. Hui became frustrated and adjusted her way of correcting mistakes to pointing out the mistakes afterwards and asked students to correct mistakes by themselves. Students could seek help from teachers if they could not find or correct their mistakes in writing. Hui believed this was a better way than her previous one to improve her students' English writing proficiency.

5.3.2.6 Pre-service and In-service Training

Hui firmly believed that Chinese pre-service teacher training was far from enough in every aspect. Let along it could produce a qualified English writing teacher. She believed that one CE teacher could learn from his or her own mistakes. Hui recalled, "I desperately need someone to teach me how to be a good teacher both when I was a student teacher and now, but there is none. This is a practical situation in China. Our teaching is lack of sincere communication."

5.3.2.7 Test-oriented Education

Since Hui had been a tutor of courses on CET-4 and CET-6 preparation for more than five years, she had taken it for granted that English test is a part of English education in China. Hui expressed in the interview that CET in China had facilitated English education to some extent. She possessed a neutral attitude to the existence of such tests.

5.3.2.8 Difficulties, Challenges or Confusions in the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

Hui believed that English writing teaching deserved more time allocation and attention both from teachers and students. Currently only about 10% to 20% of the CE course time was spent on teaching English writing teaching.

Hui: Teaching English writing in necessary to tertiary level students. However, English writing has not gained enough attention from policymakers in our university. I think it is the same in other universities. This could be proved by the low score allocation to English writing in CET4 and CET6. If I am a member of school administrators and educational policy maker staff, I will definitely allocate enough time to teach English writing. (Hui, Interview excerpt 23/12/2015)

5.3.3 Teaching Practice

5.3.3.1 General Teaching Process

The course I observed was a class of 40 first-year students majoring in economics and management. The textbook used was "New Horizon CE" published by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press. The focus of the first observed course was Unit 7 "Marriage across Nations". Hui started the courses by reviewing key words and phrases they have learned last time.

Hui: Good morning class. Let's start our class today. Firstly, let's review the important words and phrases we've learned last time. How to spell "hesitate"? … (students murmuring out the spelling). Do you still remember the word "mutual"? We can use "mutual respect" what does that mean? 尊重 (respect in Chinese)，yes you are right. (Hui, Classroom Observation 19/11/2015)

After around 10 minutes reviewing, Hui came back to the paragraph four where they stopped last time. In reading comprehension part, Hui gave time to students to read one paragraph beforehand with the aim to answer questions she asked previously. And then she asked students to answer the comprehensive questions followed by her explanation.

Hui: Now let's come to paragraph four, first of all, I will give you some time to read this paragraph. And my question for this paragraph is that "how did Mark look at the time that he and his girlfriend spent together? The answer is in paragraph four. Let me know the answer after reading. Go. (Hui, Classroom Observation 19/11/2015)

For sentences that were too complicated for students to understand, Hui would call a student to read aloud that sentence followed by her own explaining the meaning in Chinese. Hui repeated the above procedures until finishing explaining the whole article. To conclude the class, Hui led students to summarize the whole article by explaining key points in each paragraph. In the last five minutes of the class, Hui asked students to test word spelling based on the new word list of this unit.

5.3.3.2 Teaching Practices Relating to the Teaching of English Writing

Although being good at delivering lectures in the first period of the course which was all spent on reading comprehension, very little time was spent on the teaching of English writing to EFL students. The class activities related to EFL writing the most was the word or phrase filling blank. In explaining this exercise, Hui extended students' vocabulary base by explaining new words or phrases in detail. Also, she referred to the grammar point or sentences structure when translating the whole sentence from English to Chinese.

5.3.4 Summary

Hui was a very active teacher in organizing classroom teaching path. Hui also showed her ability in organizing class and skills to capturing students' interests in class. Students actively cooperated with teachers by reading the article carefully and taking part in answering the questions. However, being consistent with the interview that Hui reported

she was less willingly included English writing teaching in class, classroom observation revealed that Hui was less likely to cover the teaching of EFL writing in class compared with other six participants in this study. Instead, her classroom teaching practices covered more on reading skills instruction.

5.4 Junping

5.4.1 Introduction

Having grown up in a rural town in central west China, Junping was considered as a successful person by his parents and relatives. He achieved his BA in a normal university in western China. He had altogether ten years working experience as a CE teacher. Five years teaching experience was in a local university in his hometown before pursuing his master's degree in Shanghai. After graduation, he has been working as a CE lecturer in a Tier Two university (University C) in Shanghai for 5 years. Being a passionate English lecturer, Junping showed his desperate desire towards being promoted from a lecturer to an Associate professor during the interview. However, according to University C's promotion scheme, three more years working experience was needed for him to be nominated as an Associate Professor candidate. Junping's passion about English writing teaching drove him to participate in the current study. He worked as a part-time English writing tutor in a very famous TOEFL and IELTS training centre in Shanghai. This experience had influenced his teaching style greatly, especially in English writing teaching.

Junping was very good at elaborating on questions regarding English writing during the interview session. Among all the participants, Junping's self-reported time allocation to and reality time spent on English writing in class was the most.

5.4.2 Cognition

5.4.2.1 Cognition about EFL Writing

Junping believed that his own English writing proficiency was not highly improved during his study experience. There was not much writing exercise and courses in both his own undergraduate and graduate study periods though he was majored in English language. Junping recalled that their English wiring course was based on a grammar book called："Grammar book of Ding Daozhen". His part-time working experience as an English tutor helped him greatly and systematically in improving his writing skills.

5.4.2.2 Cognition about the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

Junping believed that his class teaching method was traditional translation teaching method. He was familiar with various teaching methods such as task-based teaching method and interactive teaching method. However, he held on to the view that it was impractical to try new teaching methods in the CE course since the time limit and huge work load of teaching. Meanwhile, the radical up and down change of the CE course teaching method could not be controlled by a single teacher. In addition, Junping regarded most of the students as passive learners. Interactive teaching methods were thus not put forward in their university. "Teachers are reluctant to even try using interactive teaching methods", he recalled in the interview. Junping's teaching activity consisted of two main parts: vocabulary and reading comprehension. The way he taught vocabulary was not focusing on the usage of the words but how to memorize them. Junping believed that accumulation of vocabulary was crucial to student English learners. Writing skill instruction was instilled through both the vocabulary module and reading comprehension module in his class. Therefore, he believed that "English writing is emphasised rather than neglected in my class". In the annual evaluation to teachers by students in

University C, students provided positive feedback to his way of teaching and expressed their interests in participating Jupning's CE course[5]. Junping expressed that one of the reasons why students liked his course is that he could help memorizing vocabulary during class. Junping expressed that in the university that he worked at, different CE teachers had different teaching emphases in class. For example, one of his colleagues was interested in public speaking especially debate during classroom teaching. Debate skills, thus, were often mentioned in her class. To conclude, personal interests could influence teachers' teaching styles extensively.

Junping had developed his own writing teaching tips. He preferred to teach students to follow a "paragraph by paragraph writing method" instead of teaching students how to write a whole article at the beginning stage. His writing teaching was generally topic-based. To be specific, Junping taught how to write introduction part followed by body part and conclusion part upon the satisfaction of students' previous part writing. In week one and two of the term, they focused on the topic of globalization with shifting to another topic of technology later. Junping found out that the vocabulary and sentence structures which he emphasised repeatedly in class were more likely to appear in students' writing. Thus, in order to help the students memorize a certain vocabulary or sentence structure, Junping mentioned them in class more than once. Junping viewed this as one of his teaching tips.

According to Junping, the best way to learn writing was through writing practice and teachers' correcting and feedback. In other words, students' writing skills were improved through writing and receiving feedback from either teachers or peer groups. Since

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[5] Due to the large number of university students in China, different CE teachers offered same level CE courses from which students could choose.

students' mistakes in writing differed from each other, the process of individual correcting was crucial. He reported that he was good at helping students to improve their writing by providing a step by step feedback. However, he could not put his plan into practice due to time constraints. Another reason was that writing occupied relatively fewer marks in CET-4 and CET-6 tests. Students thought they should spend more time on listening and reading in order to gain higher marks. Both teachers and students were influenced by and could not avoid "washback effects of tests"[6].

Regarding to the idea about whether sharing pieces of model writing to students plays a positive or negative role in improving students' writing skill, Junping was partially positive about sharing model pieces of writing to students. He believed that it was definitely not good if all the students' writings are the same or similar. However, he argued that he did not think he was teaching students to write based upon one certain piece of writing model. He called it "characterized model". He provided students with different ways to express the same meaning. For example, he would teach students synonyms when talking about one word. Students could have their own model which was different from others and practice it for many times. Finally, students could develop their own writing structures, priority words or phrases even sentence structures. It helped them to gain higher scores in tests. Another factor driving Junping to stick to this teaching methods was students' positive attitudes toward pieces of model writing.

Junping believed that he benefited the most from his part-time working experience as an English tutor in IELTS and TOEFL training centres. Although the electronic resources alongside the textbooks were improved, Junping still reflected from his previous

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[6] Washback effects refer to impact of testing on curriculum design, teaching practices, and learning behaviours. Here Junping use this English term in the interview which was carried out in Chinese.

teaching experience that his previous way of teaching dependent on the electronic resources provided with the textbook was not effective. He thus gave up the electronic resources and used his own knowledge, understanding and method to teach students. He also suggested teachers who were still dependent on textbooks to have their own understanding of the text and use them to teach.

Junping highly advocated teaching English writing through teaching English reading. Students could learn how to write English through learning structures, transition words and transition methods from texts both in textbooks and after school reading materials. In addition, students could learn how to be logical in one's own writing through reading.

"Academic English course" provided to a certain number of students with high English proficiency was another course that Junping teaches in University C except CE. Junping recalled that his CE course was focusing on reading while Academic English course was focusing on practical use of English for academic purpose. In Academic English course, an original textbook written by native English speakers were adopted. Junping highly commented on and recommended the textbook to other teachers. To Junping's evaluation, the organization of the textbook was reasonable and sound. It could also provide teachers and students with simple but enough content to teach and learn. Students provided positive feedback to Academic English course too. Between Academic English course and CE course, he preferred the former one for the reason that it could improve students' overall English ability.

5.4.2.3 Cognition about Judging EFL Writing

According to Junping, evaluation of students' writing could be divided into three parts: language, logical structure and content.

1). Language was the most important element in judging students' writing while vocabulary was the core part of language. Students needed to grasp the basic vocabulary and enhance their vocabulary level gradually. Also they needed to increase the skills of using diversified sentence structures in their writing. These were two main criteria in CET-4 and CET-6 official marking instruction.

2). Three aspects needed to be paid attention to in logical structures. Firstly, there should be clear paragraph structures. Secondly, each paragraph should have a topic sentence. Thirdly, cohesive devices should be used. Junping recalled in his class connective words they encountered were always repeatedly emphasised.

3). Content in writing was the least important. "It is not what you say but how you say it that really counts," Junping recalled in the interview. Regarding to content marking, Junping held on to the view that students only needed to write around the topic specially given in the test without diverging from the topic. English tests to Chinese university students (CET-4 and CET-6) and Western countries (IETLS and TOEFL) usually had different themes or topics. Topics in CET-4 and CET-6 were mostly based upon a praise of positive aspects of the society while in IETLS and TOEFL topics were mostly objective judgement of a particular social phenomenon. For example, both tests in China and Western countries had a writing part of chart description. In CET-4 and CET-6, it was mainly three-paragraphed structure with description, explanation and personal comments respectively. However, in IETLS and TOEFL, no personal comments were needed. Junping also believed that native speaker markers differed from non-native ones in marking students' writings. Some judges in China paid attention to content which

Junping believed was the least important. However, Junping still held the view that language was ranked as the first important element in judging students' writing.

5.4.2.4 Cognition about Feedback

Junping believed that providing feedback was "highly effective" to improve students' English writing proficiency. However, due to "limit time allocation to English writing teaching", he could only provide very little feedback to students. Most of the feedback was provided in class at the form of word document. He included students' excellent writings and common mistakes in the document. He found this is an effective way to catch students' attention since they are interested in reading their peer groups' writings.

Junping described that in University C, English writing teaching was "not neglected" in the CE course. The reason, as Junpign explained, was that school administrators of University C decided to include English writing tests both in mid-term and final tests of CE course. In the mid-term test, writing part was distributed to students to complete after school. It would then be handed in and marked by teachers. The score was included as a part of the final score for mid-term test. Writing was included in final examination. Junping interpreted the inclusion of English writing in CE course tests as a sign that school administrators had realised the importance of English writing to students. Junping enjoyed reading and marking students writing and sharing his ideas with students since he was interested in English writing teaching and research. However, Junping admitted that only a few teachers would provide feedback to students since it was time consuming.

5.4.2.5 Pre-service and In-service Training

Junping believed that the pre-service training from a normal university at graduate level had equipped him with enough knowledge to become a CE teacher. The postgraduate

study and PhD study focusing on academic research and training towards ways of thinking were not helpful for potential teachers like him. Junping recalled, "There are many PhD students whose English performance are not better than graduate students." Junping believed that he benefits greatly from teaching practicum. One term of his senior year was spent on teaching practicum. During the interview, he could still remember clearly that period of teaching experience. Junping regarded himself as an introverted and easy-to-be-nervous. He could not even imagine standing in front of students before teaching practicum. After listening for two 45 minutes periods, he started the first 45 minutes teaching in his teaching career. His teaching was considered as role model class to other teachers by his tutors. Many teachers came to observe his class. His attributed his success to well preparation and tutor's positive evaluation. This teaching practicum brought tremendous confidence to him and laid a firm foundation for his future teaching career.

5.4.2.6 Test-oriented Education

Junping held on to the view that CE teaching is still test-oriented. One example he mentioned was that students valued the results of CET-4 and CET-6 greatly. If he emphasised that this sentence structure could be used in CET-4 writing, students were more likely to be interested in taking notes and asking questions about that. Students' attitude towards test results greatly influenced teachers' teaching method and cognition.

5.4.2.7 Difficulties, Challenges or Confusions in the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

Junping complained that course time limit was his biggest challenge in the teaching of English writing to EFL students. He could not implement his writing teaching plan because of time limit and huge teaching load. Another confusion was that since there

was not particular writing part in CE course, students had to attend training centres in which English course was test-oriented and divided into four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. English writing teaching was covered more in training centre courses which were designed for passing language tests.

5.4.3 Teaching Practice

5.4.3.1 General Teaching Process

The CE class I observed was first year students majoring in Mechanical Engineering. Junping used "CE Integrated Course 1" published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press. The title of the article focused is "Imagination and Creativity". Junping started the class by students' oral presentation for five minutes followed by introducing the topic.

> Junping: Ok, now let's come to our article. What is the title? "Imagination and creativity". Everyone needs imagination and creativity especially scientists. Agree? Yes. Ok then let's start from the first paragraph. (Junping, Classroom observation 26/11/2015)

Junping adopted traditional "translation method" to teach English reading. In explaining each paragraph, he played the audio of this paragraph first followed by his explaining and translating sentence by sentence.

Junping's teaching passion lied in English writing teaching. He often elaborated on language points related to English writing.

5.4.3.2 Teaching Practices Relating to the Teaching of English Writing

Junping was a teacher showing great interests in the teaching and researching of EFL writing. In his class, tips to memorize new words, sentence structures, and grammar as

well as writing strategies were always mentioned. For example, in the beginning of the second period of classroom observation, when Junping was teaching reading comprehension, he expanded to the teaching of EFL writing:

> Junpin: 双从否定是写作里面非常精彩的一个结构，因为大家要四级考试，我再提一个结构。"…can by no means being ignored." 这个句子的意思是 "。。绝对不能会被忽视"，换句话说就是"我们一定要重视…" 这个是不是我们常用的句型呀？如果我们用"We have to pay attention to…"，那写作分数肯定不高,对吧？好的，让我们来练习一个句子，"我们一定要重视知识的巨大价值". 知识的巨大价值"the great value of knowledge" 所以整个句子就是 "The great value of knowledge can by no means being ignored." 这样套进去，这个句型你就掌握了，写作的分数也就提高了。以后碰到类似的四级考试可以使用的句型我会再提到。今天这个大家记一下。(A double negative sentence structure is a very nice one to use in English writing. Since you are going to take CET-4 soon, I will teach you another sentence structure: "…can by no means being ignored" The meaning of the structure is "…explaining meaning in Chinese…" , in other words that means "we have to value something very much". However, if we use "we have to pay attention to…", we would not get high marks, right? Alright, let's practice one sentence using this structure. How to express "we have to value the enormous importance of knowledge". We could say …writing on blackboard… "The great value of knowledge can by no means being ignored." Thus your writing marks could be improved. Please take not of this.) (Junping, Classroom Observation 26/11/2015)

Junping would elaborate on the English grammar they came across in the article and weaved them into the teaching of EFL writing.

> Junpin: 大家把第六段第三行这个句子用括号画下来，这个是典型的现在分词做定语，对吗？你的写作也可以用。我们有时间可以来练习一下。(Guys please mark this sentence in line three

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paragraph six. This is a typical sentence using present participle as attributives right? You could use this in your own writing. We would have a practice when we have time. (Junping, Classroom Observation 12/11/2015)

Junping highly commented on his way of teaching students to memorize new words. He called it "self-invented word root memorizing" method. When they came across the word "arrival" he wrote "approval" on blackboard and asked students to memorize those two together.

5.4.4 Summary

Being a CE teacher as well as an IELTS and TOEFL tutor specializing in English writing teaching, Junping's part-time teaching experience influenced him greatly on his CE teaching. He spent large amount of time on teaching students English writing in class. He enjoyed teaching students writing and excitements when noticing students' achievement in English writing. His CE course was elected as one of the "most helpful courses" by students in the year before the study was carried out. This supported from another angle that students welcome test-oriented CE teaching.

5.5 Wenhao

5.5.1 Introduction

Graduated from a normal university in central China, Wenhao started his MA programme in Shanghai Marine University. He majored in English language both for his BA and MA degree. He had been working as a CE lecturer in a Tier One (National key) university (University D) in Shanghai, China for 15 years consecutively.

Wenhao defined his teaching style as interactive teaching method. He explained his classroom time allocation for each unit. In the first few minutes, he would check with the students what they have learned last time followed by interactive teaching activates throughout the whole class. Different teachers have different ways of teaching. Being a teacher should foster strength and avoid weakness. It would be great if a teacher was a good performer at the same time. However, if a teacher was good at research rather than teaching, he or she should avoid interacting with students, then informative teaching is a good choice for them.

> Wenhao: I did not apply certain teaching theory in my class. I just let it flow instead of limiting yourself by some so-called theories. Students prefer interactive class too. (Wenhao, Interview 19/10/2015)

Both from the interview and classroom observation, Wenhao showed his firm belief in interaction teaching method.

5.5.2 Cognition

5.5.2.1 Cognition about EFL Writing

Wenhao held on to the view that lack of English reading was one of the reasons hindering students' improving their English writing proficiency. Reading was necessary in improving writing ability. Wenhao's firm belief that reading could help improving writing was gained both from his own English proficiency improvement as well as his teaching experience. Another element contributing to English language proficiency was students' Chinese writing ability. Students' Chinese writing proficiency was interrelated with their English writing proficiency with the prerequisite that students have grasped basic English language knowledge.

5.5.2.2 Cognition about the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

Wenhao believed he had his own way of teaching English writing. In his CE course, he emphasised sentence structures of texts in textbooks when doing reading comprehension. Wenhao held on to the view both students' practice writing and teachers' correcting were equally important to improve students' writing. He found that providing written feedback to students and sharing common mistakes to all students were effective methods to teach writing. Wenhao also found that students majored in social science valued CE course more than students majored in science and technology. Since the university that Wenhao was working in was engineering subjects predominated, most of his students majored in subjects covering science, technology and engineering. He analysed that this might be caused by students' practical view of English. He agreed that English is not practical for engineering students whose future jobs might have nothing to do with using English especially English writing.

On the other hand, Wenhao reported that students needed extensive reading to improve writing expertise. Reading could help students to enlarge their vocabulary. He asked students to read the magazine "economist". Given the huge amount of information provided online recently, Wenhao believed that teachers should direct students to read materials matching their own English level. Wenhao firmly believed that it would help greatly if students could integrate English reading and English writing together.

Thirdly, compared with teacher's correction, students' own correcting was equally important. Wenhao highly valued importance of correcting, he believed that without correcting writing was meaningless. Although teachers might not be able to spend much time on correcting students' written works, Wenhao thought it still worth the time.

Students in his class needed to complete 3 or 4 pieces of writing each term. He asked students to do self-correcting after writing, he was not satisfied with effort and time students spent on correcting though.

With regard to the use of textbooks towards improving students' English writing proficiency, Wenhao argued that writing was seldom mentioned in their textbooks used. He advocated English writing teaching should be included in textbook.

Wenhao did not agree that students need to rote memorize different sentence structures in order to use them in their writing. Students could not benefit from rote memorizing things with the aim to improve their overall writing expertise. Admittedly, it could ensure their marks in tests. "This was caused by test-oriented English education carried out for a long time in China, which had nothing to do with improving students' English ability." Wenhao recalled in the interview.

When asked about what helped teachers reflect and improve their own teaching methods, Wenhao stated that ironically his teaching achievement was pushed by pressure sometimes. Students' feedback both in and out of class was important for teachers to adjust their teaching. Teachers should strengthen the activities that students show great interests in and try to avoid those causing down atmosphere in class.

Being opposite to almost all the other participants, Wenhao did not think the CE course should emphasise on enhancing students' writing skills. Moreover, reading skills and vocabulary accumulation should be more focused. Considering the practical use of

English writing, most of the students in engineering major will seldom use English after graduation.

Wenhao was not satisfied with the help that the course CE provided to improve students' English writing. He was also pessimistic about students' willingness to learn English. He recalled, "If students wish to write they will. The problem was they do not want to write. The only purpose was to gain good marks in CET4 and CET6." There was a big gap from high school English education to college English education in China nowadays. English study in high school was highly motivated and even pushed by teachers. College students needed to allocate time and organise study all by themselves. Only those who were really interested in English and highly organised students would stick to English learning. In this aspect, female students outperformed their male counterparts.

5.5.2.3 Cognition about Judging EFL Writing

In Wenhao's case, he focused on vocabulary and grammar when marking students' writings. Ideas were not much valued. It was different when you were "marking" or just "reading" students' writings. The amount of writings and limited time when doing marking made it difficult to really enjoy reading students' writings. Teachers could only pay attention to vocabulary and grammar. Wenhao also complained that ideas in students' writing are similar to each other. This was resulted from down side of Chinese teaching system. "Chinese students are educated to be less creative and critical, I do not want to elaborate on this point though." Wenhao seemed rather worried when talking about this in the interview and stopped himself with further elaboration. Thus the only criterion to mark was language coherence. When reading students' writings in his leisure time, he could spend more time on each piece of writing although creative ideas were still rare. According to Wenhao, Chinese students' English writing ability was worse than his past

students. They focused too much on their professional knowledge and neglected English writing.

5.5.2.4 Cognition about Feedback

Although it was not compulsory for teachers in University D, Wenhao still provided written feedback to students. He believed that it would be greatly helpful if students could hand in their revised draft for him to review. However, he did not require second draft from students due to limited time and energy.

5.5.2.5 Pre-service and In-service Training

Wenhao firmly believed that his pre-service training from graduate level was NOT enough to become a CE teacher. His teaching cognition and practice were mostly supervised through his teaching experience and self-reflection. He thought that a normal university had equipped pre-service teachers with only knowledge to teach general English especially English grammar instead of English writing. It was helpful if you would become a general English teacher afterwards.

When asked whether courses like teaching pedagogy and teaching psychology provided in normal university were helpful to pre-service teachers, he asked me instead: "Do you think they are useful?" He believed that whether one can become a good teacher or not does not depend on what they have learned as pre-service teachers. Many excellent scholars could not be good teachers at the same time. Wenhao named Chenjingrun, a well-known Chinese mathematician who was a famous researcher but a poor teacher, as an example. Most of the good teachers now were those of good characteristics and good at expressing themselves. A good teacher was a good performer. Of course, for those

teachers who had teaching experience before, learning knowledge such as teaching pedagogy and teaching psychology could help their teaching practices.

On the other hand, Wenhao admitted the usefulness of teaching practicum as an important stage of transitioning from a pre-service teacher to in-service teacher. However, since the short duration of teaching practicum, he could not say that helped him greatly. Teachers could benefit a lot from their own teaching, summarizing and reflection. They always learned from students' feedback and university's teaching requirements. The things learned at school were the basis. Teachers learned how to teach after they had already becoming teachers.

5.5.2.6 Test-oriented Education

Admitting test-oriented English education still prevailed in China, Wenhao was totally against it. He firmly agreed that test-oriented English education would not improve students' English proficiency for communicative purposes. Wenhao emphasised the communicative nature of learning a language. However, current CE education in China laid less emphasis on it.

5.5.2.7 Difficulties, Challenges or Confusions in the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

Wenhao concluded that one concern was that both the language proficiency level and vocabulary size of current students were relatively low compared with students ten years ago. He assumed that "Maybe students of high language proficiency choose to go abroad to pursue their graduate study." His confusion was that English level of Chinese students could not be improved dramatically in university. Most of them would stay at the same level of high school. Some even got worse since teachers in university did not push them

as much as in secondary school. Another consideration was the practical use of English after graduation. Most of the students in University D would go back to their hometown after graduation and take careers in engineering related fields. English would seldom be used. Thus, it was difficult for them to take active initiatives to learn English.

Wenhao believed that it was impossible to improve English writing proficiency during a short period of time for both students and teachers. EFL Writing needed more time to teach and learn compared with other language skills. However, the limited time of CE course and huge amount of reading comprehension teaching loads made it impossible for efficient and effective English writing teaching. Recently, the CE course in University D had been decreased from 4 hours to 2 hours per week. Teachers had to finish six units in sixteen weeks. This left even less time to teach students English writing. The tendency was shown that the CE course in general especially English writing received relatively less attention than other courses from university administrators[7].

5.5.3 Teaching Practice

5.5.3.1 General Teaching Process

There were 26 second-year students majoring in materials chemistry in Wenhao's CE class being observed. The textbook used was "CE-Integrated Course Four" published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

Wenhao started the class by students' five-minute free-talk. After briefly commenting on students' presentations, Wenhao started the lesson by showing a picture of gun to

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[7] University administrator in this thesis means people involved in decision-making process in universities in China.

introduce the topic of the article they were going to learn that day. Given the situation that majority of students in the class were male student, they showed great interests in the picture. After asking students to talk about the picture for about five minutes, Wenhao gave students five minutes to scan the whole article with the question "what is the main theme of the article". Following that step, Wenhao explained the whole article paragraph by paragraph in the sequence of "either student reading or audio playing the paragraph; ask students to translate difficulty sentence; teacher's feedback and correction".

What was noteworthy was that, although Wenhao defined his own teaching style as interactive teaching, the classroom observation revealed that traditional teaching occupied most of class. Wenhao interpreted "interactive teaching" as adding some interaction activities including group discussion.

5.5.3.2 Teaching Practices Relating to the Teaching of English Writing

Wenhao's CE class covered very little EFL writing skill instruction. After finishing doing reading comprehension of the whole article, he reviewed the article by asking students to extract main themes of each paragraph. Meantime, Wenhao called students attention to the structure of the argumentation genre article.

> Wenhao: Have you noticed the feather of the article structure? What is the first paragraph called? Anyone knows? Hands up please. ("..Introduction..", one student answered.) Now please read the first paragraph and the last paragraph.(..students reading time…) Are the content of the two paragraphs overlap with each other? What is this called? (No one answered). Alright, it is called "cohesion". So guys you have to remember in your own writing, you should have a very good introduction part since it is the first thing the marker would notice. And then if you can make your writing a cohesive one that would be great. (Wenhao, Classroom Observation 27/11/2015)

5.5.4 Summary

Being a teacher who valued students' feedback and classroom atmosphere most, Wenhao was a confident CE teacher describing his teaching condition as a changing process in the past ten years' teaching practices. The feature that distinguished him from other participants lied in that he did not hold on to the view that the CE course should emphasise on enhancing students' English writing skills. Reading and vocabulary should be more focused. He described himself as a "practical" teacher who was good at catering himself to students' requirements. He believed that English writing was the most difficult skill to teach.

As mentioned in the interview, Wenhao valued students' feedback very much, he paid attention to improve his teaching style to be welcomed by his students. In his class, he added many activities such as audio and video playing, free talk, classroom debate and student teacher activity. Overall, students liked his teaching style. Students always burst into laughers in his class.

Since University D was a national key university in Shanghai specialized in engineering and science, students in University D were of relatively high language proficiency. Students cooperated very well with teachers and dedicated themselves in classroom learning. Unlike teachers from other universities whose students' language proficiency were relatively low, Wenhao did not need to spend time on organizing students' discipline or encouraging students to focus on his lecture.

5.6 Yan

5.6.1 Introduction

With a BA in English language and literature, Yan had worked for three years in a Tier 3 university in central west China. Then she studied for her MA degree majoring in English Translation and Interpretation in Shanghai, China. Upon graduation, she has been working as a CE lecturer and Associate Professor in a Tier Two university (University E) in Shanghai for seven years.

5.6.2 Cognition

5.6.2.1 Cognition about EFL Writing

Yan believed that her own English writing skill was greatly improved after becoming a teacher. Both her teaching experience and academic research experience including attending academic conference had enhanced her English writing as well as overall English proficiency.

Resembling the experience of Yunping, Yan also mentioned her part-time working experience as an English tutor in an IELTS and TOELF training centre which she believed had improved her own English writing skill to a great extent. By contrast, she believed that since there was no systematic training towards English writing, her own undergraduate and graduate study experiences had not developed her English writing expertise greatly. Yan recalled that some trainings on thesis writing were carried out in her postgraduate study which "should have some positive impact on my English writing". Yan also confirmed that some academic conferences she had attended when being a teacher were effective to improve her own English writing ability too.

5.6.2.2 Cognition about the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

Yan agreed that English writing was important to all English learners including college students no matter they would use English after graduation or not. The adoption of writing methods and strategy were necessary to any kind of language. Students should have the ability to generalize his or her thoughts. At the same time, if students could grasp the writing methods and writing strategies well. They could benefit from the strategy to do their future thesis. Yan highly advocated that English writing teaching should be included into the CE course in China. Meanwhile, Yan complained that the time and effort on teaching writing currently were far from enough.

Concerning the adoption of teaching theory, Yan recalled:

> Yan: I cannot tell clearly which kind of teaching theory I am applying in my class. However, I believe my way of teaching writing is based on some theories on the books I have found in the library. I have read some books on teaching theories and applying them into my teaching class. (Yan, Interview 10/11/2015)

She also mentioned that her teaching style was greatly influenced by her own full-time and part-time teaching experiences.

Yan expressed in the interview that she had to change her teaching method according to the pressure from school administrators in her university. With the aim to improve the limited grammar knowledge of students, she had tried once to use a whole academic period (45 minutes, usually one CE course in China consists two 45-minute periods) to teach English grammar only. However, Yan had to give up since this way of teaching was completely objected by her teaching monitor who believed English grammar should not be the focus of the CE course. However, with the consent of her teaching monitor,

she still spent five to ten minutes in each class to teach one language point instead of grammar systematically. She believed that the CE course should be versatile and student-centred. Teaching syllabus should not be the only criteria to judge teaching quality. Especially in E University, the students' language proficiency was quite low. Students' English ability would not improve significantly if teachers only teach students according to National teaching requirement. However, she had no choice but to put forward her idea and plan since her viewpoint was questioned by the decision-making level of the university. Yan admitted that this was the regulation obstacle which teachers could not overcome.

Yan held on to the view that there were two aspects of teaching English writing. One was basic language knowledge including grammar, vocabulary and sentence structure. The other one was writing strategy. Compared with language knowledge, lack of writing strategy and writing methods training played a more significant role in students' low English writing proficiency. For example, teachers seldom taught students in class how to write an introduction part of an essay. Both students and teachers tended to value too much about content though she admitted the importance of teaching basic language knowledge. She concluded that writing method and strategy training should gain more attention in teaching students English writing. Yan also pointed out that a good start and a logical essay structure in writing are the most important.

When asked about effective methods of teaching writing, Yan expressed that the appreciation of beautiful sentences and the instruction of various sentence structures were the most effective methods in improving students' writing. Then she added the importance of vocabulary. Yan thought that a common phenomenon of memorizing

model compositions especially before CET-4 and CET-6 was understandable. Students liked to rote memorize some model compositions in to gain higher marks in exams. Yan expressed that students' low language proficiency and limited grammar knowledge resulted in their making memorising model writing as priority.

When it comes to teacher's role in teaching English writing, Yan said,

> Yan: Teachers should be guiders. Teachers should provide an overall guidance to students especially in article structures, sentence structures and how to write topic sentences. Teachers' roles change to helpers after finishing guidance. Students need to practice and teachers should be there if students need help. (Yan, Interview 03/12/2015)

With regard to the relationship between English writing and other language skills, Yan believed that if one's English speaking ability was good he or she must be a good English listener. However, the level of English reading and writing were not related to each other. Admittedly, one could enlarge vocabulary and learn sentence structures through reading. Correct input was necessary to output. However, students needed to choose correct genre to read. Argumentation was the most common writing genre to Chinese students. One could only learn writing strategy through learning corresponding genres. On the other hand, Chinese writing ability and English writing ability were correlated with each other. However, the way of thinking differed from people in Eastern and Western countries. Chinese writing paid attention to fixed patterns. This could be difficult to apply in English writing. Overall, Chinese writing and English writing could help to improve each other.

5.6.2.3 Cognition about Judging EFL Writing

Yan believed that structure, which was the macro grasp of the article, was the most important part followed by vocabulary choices and diversity of sentence structures in

judging quality of students' writing. In her view, the first paragraph was very important. A prerequisite was that students should not have too many grammatical mistakes in their writing.

5.6.2.4 Cognition about Feedback

Students were required to hand in two pieces of writing each term. Yan considered herself as a very diligent teacher when it comes to correcting students' writing, "Although there were so many mistakes which occupied huge amount of time to do the correction, I still treated each piece of writing seriously and provided detailed written feedback to them." Yan then raised her voice and complained about students' attitude. To the teacher's surprise, students seldom reviewed feedback. They did not value writing very much since writing only constituted a small margin of total score both in their final examination and CETs.

5.6.2.5 Pre-service and In-service Training

When asked about pre-service and in-service training, Yan held on to the view that whether pre-service training was enough to cultivate a good teacher or not differed in different universities. For instance, when she was a postgraduate student, teachers always asked them to do public speaking. She recalled those valuable experiences gained her confidence and also laid foundation for her future career choice of teaching. However, her undergraduate study was not that impressive in training her to be a good CE teacher.

Considering in-service training, Yan expressed that they did have training opportunities of in-service CE teaching. Some of them focused on English writing but not many. However, she found that most of the training content was too "fancy" to be used in teaching practices. One problem was students' low English proficiency. The main

problem was that students were reluctant to do English writing. She admitted the useless of her in-service training in opening her horizon and enhancing her own teaching ability. But she also complained about the difficulty to put them into teaching practices.

5.6.2.6 Test-oriented Education

Yan was severely opposed to test-oriented Education. Students became more practical due to the existence of test. They did not care about language improvement. They found it very dull and were not patient to listen to grammar teaching. To her view, this was a problem of the whole educational system in China rather than a problem of University E. She suggested that writing interests should be cultivated when students start to learn English rather than when they are already university students. Since students' ideas were already fixed in College which was almost the last stage of school education, college teachers could do very few to change students' ideas resulting from test-oriented education.

5.6.2.7 Difficulties, Challenges or Confusions in the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

Yan considered students' low language proficiency as the greatest obstacle to carry out her teaching plan. Combined with limit English teaching time in university, CE teachers had to "accept reality and lower their standards in teaching". Yan also pointed out that she was also discouraged by students' attitude. Most students would not cooperate in handing in their assignments. The reason was that students wanted teachers to teach those things about CET4 and CET-6. They were very practical. If it was not good for their job hunting and tests passing they did not want to spare time on it.

5.6.3 Teaching Practice

5.6.3.1 General Teaching Process

Yan taught 31 second-year students majoring in materials engineering CE course. The textbook used was "College English--Integrated Course Four" published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press. On the observed day, the focus of teaching was reading comprehension of the part I, Unit Five. The title of the article was "Globalization".

The second observation focused on exercises of Unit Five Part I. Being the same with other teachers, exercises were homework to students, in class exercises were done in the procedure of "students reading out their answers-students translating the exercises-teacher's comment".

> Yan: To my knowledge, 这个词组什么意思？(students murmuring)
> 我们马上期末考试了，提醒大家考试可能会考这个词组哦同学
> 们。我记得上次已经强调过了一次了，应该叫"据我所知"，对吗？
> 那么如果这次期末考试里面让大家翻译据我所知，大家就记住
> 可以用这个词组了。
>
> 这个句子看一下，里面有一个"cent"，什么意思啊？一分钱是吧？
> 所以这个句子是说，"好几个月过去了，山姆一分钱也没有还给
> 我"。大家在四级考试里面的翻译一定要注意，如果这个 cent 没
> 有翻译出来，你只说"山姆没有还我钱"。虽然二者意思一致，如
> 果改卷子的老师是学习翻译的，那么会给你分，但是如果他不
> 是，就可能不给你分，老师可能认为这个"cent"你不认识，所以
> 保险起见怎么样？对了，把"cent"翻译出来。(translation: "to my
> knowledge", what does this phrase mean? ..students murmuring…
> Since final test is near the corner, I remind you that this phrase might
> appear in our final test. So make sure you have grasped this structure.

I remembered that I have told you the meaning of this phrase last time. It means "..explaining in Chinese…",right? So you now know how to use this phrase in your translation test. Another language point is the translation of "cent". What does cent mean? It means "..explaining in Chinese…", right? So the meaning of this sentence is "Several months have passed, Sam did not return one cent to me yet." In translation part of CET-4 test, you have to pay attention to word-by-word translation. If you just use "Sam did not return my money back". You are taking risk of losing marks although the meanings of the two sentences are the same. So translate "cent" as well in the test.) (Yan, Classroom Observation 10/11/2015)

5.6.3.2 Teaching Practices Relating to the Teaching of EFL Writing

According to Yan's cognition, English writing skill was the most difficult one to teach and learn compared with other language skills including listening, speaking and reading. In class, Yan spent the most time on translation skill instruction. Basically, her CE course was made up of sentence by sentence translation. As explained in interview, Yan believed teaching translation and writing could compensate each other. Students often came across difficulty in expressing themselves in English. Learning translating could expand students' vocabulary thus improve their English writing skill.

Yan also took the opportunity of doing exercises to practice sentence structure or phrases which were suitable for students to use in their own writing.

> Yan: Let's have a look as this phrase "show gratitude to somebody for doing something" in this item 4 of the exercises, it is a good phrase to use in your own writing right? Let's practice this phrase. Can anyone make a sentence basing on this phrase? (students prepare and answer). (Yan, Classroom Observation 10/11/2015)

During English translation exercises, Yan called students attention to that different writing habits were adopted in English and Chinese writing.

> Yan: As you can see from this translation exercise, passive voice is used in the English sentence. When we translate it into Chinese what voice should we use? (..passive..) Very good. So remember this when doing your English writing. Ok? (Yan, Classroom Observation 03/12/2015)

5.6.4 Summary

Being an Associate Professor, Yan was a very professional teacher who is strict with students in class. She stuck strictly to her teaching syllabus in her teaching practices. Holding a master's degree specializing in English translation and interpretation, Yan's CE course emphasised translation skill to the largest extent. In both article reading comprehension and exercise explaining, Yan required her students to use authentic Chinese to translate English. She believed this was her own way of teaching English writing effectively.

5.7 Shuang

5.7.1 Introduction

Grown up from a middle-class family, Shuang had the opportunity to pursue her MA (specializing in education) and PhD (specializing in higher education) in the United Kingdom after graduating from a local university in her hometown in Central West China majoring in English. Shuang was a novice CE teacher in a Tier Two university (University F) with only six months teaching experience by the time this study was carried out. She started her teaching career after a systematically training lasted for four months provided by Ministry of Education in Shanghai. She highly evaluated the training

which had expanded her horizon and equipped her with enough pedagogy knowledge. Shuang was not a confident teacher at this beginning stage. She expressed she was worrying about the future uncertainness in her teaching career initially. In the interview, she positively evaluated her MA and PhD study experience in the UK both in enhancing her own English proficiency and equipping her with skills to teach CE. She was optimistic and excited about her future teaching career.

Since Shuang taught both CE course to undergraduate level students and English academic writing to postgraduate level students. When asked about English writing in the interview she often made a clear division between essay writing and academic writing. She liked to share her ideas from two genres of English writing.

5.7.2 Cognition

5.7.2.1 Cognition about EFL Writing

Concerning her own English writing improvement, Shuang firmly believed that the writing module which lasted about one year during her graduate study was particularly useful to her. Besides this, she attributed her English writing proficiency improvement to her overseas studying experience.

5.7.2.2 Cognition about the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

After thinking for a while, Shuang concluded that the best way to enhance writing ability was through a three-phased process: read, write and correct. If teachers had enough time and energy, it was the best if teachers could provide one-to-one feedback directly to students. Shuang did not believe peer review could help improve students' writing skill due to students' various language proficiency.

Shuang expressed that she had not yet developed her own teaching style since she was a novice teacher. Her part time working experience as a mandarin teacher in the UK "might" had influenced her to some extent but not much. She believed that as time went by, she would have her own teaching system and style. Shuang was satisfied about her pre-service training tutor's evaluation of her as a passionate but not that interesting teacher. According to her own experience, she concluded that her teaching style was influenced and confined by different genres of texts in textbooks. She recalled, "This term I teach two courses, I find the one with interesting textbook is easier to teach than the other one."

As far as teaching theory was concerned, Shuang said, "I kind of know some teaching theories since I am specialized in educational in MA and educational technology in PhD study." However, she added that teaching theory only teach her to do or not to do something in class rather than teaching her how to do it. "For example, I learned from teaching theory that I should include more peer work in my class but I still have no idea how to do it."

Being the same with Wenhao, Shuang believed teachers should concentrate on grammar instead of English writing teaching in the CE course. For academic English writing courses, teachers should concentrate on writing frame and writing components. Shuang gained from her own experience that writing teaching experience were largely relevant to one's writing learning experience.

When asked about what factors had facilitated her teach English writing, Shuang expressed that being a novice CE teacher, she had to depend on textbooks at this stage.

Communication with colleagues had greatly helped her to improve her teaching. Shuang described that she had plenty of opportunities to share experience informally with colleagues in her age and her friends. She was willing to talk to senior colleagues but there were not many such opportunities except communication with her supervisor (University F appointed experienced teachers to work as supervisors to novice teachers).

In teaching English writing, Shuang believed that grammar teaching was the most important thing to teacher in essay writing of undergraduate students. Structure and logic were the most important parts to teach in academic English writing. She also added that format was also very important to thesis or paper writing.

Classroom observation revealed that Shuang's correction of students writing focused on grammar. Shuang held on to the view that time spent on providing oral feedback to students in class was worthwhile. Most of her feedback was focusing on correcting grammar mistakes and improper writing style. Shuang also reported that the process of providing oral feedback was very effective in improving students' writing ability since students tend to pay attention to their mistakes after receiving oral feedback in class. When asked about whether other classroom activities like group discussion was helpful to improve students' writing, Shuang expressed, "I think it works too. But students seem to prefer a teacher-oriented environment in class. So I have not included many group discussions in my class."

With regard to students' writing exercises, Shuang reported that students in University E were required to submit two pieces of writing each term. Teachers were only required to mark students' writing instead of providing feedback. However, Shuang included

written feedback using "track changes" function in Microsoft Word. She expressed in class that face to face discussion about their writing with teacher is welcomed. Only some students who were quite diligent would come to seek for suggestions based on the feedback. Shuang held on to the view that teacher correction was better than peer review since students' language proficiency was different the quality of peer review result was not guaranteed.

Shuang believed that the best way to improve English writing was to combine three aspects including reading, writing and correcting together. "Reading as input is crucial in improve writing skill. Writing practice is an essential part too. Lastly, teacher's correction, also known as providing feedback to students, is indispensable. All are important." she recalled in the interview. Teacher should assist students in learning English writing. Students needed to practice by themselves and teachers should point out their mistakes. Students were the main body in improving their own writing instead of teachers.

5.7.2.3 Cognition about Judging EFL Writing

Shuang believed that different standards applied in judging different genres. Since apart from the CE course, she also taught academic writing. She further explained that in addition to structure and logic, format was important too in academic writing. In essay writing, grammar was the most important.

5.7.2.4 Cognition about Feedback

Regarding to feedback, Shuang further explained that students handed in their 120-word essay to teacher twice each term. She provided written feedback regarding to grammar and format. She would also summarize the common mistakes and good points into a

word documents and share it with students afterwards in class. Shuang found that students were interested in common mistake sharing since they wondered what their peer group's writings looked like. They also interested in knowing and trying to avoid what common mistakes their peer group committed often.

5.7.2.5 Pre-service and In-service Training

Shuang expressed that since she was a novice teacher, her only training opportunity was pre-service training. She benefited greatly from her six-month pre-service training. That training was a systematic training including teaching theory explaining, demon teaching observation, teaching practicum and final summary report of training from supervisors. She enjoyed observing the demon teaching courses in training. She even learned from the courses which are not about teaching English. Due to the short period of her teaching career, in-service training was only refined to discussion with her supervisor appointed by University F and communication with her colleagues. Novice teachers were required by University F to report to their supervisor at least once a month sharing teaching stories and asking questions.

Not graduating from a normal university in China, Shuang expressed that her other learning experience did not teach her how to be a teacher. Her teaching experience were influenced by her pre-service training programme. "I had never planned to be a teacher when I was young, therefore I did not pay much attention to observe my own teachers' teaching until I decided to be a teacher very lately in my postgraduate study." As a result, Shuang's teaching style was not influenced by her previous teachers. The only factor impacting her teaching was the intensive pre-service training before starting her teaching career.

5.7.3 Teaching Practice

5.7.3.1 General Teaching Process

The CE class being observed consisted of 35 students majoring in Arts and Design. Criteria for enter the major of Arts and Design were relatively lower than other majors. According to what Shuang expressed in the interview, this CE course was extremely challenging since she had to adapt her teaching path according to students' low English proficiency. The course being observed focused on "Text A: Entitled transportation in Unit Six" of the textbook. Shuang divided the CE course into two parts: reading comprehension and language points explanation. Being consistent with her self-reported teaching method, Shuang depended on asking students to summarize meaning of paragraph and answering reading comprehension questions to make students fully understand the meaning of the passage in the textbook. As for the language points, Shuang wrote new words and phrases on the blackboard and explained the meaning in Chinese followed by asking students to practice by making sentences using the new language points.

5.7.3.2 Teaching Practices Relating to the Teaching of EFL Writing

There were mainly two aspects in Shuang's CE course that were related to English writing teaching. One was that when she explained new words, she would try her best to expand students' vocabulary by pointing out derivative words. For example, when coming across economic in the article, Shuang wrote on the blackboard that the related words were "economical, economy and economics" followed by explaining the meaning of the words in Chinese. Also, when explaining the words "maintenance" she told students to memorize the original form "maintain" as well.

Another aspect covering English writing was classroom activity of asking students to make sentences on site to practice words or phrases learned in class.

> Shuang: Let's have a look at this phrases which is quite important to you guys: "in comparison with". What does it mean? (Students answering: 与什么比较). Very good! 这个词组大家知道意思，但是注意，可以把它应用在写作中去，你要表达与什么相比较的时候，可以用"in comparison with"或者另外一个和它很像的词组大家知道是什么吗？(Translation: Very good! You all know the meaning of this phrase which is good. But please pay attention here, you have to use it in your writing in order to show that you have already grasped this phrase. When you want to express comparing two things you could use "in comparison with" or the other similar phrase anyone knows what is that?)（students murmuring their answers）"compared with". Very nice. Ok now please make a sentence using either of these two phrases. (Shuang, Classroom Observation 11/12/2015)

What was noteworthy was that the second classroom observation included one writing feedback providing session. Basing on the common mistakes and language points needing improvements in the students' writing, Shuang summarised 12 mistakes and shared them with students using a Microsoft Word document through computer. Shuang firstly listed students' original sentences one by one and asked students to improve the sentence by themselves before listing teachers' version. For instance,

1. *Students' writing*: It helps us a lot to save manufacturing cost.

    ⟶ *Teacher's version*: This helps to save manufacturing cost. (to avoid wordiness)

2. *Students' writing*: the first method

    ⟶ *Teacher's version*: the former method (to make it more academic)

3. *Students' writing*: Tom study at library every day.

   ⟶ Teacher's version: Tom studies at library every day. (subject-verb agreement)

Shuang's correction focused on both mistakes and language points which needed improvement. Being consistent with the interview, Shuang believed that the above way of providing feedback would greatly help students' English writing expertise.

5.7.4 Summary

Shuang is a passionate novice English teacher who were excited about her future teaching career. Holding the belief that teachers should help students in improving their English writing skills in the CE course, she worked very hard to prepare for the class. During her well-prepared teaching practices, writing accounted for one fourth of the class time allocation. Being a very kind and ambitious teacher, Shuang preferred sharing her own learning experiences with students with the aim to establish a sound teacher-student relationship. She also shared her own experience of learning English especially mistakes she had committed to in her learning process with the expectation that students could learn English better and easier from her course.

5.8 Yangfan

5.8.1 Introduction

Yangfan was an experienced English teacher with 26 years of teaching experiences both in teaching CE and ESP. She had been working in two universities. One was a Tier Two university in her hometown in central China. The other was a Tier Three university (University G) where she was still working in by the time the study was carried out.

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Yangfan was a firm believer of that writing could only be improved through practice. University G provided a special module called CET-4 intensive course which she found was particularly helpful to students both in their general English and English writing.

5.8.2 Cognition

5.8.2.1 Cognition about EFL writing

As for her own English writing improvement, she believed that her teaching experience helped her greatly compared with her study experience. After becoming a teacher, Yangfan benefitted greatly from reading and correcting students' written works.

5.8.2.2 Cognition about the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

Yangfan described that her way of teaching writing started with the instruction of article structures. She argued that the best way to enhance writing ability was through practice. On one hand, students should write as much as possible. She had required students to write journals at the beginning of her teaching career. However, she gave up at last since students seldom complete their tasks. On the other hand, for teachers, correcting was for sure a crucial part in developing students' writing expertise. She used peer review once and the outcome was not satisfying since students could not use proper correction methods. Teachers should correct students' writings at least once a month. Yangfan confirmed that it would be helpful to students if they could provide their revised draft to teachers to review. She believed that students could benefit greatly from correcting according to teachers feedback and completing their second even third draft. However, students were reluctant to do this. Only in special occasions, for example, speech contest, students would provide a second and even a third draft seeking for teachers' feedback.

When asked about how to improve grammar and vocabulary, Yangfan believed that students needed to read in order to improve vocabulary. That was also the reason why she did not teach much vocabulary in class. Yangfan encouraged students to read newspaper and listen to English audio materials online by themselves. When talking about the reason causing this cognition, she expressed that she was convinced by one of her colleagues. That colleague believed that her habit of reading local newspaper and taking notes in the United States had improved her overall English proficiency greatly.

Yangfan held on to the view that it was quite difficult to teach ideas. Sometimes she would mention ideas she encountered through reading newspaper and watch television. Sometimes she would give students some clues and teach them how to write in class before they started writing.

Students handed in written works twice each month. Writing topics were mainly from previous CET4 tests. In assigning the writing tasks, she explained the topic to the students first followed by students writing and teacher correction. She was a firm believer of that the quality of students' in class writing was better than that of after class writing.

Yangfan expressed that, since the language proficiency of students in University G was low, a traditional teacher-centred teaching method was adopted in the CE course. Both the teaching and writing style of teachers did influence students greatly. For example, she found out in students' writing that they preferred to adopt the sentence structures mentioned or emphasised by the teacher in class.

Regarding the importance of teaching English writing to tertiary level students, Yangfan believed that it was not necessary to emphasise writing teaching because the impractical use of English especially English writing after students' graduation. Yangfan explained that one reason impacting her cognition about importance of English writing teaching in University G was the results of a survey on students. Yangfan and her team had done a survey among students on their opinion about most useless courses offered by university F, English and Chinese were ranked at the top.

With regard to the relationship between English writing and other language skills, Yangfan held on to the view that English writing ability could help Chinese writing. Some of her student could serve as examples. Furthermore, English writing was not only improved by learning how to write. Listening and reading could help gain writing ability too. Grammar and structure could be improved through listening. But she mentioned one of her students named James who was a "terrible English writer" although he could speak English quite fluently. The reason might be lack of writing exercise. Yangfan still believed James could improve his writing by doing exercises since his overall language proficiency was good.

5.8.2.3 Cognition about Judging EFL Writing

Yangfan held on to the view that a clear structure was the most important factor in judging students' writings. To her, grammar was definitely the least important. Grammar worked for structure and viewpoint. When marking students' writings, Yangfan would pay attention to article structure followed by the point of view. Lastly, she would examine grammatical mistakes and vocabulary problems.

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5.8.2.4 Cognition about Feedback

Yangfan was a firm believer of the usefulness of feedback on the importance of grammar rules. However, she provided very little feedback to students since her huge amount of teaching tasks. She only provided feedback to students' writing drafts when they were going to attend certain kinds of contests such as speech contest.

5.8.2.5 Pre-service and In-service Training

Yangfan expressed that they did have plenty of in-service training opportunities, but almost none was about teaching English writing. Most of the training could broaden her horizon and make her up to date about the latest research direction. For example, she mentioned a useful training experience during which a presenter talked about how to deal with those students born after 1990s. She benefited from it since all of her students were born after 1990s. Most of the in-service training were about pedagogy knowledge training. But she believed that in-service training should have positive influence on teachers' overall teaching ability.

Yangfan held on to the view that graduating from a normal university was not necessarily a part of producing successful English teacher. "I find that there are also many good teachers who are not from normal universities." She recalled.

5.8.2.6 Test-oriented Education

Yangfan believed that test-oriented education best described current CE education situation in University G. Her teaching was "guided" by the tests students were going to take. It was driven not only by policymakers in University G but also by her students who preferred test-related English education. Yangfan expressed that she was compelled of doing test-oriented education. When asked about whether she had thought of changing

this situation, Yangfan shrugged her shoulder and said, "I do not think a single English teacher could change this phenomenon in the whole country. This is not my job. I have not thought about it even."

5.8.2.7 Difficulties, Challenges or Confusions in the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students

Yangfan's confusion came from both teachers and students. For teachers, the repetitive teaching year after year limited teachers' innovation and creation ability. On the other hand, lack of willingness to continuous learning also hindered teachers' self-development. "For example, if you ask me to write an article now, I might not complete it very well since I have not practiced writing for a long period of time." She said in the interview. Lack of English reading was another factor resulting in teachers' limited self-improvement of English proficiency. Students' low language proficiency was another concern of Yangfan. The large number of mistakes in their writing might frustrate and disappoint teachers. Some of Yangfan's colleagues even lost confidence in teaching English writing. Teachers might consider it a waste of time since the improvement of the students' writing proficiency was not obvious.

5.8.3 Teaching Practice

5.8.3.1 General Teaching Process

Yangfan's CE course consisted of 29 first year university students majoring in Marine Fishery Science and technology. The two classroom observations covered the article reading comprehension and exercise explaining respectively.

In the first classroom observation, Yangfan spent around 10 minutes on reviewing what they had learned last time. She asked students to read the first three paragraphs they had

learned last time and summarise the main theme of each paragraph. Then she started a new lesson today with the help of Power Point slides provided by publishing press alongside with teacher's book. Before explaining each paragraph, Yangfan asked one student to go to the front of the class to read aloud that paragraph followed by her explaining meaning sentence by sentence. During this process, she asked students to do translation of easy sentence first followed by her comment.

The second classroom observation focused on exercises. When doing the exercise of matching words or phrases to incomplete English sentences (mainly focusing on grammar and vocabulary knowledge), Yangfan assigned students into groups to do a five-minute discussion before reading aloud their answers. Students' response to this activity indicated that group discussion was popular among students. In the "True or False" exercise relating to reading comprehension of the article they had learned, students were asked not only to answer the questions but also to find evidence from the article to support their answers. This activity also worked out very well.

After finishing exercises, Yangfan led students to review the whole article from both structure and theme.

> Yangfan: Ok, in this last five minutes, let's come back to the article.
> Firstly of all, the article could be divided into three parts, right? The
> first part is called "introduction part" which is the first paragraph. The
> second part is "main body part" which consists of …(pause and ask
> students to answer) (students murmuring…) paragraph two to six right?
> The last paragraph is what? (conclusion…) .Very good. The structure
> is very clear right. Remember to have a clear structure when doing
> your own English writing. The five paragraphs in part two are five
> kinds of transportations, so it is quite easy for us readers to read. How
> about main theme in each part...(started to generalize main theme in

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each part with students murmuring) (Yangfan, Classroom Observation 06/11/2015)

5.8.3.2 Teaching Practices Relating to the Teaching of EFL Writing

After explaining the meaning of the phrase "change something for something" in Chinese, Yangfan asked students to make a sentence using this phrase as a practice,

> Yangfan: "我能把人民币换成英镑吗？" How to translate this sentence into English? (One student stood up and answered "Can I change RMBs for pounds?") Very good. Ok so much for this phrase. "Change something for something". Next time when doing your writing you can use this phrase, remember, Ok? (Yangfan, Classroom Observation 02/12/2015)

Yangfan was passionate about grammar teaching since she believed that grammar instruction needed to be done in CE class while vocabulary expansion was students' own task after class. Another reason was that Yangfan found the one of the exercises called "grammar point" useful and suitable to her students. During the second classroom observation which was 90 minutes altogether, grammar teaching accounted for around 20 minutes.

> Yangfan: Now let's come to "grammar point". Today we are going to talk about attributive clause. This is quite important guys please pay attention. Attributive clause could be used in your own writing and if used properly it would gain you good mark. (Followed by explaining types of attributive clause as well as examples and exercises of different types of attributive clause) (Yangfan, Classroom Observation 02/12/2015)

5.8.4 Summary

Yangfan spent most of her writing teaching time on grammar when teaching reading comprehension. This was consistent with her cognition that vocabulary should be learned by students through reading. As reported in her interview, the reason was students' low English proficiency. Yangfan was also a very patient teacher who believed that repetitive teaching was helpful for her students whose language proficiency were very low. In classroom observation, she mentioned a few times the language points which she believed were of great importance for her students to learn.

5.9 Case Summary

5.9.1 Yiming: A Young, Passionate, Confident, Optimistic Teacher with Overseas Experience

Yiming's cognition

Yiming was identified as young, passionate, confident, and optimistic CE teacher through interview and classroom observation. Resembling Wenhao, Yiming believed that mastering teaching theories was not a criterion to judge a successful CE teacher, personal characteristics were more important. Yiming held on to the view that students needed to practice to improve writing ability. She endorsed that peer review was an effective method to enhance overall writing proficiency, however she doubted students' willingness to do peer review. Though she valued the importance of providing feedback to students, Yiming complained that students were unmotivated to send in writings to teachers to check. Other complaints came from limited time, large classroom size, ineffectiveness of applying textbooks in the process of teaching English writing to EFL students and lack of attention from school administrators. Yiming did not agree that teaching reading could positively influence writing improvement. In judging students'

writing, Yiming believed that content and logic were the most important. As for factors influencing her teaching practices, she expressed that her education experience had not exerted much influence on her teaching. Her teaching style was decided mostly by her characteristic and evolved alongside with her teaching experience.

Yiming's practice

Being a passionate and confident teacher in a Tier Three university with overseas study experience, Yiming espoused traditional translation teaching methods in her teaching practices Using neither the same teaching plans as her colleagues nor the teaching aid books provided to teachers along the textbooks for students showed that she was a very confident teacher. In Yiming's class, the teaching of EFL writing was limited to vocabulary and sentence structure expansion. Using mainly self-invented "translation teaching method" in class, translation was the main activity both when teaching the reading comprehension article and explaining exercises afterwards. She even asked students to do new text translation as a preparation to new lessons. She explained the reason for doing this was the low language proficiency of students. Students could hardly understand meaning of the text without translation preparation beforehand. During translation exercise, Yiming called students' attention to important vocabulary and sentence structure which she interpreted as her way to teach EFL writing. She also explained that the reason for her only covering such a limited amount writing teaching in class was the low language proficiency of students.

5.9.2 Hui: A Pessimistic and Introverted Teacher Who Had Her Own Teaching Style

Hui's cognition

Although Hui had been working as an EFL teacher for 12 years, she was not confident about her own English proficiency and still read English newspaper with the aim to improve her English proficiency. She held pessimistic belief towards the outcome of the CE course in improving students' EFL writing. However, due to hindering factors like heavy workload and large classroom size, she did not have any idea about how to make EFL teaching effective in class. She sometimes even showed her greatly opposite viewpoints to the current educational system. Hui did not care about students' annual evaluation to teachers. She explained that students' evaluation, which was largely driven by students' individual preference, was not subjective. Hui believed that the teaching of EFL writing was interwoven with reading, listening even speaking teaching. Especially through teaching English reading comprehension which was the major part of the CE course. Hui was pessimistic about both her pre-service and in-service education by completely denying the effectiveness of both in cultivating her into a good CE teacher.

As for factors influencing her teaching practices, she mentioned one famous scholar in the field of linguistics in China as her role model who had influence her a lot both to her life and to her teaching style. Hui called for more time spent on the teaching of EFL writing. When asking about view towards test-oriented education, she admitted that since the education she received was also test-oriented, she had taken for granted that test was a necessary part in the teaching of English writing to EFL students and never doubted about it.

Hui's practice

Hui was a teacher who valued the teaching of EFL writing in her teaching practices which was uncommon among other participants. For instance, she described in the

interview that she asked students to write different genres including retelling the story of film they had watched in class. Roughly there were three times of writing practices for her students which she believed were far from enough. Hui admitted the significance grammar played in a good piece of students' writing. Thus, she valued grammar very much both in teaching and assessing students writing. However, she believed that coherently expressing students' idea in writing is the most important factor in judging students' writing. In her teaching practices, Hui acted as a very good teacher at encouraging students to participate in classroom activities. However, in her CE course being observed, very little time was spent on direct English writing teaching. Only aspects related to English writing including grammar, vocabulary and sentence structure covered when teaching reading comprehension to indirectly improve students' English writing.

5.9.3 Junping: A Confident and Diligent Teacher Who Valued Writing Teaching in the College English Course

Junping's cognition

Unlike other participants who viewed their pre-service as inadequate to training them into a competent CE teacher, Junping believed that his undergraduate study from a normal university was effective in training him to be a competent CE teacher. Junping particularly emphasised his practicum experience in undergraduate study which had contributed to his teaching confidence and competency. However, Junping reported that his postgraduate study from a non-normal university did not help much. In the teaching of English writing to EFL students, Junping believed that the objective of teaching writing could be achieved by teaching reading as well. Firmly believing in effectiveness of feedback in improving students' writing ability, Junping found that sharing students' mistakes in writing to the whole class was an effective method to providing feedback to

students. In addition, Junping developed his own method of teaching writing. For instance, he asked students to do paragraph writing and then forming a whole article. Junping held on to the belief that judging criteria followed such a hierarchical order: language, logic and content. Junping felt that adopting novice teaching methods was not practical and could not be put forward by an individual teacher.

Junping's practice

Junping's practice was largely influence by students' feedback. His cognition formation process showed a dialogical change after noticing that students responded positively to his repetitive teaching method. Thus cognition, practice and students feedback were intertwined with each other. For instance, holding the belief that students value test results very much, he would call for students' attention by emphasising that the language points he taught in class could be used in CET-4 writing. Although being familiar with popular teaching methods including task-based teaching methods and interactive teaching methods, Junping still admitted that he still applied traditional translation teaching method in classroom teaching. The main reasons were, similar to other participants, limited time allocating, students' low language proficiency and lack of requirements from school administrators. In his teaching practices, Junping considered that there were mainly two things he covered in classroom teaching: vocabulary and reading comprehension. His vocabulary teaching was featured by his self-invented memorizing method depending on word roots. He was also encouraged by students' positive feedback to vocabulary teaching. Due to his interests in writing teaching, in his CE classroom, Junping would expand to EFL writing whenever possible. He would ask students to do writing practice of the sentence structures or grammar points in reading comprehension.

5.9.4 Wenhao: A Pessimistic, Practical and Experienced Teacher Who Adjusted His Teaching Style to Cater Students' Interests

Wenhao's cognition

Wenhao firmly believed that English reading learning was effective in improving English writing to both student and teachers by emphasising the effect of reading many times in the interview. He defined his teaching method as interactive teaching method since he valued interaction with students very much. Wenhao completely denied the function of his pre-service training in helping him to be a CE teacher. He highly scorned the function of courses like pedagogy and psychology offered to potential teachers in normal universities to train competent teachers. He also believed that good teachers were lead to by personal characteristics. He argued that teachers who were extroverted gain better teaching results than those introverted teachers. Wenhao focused on vocabulary and grammar when marking students' writing. He complained due to the drawback of the whole educational system in China, students' ideas in writing resembled each other which he believed was the worst and most difficult to improve part in students' writing.

Wenhao valued opinions coming from both his colleagues and students very much in adjusting his teaching. He expressed that his teaching was pushed by pressure coming from his colleagues who were excellent teachers. He described himself as a flexible teacher who could adjust his teaching activities according to students' preference.

Wenhao's practice

In Wenhao's class, students were actively involved in the activities Wenhao had designed including presentation and group discussion. Wenhao valued classroom atmosphere and students' response very much in his teaching. He adjusted his teaching

style to catering different interests of students. Though still depending on instilling language level knowledge in teaching, Wenhao's class had the most interactive activities among participants in Stage Two of the study. In addition, due to Wenhao's interests in foreign culture, he often elaborated on culture points they run into in their textbooks.

5.9.5 Yan: A Strict and Confident Teacher

Yan's cognition

Yan endorsed the importance of English writing teaching for student learners. She described herself as a very diligent teacher since she provided detailed feedback to students writing. Being the same as Wenhao, Yan supported that reading helped improve students writing. She believed the most effective way to teach writing was through appreciating beautiful sentence and memorizing them especially before taking English tests. Vocabulary was also important. Resembling Junping, Yan believed that students' preferences of memorising model writing especially before taking tests was understandable. She expressed that both students and teachers considered memorizing good pieces of English writing as an effective way to gain higher marks in the tests. When judging the quality of English writing, Yan followed the order: article structure, vocabulary, diversity of sentence structures. Yan believed that the quality of in-service training was different from university to university. Her postgraduate study was more effective than her undergraduate study in helping her to be a good CE teacher. She complained the in-service training was too "fancy' to use in her common teaching practices and did not cover much writing teaching. Though strongly opposed to test-oriented education, Yan still admitted that she did not have other choices due to pressure coming from both decision-making level and students.

Yan was an organised EFL writing teacher since she reported that she clearly conceptualised teaching writing practice as two parts: language skills teaching and writing strategy teaching. She also admitted that although she had ideas about how to teach writing, in teaching practices, time was far from enough for her to carry out her teaching plan. She attributed students' low English writing proficiency to their lack of grammar knowledge. Unfortunately, her grammar focused CE teaching method was abolished by school administrators.

Yan's practice

Yan preferred using tradition translation teaching method. Translating were used both in reading comprehension and exercise explanation. Her CE course was mainly depending on sentence to sentence translation either by students or teachers during which grammar points, vocabulary and sentence structure would be emphasised and sometimes practices.

5.9.6 Shuang: A Novice, Unconfident Teacher with Overseas Study Experience

Shuang's cognition

As a novice CE teacher with only six months' working experience. Shuang held a two-fold view towards her future teaching career. Both looking forwards to it and started to worry about the uncertainties she had to confront in the future teaching career. Shuang believed that writing could be improved through a sequence of reading, writing and correction. Among all the participants, Shuang held a distinct belief that oral feedback was more effective than written feedback in improving students writing since students tended to ignore her written feedback. Shuang reported that she depended largely on textbook at the starting stage of teacher career. Shuang mentioned grammar in the interview a few times. She also believed that in the CE course, teachers should

concentrate on grammar teaching. She also believed that grammar should be major criteria in judging students' writing. This cognition was consistent with her teaching practices. The classroom observation revealed that she emphasised grammar points in teaching reading comprehension. In addition, most of the feedback she provided to students' writing were based on grammar mistakes. Shuang was a diligent teacher since she provided feedback to students although not required to do so by her university. Shuang complained that although she knew some teaching theories, it was still difficult for her to put them into practice since the theory "only tells her what to do instead of how to do" (Shuang, Interview 11/12/2015). This reflected the insufficient pre-service and in-service education to CE teachers in China.

Shuang's practice

Being consistent with Shuang's cognition, a large part of time was spent on grammar teaching in class when explaining the meaning of texts in the textbook. Referring to writing teaching, Shuang integrated mistakes from students' writing into a word document and shared it with students in class as she explained in the interview that she believed that oral feedback in this way worked better than providing written feedback. Since the university Shuang worked in was a Tier Two university, students cooperated very well with teachers.

5.9.7 Yangfan: An Experienced and Patient Teacher with Administrative Title Who Reflected From Her Own Teaching and Managerial Experience

Yangfan's cognition

Being the only participant with administrative title, Yangfan believed that EFL writing was not a practical skill for her students. In her view, she was fully aware of the importance of EFL writing, importance of students' writing exercises and feedback from

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teachers. However, none of these was put into practice due to contextual factors such as limited course time, impractical use after students' graduation and students' low language proficiency. The university Yangfan worked in was ranked at the very bottom in Tier Three universities. Yangfan gave up her plan to ask students to write journals as homework since students' language proficiency was too low to complete even one piece of writing. In judging students' writing, Yanfan believed that structure was the most important criteria. Yangfan reported that her teaching style was largely influenced by one of her secondary school English teacher. In addition to the above negative factors, different from other participants, Yangfan regarded that teachers' lack of continuous study was another factor contributing to the ineffectiveness of the teaching of EFL writing currently. Yangfan was the only participant who reflected from teachers' perspective instead of complaining about other outer contextual factors from school and students only. She believed that teachers needed to improve themselves

Yangfan's practice

In Yangfan's teaching practices, students' low language proficiency resulted in the situation that focus was on explaining grammar and sentence structures in the article. Yangfan depended on sentence by sentence explanation in class. Classroom time was also spent on managing students' discipline and calling for students' attention to focus on the class.

5.10 Chapter Summary

This Chapter reported in detail teacher cognition and practice of the seven participants in Stage Two of the study. The seven participants were not satisfied with the current English writing teaching situation in the Chinese context though they all agreed on the importance of including English writing teaching in the CE course. Low language

proficiency of the students and limited overall instruction time of the CE course were the main reasons causing the current neglect of English writing teaching in the CE course. Participants' teaching practices were in line with their cognition. However, little time was spent on the teaching of English writing in classrooms. Most of the participants were passive teachers who carried out the teaching tasks assigned to them by university administrators only, none of them had taken initiatives to implement reform on the teaching of EFL writing in China.

Chapter 6

GENERAL DISCUSSION

6.1 Chapter Overview

The preceding two chapters reported the quantitative and qualitative findings of the study. This chapter is a general discussion synthesizing the findings with prior literature, presented in the literature review, in the context of the theoretical framework, to address the research questions. The order of the research questions (See Section 1.5) listed in Chapter One of the study is followed. Research Questions One, Two and Three, addressing teachers' cognition about the learning and teaching of EFL writing as well as the cognition differences among participants with different backgrounds, are discussed in Section 6.2. Research Question Four concerning teaching practices and its relationship with teacher cognition is discussed in Section 6.3. Adopting Bakhtin's *dialogism* and Borg's categorisation of factors influencing teacher cognition as the theoretical and analytical frameworks, Section 6.4 addresses Research Question Five about the (re)formation process of teacher cognition.

6.2 Teacher Cognition

6.2.1 EFL CE Teachers' Cognition about Students' Writing in EFL and the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students?

This section is divided into two parts: cognition about the teaching and learning of EFL writing; cognition about the nature of writing and criterial to judge a good piece of EFL writing.

6.2.1.1 EFL CE Teachers' Cognition about the Teaching of EFL Writing

6.2.1.1.1 Time Allocation

Findings of this study show that the of teaching EFL writing in China has been relatively neglected with little instructional time in the CE courses allocated to the teaching of EFL writing, as noted by L.J. Zhang (2016),"little instruction in EFL writing was offered until very recently" (p. 207). Firstly, data from the questionnaire indicate that teachers largely relied on teaching reading skills to improve students' writing ability in teaching practices. Secondly, teachers reported that most of the limited time allocated to teaching writing was spent on teaching organizational skills of writing in class, although there was some classroom teaching of grammar and vocabulary. The findings from the questionnaire were reinforced by the in-depth study teacher participants, who did not advocate teaching students to improve their creativity or critical thinking ability in writing. However, some teachers (e.g., Yiming and Junping) believed that lack of creativity was a major obstacle hindering students from improving their ability to write in English. With regards to reasons why teaching activities to improve students' creativity could not be included in the CE course, Yangfan explained that time limits and students' low English proficiency were the major reasons, as most of the time was spent on teaching basic English language skills. In the questionnaire, teachers gave little support to the statement in item 4 "Good writing teachers give many assignments to the students." This, on the one hand, suggested that teachers were not in favour of requiring students to write more; on the other hand, the data indicated that, while they acknowledged the importance of writing exercises in improving students' writing ability, limited time was spent on writing exercises so there were few opportunities to improve students' writing through providing feedback to their writing.

The unequal distribution of teaching practices time in the CE course, with most of the time spent on English reading instruction and limited time spent on the teaching of writing, was also reported by the teachers in the in-depth study.[8] While Yangfan claimed that 20 % of the total time was spent on the teaching of EFL writing, Junping, Yiming, Wenhao and Hui expressed that in the CE course, only 10% of the total time was spent on the teaching of EFL writing while most of the time was spent on the teaching of English reading. Although Yan did not quantify time allocated to teaching writing, she explained that the teaching of EFL writing was seldom covered in her CE course due to overall time limits and the ineffectiveness of teaching writing in class. Wenhao, Yan and Junping, however, explained that although the teaching of writing was seldom covered directly in class, writing skills were taught in the process of teaching reading. For instance, through the structure of an article in the textbook, teachers could teach students knowledge about the text organisation in English writing while teaching reading.

6.2.1.1.2 Role of Teachers and Focus of Teaching practices

Findings of this study suggest that CE teachers still rely on traditional ways of English teaching in classrooms although they recognized the communicative language teaching method as a better way to teach general English and EFL writing. A key difference between traditional teaching methods and communicative teaching methods lies in the interpretation of teachers' roles (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In traditional teaching methods, classrooms are considered teacher-centred or teacher-dominated while in communicative teaching methods teachers are believed to be facilitators or counsellors (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Participants in this study reported that in the teaching of EFL writing and CE, they considered themselves as "guiders" (in the case of Junping,

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[8] As explained in chapter one, here the CE course refers to reading and writing CE course particularly. Normally there are separate periods to teach English listening and speaking, usually once every two weeks, in CE course in China.

Wenhao, Yan and Yangfan), "helpers" (in the case of Shuang) and "scaffolders" (in the case of Hui). However, classroom observations in the current study revealed that the CE courses were still teacher-oriented, a feature of traditional teaching methods. A study by Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) in the context of teaching Japanese as a L2 similarly reported that the L2 courses were teacher-oriented.

Another feature of classroom teaching shows a similar inconsistency between teachers' stated beliefs and their teaching practices. In the questionnaire teachers stated that the CE courses should be process oriented, which meant that the focuses of teaching should be on teaching organisation skills of writing, ways to better express students' ideas in writing and improving students' critical thinking ability. Such findings from the questionnaire suggest that teacher participants prefer a communicative language teaching method, as their cognition about how to teach fits with the features of communicative language teaching method (Nunan & Lamb, 1996; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Teacher participants further elaborated on this point in the follow-up interview, that is, although CE teachers no longer embraced traditional way to teach English, which emphasised grammar and vocabulary, their teaching practices were still focused on improving students' language knowledge base (Wette & Barkhuizen, 2009). These findings are consistent with studies concluding that CE teachers in countries where English is a second language have difficulty in adapting to communicative based teaching methods (Littlewood, 2007; Lu & Ares, 2015). Refer to Section 6.3 for further detailed discussion.

6.2.1.1.3 Teaching Theory

Teacher participants in the study reported a lack of knowledge of any teaching theories. Shuang reported in the interview that, although she believed that she was familiar with

different teaching theories, as she was majored in Education for her master's and doctoral degrees, she still did not know how to put theories into practice. Similarly, Yan reported that, while she intended to apply teaching theories to her teaching practices, and integrated some theories from books she had referred to into her teaching, she could not remember which theory she had adopted or further explain the theory. These responses support Richards' (2008) argument that there was still a gap between "knowledge about" teaching theories and "knowledge how" to apply theories into teaching practices (p. 162). Other participants' responses also suggest their lack of knowledge about teaching theories. They either reported that they were unfamiliar with any teaching theories (in the case of Hui, Wenhao and Yangfan) or complained that it was difficult to apply new teaching methods in the classroom due to constraining factors such as limited teaching time and a huge work-load (in the case of Junping). Yiming Wenhao and Yangfan said that they believed teachers' personality traits rather than knowledge about teaching theory were a decisive factor in successful teaching.

6.2.1.1.4 What Helps to Teach EFL Writing More Effectively

Teacher participants in the questionnaire believed that learning to read in English played a pivotal role in enhancing students' English writing proficiency. This finding echoed the call for connecting reading and writing in second language writing instruction (Hirvela, 2004). All the participants except Yiming in the second stage of the study believed that learning to read in English could directly or indirectly improve students' English writing ability. Both Hui and Junping reported that they believed that English writing instruction could not be isolated from the teaching of other language skills, and that students could learn to write in the process of learning to listen, speak and especially readin English. Teachers also said they believed that students needed to write to enhance English writing proficiency. Whereas re-writing was also advocated by a large number

of teachers, practising translating from mother tongue to English was not. Again, it appeared that traditional teaching methods, which value the use of translating, has now lost popularity with EFL teachers. It is noteworthy that using new technological resources to teach EFL writing was not favoured by most of the participants in this study.

6.2.1.1.5 Resources Contributing to Teaching English Writing to EFL Students

This study suggests that teacher participants believed that pre-service training, in-service training and support gained from universities for the teaching of EFL writing were inadequate. Four items in the questionnaire examined teachers' attitudes towards their pre-service education and support gained from their home universities. Teachers supported both statements that pre-service education should equip teachers with enough knowledge and home universities should provide teachers with enough resources to help them to accomplish their job of teaching English writing to EFL students. Questionnaire results clearly indicate that teachers were not confident that their pre-service education had prepared them with the knowledge to teach English writing, nor were they satisfied with the support in their working places to teach EFL writing. The interviews confirmed that the seven participants were not satisfied with the support they had received from university. For instance, Hui complained the inadequacy of support from her university even when she was a novice teacher who desperately needed support from her university. The lack of support from universities could lead to less motivated teachers resulting in less efficient teaching of English writing (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). Also, lack of support from a university could contribute to the inconsistency between teacher cognition and practice (Lee, 2011a).

CE teachers found that they were not well-prepared to teach English writing, as reported by Reid (1993) and Johns (2009). Consistent with the findings of Johns (2009) that

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writing in English was generally taught by inexperienced and under-prepared teachers, the findings of the interviews suggest that CE teachers were not confident in teaching writing. Being consistent with previous studies which have reported that in second language teaching, output skills such as speaking and writing were more difficult to improve than input skills such as listening and reading (Hirvela & Law, 1991). 60% of questionnaire participants in the current study agreed that English writing was the most difficult to teach followed by speaking. Yangfan reported that she felt she was not a confident English writing teacher and that her English writing proficiency had deteriorated since becoming a CE teacher. Such complaints of teachers indirectly proved that pre-service and in-service teacher education had, to some degree, neglected the cultivation of skills to teach writing in English. Hui and Wenhao also stated in their interviews that neither pre-service nor in-service training effectively prepared them to be good CE teachers, while Yiming did not think her learning experiences had any influence on her current teaching. Yan complained that in-service training was too "fancy" to use and seldom covered writing teaching. Hui complained that at the beginning of her teaching career, she had neither a tutor nor supervisor to help her to embark on her teaching career.

In both the questionnaire and the in-depth study, teacher participants reported that textbooks, a major resource for teaching English writing to EFL students, were ineffective for improving students' EFL writing proficiency. A common reason for their views was that English writing was scarcely covered in the textbook. Other reasons included that the texts in textbooks were either out of date or ineffective in attracting students' interests. Teachers' views on the ineffectiveness of CE textbooks suggest that the teaching of English writing is neglected by textbook writers and school

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administrators and educational policy makers in China do not value English writing teaching in the CE course. Teachers apparently were not satisfied with the overall effectiveness of using textbooks to teach English writing, but yet they reported in the questionnaire that textbooks were the primary resources used to teaching English writing. In sum, findings of teacher cognition about the effectiveness of CE textbooks suggest that Chinese educational policy makers, as well as textbook writers and designers in China should pay more attention to the teaching of English writing and consider including more content about English writing into the CE textbooks.

6.2.1.1.6 Teaching English Writing to EFL Students

In this section teacher cognition about the teaching of English writing to EFL students is discussed from two aspects: unique cognition held by individual participants; cognition shared by all or most of the participants.

Teachers' conceptualization of the teaching of English writing to EFL students and ways to teach EFL writing slightly differed from one another as reported by Shi and Cumming (1995). The finding is not consistent, however, with two studies by Cumming (1992; 2003) which reported that experienced ESL teacher participants in his studies shared similar conceptualizations of the teaching of EFL writing and systematically structured classroom activities around students' performance of writing, reading, and group discussion tasks. For instance, Junping, spent more time on EFL writing instruction than the other participants in this study, due to his interests in EFL writing research and teaching, as well as his part-time working experience as an English writing tutor. In Junping's class, as he described in his interview, reading comprehension dominated the CE course, and the teaching of writing in English was integrated with the teaching of

reading in English. For instance, Junping would emphasise sentence structures and vocabulary they came across in the reading texts and explain how such elements could be used in students'' own writing. Junping also invented a vocabulary memorization method based on "word roots" which he found popular among students. Shuang, in contrast, advocated that the CE course should focus on improving students' grammar. The above different conceptualizations of the teaching of EFL writing appear to reflect a lack of systematic training or guidance on how to conduct tertiary level English writing teaching as a whole.

A second difference in cognition about the teaching of English writing to EFL students is whether examples of well-written English should be used in the teaching of English writing. Junping and Yan, both of whom had part-time experience as English tutors in English training centres, supported the viewpoint that using model compositions including well-written English sentences could improve students' writing. They expressed their preference for assigning examples of well-written English to students as supplementary learning materials to improve their English writing proficiency. In contrast, other participants were reluctant to use such examples in class. Wenhao strongly opposed the view that students could benefit from memorizing well-written English writings. Both Junping and Yan attributed their preferences of using examples of well-written English in the teaching of English writing to EFL students to their part-time experience as English tutors in training centres for IETLS and TOEFL. Among other participants only Yiming believed that students could improve their EFL writing skills through memorising well-written English sentences, however, she did not include examples of well-written English into her classroom teaching materials.

Thirdly, though all the participants in the second stage of the study agreed that EFL writing was a necessary part of the CE course, confirming studies (J. Wang, 2014; S. Wang & Wang, 2011) which argued for the importance of nurturing students' writing ability in English in the context of EFL teaching, Wenhao and Yangfan both said English was not necessary for students' practical use after graduation. Wenhao's stated that his students were reluctant to learn writing in EFL as writing in English would seldom be used in their future career, and that students hardly improved their English writing ability through the CE course. However, Wenhao said that he thought English teaching in Chinese secondary schools was effective in developing students' writing expertise.

As well as the different conceptualizations of the teaching of and ways to teach EFL writing, noted above, teacher participants in this study also shared some common cognition about the teaching of English writing to EFL students. Firstly, all teachers considered the teaching of English writing to EFL students an essential part of CE course and believed English writing could be improved through students' writing exercises and teachers' correction/feedback. Wenhao was the exception whose original cognition confirming the importance of EFL writing to students was challenged and changed by his students' negative responses to his teaching of EFL writing. In particular, Yiming and Hui believed that face-to-face correction was the best way to improve English writing, although few writing exercises were carried out in classroom teaching due to contextual constraints. Secondly, all participants in the second stage except Yiming believed that the teaching of EFL writing should be integrated with the teaching of other language skills especially English reading. In particular, Wenhao, Yan, Shuang and Yangfan, emphasised, in the interviews, the significance of reading in improving writing proficiency. Yiming, however, believed that only English writing proficient could only

benefit from English reading when students actively reflected on writing skills in the texts in CE textbooks, and that, for other students, reading did not help improve their writing proficiency. Thirdly, all the participants except Junping said they believed that the teaching of English writing to EFL students in Chinese universities was neglected. Junping said he thought that EFL writing was valued, to some extent, by school administrators in his university as English writing was included in both mid-term and final examinations of the CE course in his university.

Surprisingly, teachers did not support the idea that the language environment was helpful in improving students' language skills including English writing. Moreover, teachers did not all agree with the statement that students who were good writers in their mother tongue were good at English writing too. Only Wenhao believed that writing expertise in students' mother tongue could facilitate EFL writing proficiency, as Allen (2013) posited.

6.2.1.2 General Cognition

6.2.1.2.1 General Cognition about Learning and Teaching of English Writing

Teacher participants regarded EFL writing as a communicative process of expressing ideas in English during which organization skills, being logic and effective, writing clearly and being creative and critical are involved as identified in Item 22 of the questionnaire. As shown in Table 4.10, the following words appeared most frequently: express, ideas, think, organization, communication, logical, effective, clearly, thought and native.

6.2.1.2.2 Judging Criteria and Feedback

When judging students' writing, teacher participants in the questionnaire identified the following order of importance: structure of the writing, content of the writing, grammar, cohesive devices and vocabulary. This rank was confirmed by interviews with participants in the in-depth study. As shown in Table 6.1, a logical structure was mentioned by all participants as the main criterion except Wenhao who believed that language was the most important judging criterion of students' writing. Schoonen, Snellings, Stevenson, and van Gelderen (2009), however, claimed that linguistic knowledge played the key role in foreign language writing assessment, suggesting a difference with the Chinese context which has a stronger emphasis on writing strategy and writing expertise. The majority of participants in this study endorsed the importance of planning before writing, but not grammar and vocabulary when judging whether a student is a good English writer or not. Similarly Goh and Chen's (2014) study reported language teachers' resistance to focusing on grammar and vocabulary both in teaching and judging students' writing.

Table 6.1 Teachers' Judging Criteria of Students' Writing

Participants	*Judge Criteria*
Yiming	Content; logical structure
Hui	Coherent structure;
Junping	Language; logical structure; content
Wenhao	Language (vocabulary and grammar)
Yan	Article structure; vocabulary; sentence structure
Shuang	Logical structure
Yangfan	Content, logical structure; language

Concerning feedback to students' writing, all participants agreed that teachers should provide either written or oral feedback to students to improve their writing proficiency, although Hui and Yan complained that they felt frustrated because some unmotivated

students ignored their feedback. Junping and Shuang said they found sharing errors in students' writing with all the students in the classroom effective.

In summary, CE teachers generally believed that writing structure was more important than content when judging students' writing. Although some teachers were frustrated by students' lack of interest in their feedback, teacher participants still indicated a belief in the importance of feedback to students to improve students' writing proficiency.

6.2.2 Teacher Cognition Differences among Participants of Different Backgrounds

Analysis of the questionnaire suggests some cognition differences that appear related to participants' background. Slight differences were found among participants in relation to age, gender, years of working experience, academic qualification and professional qualifications (See Section 4.3.3). No significant differences were found among teacher participants with different years of overseas experience. This finding supports previous studies which revealed cognition differences between novice and experienced teachers (Cumming, 1990) and between teachers of different age groups in the context of English teaching in secondary schools in China (X. Zheng & Borg, 2014). An overview of the differences is presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Teacher Cognition Differences by Age, Gender, Academic Qualifications, Professional Qualifications, and Years of Teaching Experience

Factors	Differences
Age	1. Older CE teachers agreed on the importance of grammar teaching more than young teachers.
	2. Teachers in the 51-55 age group had a lower level of agreement than younger teachers on whether they received support from their working universities.
Gender	1. Female CE teachers appeared to value English reading as well as an ability to plan before writing more than male participants do.
	2. More male participants than female participants agreed on the importance of translating from Chinese to English during the teaching of EFL writing
Academic Qualification	Participants with higher degrees were more like to agree that teaching reading, critical thinking ability, and organization skills could improve students' EFL writing proficiency more than participants with bachelor's degree do.
Professional Qualification	1. Teacher participants graduated from normal universities agreed less than participants from other universities that the following aspects improved students' writing proficiency: imitating examples of well-written English, reading, re-writing and process writing.
	2. Teacher participants graduated from normal universities also appeared to value less a clear structure when judging students' writing.
Years of working experience	1. Teachers with 15 and more years of teaching experience were more likely to agree on the importance of grammar rules than relatively novice teachers.

2. Teachers with 5-10 years' teaching experience, however, appeared to value process writing and organization skills more than their colleagues in other age groups.

3. Teachers with 5-10 years' experience agreed less on the importance of content in judging students' English writing than teachers with both less than five years but more than 15 years of teaching experience. These findings parallel the differences identified between the age groups of the participants.

One possible reason for only a few significant differences between participants with different backgrounds is that CE courses in China are largely pre-set. For instance, similar textbooks are chosen for the CE course, and the same CET-4 and CET-6 tests are set for nationwide students. Cognition of CE teachers tends to be influenced by similar textbooks and evaluation methods, and there was little space in the questionnaire in this study for teachers to elaborate on the CE course. Another reason may be that most studies indicating cognition difference among participants from different backgrounds were carried out qualitatively in which individual difference should be taken into account. A possible reason for no difference was found between participants with varying overseas experiences is that teacher participants reported few overseas experiences, especially for long periods, as shown in Figure 6.1. Their overseas experience had limited impact on their cognition about the teaching of EFL writing.

Figure 6.1 Time Spent in English Speaking Countries

■ none ■ less than 6 months ■ 6-12 months ■ more than one year
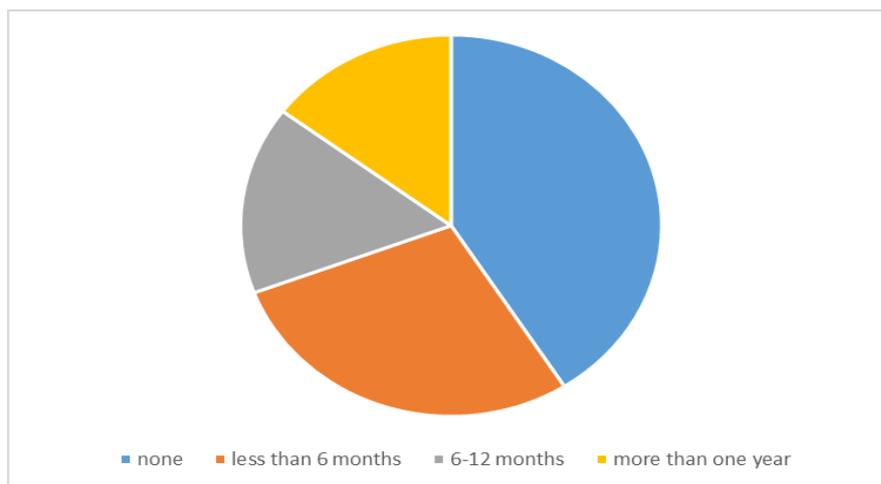
6.2.3 Stated Factors Influencing Teacher Cognition and Teaching Practices

6.2.3.1 Positive Factors Influencing Teacher Cognition and Teaching Practices

Findings of the current study suggest that teachers' learning experiences have greatly influenced their cognition and practice, which aligns with many studies confirming the influence of teachers' prior learning experiences on teacher cognition and practice (Braine, 1999; Grossman, 1990; K. E. Johnson, 1994; Tang, 1997). More recently studies on pre-service teachers (Busch, 2010; Macalister, 2012) and in-service teachers (Baleghizadeh & Nasrollahi Shahri, 2014) have reported the relationship between learning experiences and teaching cognition and practice. For example, Yan, who had worked for three years as a CE teacher in her home town before her postgraduate study, reported that her postgraduate study experience had changed her teacher cognition dramatically. One of her lecturers introduced an activity into class, in which students were encouraged to teach for a period of 20 minutes followed by students' and teachers' feedback. Yan concluded that this learning experience enhanced her confidence in teaching and her cognition about language teaching by encouraging her to reflect on her previous teaching and become more confident. Hui reported that her six-month experience as a visiting scholar supervised by a well-known applied linguistic researcher

in another university in China greatly influenced her cognition and practice. She admitted that her teaching style was basically "imitating" that scholar at the beginning. Later she developed her own teaching style as she believed that, although teaching based on imitation was good for novice teachers, it might hinder a teacher's later professional development (Lortie, 1975). Hui's experience is consistent with findings from another study by Borg (2011) which confirmed the positive influence of a professional programme on participants' teaching careers.

6.2.3.2 Negative Factors Hindering Teachers' Implementation of CE Teaching

Teacher participants believed that the teaching of EFL writing in China was not conducted effectively due to a number of constraints and contextual factors which can be categorised into four aspects: student factors (students' low language proficiency, unmotivated students); curriculum factors (limited time allocated to EFL writing instruction; huge teaching workloads); institutional factors (large sizes of classrooms, lack of support from school administrators); and teacher factors (lack of self-improvement, pre-set beliefs). This categorisation is consistent with that of a mixed-method study by Xiang and Borg (2014) which analysed factors contributing to a mismatch between EFL teacher cognition and practice in general English teaching in Chinese universities. Unlike the results of Xiang and Borg's (2014) study, factors reported in the current study did not cause mismatch between teacher cognition and practice. Teacher participants realized these factors and integrated them into their adjusted (reformed) cognition. In other words, CE teachers in China have clearly realized the constraining factors for their practice to effectively teach EFL writing and general English which could be interpreted as seeking a balance between "realism and idealism" (Lee, 2010, p. 154). Table 6.3 presents the difficulties and confusions in the teaching of EFL writing reported by teacher participants in Stage Two of the study.

Table 6.3 Difficulties or Confusions in the Teaching of EFL Writing

Participants	*Difficulty in* the teaching of English writing to EFL students
Yiming	the large number of students in classroom; time limit and huge work load; students' low language proficiency
Hui	Limited time allocation to the teaching of EFL writing; unmotivated students; lack of support from school administrators
Junping	Course time limit and huge teaching load
Wenhao	Students' low language proficiency levels and limited vocabulary; practical use of English writing after students' graduation; lack of support from school administrators, overall time limit of the CE course
Yan	Students low language proficiency, high workload
Shuang	Students' limited grammar knowledge
Yangfan	Teachers' pre-set beliefs; teachers' self-improvement; students low language proficiency, course limit

Of all the negative factors reported by participants, inadequate and ineffective pre-service and in-service training were reported as the leading cause of ineffective teaching of EFL writing in China. Findings of the questionnaire indicated that, although teacher participants had high expectations for their pre-service education and home universities to provide them with enough knowledge to teach and support for teaching English writing, the actual situation was far from satisfactory. Findings from the in-depth study confirmed these results with greater specificity: Yiming believed that her pre-service teaching had nothing to do with her teaching practices; Junping confirmed that his pre-service training in a normal university, especially the teaching practicum, helped develop him into a competent English teacher; Wenhao completely disagreed that his pre-service training had provided him enough knowledge to teach while Yan and Yangfan reported that there were abundant in-service training opportunities for them upon request, however, very few focused on the teaching of EFL writing.

Other constraints and contextual factors hindering teachers' implementing their initial beliefs to Emglish writing teaching practices could be divided into three groups depending on the factors: students; school administrators; teachers; curriculum.

Student factors included perceptions of students' low language proficiency reported by all the participants; students' lack of motivation to learn EFL writing reported by Yiming, Hui, Junping and Yan; and difficulty in assigning writing exercises as a large number of students could not simply complete a whole piece of writing by themselves noted by Yangfan. It was suggested that students were unmotivated because writing scores contributed less than listening and reading in CET-4 and CET-6, and so students preferred to spend time on improving listening and reading skills which accounted for more scores in the test. The second reason was the impractical use of English writing after students' graduation, as mentioned by Wenhao and Yangfan. In his interview, Wenhao said that he doubted the practical use of English after graduation, and thus spending class time on teaching writing did not cater to students' needs.

Factors related to school administrators and curriculum included limited total course time reported by all the participants except Shuang, and heavy workload, noted by Yiming, Junping and Yan. The heavy workloads of teaching tasks, mainly for English reading, occupied most of the teaching practices time with only a small fraction of time spent on teaching English writing. Wette and Barkhuizen's (2009) study on tertiary level EFL teachers in China, similarly argued that current CE education in China exerted heavy demands on EFL teachers. Secondly, a lack of support from the school administrators was also reported. Wenhao and Yan reported that CE course time was reduced by school administrators which, consistent with the claim by Cai and Liao

(2010), indicated that CE education in China currently was marginalized. Hui said that if she was a member of the school administration, she would allocate more time to the teaching of EFL writing. Yiming, Junping and Yan reported that they voluntarily provided feedback to students even though this was not a requirement. The large size of classes were also mentioned by Yiming and Hui as a constraining factor. In her interview Yiming claimed that individual feedback to students' writing was a decisive factor in improving writing proficiency, but because of the large class size, she could not ask students to submit writing as frequently as she would like. Finally, in response to the call of Cai (2010; 2014), a leading scholar in English education pedagogy in China, who advocated that the focus of the CE course in China should evolve from general English teaching to ESP teaching, the time allocated to the CE course had been reduced in some Chinese universities. Wenhao, Yan and Yangfan, in this study, reported that they felt CE teachers were also marginalized by the reduction of time allocation for CE courses. Teacher participants' responses in the current study were consistent with the research by Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) claiming that a lack of support from school administrators had led to unmotivated students as well as unmotivated teachers.

Teachers' pre-set beliefs about the teaching of EFL writing have also been a constraining factor. Yangfan was the only participant who reflected upon her own teaching experience and concluded that teachers also needed to improve themselves in the teaching of EFL writing. Yangfan believed that the language proficiency of some teachers nowadays was not satisfactory to become qualified writing teachers (Johns, 2009). She gave herself as an example saying that she believed her ability to write in English had deteriorated greatly after becoming a teacher. Furthermore, she asserted that teachers' pre-set beliefs about the teaching of EFL writing needed to be kept up to date, and that teachers' in-

service training and self-improvement played an important role in effective English writing teaching.

6.2.4 Summary

The quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data on EFL teachers' cognition about the teaching and learning of English writing in China show that tertiary EFL teachers in China acknowledge the significance of teaching English writing to university students, but they also note that there needs to be policy support and in-service training to improve the teaching of EFL writing. Teacher participants claimed that pre-service training, in-service training and support from universities in which they were worked did not provide them with sufficient knowledge and resources to teach EFL writing (Johns, 2009). Furthermore, all the participants agreed that English writing could be improved through students' writing practices and teachers' feedback provisions. However, due to constraints such as limited time, large class sizes, lack of attention from school administrators and unmotivated students, the teaching of EFL writing in China was far from satisfactory. The frequency of students' writing practices and teachers' provision of feedback was not enough. Moreover, teachers complained that, English textbooks used in the CE course were not effective in teaching English writing proficiency. Considering the preceding factors, some teachers even believed that English writing was not a necessary part of CE in China. Participants in the first and second stage of the study confirmed the significance teaching English reading played in improving students' English writing proficiency. They emphasised that the process of teaching reading which occupied the most time in the CE course as an effective way to teach EFL writing as well.

Findings from the questionnaire also suggests that, teacher participants believed that the focus of the teaching of English writing to EFL students should shift from a focus on grammar, vocabulary and translating in traditional language teaching methods to a focus on communicative ability, consistent with studies which emphasised the importance of communication skills in English teaching (e.g., Nishino, 2012). Due to the drawbacks of traditional English teaching methods which can lead to passive English learners, traditional English teaching methods, emphasising grammar, vocabulary and translation, are viewed as less effective English teaching methods (Rao, 1996; Tsui, 2007). The Ministry of Education (2003; 2011) in China has outlined requirements for the transition of English education in China from traditional teaching methods to communicative language teaching methods. English teaching reform proposed at the beginning of 21st century in China has aroused teachers' awareness to the advantages of embracing communicative language teaching methods. Although teachers in this study appeared to believe that, the centre of teaching English should be communication-skill based, their classroom teaching practices were still dominated by traditional teaching methods due to constraining factors imposed by students, universities and teachers, as reported in section 6.3.

With the exception of Shuang, who indicated that she was familiar with some second language teaching theories, all participants in the in-depth study reported that neither pre-service training, nor in-service training, had provided them with adequate knowledge about teaching theory for general English teaching and EFL writing in particular. Previous studies have also argued that there is either a gap between writing instruction theories and actual teaching practices or that teachers believe theories are irrelevant to their teaching (e.g., Clarke, 1994; Hedgcock, 2010; Zhu, 2010).

6.3 Teaching Practice

6.3.1 Survey Study

Findings from the questionnaire indicate that teacher participants' average self-reported time on the teaching of English writing to EFL students was allocated evenly to the development of ideas (28%), organization of ideas (26%) and effectiveness of expression (e.g., sentence variety, word choice, tone) (27%). These three aspects together accounted for 81% of the total time. A fourth aspect, the teaching of mechanics and conventions (e.g., spelling, grammar and punctuation) accounted for only 19% of the total time (refer to Table 4.9). This suggests that teacher participants accepted that the focus of the teaching of English writing to EFL students should shift from grammar (valued the most in traditional teaching method) to planning and organization. A possible reason, based on data from both the first and second stages of the study, is that some CE teachers believe that grammar and vocabulary, which should be the focus of high school English education, should not be the focus of tertiary level English education.

6.3.2 In-depth Study

Classroom observations show that EFL writing skill instruction was allocated very little time in the CE course. As explained in section 1.3.5, English writing marking standards cover mainly four parts: idea, coherence (writing structure), vocabulary and grammar. Classroom observation field notes indicate that, a majority of participants spent the most time on vocabulary and grammar teaching, with very little time spent on developing students' writing strategies and writing expertise such as idea development and the proper use of cohesive devices.

Classroom observations confirmed that most teachers' cognition about their teaching styles were consistent with their lessons observed. In the interviews, Yiming, Hui, Junping, Yan and Yangfan defined their methods of teaching the CE course as traditional teaching methods, relying on sentence-by-sentence translation and emphasising grammar and vocabulary. For instance, Yan's classroom teaching was a typical traditional approach highly dependent on sentence-by-sentence translation. Shuang's class focused predominantly on grammar instruction, with feedback provision to students' writing mainly focused on grammatical error correction. Wenhao was an exception since he expressed in the interview that he was carrying out interactive teaching methods, his classroom was still dominated by traditional translation-based teaching methods with the addition of some activities such as group discussions and students' presentations. Of all the participants, Junping and Yan spent the most time on the teaching of EFL writing during the lessons observed. Junping and Yan shared similar understanding of the teaching of EFL writing. They both elaborated on vocabulary and sentence structures they came across in reading comprehension texts and asked students to apply the vocabulary and sentence structures in their own writing practices to improve their writing proficiency. Analysis of the classroom observation data was consistent with studies in Asian contexts which reported that teachers were still in favour of focussing on language level knowledge in tertiary classrooms (Richards & Pennington, 1998; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999).

6.3.3 Relationships between Teacher Cognition and Teaching Practice

Firstly, the findings of the study suggest there are mutual interactions between teacher cognition and teaching practices, consistent with many studies which confirm the inter-relationship of teachers' mental lives and teachers' action (e.g., Burns, 1992; F. Gao, 2012; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Menard-Warwick, 2011; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston,

& Johnson, 2005). Such studies have noted that, specifically in the teaching of English writing, teachers' cognition would determine teachers' reactions to pedagogical innovations for writing instruction (L. Shi & Cumming, 1995; Tsui, 1996; Tsui, 2003). Other studies have noted that reflection on teaching practices can help teachers to reconstruct their cognition and to develop more effective methods to teach (T. S. Farrell, 2006; T. S. Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Sengupta & Xiao, 2002; Tsui, 2003). Borg (2015) posited that what happened in the classroom (including students' reactions to teachers) was a contextual factor mediating the reformation of teacher cognition.

Yanfang, in this study, is an example of cognition's influence on practice. Yangfan believed that vocabulary should be learned through reading, consequently she did not include much vocabulary instruction in the classroom, but encouraged students to read English newspapers after class as a supplement to their reading material. In contrast with other participants, Wenhao said he believed that enhancing students' writing skills should not be placed at the core of the CE course. The teaching of reading and vocabulary should be the focuses rather than the teaching of writing. Most of the students in Wenhao's university majored in engineering and thus Wenhao said he believed there was little practical application of English writing after graduation for students. Students, therefore, were unmotivated to learn EFL writing in class as English writing would seldom be used in their future careers. Although Wenhao indicated that he believed that EFL writing was a necessary skill for students to develop, feedback from students, however, led him to change his previous cognition towards the importance of including the teaching of EFL writing in the CE courses. Junping reflected on his classroom teaching that students responded positively and actively to his self-invented vocabulary memorization method. This reinforced his cognition about the effectiveness of using his

special vocabulary teaching method in the CE course and so he developed this method and integrated more vocabulary knowledge into his CE course.

Secondly, on the one hand, classroom observations reveal that teachers' teaching practices were found to be inconsistent with their cognition as reported by some studies (Basturkmen, 2012; Xiang & Borg, 2014). Other studies, however, have reported consistency between teacher cognition and practice (T. S. Farrell & Ives, 2015; Min, 2013; Yang & Gao, 2013, p. 130). The in-depth study confirmed the findings of the questionnaire study that teachers were in favour of communicative teaching methods in the teaching of CE and English writing. However, due to constraining factors such as students' low language proficiency and large number of students in the classroom, teachers have to rely on traditional teaching method in the CE course.

On the other hand, it is worthy to point out that findings of the in-depth study also mirrors the concept of Basturkmen (2012) explaining that cognition was "a more reliable guide to reality" in the case of "experienced or organized teachers who plan well before teaching" (p. 291). All participants, except Shuang who had only six month of teaching experience, were experienced teachers familiar with both the CE course and the situation of their students. Their teaching practices were carried out according to their cognition without adjusting to sudden situations which may have occurred in the classroom. However, in Shuang's CE course, she occasionally adjusted her teaching plan on site according to the reactions of students. She explained in the interview that the adjustment was due to her lack of teaching experience.

6.3.4 Summary

Findings from the questionnaire and the in-depth study indicate that the teaching of EFL writing is covered too little in CE classrooms. In the limited time allocated to the teaching of EFL writing, most time was spent on the teaching of English language as observed previously by Li (1996). This finding was similar to You's (2004a) study, in which the teaching of EFL writing in a Chinese university was found to be focusing on instructing language level knowledge instead of teaching students to develop their writing expertise.

Regarding to the relationship between teacher cognition and teaching practice, this study confirmed the mutual interactions between teacher cognition and teaching practices. Furthermore, the findings suggest CE teacher cognition and teaching practice are inconsistent with each other. As stated in section 6.2.1.1.2, teacher participants' stated focuses in the teaching of EFL writing shifted from traditional English teaching methods to communication-oriented English teaching. The findings of the follow up interview suggest that traditional approaches were not endorsed by participants because of drawbacks such as that, although students could gain higher score in tests, it only taught students "deaf-and-dumb English" [9] and was ineffective in enabling students to communicate in English (Tsui, 2007, p. 662). According to the results from the questionnaire and interview, teacher participants espoused communicative language teaching method. However, in teaching practices, both interviews and classroom observations reveal that, although they believed that the teaching focus should be communication-oriented, their teaching practices showed characteristics of traditional teaching method with the addition of a small number of activities focusing on

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[9] "Deaf-and-dumb English" is a term frequently used in China which means the English education in China is only effective in teaching learners to gain high marks in English tests instead of teaching learners to communicate in English.

communication-oriented teaching methods. Similarly, two other studies in the context of Japan (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999) and Hong Kong (Richards & Pennington, 1998) concluded that second language teachers still relied on traditional teaching method in teaching practices, although they said they believed in communicative language teaching. For instance, in this study, although both Yiming and Hui appeared to espouse the belief that English teaching should focus on improving students' communication skills, Yiming valued the translation teaching method and Hui believed in the importance of teaching grammar. This finding echoed other studies (e.g., Tsui, 2007; Xu & Liu, 2009) which found that teachers tended to adopt both communicative teaching methods and traditional teaching methods at the same time in classroom.

Analysis of the interviews reveal that teacher participants appear to be aware of an inconsistency between their cognition and practice. They accepted constraining factors such as limited course time and low language proficiency of students by giving up their preference to teach writing strategies and writing skills and reverting to traditional teaching methods in the classroom. All teachers were not satisfied with the current EFL teaching in China especially the time allocated to the teaching of EFL writing as well as the effectiveness of CE textbooks in the teaching of English writing to EFL students. Richards and Pennington (1998) and Sato and Klensasser (1999) have reported similar findings in research carried out in Asian contexts.

This finding indicates that, although there has been a reform of English language education worldwide including China advocating the communicative language teaching methods, the situation of CE teaching in Chinese universities was less effective than in other contexts. Studies in other similar contexts have concluded that both traditional

approaches and communicative language teaching methods have been adopted in English education units (e.g., Tsui, 2007; Xu & Liu, 2009).

6.4 Dialogical Formation Processes of Teacher Cognition

6.4.1 Revisiting the Theory

Although *dialogism*, the core of Bakhtin's conceptions (Holquist, 2002), was applied generally in literacy analysis, Bakhtin also applied "the notion of dialogue to the broader question of meaning making" (Jesson, Fontich, & Myhill, 2016, p. 159). The core meaning of Bakhtin's *dialogism* was interpreted by Holquist (2002) as that, people are constantly influenced by their circumstances and actively respond to the world. Bakhtin's *dialogism* is a suitable dialogical approach to analyse teacher cognition and practice by emphasising that the (re)formation process of teacher cognition is caused by *heteroglossia/polyphony,* that is, made up of various *voices.* Due to the "universal" nature of *dialogism,* "permeating all relationships and manifestations of human life" (Bakhtin, 1984, p. 40), Bakhtin's *dialogism* is applied in this study, underpinning data analysis, and providing a theoretical framework within which to examine the research question of the (re)formation process of teacher cognition.

Previous studies reported that language learning experiences played an important role in the formation of teacher cognition (Braine, 1999; J. Liu, 1999; Tang, 1997). Nespor (1987) confirmed that social and contextual factors should be regarded as "sources of beliefs", however, what remained unknown was the process "how the factors operate on beliefs" (p. 326). A case study of three CE teachers in mainland China showed that teachers' beliefs are in a constant process of change, and are influenced by many factors including "national teaching reforms, the setting of the curriculum, new materials and

new teaching methods study" (X. Zheng & Jiang, 2005, p. 21). In the meantime, teachers' beliefs and teaching practices can mutually affect each other.

Influenced by previous studies which have argued for either the dynamic nature (X. Zheng & Jiang, 2005) or the individualized nature (L. Shi & Cumming, 1995; H. Zheng, 2013) of teacher cognition, this study argues that the (re)formation of the participating teachers' cognition underwent a dialogic process and was highly individualized instead of showing a general pattern. According to Bakhtin (1981), the "internally persuasive discourses", in other words, the formation of beliefs in this study, is a process of "selectively assimilating" various *voices* and making them one's own (p. 341).

6.4.2 Voices Influencing the Formation of Teacher Cognition

As defined by Bakhtin (1981), *voice* means the "speaking personality" in the dialogical relationships (p. 434). As shown in Table 6.4, the line-by-line coding of the interview scripts revealed the following factors as *voices* influencing or changing the (re)formation process of teacher cognition. *Voices* are listed in Table 6.4 following Borg's (2006) categorisation of resources of teacher cognition (also refer to Figure 1.2.) and in Table 6.5 categorised by participants.

Table 6.4 Voices in the Dialogic Formation Process of Teacher Cognition

Resources of Teacher Cognition	Voices
Schooling	Teacher's language learning experience (mainly in primary and high school)
Professional Coursework	Teacher's pre-service education (mainly tertiary level education)
	Tutor or supervisor in teacher education programme
Contextual factors	School policy
	Students feedback/response
	Reflection
Other factors	Family

Table 6.5 Voices Categorised by Participants

Participants	Voices
Yiming:	Extrovert personality; overseas studying experience.
Hui	Experience as a visiting scholar (especially the influence of Wen Qiufang, experience of her current PhD study experience); teaching experience
Junping	Part time English tutor working experience, teaching practices; test-driven education; family background; students' feedback
Wenhao	Students' feedback; peer pressure; practical used of English after students' graduation
Yan	School policy (influence her teaching practices as her self-designed teaching method was denied by her monitor); students feedback
Shuang	Pre-service training programme; students' response in and after class; learning experience
Yangfan	Administrative title as the head of CE teaching department; secondary school teacher of her

6.4.3 The Process of the Formation of Teacher Cognition

It is argued in this study that the (re)formation process of teacher cognition is a dialogical process during which different *voices* interact either by centripetal or centrifugal forces (Bakhtin, 1981). Bakhtin (1981) explained that dialogue is the interaction between two people (external dialogue/external speech) or two voices (internal dialogue/internal speech). After identifying *voices* influencing teacher participants' cognition (re)formation process, the focus in this section is to discuss how these voices interacted with each other to (re)form teacher cognition. According to Bakhtin (1981), "every concrete utterance of a speaking subject serves as a point where centrifugal as well as centripetal forces are brought to bear" (p. 272). In other words, centripetal force unites voices and results in the harmonious existence of *voices* to form a hegemonic voice while centripetal force causes conflicts between *voices* and leads to a refusal of *voices* to unite.

Findings of the qualitative data analysis suggest that teacher participants responded actively to their past experiences including studying and teaching experiences through "internal *dialogism*" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 423) or "internal speech" (Bakhtin, 1984, p. 238) and adjusted their cognition accordingly to better suit their teaching environment. In addition, whereas findings reveal that there are positive contextual factors facilitating the (re)formation process of teacher cognition, there are also negative contextual factors (constraining factors) which have hindered teachers' teaching practices and led to the reformation of teacher cognition. The positive factors are categorised as *voices by centripetal force* while negative factors (constraining factors) are considered *voices by centrifugal force*. The (re)formation process of teacher cognition is illustrated in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2 (Re)formation Process of Teacher Cognition
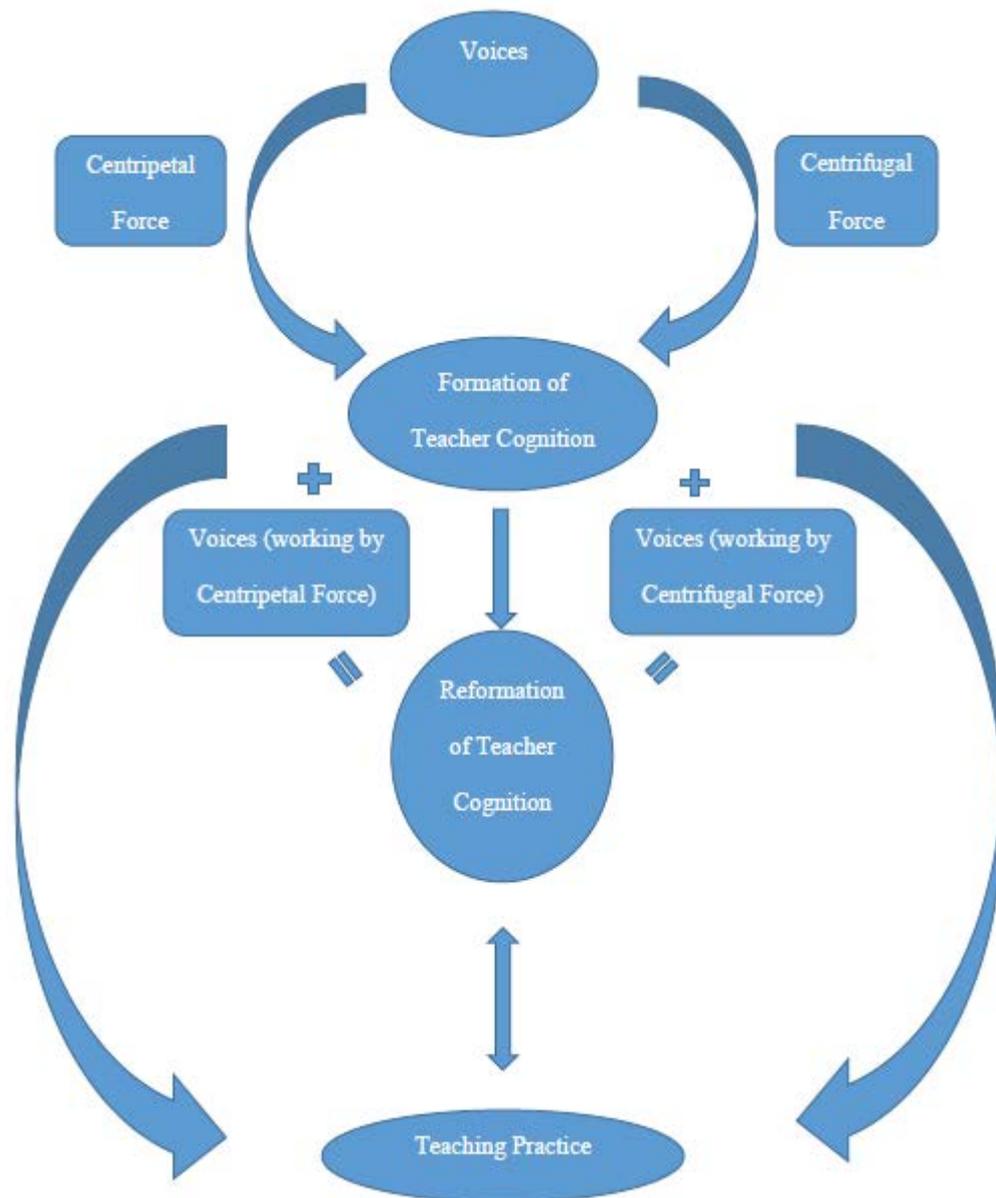
6.4.3.1 Voices by Centripetal Force

Emerging from the qualitative findings, what is noteworthy is that one common *voice* shared by Junping and Yan, "part time working experience as a tutor of English writing teaching" resulted in the similar cognition of the two participants. Classroom observations show that both Junping and Yan spent more time on the teaching of English writing to EFL students than other participants in classroom. In the interviews, Junping

and Yan mentioned a few times that their part time working experiences had influenced their teaching practices as well as enhanced their own English writing proficiency. Therefore, the *voice* "part time working experience as a tutor of English writing teaching" played a role in the reformation process of Junping and Yan's cognition.

Yangfan's cognition was reformed in the dialogic interaction process by different *voices* she confronted in her teaching experience. Being the Head of the CE teaching department in her university, Yangfan was the only participant in this study who also had an administrative title, and also the most experienced of the teacher participants. The (re)formation process of her cognition was not a linear process. Her prior cognition about writing and CE teaching was influenced by one of her secondary school English teachers who helped her in her practicum. As similarly discussed by Macalister (2012) that a participant's' belief resembled mostly those of their educator, Yangfan learned from her secondary school teacher that English courses should focus on continuous exercises of English skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing instead of teaching grammar and vocabulary. Yangfan therefore applied this modern teaching method in her CE teaching. Later on, in her teaching experience, her cognition was influenced by another *voice,* "students' low language proficiency". This *voice* dialogued centrifugally with the existing *voice* of modern teaching methods, which led her to adjust her cognition to balance communicative teaching methods and traditional teaching methods in class depending on students' language proficiency. After her promotion to the head of CE teaching department in her university, this unique *voice* enabled her to think from a management perspective about the teaching of EFL writing in the CE course in China. For instance, when asked about factors hindering CE teaching in improving students' EFL writing, Yangfan was the only participant who reported that she reflected (Richards

& Lockhart, 1994) on her teaching practices. Yangfan, in reflecting on her own teaching, observed that teachers' lack of self-improvement was another negative factor since teachers' minds seemed to be pre-set and difficult to change. It appeared that teachers seldom reflected on their own teaching or thought about improving their own teaching to achieve better outcomes for students. As a member of the administrative staff, Yangfan greatly valued CE teachers' in-service education.

6.4.3.2 Voices by Centrifugal Force

Yan is an example of a teacher whose cognition was reformed due to a negative contextual factor. Her original teaching cognition encouraged her to focus on building grammar knowledge in classroom. However, the opposing *voice,* from her tutor who believed that grammar should not be the focus of CE teaching, influenced her original teaching plan. As a result, Yan was "forced" to give up her original cognition and reform her cognition. She then accepted that grammar should not be emphasised in CE education despite some students having an inadequate grammar knowledge base.

The cognition of Shuang, a novice CE teacher with only six months working experience, was still in the process of formation. Not having graduated from a normal university, Shuang's knowledge mostly came from her six-month intensive pre-service training experience. In this training programme, Shuang was evaluated as a passionate teacher and recommended in the training programme by one of her tutors to add interactive sessions to her teaching. The *voice* of her tutor's opinion worked centrifugally with and replaced her existing cognition. Therefore, as Shuang reported, she believed that she should work hard to achieve the goal set by her tutors. The observation of Shuang's classroom show that she designed more interactive sessions in her teaching than other participants in the study.

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Another example of centrifugal force is Wenhao's cognition reformation process based on the *voice* of students' feedback. When starting his teaching career, Wenhao believed that EFL writing was a necessary skill for tertiary level students to develop. Students, however, responded negatively to the activities aiming improve EFL writing proficiency in class. Most of the students in Wenhao's university would become engineers and English writing, they thought, was irrelevant to their future careers. Students' reluctance to study EFL writing led to Wenhao's cognition change from considering EFL writing skill as "important" to "not that important".

6.4.3.3 Voices by Both Centripetal and Centrifugal Forces

Hui's case served as an example that she was struggling to adjust her cognition as a result of two voices, learning experience and students' feedback (response). Previous studies reported that language learning experience plays an important role in the formation of teacher cognition (Braine, 1999; J. Liu, 1999; Tang, 1997). Hui's learning experience could be a facilitating factor helping the formation of positive teaching cognition. She attributed her teaching style to her role model, a famous scholar in China, who was her tutor when she was a visiting scholar, and believed that most of her teaching practices was basically an imitation of this scholar. Hui's cognition was also influenced by her PhD study experience. Before starting her PhD study, she criticized the low language proficiency of her students in a Tier Two university as the main cause of her unsuccessful CE teaching. During the data collection process of her PhD study, her cognition changed as she noticed that grammar mistakes were very common to tertiary level students, even to her PhD study participants who are students from Tier One universities. Hui previously believed that teachers should correct students' grammar mistakes; she noticed however, that students did not care about her corrections. Thus, she gave up correcting

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grammar mistakes in her written feedback, and so it appears that Hui's cognition and practice was changed by students' feedback also.

Wenhao and Yiming were examples of two participants with contrasting personality traits. Yiming was an active, passionate and optimistic teacher while Wenhao was pessimistic about the outcome of CE, sensitive to peer pressure and pressure from students' negative reactions. In Yiming's class, students engaged in activities in a relaxed mood. By comparison, Wenhao tended to pay too much attention to students' reactions and was willing to adjust his practices catering to students' interests, as reported in the literature (e.g. Moran, 1996; X. Zheng & Borg, 2014). In their interviews, both teachers explained that their teaching cognition and practice were largely influenced by their personalities.

6.4.4 Summary

Although the seven participants in the in-depth study taught the same subject, used the same teaching syllabus, and taught according to the same "College English requirements", they conceptualized their work differently. The (re)formation process of their cognition were individualized instead of showing a similar pattern. The voices interacted with each other, either joining together by centripetal force or struggling with each other by centrifugal force, on the way to form or reform teacher cognition. Other studies reported comparable outcomes (e.g. L. Shi & Cumming, 1995),

6.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter focused on the discussion of the findings in relation to research questions with reference to previous literature. The first section in this chapter elaborated on the explorative research question investigating teachers' cognition towards the teaching and

learning of English writing. Group differences in teacher cognition, and the reasons for the differences, were also discussed in the second part of the first section. The second section discussed teaching practices and its relationship with teacher cognition. The final section critically discussed the (re)formation process of teacher cognition with reference to the theoretical framework of Bakhtin's of *dialogism*.

Chapter 7

CONCLUSION

7.1 Chapter Overview

This concluding chapter starts with a summary of the major findings of the study. Following the summary, this study's contributions and implications are elaborated. Finally, the limitations of the study are pointed out and the recommendations for further research are offered.

7.2 Summary of Main Findings

The aim of the study is to explore EFL teacher cognition about the teaching of EFL writing and their teaching practices, as well as factors influencing the formation process of cognition of teachers in the context of Chinese universities. Findings from the questionnaire and in-depth study are summarized as follows in the order of the research questions.

7.2.1 What is EFL College English Teachers' Cognition about Students Writing in EFL and the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students?

1) Cognition about writing and judging students' writing

Analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data suggested that the College English teachers believed that writing in English should enable the effective expression of ideas through a logical structure using a variety of vocabulary and sentence structures. Teachers' criteria for judging students' writing evolved from a focus on language (grammar and vocabulary) to focuses on writing strategies and students' writing expertise (logical structure, organization skills).

2) Cognition about teaching writing

Self-reports of EFL teacher cognition about teaching and learning English writing showed that tertiary EFL teachers in China acknowledged the significance of English writing for university students but reported they believed that the teaching of EFL writing in China was ineffective. Although national reform of College English teaching has changed teachers' cognition about College English teaching to focus on the purpose of communication, teachers reported they were hindered by factors such as limited time and the low language proficiency of students in being able to implement an English writing teaching plan effectively in classrooms. Teachers reported that there was a gap between teacher training in China and teachers' expectations of training. Pedagogical knowledge was almost neglected in teachers' pre-service and in-service training.

3) Cognition about factors influencing the teaching of EFL writing

Teacher participants in this study complained that factors contributing to ineffective EFL writing in China were related to students, school administrators, curricula and the teachers themselves. Students' low language proficiency was identified as the predominant reason for teachers' focus to remain on teaching language instead of on developing students' writing strategies and writing expertise. Teachers also reported that unmotivated students discouraged them from providing feedback on writing. For instance, Yiming, Hui and Yan said they felt frustrated since some of the students showed their indifference to their feedback to students writing and some students were not actively involved in the EFL writing activities in classrooms. Consequently, they abandoned their original Enlgish writing teaching plan, and provided less feedback on students' writing. Unmotivated students also led to the change in some teachers' cognition about the importance of EFL writing. Lack of support from school

administrators and policy makers was another major reason teachers identified for not implementing their teaching plan. The limited time allocated for the College English course and teachers' huge working load also constrained many teachers' from conducting the teaching of EFL writing effectively. After reflecting on her own teaching, one participant in this study, suggested that teachers' lack of responsibility for self-improvement and their fixed beliefs about the teaching of English writing to EFL students also negatively influenced the effective teaching of EFL writing.

7.2.2 Are There Any Differences in Teachers' Cognition about the Teaching of English Writing to EFL Students among Teachers of Different Ages, Different Genders, and with Different Working Experiences? If Yes, What Are the Differences?

Findings from the questionnaire indicated that teacher cognition did not differ greatly among participants with different backgrounds. Slight differences were found among participants in different age and gender groups, and with different years of working experience, academic qualifications and professional qualifications. The in-depth study, however, identified individual differences in participants' conceptualization of teaching and learning EFL writing. The (re)formation process of teacher cognition was individualized instead of showing a similar pattern between groups. This might be explained by the pre-set College English course policy in China since all the College English teachers used similar textbooks and students underwent same English tests (CET-4 and CET- 6). Another possible reason why no great difference was detected among participants of different backgrounds was that it was a fairly large sample size (N = 332) in this study.

7.2.3 How Do the Teachers' Stated Cognition Converge with, or Diverge from, Their Actual Teaching Practices in the Classroom?

The results of the questionnaire about teacher cognition suggested that teachers preferred communicative language teaching approach in the College English course. However, the in-depth study, especially the classroom observation, revealed that College English teachers still implemented traditional teaching methods focussing mainly on language skill teaching in class. A number of studies in similar contexts report that, although teachers stated that the College English course should be communicative and skill based, they still depended on traditional teaching practices (Pan & Block, 2011; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). Li's (1998) study in a Korean EFL teaching context suggests that though the adoption of communicative language teaching in countries where English is a second or foreign language was popular, many obstacles prevented this reform from being carried out. You (2004a), has found that EFL writing teachers of non-English major students in a Chinese university preferred to correct language forms rather than help students to develop ideas or writing expertise. Studies also have found that some college teachers integrated both communicative and traditional teaching approaches in their English teaching practices (Pennington et al., 1997).

Teachers in the in-depth study regarded themselves as "guiders (in the case of Junping, Yan, Yangfan and Wenhao), helpers (in the case of Shuang), and scaffolders (in the case of Hui)" in the College English course. This conceptualization of teachers' roles is consistent with roles of teachers using of communicative language teaching methods (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). For these teachers too, their reported cognition diverged from their teaching practices, which was observed to be mostly teacher-centred. In their

interviews, participants explained that such divergence was caused by students' low language proficiency, limited course time, unmotivated students and a test-driven teaching culture in China. The factors they identified were reported in Richards and Pennington's (1998) study; and are consistent with Lee's (2010) argument that the teaching of EFL writing is more tested but less taught.

7.2.4 What Factors Contribute to the (Re)Formation of Teacher Cognition? How Is Teachers' Cognition (Re)Formed?

By adopting Bakhtin's *dialogism* as the theoretical framework for the qualitative data analysis to answer the above research question, this study argues that the (re)formation of teacher cognition is a dialogic process through interaction of different *voices* (factors). Findings revealed that different *voices* (see Table 6.4), emerging from line by line coding of the interview transcript, interacted with one another resulting in the dialogical (re)formation process of teacher cognition. Discussion of the (re)formation process of teacher cognition suggested that participants' cognition formation processes were individualized although they shared similar educational backgrounds and were teaching the same course. Ellis (2012) similarly argued that individual differences could exert influence on the cognitive process of cognition formation.

7.3 Contributions of the Study

7.3.1 Theoretical Contribution

This explorative study on EFL writing teacher cognition and practice makes several theoretical contributions to teacher cognition research in the context of EFL writing instruction.

Firstly, this study contributes to the literature on language teacher education in general and EFL teacher education in mainland China in particular by providing detailed understanding of EFL teacher cognition and practices in Chinese universities. In answering the broad research question of "what EFL teachers' cognition and practice about teaching and learning EFL writing are", this study provides rich data on how teachers conceptualized their work and integrated their cognition into their practices in the classroom and beyond.

A second theoretical contribution is that this study adopts Bakhtin's *dialogism* as the main theoretical framework to investigate the (re)formation process of teacher cognition. It argues that the (re)formation process of teacher cognition is a dialogical process during which different voices interact with one another. A review of the literature revealed that *dialogism* has been applied by a few studies on teacher cognition only. This study made a first attempt.

Thirdly, findings from this study confirm Borg's (2015) analytical framework of sources of teacher cognition (see Figure 1.2). Borg categorises factors influencing teachers' cognition into the following three main categories: schooling experience, learning experience and contextual factors (Borg, 2015). This study adds to the existing literature by providing a detailed description of both positive and negative factors in teachers' implementation of EFL writing instruction in Chinese universities.

7.3.2 Methodological Contribution

By adopting a mixed methods approach, the quantitative study in Stage One and the qualitative study in Stage Two provided methodological and data triangulation to enrich the findings and enhance the validity and trustworthiness of the study. In particular, the

questionnaire in the first stage of the study generated a large scale data pool on language teacher cognition. As a shortcoming of the questionnaire is that participants cannot elaborate on the items (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010), the design of the follow up in-depth study served to corroborate the questionnaire by eliciting rich data about how teachers' cognition developed. To summarise, the mixed methods study design confirmed that the use of both quantitative and qualitative research method could enhance the validity and trustworthiness of the study.

A second methodological contribution lies in the line by line coding of the qualitative data with the aim to identify *voices* in the process of teacher cognition formation. The line by line coding elicited a holistic picture of how teacher cognition evolved through the interaction of teachers' learning and teaching experiences.

7.4 Pedagogical Implications

Findings of this study contribute to education policy making, College English textbook writing, university administrators and pre-service teacher education units in China by offering up-to-date knowledge about contemporary EFL writing teacher cognition and practice in some Chinese universities. Specifically, teachers' conceptions about their inadequate pre-service and in-service training serve as a call for designing more effective pre-service training and in-service professional training programmes focusing on the teaching of EFL writing.

7.4.1 Implications for Education Policy-making

As discussed in Chapter Six, case study participants' teaching practices differed from one another. For example, whether EFL writing should be included in CE teaching, and how to teach EFL writing, showed individual differences. Given the large numbers of

students studying College English in Chinese universities, up-to-date regulations should be established and implemented to address the quantity and quality of the teaching of English writing to EFL students in the College English course. In addition to addressing the uncertainties of teacher cognition towards the teaching and learning of EFL writing, this would also ensure students had equal rights to learn foreign languages.

7.4.2 Implications for College English Textbook Writers

Both quantitative and qualitative data show that frontline College English teachers in China were not satisfied with the overall quality of textbooks, especially the insufficient attention to EFL writing skill. Teachers' complaints about textbooks included, mainly, the low coverage of EFL writing and the out-of-date content of texts. Given teachers' dissatisfaction with, and high dependence on, College textbooks as a major teaching resource, a review on the overall quality of textbooks is necessary. The writing of textbooks and teachers' books should be by experienced College English teachers and include clear instructions for the teaching of EFL writing.

7.4.3 Implications for University Administrators

As one finding of the study suggests that both novice and experienced teachers were confronted with challenges and confusions in their teaching career, on-going professional development is necessary (K. E. Johnson & Golombek, 2011). Therefore, continuous in-service training, including training programmes specializing in the teaching of English writing to EFL students and local support for teachers provided by universities and local governments, are recommended. Findings from Stage One of the study, endorsed by the qualitative study, suggest that EFL teachers in China, while believing in the importance of support from universities, are not satisfied with the frequency and quantity of the support they receive from universities. All seven case-

study participants stated in their interviews that there were very few in-service training opportunities for improving the teaching of EFL writing in China. Robustly designed training for College English teaching, especially for the teaching of EFL writing, are recommended for EFL teachers in China.

7.4.4 Implications for Pre-service Teacher Education Units

College English teachers need to be provided with more training opportunities to improve their teaching skills (L. J. Zhang, 2016). It is highly debated whether disciplinary knowledge or teaching skills should be the focus of pre-service teaching education (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Freeman & Johnson, 2004; Tarone & Allwright, 2005; Yates & Muchisky, 2003). Yates and Muchisky (2003) argue that the knowledge base of EFL teachers should be disciplinary knowledge about language teaching and learning, whereas Freeman and Johnson (1998, 2004) believe the focus should be on equipping EFL teachers with knowledge and skills of how to teach. Findings of this study, however, suggest that EFL writing teachers in China had little understanding of the pedagogy of teaching CE, especially English writing. Therefore, pre-service teacher education courses should include greater pedagogical knowledge to enable teachers to teach College English courses, especially EFL writing, more effectively.

7.5 Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

Though both quantitative and qualitative research methods were adopted in order to present a holistic view of EFL writing teachers' cognition and practices, the study has limitations in terms of methodological design and scope.

Firstly, the study was challenged by a small population sample. The participants in the study were from nine universities in three developed cities located in the Eastern coast

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of China, with only seven participants in the case studies in the second stage of the study. Consequently, generalisation of findings of the study to other contexts is limited, an acknowledged limitation of case studies as noted by Wood (1996). Future studies covering wider geographic and socio-economic areas are recommended so that our understanding of EFL writing teacher cognition can be broadened.

Secondly, the timeframe of the study is relatively short. Teacher cognition is considered to be dynamic (Feryok, 2010). The current study was conducted over a period of four months only. Cognition changes described in this study are all self-reported by the participants. Further ethnographic research is recommended over a longer period of time in order to identify the changes in teacher cognition and the reasons for change, as well as the impact of such changes on teaching practices.

Lastly, this study does not include any students' responses to, and perceptions of, teachers' cognition and practice. Although the focus of this study is teacher education, the aim of teacher education is to improve students' learning outcomes. Therefore, as recommended by Borg (2015), as students' learning outcomes are the focus of teacher education research, future research in the field of teacher cognition should connect teacher cognition with students' learning outcomes.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form for Dean

Faculty of Education and Social Work
74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom
Auckland 1023, New Zealand
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92019
Auckland, New Zealand

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET: DEAN

Project title: EFL Writing Teacher Cognition: A Study of College English Teachers in Universities in China

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

Research introduction

My name is Huan Zhao. I am conducting this research as my doctoral thesis in pursuing the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) at the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, University of Auckland, New Zealand.

Project description and invitation

My project aims to contribute to the current knowledge base of teacher education by exploring EFL teachers' cognition in teaching writing in universities in China. I would like to seek your approval to allow me to invite EFL teachers at your university to participate in my research project. The participants are recruited by an advertisement provided by the researcher. I seek your approval to allow the teaching secretary of the CE department to help me to do the advertisement. I also seek your assurance that the decision of any of the teachers to participate or not in the research project will not affect their standing within the school.

Project Procedures

The project is divided into two phases. Phase one is to invite the teachers who are interested in the project to complete one questionnaire which takes approximately 30 minutes. Stage Two is made up of a three-step process. An interview aimed to examine teachers' basic cognition will be conducted at the beginning of the research followed by two classroom observations and stimulated recall interviews at the convenient time of both the research and the participants. Both the interviews and classroom observations will be audio-recorded. Each interview lasts for 40-60 minutes and each classroom observation lasts for 90 minutes. Although the classroom observation includes the teachers and the students, the students are not considered as participants and their voices recorded will be deleted after the recording.

Data storage/retention/destruction/future use

Both the data and other documents including consent forms and identification forms will be kept in secure places separately. The data will be destroyed after six years upon its

collection. The data will be used for the researcher's doctoral thesis and future publications and presentations. The identities of the participants will not be disclosed to anyone. Stage One will generate data in questionnaires. The completed questionnaires will be kept in locked cabinets and destroyed after six years after its collection. Stage Two will generate data in two forms: paper based notes and audio recordings from interviews and classroom observations. Paper-based notes and other documents including consent forms and identification forms will be kept in locked cabinets separately. The audio recording will be kept in UBS flash memory and researcher's computer. Only the researcher can access to the data. The participants have the right to read the notes as well as the transcripts of audio-recording. They can change if the transcripts are appropriate. The data will be destroyed after six years upon its collection.

Right to withdraw from participation

Participation in this study is strictly voluntary and can be declined at any time without giving any reason. Teachers have the right to withdraw from participation even withdraw any traceable data after the study is started before December 31st, 2015.

Anonymity and confidentiality

The participation of Stage One is anonymous and the data collected from both stages will be kept confidential and will be restricted to research uses. The result of the research will form a doctoral thesis and articles which may either be lodged in the University of Auckland library or published in journals. Once they are published, your information will not be identified.

Findings of the research:

If you or the teacher participants are interested in the findings of the study, the researcher will send you the findings upon receipt of your requesting email.

I appreciate your cooperation and time spent on my study. I look forward to your reply.

If you have questions or concerns please feel free to contact me or my supervisors.

Contact details and approval wording

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

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For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373- 7599 extn. 83711. Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz."

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 07 MAY 2015 FOR (3) YEARS, REFERENCE NUMBER 014468

CONSENT FORM: DEAN

THIS FORM WILL BE HELD FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS

Project title: EFL Writing Teacher Cognition: A Study of College English Teachers

In Universities In China

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

Name of University: _____

- I have read and understood the details of this research project.

- I have the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered.

- I agree that the researcher may invite the teachers of EFL in our University to participant in this research with the assistance of the teaching secretary of our University.

- I agree that the teaching secretary of our University may assist the researcher in recruiting the participants and providing two paper boxes for returning questionnaires and identification forms.

- I understand that the researcher will include audiotaping of EFL classes.

- I understand that the audio recording will be transcribed and translated if necessary by the researcher.

- I understand that I can withdraw the University from the research at any time before December 31, 2015.

- I give an assurance that the decision of the teachers to participate or not in this research project will not affect their standing within the school.

Signed _____

Name _____

Position _____

University _____

Date _____

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANT ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 07 MAY 2015 FOR (3) YEARS, REFERENCE NUMBER 014468

Appendix B: Participant Information Sheet for Teachers in Stage One

THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND
NEW ZEALAND

Faculty of Education and Social Work
74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom
Auckland 1023, New Zealand
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92019
Auckland, New Zealand

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET- STAGE ONE: TEACHERS

Project title: EFL Writing Teacher Cognition: A Study of College English Teachers in Universities in China

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

Research introduction

My name is Huan Zhao. I am conducting this research as my doctoral thesis in pursuing the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) at the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, University of Auckland, New Zealand.

Project description and invitation

My project aims to contribute to the current knowledge base of teacher education by exploring EFL teachers' cognition in teaching writing in universities in China. I would like to invite you to participate in Stage One of the project to answer a questionnaire.

The questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes to complete. By returning your complete questionnaire indicates your consent to participate in my study.

Data storage/retention/destruction/future use

Both the completed questionnaires and identification forms will be kept in locked cabinets separately. The data will be destroyed after six years after its collection. The data will be used for the researcher's doctoral thesis and future publications and presentations. Your identity will not be disclosed to anyone.

Right to withdraw from participation

Participation in this study is strictly voluntary and can be declined at any time without giving any reason. They have the right to withdraw any traceable data after the study is started before December 31st, 2015.

Anonymity and confidentiality

The participation of Stage One is anonymous and all the data collected will be kept confidential and will be restricted to research uses. The result of the research will form a doctoral thesis and articles which may either be lodged in the University of Auckland library or published in journals. Once they are published, your information will not be identified.

Findings of the research:

If you are interested in the findings of the study, the researcher will send you the findings upon receipt of your requesting email. Thank you very much for your time and effort.

Contact details and approval wording

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

Email address: hzha435@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Postal address: 802, Building 8, 90 Jujin Road, Pudong District, Shanghai, China (local contact detail)

Name of supervisor: Professor Lawrence Zhang

Email address: lj.zhang@auckland.ac.nz

Postal address: The University of Auckland, Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom, Auckland 1023, New Zealand

Office Phone number: 64 9 623 8899 ext 48750

Name of co-supervisor: Doctor Rebecca Jesson

Email address: r.jesson@auckland.ac.nz

Postal address: The University of Auckland, Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom, Auckland 1023, New Zealand

Office Phone number: 64 9 373 7599 ext 48162

Name of HOD: Associate Professor Helen Hedges

Email address: h.hedges@auckland.ac.nz

Postal address: The University of Auckland, Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom, Auckland 1023, New Zealand

Office Phone number: 64 9 373 7599 ext 48606

Local contact detail:

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

Email address: hzha435@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Postal address: 802, Building 8, 90 Jujin Road, Pudong District, Shanghai, China

Office phone: 86-21-64431221

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373- 7599 extn. 83711. Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz."

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE 07 May 2015 for (3) years, Reference Number 014468

Appendix C: Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form for Teachers in Stage Two

THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND
NEW ZEALAND

Faculty of Education and Social Work
74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom
Auckland 1023, New Zealand
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92019
Auckland, New Zealand

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET- STAGE TWO: TEACHERS

Project title: EFL Writing Teacher Cognition: A Study of College English Teachers in Universities in China

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

Researcher introduction

My name is Huan Zhao. I am conducting this research as my doctoral thesis in pursuing the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) at the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, University of Auckland, New Zealand.

Project description and invitation

My project aims to contribute to the current knowledge base of teacher education by exploring EFL teachers' cognition in teaching writing in universities in China. I would like to invite you to participate in Stage Two of the study. The criteria of choosing the participants compose of different genders, ages, years of education received and years of working experiences. As Stage Two include audio-recorded interviews and audio-recorded classroom observations, the students will not be considered as participants. Students' consent will be gained before the starting of the study by their teachers. Students' voices will be omitted from the transcriptions.

Project Procedures

Stage Two is made up of a three-step process. An interview aimed to examine your basic cognition will be conducted at the beginning of the research followed by two classroom observations and stimulated recall interviews at the convenient time of both the research and the participants. Both the interviews and classroom observations will be audio-recorded. Each interview lasts 40-60 minutes and each classroom observation lasts 90 minutes.

Data storage/retention/destruction/future use

Stage Two will generate data in two forms: paper based notes and audio recordings from interviews and classroom observations. Paper-based notes and other documents including consent forms and identification forms will be kept in locked cabinets separately. The audio recording will be kept in UBS flash memory and researcher's computer. Only the researcher can access to the data. The participants have the right to

read the notes as well as the transcripts of audio-recording. They can change if the transcripts are appropriate. The data will be destroyed after six years upon its collection. The data will be used for the researcher's doctoral thesis and future publications and presentations. Your identity will not be disclosed to anyone.

Right to withdraw from participation

Participation in this study is strictly voluntary and can be declined at any time without giving any reason. You have the right to withdraw from participation and to withdraw any traceable data after the study is started before December 31st, 2015.

Anonymity and confidentiality

Pseudonyms of the participants in Stage Two will be used. All the data collected will be kept confidential and will be restricted to research use only. The result of the research will form a doctoral thesis and articles which may either be lodged in the University of Auckland library or published in journals. Once they are published, your information will not be identified.

Findings of the research:

If you are interested in the findings of the study, you can circle the "I wish" to receive the summary of findings on the consent form. Thank you very much for your time and effort.

Contact details and approval wording

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

Email address: hzha435@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Postal address: 802, Building 8, 90 Jujin Road, Pudong District, Shanghai, China

Name of supervisor: Professor Lawrence Zhang

Email address: lj.zhang@auckland.ac.nz

Postal address: The University of Auckland, Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom, Auckland 1023, New Zealand

Office Phone number: 64 9 623 8899 ext 48750

Name of co-supervisor: Doctor Rebecca Jesson

Email address: r.jesson@auckland.ac.nz

Postal address: The University of Auckland, Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom, Auckland 1023, New Zealand

Office Phone number: 64 9 373 7599 ext 48162

Name of HOD: Associate Professor Helen Hedges

Email address: h.hedges@auckland.ac.nz

Postal address: The University of Auckland, Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom, Auckland 1023, New Zealand

Office Phone number: 64 9 373 7599 ext 48606

Local contact detail:

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

Email address: hzha435@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Postal address: 802, Building 8, 90 Jujin Road, Pudong District, Shanghai, China

Office phone: 86-21-64431221

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373- 7599 ext. 83711. Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz."

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS ON 07 MAY 2015 FOR (3) YEARS, REFERENCE NUMBER 014468

CONSENT FORM: TEACHERS

THIS FORM WILL BE HELD FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS

Project title: EFL Writing Teacher Cognition: A Study of College English Teachers In Universities In China

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

I have read the Participant Information Sheet, have understood the nature of the research and why I have been selected. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction.

- I agree to take part in this research.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw participation at any time, and to withdraw any data traceable to me before December 31, 2015, without giving a reason.
- I agree to be audiotaped in the classroom observation and interview.
- I understand that the audio recording will be transcribed and translated if necessary by the researcher.
- I understand that I can read the transcripts of the interviews and

classroom observation and make changes.

- I wish / do not wish to have my tapes returned to me.

- I wish / do not wish to receive the summary

  of findings.

- I understand that data will be kept for 6 years, after which they will

  be destroyed.

- Name   _____

Signature _____ Date _____

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS

ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 07 MAY 2015 FOR (3) YEARS, REFERENCE NUMBER

014468

Appendix D: Participant Information Sheet for Students in Stage Two

THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND
NEW ZEALAND

Faculty of Education and Social Work
74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom
Auckland 1023, New Zealand
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92019
Auckland, New Zealand

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET- STUDENTS

Project title: EFL Writing Teacher Cognition: A Study of College English Teachers in Universities in China

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

Researcher introduction

My name is Huan Zhao. I am conducting this research as my doctoral thesis in pursuing the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) at the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, University of Auckland, New Zealand.

Project description and invitation

My project aims to contribute to the current knowledge base of teacher education by exploring EFL teachers' cognition in teaching writing in universities in China. I would like to invite your CE teachers to participate in Stage Two of the study. As the study includes audio-recorded classroom observations, the students will not be considered as

participants. Your consent will be gained before the starting of the study by their teachers. Your voices will be omitted from the transcriptions.

Project Procedures

Stage Two is made up of a three-step process. An interview aimed to examine your teachers' basic cognition will be conducted at the beginning of the research followed by two classroom observations and stimulated recall interviews at the convenient time of both the research and the participants. Both the interviews and classroom observations will be audio-recorded. Each interview lasts for 40-60 minutes and each classroom observation lasts for 90 minutes.

Data storage/retention/destruction/future use

This study will generate data in two forms: paper based notes and audio recordings from interviews and classroom observations. Paper-based notes and other documents including consent forms and identification forms will be kept in locked cabinets separately. The audio recording will be kept in UBS flash memory and researcher's computer. Only the researcher can access to the data. The teacher participants have the right to read the notes as well as the transcripts of audio-recording. They can change if the transcripts are appropriate. The data will be destroyed after six years upon its collection. The data will be used for the researcher's doctoral thesis and future publications and presentations. The participants' identities will not be disclosed to anyone.

Right to withdraw from participation

Participation in this study is strictly voluntary and can be declined at any time without giving any reason. The participants have the right to withdraw from participation and to withdraw any traceable data after the study is started before December 31st, 2015.

Anonymity and confidentiality

Pseudonyms of the participants in Stage Two will be used. All the data collected will be kept confidential and will be restricted to research use only. The result of the research will form a doctoral thesis and articles which may either be lodged in the University of Auckland library or published in journals. Once they are published, your information will not be identified.

Contact details and approval wording

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

Email address: hzha435@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Postal address: 802, Building 8, 90 Jujin Road, Pudong District, Shanghai, China

Name of supervisor: Professor Lawrence Zhang

Email address: lj.zhang@auckland.ac.nz

Postal address: The University of Auckland, Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom, Auckland 1023, New Zealand

Office Phone number: 64 9 623 8899 ext 48750

Name of co-supervisor: Doctor Rebecca Jesson

Email address: r.jesson@auckland.ac.nz

Postal address: The University of Auckland, Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom, Auckland 1023, New Zealand

Office Phone number: 64 9 373 7599 ext 48162

Name of HOD: Associate Professor Helen Hedges

Email address: h.hedges@auckland.ac.nz

Postal address: The University of Auckland, Gate 3, 74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom, Auckland 1023, New Zealand

Office Phone number: 64 9 373 7599 ext 48606

Local contact detail:

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

Email address: hzha435@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Postal address: 802, Building 8, 90 Jujin Road, Pudong District, Shanghai, China

Office phone: 86-21-64431221

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373- 7599 ext. 83711. Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz."

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS

ETHICS ON 07 MAY 2015 FOR (3) YEARS, REFERENCE NUMBER 014468

Appendix E: Advertisement for Recruiting Teacher Participants in Stage One

THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND
NEW ZEALAND

Faculty of Education and Social Work
74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom
Auckland 1023, New Zealand
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92019
Auckland, New Zealand

Participation needed for a study on EFL Writing Teacher Cognition

My name is Huan Zhao. I am conducting this research as my doctoral thesis in pursuing the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) at the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, University of Auckland, New Zealand.

My project is the study of EFL Writing Teacher Cognition which aims to contribute to the current knowledge base of teacher education by exploring EFL teachers' cognition in teaching writing in universities in China. The project is divided into two phases. Phase one is a questionnaire which takes approximately 30 minutes to complete. The second phase is an in-depth study which includes interviews and classroom observations. Through participation of the study, your understanding of the EFL teacher cognition will be deepened.

If you are a College English teacher and are interested in participating in the study, please contact the teaching secretary of your department to request the paper-based

questionnaires and identification forms. In addition, you are welcome to contact the researcher through email if you would like to know more about the study.

You have the assurance of the Dean of your department that your decision to participate or not in the research project will not affect your standing within the school.

To contact the researcher: Hzha435@aucklanduni.ac.nz

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS ON 07 MAY 2015 FOR (3) YEARS, REFERENCE NUMBER 014468

Appendix F: Identification Form for Potential Teacher Participants in Stage Two

Faculty of Education and Social Work
74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom
Auckland 1023, New Zealand
The University of Auckland
Private Bag 92019
Auckland, New Zealand

IDENTIFICATION FORM

Project title: EFL Writing Teacher Cognition: A Study of College English Teachers in Universities in China

Name of Researcher: Huan Zhao

Name of the university: _____

I am willing to/not willing to participate in Stage Two of the study.

I understand that a selection will be made and finally seven participants will be chosen.

I will be informed of the outcome.

Signature: _____

Teacher's name: _____

Preferable contact details (either email address or phone number): _____

Thank you very much for your time spent on my study.

Huan Zhao

Huan.zhao@auckland.ac.nz

Please return the completed identification form and questionnaires to two boxes provided

by the teacher secretary of your department.

Appendix G: Semi-structured Interview Outline

Semi-Structured Interview Outline

Questions regarding teachers' learning experience of English and English writing

1. Can you tell me about your language learning experience?

2. Among the four language skills listening, speaking , reading and writing which one do you think is the most difficult for the students to learn?

3. Among the four language skills listening, speaking , reading and writing which one do you think is the most difficult for the teachers to teach?

4. Did your teacher's teaching style impact your own teaching today?

Questions regarding teachers' learning experience of how to teach when they are student teachers

5. Can you recall some teaching theories you learned when you are a student teacher?

6. How does it work in your teaching practices?

7. What have you learned about teaching writing when you are a student teacher?

8. Is the teaching apprentice useful? Did you learn something from the observations of the experienced teacher (mentors or tutors)?

Questions regarding teachers' teaching experience

9. What do you think is the most important in teaching writing?

10. What do you think is your role when teaching L2 writing?

11. How to judge the quality of students' writing?

12. What kind of feedback do you always give to your students?

13. Do you think your feedback is effective?

14. What do you think will enhance the student's' writing proficiency in your classroom?

15. What types of exercise do the students find the most valuable to practice their writing in English?

16. What writing strategies do you teach students?

17. How do the students learn to write in English?

Integrated questions

18. What do you think have influenced your teaching style the most till now? (The previous course learning in university, the teaching practicum observation and teaching practices or your real teaching experience.)

19. Are there anything you would like to add?

Appendix H: Classroom Observation Schedule

Classroom observation Schedule

Aim of the classroom observation:

The classroom observation aims to confirm whether the teachers do what they reported in their previous interview.

Focus of the classroom observation:

In the classroom observation, the teaching practices is the target of the researcher's observation. To be more specific, the researcher will focus on the teachers' teaching activities and teaching methods.

Procedures of the classroom observation:

The voice of the teachers will be recorded using a pin microphone with the function of recording. The researcher will act as a non-participant observer and take notes of what will happen in the classroom, for example, the teachers' body languages and the teachers' reactions to students'. None of the students' behaviours are regarded as the target of the observation.

Appendix I: Questionnaire on EFL Writing Teacher Cognition

Dear Teachers,

Thank you so much for sparing time to complete this questionnaire. It will take about 20 minutes. This questionnaire is about your views about the teaching of EFL writing in Chinese university classrooms. I would like to know: How do you teach writing when you in your current College English classroom? What are your views towards EFL writing and the teaching of EFL writing? This is NOT an evaluation of you as a teacher. All your responses are confidential.

Questionnaire on EFL writing Teacher Cognition

PART ONE: Personal Information *(Please circle the letter before the chosen item)*

1. Age range:

A. 20-25

B. 26-30

C. 31-35

D. 36-40

E. 41-45

F. 46-50

G. 51-55

H. 56+

2. Gender:

A. Male

B. Female

3. Academic qualifications:

A. Bachelor Degree obtained in a university in China

B. Bachelor Degree obtained in a university in a foreign country

C. Master Degree obtained in a university in China

D. Master Degree obtained in a university in a foreign country

E. PhD obtained in a university in China

F. PhD obtained in a university in a foreign country

G. Others_____

4. Professional qualification:

Have you received your Bachelor's Degree from a Teacher's College or a Normal University in China?

A. Yes B. No

5. Years of teaching experience:

A. Less than 5 years

B. 5-10 years

C. 10-15 years

D. 15 years or more

6. Time spent together in (an) English-speaking country(s) (till now):

A. None

B. Less than 6 months

C. 6-12 months (including 6 months and 12 months)

D. More than one year

7. Please indicate all the resources you use? (Choose as many as you like)

A. The Ministry of Education Curriculum Framework for University Teaching

B. CE Test Band 4 and Band 6 Guidelines

C. Teaching Syllabus provided by the university

D. Textbooks

E. E-resources

F. Other (Please specify) _____

8. Professional development activities received in the last two years

8a. During the last two years, did you participate in or lead any of the following professional development activities related to the teaching of writing? (Choose as many as you like)

A. College course(s) taken after your first qualification

B. Workshops or training sessions

C. Conferences or professional association meetings

D. Observational visit to another institution

E. Mentoring and/or peer observation and coaching as part of a formal arrangement

F. Committee or task force focusing on curriculum, instruction, or student assessment

G. Regularly scheduled discussion or study group

H. Teacher collaborative or network, such as one organized by an outside agency or over the Internet

I. Individual or collaborative research

J. Independent reading on a regular basis—for example, educational journals, books, or the Internet

K. Co-teaching/team teaching

L. Consultation with language specialist

8b. During the last two years, have you received training from any source in any of the following areas? (Choose as many as you like)

A. basic computer training

B. software applications

C. use of the internet

D. integration of computers and other technology into classroom instruction

9. Languages used when teaching CE in the classroom:

English: ___ % of the time   Chinese: ___ % of the time   others: ___% of the time

PART TWO: Teacher Cognition

*In the following part, the five numbers from 1 to 5 represent **STRONGLY DISAGREE, DISAGREE, NEUTRAL, AGREE AND STRONGLYAGREE**. Please circle the number 1, 2, 3, 4or 5.*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. An effective piece of English writing should include:					
A. A clear structure	1	2	3	4	5
B. Correct grammar	1	2	3	4	5
C. Moderate cohesive devices	1	2	3	4	5
D. Varied vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5
E. Relevant content	1	2	3	4	5
2. Good writers are those who know grammar rules well.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Good writers have skills of planning before starting writing.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Good writing teachers give many assignments to the students	1	2	3	4	5
5. Good writing teachers are good writers themselves	1	2	3	4	5
6. Model compositions help students to learn how to write.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Translating from text in their first language helps students to learn how to write.	1	2	3	4	5

8. Reading helps students to learn how to write.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The process of re-writing helps students to learn how to write.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Process writing helps to build a good writer.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The best way to improve writing is through writing itself.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Students are more likely to be good writers in English if they are good writers in Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
13. It is better to learn English writing in an English-speaking country.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Teachers should correct their students' mistakes in their writing work at the beginning since it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	1	2	3	4	5
15. My education experience should provide me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	1	2	3	4	5
16. My education experience has provided me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	1	2	3	4	5
17. The university I am working in should provide me with enough support to teach writing.	1	2	3	4	5
18. The university I am working in has provided me with enough support to teach writing.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Computers and other new technologies are helpful in teaching students to write well.	1	2	3	4	5

20. In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to:

A. Improve critical thinking ability.	1	2	3	4	5
B. Learn how to communicate effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
C. Become more creative.	1	2	3	4	5
D. Improve grammar.	1	2	3	4	5
E. Gain organizational skills.	1	2	3	4	5
F. Learn to read.	1	2	3	4	5
G. Gain a large vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
H. Learn to analyse and bring details together.	1	2	3	4	5

Part Three: Open-Ended Questions

21. Overall, what percentage of your instructional time of teaching writing is spent on each of the following:

A. Development of ideas _____%

B. Organization of ideas _____%

C. Effectiveness of expression (e.g., sentence variety, word choice, tone) _____%

D. Mechanics and conventions (e.g., spelling, grammar, punctuation) _____%

22. What do you think is the nature of writing in English as a foreign language?

23. Among all the language skills which do you think is the most difficult one for the teachers to teach? (Listening, Speaking, Reading Writing and Translating)

24. What do you think is the most difficult part in writing in English? (grammar; vocabulary; planning; organization)

25. Why are you satisfied or dissatisfied with the textbook you are currently using to teach students EFL writing?

That is the end of the questionnaire. Thank you so much for you time. If you are interested in participating in the second stage of the study which includes interviews and classroom observations, please leave you contact details here. I will contact you for further information. Thanks again for taking part in my study.

Name:

Contact details (Email or Mobile number):

Appendix J Descriptive Statistics of the Questionnaire on EFL Writing Teacher Cognition

Items	M	S.D.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Item 1a: An effective piece of English writing should include: A. A clear structure	4.72	.744	-3.513	13.568
Item 1b: An effective piece of English writing should include: B. Correct grammar	4.47	.727	-1.521	2.680
Item 1c: An effective piece of English writing should include: C. Moderate cohesive devices	4.37	.729	-.944	.598
Item 1d: An effective piece of English writing should include: D. Varied vocabulary	4.30	.752	-.846	.471
Item 1e: An effective piece of English writing should include: E. Relevant content	4.55	.646	-1.693	4.595
Item 2: Good writers are those who know grammar rules well.	3.86	.972	-.579	-.185
Item 3: Good writers have skills of planning before starting writing.	4.40	.769	-1.340	1.844
Item 4: Good writing teachers give many assignments to the students.	3.28	.925	.053	-.358
Item 5: Good writing teachers are good writers themselves	3.89	.933	-.546	-.135
Item 6: Model compositions help students to learn how to write.	4.05	.798	-.850	1.235
Item 7: Translating from text in their first language helps students to learn how to write.	3.07	1.077	-.042	-.601
Item 8: Reading helps students to learn how to write.	4.50	.697	-1.478	2.587
Item 9: The process of re-writing helps students to learn how to write.	4.28	.736	-.776	.419
Item 10: Process writing helps to build a good writer.	4.07	.748	-.461	.103
Item 11: The best way to improve writing is through writing itself.	4.14	.864	-.877	.587
Item 12: Students are more likely to be good writers in English if they are good writers in Chinese.	3.45	1.002	-.265	-.531
Item 13: It is better to learn English writing in an English-speaking country.	3.61	.988	-.409	-.190
Item 14: Teachers should correct their students' mistakes in their writing work at the beginning since it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	3.60	.952	-.393	-.336
Item 15: My education experience should provide me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	3.82	.794	-.510	.410

Item 16: My education experience has provided me with enough knowledge to teach writing. 3.60 .926 -.409 -.196

Item 17: The university I am working in should provide me with enough support to teach writing. 3.92 .868 -.560 -.125

Item 18: The university I am working in has provided me with enough support to teach writing. 3.17 1.000 -.095 -.325

Item 19: Computers and other new technologies are helpful in teaching students to write well. 3.84 .794 -.436 -.089

Item 20a: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: A. Improve critical thinking ability. 4.45 .717 -1.372 2.184

Item 20b: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: B. Learn how to communicate effectively. 4.25 .759 -.710 -.130

Item 20c: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: C. Become more creative. 4.13 .782 -.657 .249

Item 20d: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: D. Improve grammar. 4.18 .699 -.376 -.518

Item 20e: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: E. Gain organizational skills. 4.42 .666 -.974 .821

Item 20f: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: F. Learn to read. 4.45 .656 -1.061 1.486

Item 20g: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: G. Gain a large vocabulary. 4.17 .716 -.569 .111

Item 20h: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: H. Learn to analyse and bring details together. 4.38 .683 -.885 .511

Appendix K: Test of Normality of 31 Items in Questionnaire

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	p.	Statistic	df	p.
Item 1a: An effective piece of English writing should include: A. A clear structure	.464	332	.000	.426	332	.000
Item 1b: An effective piece of English writing should include: B. Correct grammar	.347	332	.000	.700	332	.000
Item 1c: An effective piece of English writing should include: C. Moderate cohesive devices	.314	332	.000	.757	332	.000
Item 1d: An effective piece of English writing should include: D. Varied vocabulary	.281	332	.000	.784	332	.000
Item 1e: An effective piece of English writing should include: E. Relevant content	.375	332	.000	.663	332	.000
Item 2: Good writers are those who know grammar rules well.	.221	332	.000	.866	332	.000
Item 3: Good writers have skills of planning before starting writing.	.320	332	.000	.734	332	.000
Item 4: Good writing teachers give many assignments to the students.	.235	332	.000	.895	332	.000
Item 5: Good writing teachers are good writers themselves	.221	332	.000	.863	332	.000
Item 6: Model compositions help students to learn how to write.	.280	332	.000	.818	332	.000
Item 7: Translating from text in their first language helps students to learn how to write.	.177	332	.000	.916	332	.000
Item 8: Reading helps students to learn how to write.	.360	332	.000	.696	332	.000
Item 9: The process of re-writing helps students to learn how to write.	.272	332	.000	.787	332	.000
Item 10: Process writing helps to build a good writer.	.255	332	.000	.826	332	.000
Item 11: The best way to improve writing is through writing itself.	.240	332	.000	.816	332	.000

Item 12: Students are more likely to be good writers in English if they are good writers in Chinese.	.219	332	.000	.900	332	.000
Item 13: It is better to learn English writing in an English-speaking country.	.215	332	.000	.890	332	.000
Item 14: Teachers should correct their students' mistakes in their writing work at the beginning since it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	.247	332	.000	.886	332	.000
Item 15: My education experience should provide me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	.290	332	.000	.847	332	.000
Item 16: My education experience has provided me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	.252	332	.000	.884	332	.000
Item 17: The university I am working in should provide me with enough support to teach writing.	.265	332	.000	.854	332	.000
Item 18: The university I am working in has provided me with enough support to teach writing.	.207	332	.000	.908	332	.000
Item 19: Computers and other new technologies are helpful in teaching students to write well.	.294	332	.000	.844	332	.000
Item 20a: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: A. Improve critical thinking ability.	.340	332	.000	.717	332	.000
Item 20b: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: B. Learn how to communicate effectively.	.265	332	.000	.797	332	.000
Item 20c: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: C. Become more creative.	.243	332	.000	.822	332	.000
Item 20d: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: D. Improve grammar.	.257	332	.000	.804	332	.000
Item 20e: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: E. Gain organizational skills.	.316	332	.000	.740	332	.000

Item 20f: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: F. Learn to read.	.333	332	.000	.726	332	.000
Item 20g: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: G. Gain a large vocabulary.	.256	332	.000	.805	332	.000
Item 20h: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: H. Learn to analyse and bring details together.	.302	332	.000	.756	332	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Appendix L: ANOVA Results of Teachers' Cognition Differences by Age Group

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Item 1a: An effective piece of English writing should include: A. A clear structure	Between Groups	3.732	7	.533	.962	.459
	Within Groups	179.653	324	.554		
	Total	183.386	331			
Item 1b: An effective piece of English writing should include: B. Correct grammar	Between Groups	4.886	7	.698	1.331	.235
	Within Groups	169.870	324	.524		
	Total	174.756	331			
Item 1c: An effective piece of English writing should include: C. Moderate cohesive devices	Between Groups	2.691	7	.384	.720	.655
	Within Groups	172.995	324	.534		
	Total	175.687	331			
Item 1d: An effective piece of English writing should include: D. Varied vocabulary	Between Groups	3.192	7	.456	.803	.585
	Within Groups	183.880	324	.568		
	Total	187.072	331			
Item 1e: An effective piece of English writing should include: E. Relevant content	Between Groups	2.512	7	.359	.858	.540
	Within Groups	135.512	324	.418		
	Total	138.024	331			
Item 2: Good writers are those who know grammar rules well.	Between Groups	14.649	7	2.093	2.273	.028
	Within Groups	298.251	324	.921		
	Total	312.901	331			
Item 3: Good writers have skills of planning before starting writing.	Between Groups	.586	7	.084	.139	.995
	Within Groups	194.933	324	.602		
	Total	195.518	331			
Item 4: Good writing teachers give many assignments to the students.	Between Groups	5.080	7	.726	.845	.551
	Within Groups	278.306	324	.859		
	Total	283.386	331			
Item 5: Good writing teachers are good writers themselves	Between Groups	4.972	7	.710	.813	.577
	Within Groups	283.124	324	.874		

	Total	288.096	331			
Item 6: Model compositions help students to learn how to write.	Between Groups	.802	7	.115	.177	.990
	Within Groups	210.222	324	.649		
	Total	211.024	331			
Item 7: Translating from text in their first language helps students to learn how to write.	Between Groups	8.839	7	1.263	1.090	.369
	Within Groups	375.426	324	1.159		
	Total	384.265	331			
Item 8: Reading helps students to learn how to write.	Between Groups	4.073	7	.582	1.201	.301
	Within Groups	156.927	324	.484		
	Total	161.000	331			
Item 9: The process of re-writing helps students to learn how to write.	Between Groups	.891	7	.127	.231	.978
	Within Groups	178.495	324	.551		
	Total	179.386	331			
Item 10: Process writing helps to build a good writer.	Between Groups	5.803	7	.829	1.496	.168
	Within Groups	179.604	324	.554		
	Total	185.407	331			
Item 11: The best way to improve writing is through writing itself.	Between Groups	1.613	7	.230	.304	.952
	Within Groups	245.447	324	.758		
	Total	247.060	331			
Item 12: Students are more likely to be good writers in English if they are good writers in Chinese.	Between Groups	9.025	7	1.289	1.292	.253
	Within Groups	323.298	324	.998		
	Total	332.322	331			
Item 13: It is better to learn English writing in an English-speaking country.	Between Groups	7.374	7	1.053	1.080	.376
	Within Groups	315.936	324	.975		
	Total	323.310	331			
Item 14: Teachers should correct their students' mistakes in their writing work at the beginning since it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	Between Groups	7.026	7	1.004	1.111	.356
	Within Groups	292.694	324	.903		
	Total	299.720	331			
Item 15: My education experience should	Between Groups	1.752	7	.250	.392	.907

provide me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	Within Groups	206.763	324	.638		
	Total	208.515	331			
Item 16: My education experience has provided me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	Between Groups	7.584	7	1.083	1.271	.264
	Within Groups	276.136	324	.852		
	Total	283.720	331			
Item 17: The university I am working in should provide me with enough support to teach writing.	Between Groups	4.169	7	.596	.786	.599
	Within Groups	245.469	324	.758		
	Total	249.639	331			
Item 18: The university I am working in has provided me with enough support to teach writing.	Between Groups	14.497	7	2.071	2.119	.041
	Within Groups	316.717	324	.978		
	Total	331.214	331			
Item 19: Computers and other new technologies are helpful in teaching students to write well.	Between Groups	5.977	7	.854	1.366	.219
	Within Groups	202.562	324	.625		
	Total	208.539	331			
Item 20a: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: A. Improve critical thinking ability.	Between Groups	3.875	7	.554	1.078	.377
	Within Groups	166.447	324	.514		
	Total	170.322	331			
Item 20b: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: B. Learn how to communicate effectively.	Between Groups	1.765	7	.252	.432	.882
	Within Groups	188.982	324	.583		
	Total	190.747	331			
Item 20c: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: C. Become more creative.	Between Groups	2.304	7	.329	.534	.809
	Within Groups	199.864	324	.617		
	Total	202.169	331			

Item 20d: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: D. Improve grammar.	Between Groups	3.760	7	.537	1.101	.362
	Within Groups	158.032	324	.488		
	Total	161.792	331			
Item 20e: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: E. Gain organizational skills.	Between Groups	2.832	7	.405	.909	.499
	Within Groups	144.132	324	.445		
	Total	146.964	331			
Item 20f: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: F. Learn to read.	Between Groups	3.530	7	.504	1.177	.315
	Within Groups	138.793	324	.428		
	Total	142.322	331			
Item 20g: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: G. Gain a large vocabulary.	Between Groups	3.601	7	.514	1.002	.429
	Within Groups	166.267	324	.513		
	Total	169.867	331			
Item 20h: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: H. Learn to analyse and bring details together.	Between Groups	2.557	7	.365	.779	.605
	Within Groups	151.861	324	.469		
	Total	154.419	331			

Appendix M: Independent Samples *t*-Test Results of Teachers' Cognition Differences by Gender

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Item 1a: An effective piece of English writing should include: A. A clear structure	Equal variances assumed	.031	.861	-.080	320	.936	-.009	.113	-.230	.212
	Equal variances not assumed			-.081	76.801	.936	-.009	.111	-.230	.212
Item 1b: An effective piece of English writing should include: B. Correct grammar	Equal variances assumed	.723	.396	-.269	320	.788	-.029	.109	-.245	.186
	Equal variances not assumed			-.253	71.731	.801	-.029	.117	-.262	.203
Item 1c: An effective piece of English writing should include: C. Moderate cohesive devices	Equal variances assumed	.572	.450	-.229	320	.819	-.025	.109	-.240	.190
	Equal variances not assumed			-.223	74.035	.824	-.025	.112	-.248	.198
Item 1d: An effective piece of English writing should include:	Equal variances assumed	1.368	.243	.046	320	.963	.005	.113	-.218	.228

Item		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
English writing should include: D. Varied vocabulary	Equal variances not assumed			.045	73.558	.964	.005	.117	-.228	.239
Item 1e: An effective piece of	Equal variances assumed	1.181	.278	.034	320	.973	.003	.097	-.188	.194
English writing should include: E. Relevant content	Equal variances not assumed			.040	89.718	.969	.003	.084	-.163	.170
Item 2: Good writers are those who	Equal variances assumed	.281	.596	1.058	320	.291	.153	.145	-.132	.437
know grammar rules well.	Equal variances not assumed			1.009	72.706	.316	.153	.152	-.149	.455
Item 3: Good writers have skills of	Equal variances assumed	1.151	.284	-2.262	320	.024	-.259	.114	-.484	-.034
planning before starting writing.	Equal variances not assumed			-2.084	70.654	.041	-.259	.124	-.507	-.011
Item 4: Good writing teachers give many assignments to the students.	Equal variances assumed	.384	.536	.576	320	.565	.079	.138	-.192	.351
	Equal variances not assumed			.603	79.506	.548	.079	.132	-.183	.342
Item 5: Good writing teachers are	Equal variances assumed	3.291	.071	-.234	320	.815	-.033	.139	-.307	.242
good writers themselves	Equal variances not assumed			-.213	70.073	.832	-.033	.153	-.338	.272
Item 6: Model compositions help students	Equal variances assumed	7.160	.008	.212	320	.833	.026	.121	-.212	.263

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
to learn how to write.	Equal variances not assumed			.180	66.583	.858	.026	.142	-.259	.310
Item 7: Translating from text in their first language helps students to learn how to write.	Equal variances assumed	.054	.816	2.422	320	.016	.385	.159	.072	.698
	Equal variances not assumed			2.589	81.340	.011	.385	.149	.089	.681
Item 8: Reading helps students to learn how to write.	Equal variances assumed	5.269	.022	-.920	320	.358	-.096	.105	-.303	.110
	Equal variances not assumed			-.815	68.564	.418	-.096	.118	-.333	.140
Item 9: The process of re-writing helps students to learn how to write.	Equal variances assumed	.238	.626	-1.095	320	.274	-.121	.110	-.338	.096
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.078	74.788	.285	-.121	.112	-.344	.102
Item 10: Process writing helps to build a good writer.	Equal variances assumed	1.190	.276	-1.363	320	.174	-.153	.112	-.373	.068
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.421	79.200	.159	-.153	.107	-.366	.061
Item 11: The best way to improve writing is through writing itself.	Equal variances assumed	.076	.783	-.845	320	.399	-.109	.129	-.362	.144
	Equal variances not assumed			-.887	79.696	.378	-.109	.122	-.352	.135
Item 12: Students are more likely to	Equal variances assumed	.344	.558	1.654	320	.099	.249	.150	-.047	.545

Item		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
be good writers in English if they are good writers in Chinese.	Equal variances not assumed			1.678	76.940	.097	.249	.148	-.047	.544
Item 13: It is better to learn English writing in an English-speaking country.	Equal variances assumed	.113	.737	-.055	320	.956	-.008	.148	-.299	.283
	Equal variances not assumed			-.056	76.575	.956	-.008	.147	-.300	.284
Item 14: Teachers should correct their students' mistakes in their writing work at the beginning since it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	Equal variances assumed	1.376	.242	.953	320	.341	.137	.143	-.145	.418
	Equal variances not assumed			1.019	81.310	.311	.137	.134	-.130	.403
Item 15: My education experience should provide me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	Equal variances assumed	3.936	.048	1.782	320	.076	.213	.119	-.022	.448
	Equal variances not assumed			1.921	82.125	.058	.213	.111	-.008	.433
Item 16: My education experience has provided me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	Equal variances assumed	2.828	.094	2.212	320	.028	.307	.139	.034	.580
	Equal variances not assumed			2.362	81.273	.021	.307	.130	.048	.566

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Item 17: The university I am working in should provide me with enough support to teach writing.	Equal variances assumed	.071	.791	-1.216	320	.225	-.159	.131	-.416	.098
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.208	75.398	.231	-.159	.131	-.421	.103
Item 18: The university I am working in has provided me with enough support to teach writing.	Equal variances assumed	.341	.560	1.933	320	.054	.288	.149	-.005	.581
	Equal variances not assumed			1.931	75.807	.057	.288	.149	-.009	.585
Item 19: Computers and other new technologies are helpful in teaching students to write well.	Equal variances assumed	.072	.788	-.984	320	.326	-.117	.119	-.352	.117
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.028	79.345	.307	-.117	.114	-.345	.110
Item 20a: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: A. Improve critical thinking ability.	Equal variances assumed	.002	.969	-.762	320	.447	-.081	.107	-.291	.129
	Equal variances not assumed			-.765	76.182	.447	-.081	.106	-.293	.130
Item 20b: In order to teach students to	Equal variances assumed	1.222	.270	.310	320	.757	.035	.114	-.189	.259

Item		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: B. Learn how to communicate effectively.	Equal variances not assumed			.288	71.198	.774	.035	.122	-.209	.279
Item 20c: In order to teach students to	Equal variances assumed	1.973	.161	-.199	320	.843	-.023	.117	-.253	.207
write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: C. Become more creative.	Equal variances not assumed			-.173	67.840	.863	-.023	.134	-.291	.244
Item 20d: In order to teach students to	Equal variances assumed	3.694	.055	-.724	320	.469	-.075	.104	-.280	.129
write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: D. Improve grammar.	Equal variances not assumed			-.653	69.452	.516	-.075	.116	-.306	.155
Item 20e: In order to teach students to	Equal variances assumed	.745	.389	-.815	320	.416	-.081	.099	-.277	.115
write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: E. Gain organizational skills.	Equal variances not assumed			-.863	80.546	.391	-.081	.094	-.268	.106
Item 20f: In order to teach students to	Equal variances assumed	1.122	.290	-2.248	320	.025	-.218	.097	-.410	-.027

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: F. Learn to read.	Equal variances not assumed			-2.093	71.247	.040	-.218	.104	-.427	-.010
Item 20g: In order to teach students to	Equal variances assumed	.483	.488	-.665	320	.507	-.072	.108	-.284	.141
write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: G. Gain a large vocabulary.	Equal variances not assumed			-.669	76.311	.506	-.072	.107	-.285	.142
Item 20h: In order to teach students to	Equal variances assumed	2.618	.107	-.461	320	.645	-.047	.103	-.249	.154
write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: H. Learn to analyse and bring details together.	Equal variances not assumed			-.417	69.659	.678	-.047	.113	-.273	.179

Appendix N: ANOVA Results of Teacher Cognition Differences by Academic Qualification

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Item 1a: An effective piece of English writing should include: A. A clear structure	Between Groups	6.310	6	1.052	1.930	.075
	Within Groups	177.075	325	.545		
	Total	183.386	331			
Item 1b: An effective piece of English writing should include: B. Correct grammar	Between Groups	5.410	6	.902	1.730	.113
	Within Groups	169.346	325	.521		
	Total	174.756	331			
Item 1c: An effective piece of English writing should include: C. Moderate cohesive devices	Between Groups	6.203	6	1.034	1.983	.068
	Within Groups	169.484	325	.521		
	Total	175.687	331			
Item 1d: An effective piece of English writing should include: D. Varied vocabulary	Between Groups	3.006	6	.501	.884	.506
	Within Groups	184.067	325	.566		
	Total	187.072	331			
Item 1e: An effective piece of English writing should include: E. Relevant content	Between Groups	4.575	6	.762	1.857	.088
	Within Groups	133.450	325	.411		
	Total	138.024	331			
Item 2: Good writers are those who know grammar rules well.	Between Groups	3.407	6	.568	.596	.733
	Within Groups	309.494	325	.952		
	Total	312.901	331			
Item 3: Good writers have skills of planning before starting writing.	Between Groups	4.158	6	.693	1.177	.318
	Within Groups	191.360	325	.589		
	Total	195.518	331			
Item 4: Good writing teachers give many assignments to the students.	Between Groups	8.476	6	1.413	1.670	.128
	Within Groups	274.909	325	.846		
	Total	283.386	331			
Item 5: Good writing teachers are good writers themselves	Between Groups	5.042	6	.840	.965	.449
	Within Groups	283.054	325	.871		
	Total	288.096	331			
	Between Groups	2.149	6	.358	.557	.764

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Item 6: Model compositions help students to learn how to write.	Within Groups	208.875	325	.643		
	Total	211.024	331			
Item 7: Translating from text in their first language helps students to learn how to write.	Between Groups	9.316	6	1.553	1.346	.236
	Within Groups	374.949	325	1.154		
	Total	384.265	331			
Item 8: Reading helps students to learn how to write.	Between Groups	8.478	6	1.413	3.011	.007
	Within Groups	152.522	325	.469		
	Total	161.000	331			
Item 9: The process of re-writing helps students to learn how to write.	Between Groups	5.189	6	.865	1.613	.143
	Within Groups	174.197	325	.536		
	Total	179.386	331			
Item 10: Process writing helps to build a good writer.	Between Groups	2.669	6	.445	.791	.577
	Within Groups	182.738	325	.562		
	Total	185.407	331			
Item 11: The best way to improve writing is through writing itself.	Between Groups	2.253	6	.376	.499	.809
	Within Groups	244.807	325	.753		
	Total	247.060	331			
Item 12: Students are more likely to be good writers in English if they are good writers in Chinese.	Between Groups	1.732	6	.289	.284	.944
	Within Groups	330.591	325	1.017		
	Total	332.322	331			
Item 13: It is better to learn English writing in an English-speaking country.	Between Groups	7.169	6	1.195	1.228	.291
	Within Groups	316.141	325	.973		
	Total	323.310	331			
Item 14: Teachers should correct their students' mistakes in their writing work at the beginning since it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	Between Groups	1.136	6	.189	.206	.975
	Within Groups	298.583	325	.919		
	Total	299.720	331			
Item 15: My education experience should provide me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	Between Groups	2.720	6	.453	.716	.637
	Within Groups	205.795	325	.633		
	Total	208.515	331			
Item 16: My education experience has provided	Between Groups	7.366	6	1.228	1.444	.197
	Within Groups	276.354	325	.850		

me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	Total	283.720	331			
Item 17: The university I am working in should provide me with enough support to teach writing.	Between Groups	3.332	6	.555	.733	.624
	Within Groups	246.307	325	.758		
	Total	249.639	331			
Item 18: The university I am working in has provided me with enough support to teach writing.	Between Groups	5.509	6	.918	.916	.483
	Within Groups	325.705	325	1.002		
	Total	331.214	331			
Item 19: Computers and other new technologies are helpful in teaching students to write well.	Between Groups	2.530	6	.422	.665	.678
	Within Groups	206.009	325	.634		
	Total	208.539	331			
Item 20a: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: A. Improve critical thinking ability.	Between Groups	13.443	6	2.241	4.642	.000
	Within Groups	156.879	325	.483		
	Total	170.322	331			
Item 20b: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: B. Learn how to communicate effectively.	Between Groups	4.437	6	.739	1.290	.261
	Within Groups	186.310	325	.573		
	Total	190.747	331			
Item 20c: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: C. Become more creative.	Between Groups	6.970	6	1.162	1.934	.075
	Within Groups	195.199	325	.601		
	Total	202.169	331			
Item 20d: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: D. Improve grammar.	Between Groups	2.604	6	.434	.886	.505
	Within Groups	159.188	325	.490		
	Total	161.792	331			
Item 20e: In order to teach students to write,	Between Groups	6.978	6	1.163	2.700	.014
	Within Groups	139.986	325	.431		

English teachers should focus on helping students to: E. Gain organizational skills.	Total	146.964	331			
Item 20f: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: F. Learn to read.	Between Groups	5.433	6	.905	2.150	.048
	Within Groups	136.890	325	.421		
	Total	142.322	331			
Item 20g: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: G. Gain a large vocabulary.	Between Groups	4.933	6	.822	1.620	.141
	Within Groups	164.935	325	.507		
	Total	169.867	331			
Item 20h: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: H. Learn to analyse and bring details together.	Between Groups	3.591	6	.598	1.290	.261
	Within Groups	150.828	325	.464		
	Total	154.419	331			

Appendix O: Independent Sample *t*-Test Results of Teacher Cognition Differences by Professional Qualifications

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Item 1a: An effective piece of English writing should include: A. A clear structure	Equal variances assumed	15.216	.000	-1.990	330	.047	-.162	.081	-.322	-.002
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.002	272.858	.046	-.162	.081	-.321	-.003
Item 1b: An effective piece of English writing should include: B. Correct grammar	Equal variances assumed	3.147	.077	-.218	330	.827	-.017	.080	-.175	.140
	Equal variances not assumed			-.219	317.472	.827	-.017	.080	-.174	.139
Item 1c: An effective piece of English writing should include: C. Moderate cohesive devices	Equal variances assumed	1.360	.244	-1.017	330	.310	-.081	.080	-.239	.076
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.018	328.132	.309	-.081	.080	-.238	.076
Item 1d: An effective piece of	Equal variances assumed	1.995	.159	-.670	330	.504	-.055	.083	-.218	.107

Item		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
English writing should include: D. Varied vocabulary	Equal variances not assumed			-.671	326.120	.503	-.055	.082	-.218	.107
Item 1e: An effective piece of English writing should include: E. Relevant content	Equal variances assumed	13.064	.000	-2.766	330	.006	-.194	.070	-.332	-.056
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.775	308.175	.006	-.194	.070	-.332	-.056
Item 2: Good writers are those who know grammar rules well.	Equal variances assumed	4.147	.043	-1.042	330	.298	-.111	.107	-.321	.099
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.044	326.402	.297	-.111	.107	-.321	.098
Item 3: Good writers have skills of planning before starting writing.	Equal variances assumed	4.907	.027	-1.114	330	.266	-.094	.084	-.260	.072
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.117	317.317	.265	-.094	.084	-.259	.072
Item 4: Good writing teachers give many assignments to the students.	Equal variances assumed	.456	.500	-.304	330	.761	-.031	.102	-.231	.169
	Equal variances not assumed			-.304	328.991	.761	-.031	.102	-.231	.169
Item 5: Good writing teachers are good writers themselves	Equal variances assumed	.009	.924	-.445	330	.657	-.046	.103	-.247	.156
	Equal variances not assumed			-.445	329.438	.657	-.046	.102	-.247	.156
Item 6: Model compositions help students	Equal variances assumed	1.914	.167	-2.228	330	.027	-.194	.087	-.366	-.023

Item		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
to learn how to write.	Equal variances not assumed			-2.234	316.920	.026	-.194	.087	-.365	-.023
Item 7: Translating from text in their first language helps students to learn how to write.	Equal variances assumed	.017	.895	.392	330	.695	.046	.118	-.187	.279
	Equal variances not assumed			.392	329.349	.695	.046	.118	-.187	.279
Item 8: Reading helps students to learn how to write.	Equal variances assumed	23.673	.000	-2.864	330	.004	-.217	.076	-.366	-.068
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.877	290.497	.004	-.217	.075	-.365	-.069
Item 9: The process of re-writing helps students to learn how to write.	Equal variances assumed	.632	.427	-2.797	330	.005	-.224	.080	-.381	-.066
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.800	328.836	.005	-.224	.080	-.381	-.067
Item 10: Process writing helps to build a good writer.	Equal variances assumed	1.448	.230	-2.459	330	.014	-.200	.082	-.361	-.040
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.460	329.748	.014	-.200	.081	-.361	-.040
Item 11: The best way to improve writing is through writing itself.	Equal variances assumed	.322	.571	-1.053	330	.293	-.100	.095	-.286	.087
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.054	329.477	.293	-.100	.095	-.286	.087
Item 12: Students are more likely to	Equal variances assumed	2.889	.090	-.373	330	.709	-.041	.110	-.258	.176

Item		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
be good writers in English if they are good writers in Chinese.	Equal variances not assumed			-.374	326.487	.709	-.041	.110	-.257	.175
Item 13: It is better to learn English writing in an English-speaking country.	Equal variances assumed	3.729	.054	2.495	330	.013	.269	.108	.057	.480
	Equal variances not assumed			2.491	322.688	.013	.269	.108	.056	.481
Item 14: Teachers should correct their students' mistakes in their writing work at the beginning since it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	Equal variances assumed	1.014	.315	.265	330	.791	.028	.105	-.178	.234
	Equal variances not assumed			.265	328.914	.791	.028	.105	-.178	.233
Item 15: My education experience should provide me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	Equal variances assumed	.787	.376	-.573	330	.567	-.050	.087	-.222	.122
	Equal variances not assumed			-.573	328.427	.567	-.050	.087	-.221	.121
Item 16: My education experience has provided me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	Equal variances assumed	.072	.789	.272	330	.785	.028	.102	-.172	.228
	Equal variances not assumed			.272	329.840	.785	.028	.102	-.172	.228

Item		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Item 17: The university I am working in should provide me with enough support to teach writing.	Equal variances assumed	.002	.964	-1.626	330	.105	-.155	.095	-.342	.032
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.624	326.044	.105	-.155	.095	-.342	.033
Item 18: The university I am working in has provided me with enough support to teach writing.	Equal variances assumed	.248	.619	.346	330	.730	.038	.110	-.178	.254
	Equal variances not assumed			.346	329.771	.729	.038	.110	-.178	.254
Item 19: Computers and other new technologies are helpful in teaching students to write well.	Equal variances assumed	5.129	.024	-.993	330	.321	-.087	.087	-.258	.085
	Equal variances not assumed			-.994	329.111	.321	-.087	.087	-.258	.085
Item 20a: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: A. Improve critical thinking ability.	Equal variances assumed	.105	.747	-.981	330	.327	-.077	.079	-.232	.078
	Equal variances not assumed			-.981	329.938	.327	-.077	.079	-.232	.078
Item 20b: In order to teach students to	Equal variances assumed	.209	.648	.071	330	.943	.006	.083	-.158	.170

Item	Variances	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: B. Learn how to communicate effectively.	Equal variances not assumed			.071	329.153	.943	.006	.083	-.158	.170
Item 20c: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: C. Become more creative.	Equal variances assumed	.022	.881	1.369	330	.172	.117	.086	-.051	.286
	Equal variances not assumed			1.369	328.728	.172	.117	.086	-.051	.286
Item 20d: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: D. Improve grammar.	Equal variances assumed	3.374	.067	.963	330	.336	.074	.077	-.077	.225
	Equal variances not assumed			.964	329.461	.336	.074	.077	-.077	.225
Item 20e: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: E. Gain organizational skills.	Equal variances assumed	.671	.413	-.468	330	.640	-.034	.073	-.178	.110
	Equal variances not assumed			-.468	328.080	.640	-.034	.073	-.178	.110
Item 20f: In order to teach students to	Equal variances assumed	.914	.340	.266	330	.791	.019	.072	-.123	.161

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: F. Learn to read.	Equal variances not assumed			.266	327.608	.790	.019	.072	-.122	.161
Item 20g: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: G. Gain a large vocabulary.	Equal variances assumed	.175	.676	1.791	330	.074	.140	.078	-.014	.295
	Equal variances not assumed			1.791	329.190	.074	.140	.078	-.014	.295
Item 20h: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: H. Learn to analyse and bring details together.	Equal variances assumed	.234	.629	.278	330	.781	.021	.075	-.127	.169
	Equal variances not assumed			.279	330.000	.781	.021	.075	-.127	.169

Appendix P: ANOVA Results of Teacher Cognition Differences by Years of Overseas Experience

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Item 1a: An effective piece of English writing should include: A. A clear structure	Between Groups	2.066	3	.689	1.246	.293
	Within Groups	181.319	328	.553		
	Total	183.386	331			
Item 1b: An effective piece of English writing should include: B. Correct grammar	Between Groups	1.414	3	.471	.892	.445
	Within Groups	173.342	328	.528		
	Total	174.756	331			
Item 1c: An effective piece of English writing should include: C. Moderate cohesive devices	Between Groups	2.450	3	.817	1.546	.202
	Within Groups	173.237	328	.528		
	Total	175.687	331			
Item 1d: An effective piece of English writing should include: D. Varied vocabulary	Between Groups	.199	3	.066	.116	.950
	Within Groups	186.873	328	.570		
	Total	187.072	331			
Item 1e: An effective piece of English writing should include: E. Relevant content	Between Groups	.173	3	.058	.137	.938
	Within Groups	137.851	328	.420		
	Total	138.024	331			
Item 2: Good writers are those who know grammar rules well.	Between Groups	.804	3	.268	.282	.839
	Within Groups	312.097	328	.952		
	Total	312.901	331			
Item 3: Good writers have skills of planning before starting writing.	Between Groups	2.295	3	.765	1.299	.275
	Within Groups	193.223	328	.589		
	Total	195.518	331			
Item 4: Good writing teachers give many assignments to the students.	Between Groups	.957	3	.319	.370	.774
	Within Groups	282.429	328	.861		
	Total	283.386	331			
Item 5: Good writing teachers are good writers themselves	Between Groups	.141	3	.047	.054	.984
	Within Groups	287.955	328	.878		
	Total	288.096	331			
Item 6: Model compositions help	Between Groups	1.801	3	.600	.941	.421
	Within Groups	209.223	328	.638		

students to learn how to write.	Total	211.024	331			
Item 7: Translating from text in their first language helps students to learn how to write.	Between Groups	.296	3	.099	.084	.969
	Within Groups	383.969	328	1.171		
	Total	384.265	331			
Item 8: Reading helps students to learn how to write.	Between Groups	.634	3	.211	.432	.730
	Within Groups	160.366	328	.489		
	Total	161.000	331			
Item 9: The process of re-writing helps students to learn how to write.	Between Groups	1.464	3	.488	.899	.442
	Within Groups	177.922	328	.542		
	Total	179.386	331			
Item 10: Process writing helps to build a good writer.	Between Groups	2.736	3	.912	1.638	.180
	Within Groups	182.670	328	.557		
	Total	185.407	331			
Item 11: The best way to improve writing is through writing itself.	Between Groups	5.439	3	1.813	2.461	.063
	Within Groups	241.621	328	.737		
	Total	247.060	331			
Item 12: Students are more likely to be good writers in English if they are good writers in Chinese.	Between Groups	1.417	3	.472	.468	.705
	Within Groups	330.906	328	1.009		
	Total	332.322	331			
Item 13: It is better to learn English writing in an English-speaking country.	Between Groups	3.787	3	1.262	1.296	.276
	Within Groups	319.523	328	.974		
	Total	323.310	331			
Item 14: Teachers should correct their students' mistakes in their writing work at the beginning since it will be hard to get rid of them later on.	Between Groups	.540	3	.180	.197	.898
	Within Groups	299.180	328	.912		
	Total	299.720	331			
Item 15: My education experience should provide me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	Between Groups	.534	3	.178	.281	.839
	Within Groups	207.981	328	.634		
	Total	208.515	331			
Item 16: My education experience has provided me with enough knowledge to teach writing.	Between Groups	.813	3	.271	.314	.815
	Within Groups	282.907	328	.863		
	Total	283.720	331			

Item 17: The university I am working in should provide me with enough support to teach writing.	Between Groups	4.884	3	1.628	2.182	.090
	Within Groups	244.754	328	.746		
	Total	249.639	331			
Item 18: The university I am working in has provided me with enough support to teach writing.	Between Groups	2.870	3	.957	.956	.414
	Within Groups	328.344	328	1.001		
	Total	331.214	331			
Item 19: Computers and other new technologies are helpful in teaching students to write well.	Between Groups	.618	3	.206	.325	.807
	Within Groups	207.921	328	.634		
	Total	208.539	331			
Item 20a: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: A. Improve critical thinking ability.	Between Groups	3.021	3	1.007	1.974	.118
	Within Groups	167.302	328	.510		
	Total	170.322	331			
Item 20b: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: B. Learn how to communicate effectively.	Between Groups	1.185	3	.395	.684	.563
	Within Groups	189.562	328	.578		
	Total	190.747	331			
Item 20c: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: C. Become more creative.	Between Groups	1.174	3	.391	.638	.591
	Within Groups	200.995	328	.613		
	Total	202.169	331			
Item 20d: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: D. Improve grammar.	Between Groups	.823	3	.274	.559	.642
	Within Groups	160.969	328	.491		
	Total	161.792	331			
Item 20e: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: E. Gain organizational skills.	Between Groups	2.352	3	.784	1.778	.151
	Within Groups	144.612	328	.441		
	Total	146.964	331			

Item 20f: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: F. Learn to read.	Between Groups	.389	3	.130	.300	.826
	Within Groups	141.933	328	.433		
	Total	142.322	331			
Item 20g: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: G. Gain a large vocabulary.	Between Groups	.222	3	.074	.143	.934
	Within Groups	169.646	328	.517		
	Total	169.867	331			
Item 20h: In order to teach students to write, English teachers should focus on helping students to: H. Learn to analyse and bring details together.	Between Groups	1.482	3	.494	1.059	.366
	Within Groups	152.937	328	.466		
	Total	154.419	331			

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