UNDERSTANDING INTENTIONS OF CHINESE ENGLISH
TEACHERS TO IMPLEMENT COMMUNICATIVE
ACTIVITIES IN TEACHING

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UNDERSTANDING INTENTIONS OF CHINESE ENGLISH TEACHERS TO IMPLEMENT COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES IN TEACHING

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Background

Before the adoption of its Open Door Policy in the late 1980s, China was basically closed to the outside world. Since Deng Xiaoping came into power in 1977 and the Open Door Policy was adopted, China has gradually become more open to other countries through diplomacy, trade, scientific research, sports, and other fields. With its entry into the World Trade Organization and its successful bid to hold the 2008 Olympics, China's opening up to the outside world in the past few years has resulted in a much broader focus in all areas of life.

The increasing involvement of the country in world affairs has made it necessary for China to become part of the global English-speaking community. As a result of this challenge, the enthusiasm for English language learning in China has been growing at an astonishing rate (Boyle, 2000).

Successful interactions with other people in the world require more skillful, appropriate, and effective communication skills. Yet, the primary English teaching in Chinese middle schools continues to be teacher-centered, book-centered, grammar-centered with an emphasis on rote
memory (Littlewood, 1999). This teaching methodology cannot meet the need of China’s development, and English education reform is necessary and urgent for China to compete and prosper in the ever-changing world.

In the Chinese educational system, the secondary school is called the middle school. The middle school is divided into junior middle school and senior middle school. There are 3 grade levels in the junior middle school: Junior 1, Junior 2, and Junior 3, which correspond to the first, second, and third year of the junior middle school. The senior middle school also consists of 3 grade levels: Senior 1, Senior 2, and Senior 3, which correspond to the first, second, and third year of the senior middle school.

As the first step toward the English education reform in Chinese middle schools, the Ministry of Education in China issued English Standards for Compulsory Education and Senior Middle Schools (New Standards) in 2001. The New Standards specify that the goal of language teaching is to improve communicative competence of students with focus on language skills, language knowledge, emotional competence, learning strategies, and cultural awareness (Ministry of Education, 2001). To be in harmony with the goal, the New Standards prescribe a communicative language teaching
curriculum, process-focused assessment, and student-centered learning. The New Standards promote a task-based teaching method—students learn how to use the language in the process of fulfilling different tasks and producing their own language rather than copying from texts or repeating after the teacher (Guo, 2003).

The New Standards represent a fundamental departure from the traditional approach in both general educational principles and operational practices of English Language Teaching. The traditional approach of language teaching in China emphasizes phonetics, vocabulary, and grammar. Teaching is the transmission of knowledge through rote learning and the grammar-translation method. The paradigm shift in the curriculum puts extra pressure on the teachers, who not only have to change their own beliefs about language teaching and learning but also must implement the New Standards in the classroom.

There have been some research studies done on teachers’ attitudes towards the fundamental curriculum change and constraints of using communicative teaching approach in China (e.g., Anderson, 1993; Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Penner, 1995; Shih, 1996). However, there is a serious gap in the research which explains factors that are involved in
teachers’ behavioral change as the result of teacher training endeavors. The Theory of Planned Behavior is a theory that examines behavioral intentions and can provide a useful tool and framework through which to analyze the behavioral intentions of teachers to implement or not to implement various classroom behaviors.

**English Language Teaching in China**

English Language Teaching has had a long history in China. Until the early 1990s, the predominant methodology of language teaching had been the traditional methods such as grammar-translation method and audio-lingual method. An official survey guided by the State Education Development Commission showed that 87% of the teachers in China's middle schools used the traditional methods of language teaching in the late 1980s (Liao, 1996).

The traditional methods over-emphasize the importance of grammar and overlook the communicative uses of the language. The grammar-translation method to language teaching was originally used to teach Latin and Greek. Its primary purpose was to enable students to access and appreciate great literature and at the same time to help them understand their native language better by analyzing the grammar and translation (Omaggio, 2001, p. 106).
With the grammar-translation method, classroom teachers focus on accuracy, and students are discouraged from being creative with the language. Therefore, students taught by this method have little ability to speak and understand spoken English (Ng & Tang, 1997). A national survey in 15 provinces and cities made by the State Education Development Commission in 1986 revealed that most of the middle school graduates found it hard to communicate even in simple English after spending 900 hours in the English class (Liu, 1995).

Besides the traditional way of English Language Teaching, the shortage of qualified teachers is another factor in the unsatisfactory results of English Language Teaching in China (Liu, 1995). Many teachers know only some basic English grammar and vocabulary. For many of these teachers who have limited English communicative skills themselves, the traditional way of teaching is the most convenient because they can basically teach English in Chinese (Yu, 2001). Students are given few opportunities for real-life communication, which would require the teachers to be able to answer spontaneous questions about the language and culture as they arise from interactions in the classroom (Liao, 2000).
The introduction of Communicative Language Teaching into Chinese middle schools has been happening gradually. Communicative Language Teaching is a functional approach that promotes communication and real-life tasks. In 1992, the State Education Development Commission, which was the official authority for setting educational policies then, introduced a functional syllabus in which the communicative teaching aim was set and the communicative functions to be taught were listed. In 2001, the Ministry of Education issued another new syllabus for English education, *English Standards for Compulsory Education and Senior Middle Schools* (New Standards). The New Standards set the goal of language learning as using the language in real life. It specifies that the teaching approach be student-centered and task-based; all four skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking be emphasized; learning strategies and cultural awareness be integrated in teaching; and English teaching and learning be adapted to real life and the needs of social development (Ministry of Education, 2001).

The intended shift from a teacher-centered, textbook-centered, and grammar-centered traditional English teaching method to a more student-centered and communicative-based syllabus represents a paradigm shift. In a paradigm shift
like this, teacher training programs play a crucial part in communicating the ideas behind the new curriculum and the consequent changes required in teaching methods and materials.

**Communicative Language Teaching**

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a “push toward communication” (Higgs & Clifford, 1982, p. 57). It focuses on all of the components of communicative competence. Communicative competence is the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers and to make meaning as distinct from their ability to perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge (Savignon, 1991, p. 264). Hymes (1971) was among the first to discuss the idea of communicative competence, and Canal and Swain (1980) considered its implications for language teaching. Since then, CLT has achieved prominence. Educators and scholars (e.g., Brown, 1994; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Savignon, 1983; Savignon & Berns, 1984, 1997) advanced CLT by exploring the nature of language learning and pedagogical means for real-life communication in the classroom. Professionals are trying to get learners to develop linguistic fluency and not just the accuracy that “so consumed much of our historical journey in language
Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is described as an approach rather than a method since it is defined in rather broad terms and represents a philosophy of teaching that is based on communicative language use (Omaggio, 2001, p. 116). There has been a wide range of principles that feature CLT. Some of these principles are contextualization principles that emphasizes meaning, communication principles that encourage learners to communicate with the language, and communicative competence where fluency is the goal of instruction and accuracy is judged in context (Omaggio, 2001, p. 117). The kinds of classroom activities that would be representative of CLT are games, information sharing activities, task-based activities, social interactions, and functional communication practice (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

Although CLT does not claim a particular theory of language learning as its basis, there are several theoretical principles that underlie the use of this approach:

- **The communication principle**: Activities that involve communication promote language learning.
- **The task principle**: Activities that involve the completion of real-world tasks promote
learning.

- The meaningfulness principle: Learners must be engaged in meaningful and authentic language use for learning to take place. (Richards & Rodgers 1986, p. 72)

CLT is not a fixed set of methodological procedures; rather, it represents a repertoire of teaching ideas. It is therefore not easily defined or evaluated (Omaggio, 2001).

In order to promote Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in China, in-service teacher training is necessary. The goals of such training should be to help teachers understand the principles of CLT, to demonstrate a variety of communicative activities that are applicable in participants' home setting, and most importantly to make change happen in teachers' classroom practice.

Change in Education

Educational change is “not how many new policies have been approved or how many restructuring efforts are being undertaken, but rather what has actually changed in practice, if anything, as a result of our efforts” (Fullan, 1991, p. xi). Educational change is a very complex matter. “The challenge of reform is not simply to master the implementation of single innovations” (p. 29). Innovation is multidimensional. Fullan suggests there are at least three components or dimensions at stake in implementing any new
program or policy: (a) the possible use of new or revised materials, (b) the possible use of new teaching approaches, and (c) the possible alteration of beliefs (p. 37). In order for any educational change to affect the outcome, it has to occur in practice along these three dimensions.

All the three dimensions of potential change exist in the curriculum change for English Language Teaching in China. The paradigm shift from the traditional pedagogical beliefs and teaching approaches to the new pedagogical beliefs and teaching approaches is evident in the following passage in the introduction of the New Standards:

The focus of the curriculum reform is to depart from the traditional way of teaching, which puts too much attention on the transmission of grammar and vocabulary knowledge, but neglects students’ development of actual language use. The reform emphasizes students’ interests, life experience, and cognitive level; promotes experience, use, participation, cooperation, and communication; and recommends task-based teaching approach. The goal is to develop students’ integrated communicative competence, increase their language learning motivation, help them to initiate thinking and language use, and improve inter-cultural awareness and self-study strategies. (Ministry of Education, 2001, p. 1)

The teaching approach specified by the New Standards is a student-centered, task-based teaching approach. Along with the paradigm shift of pedagogical beliefs and teaching approaches comes the new set of teaching materials: English
Textbook for Full Time Senior Middle School Students (Jacques & Liu, 2003). This set of new textbooks are based on the New Standards and aim to develop the integrated communicative competence of the students. These new materials include activities such as warming up, listening and speaking activities, pre- and post-reading activities, activities for integrated skills, pair and group work, role play, and games. Grammar and other language exercises are also included. The new materials require much more from the teachers than the traditional grammar-based materials. The teachers need to have high communicative competence themselves and adequate training in conducting classes using communicative teaching techniques.

As change becomes more complex and more removed from teachers’ existing practices, the need to provide training and time for teachers becomes greater if they are to adopt the change (Carless, 1999). A number of international links have assisted the development of English teaching in China (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). The English language teacher training programs led by teams of foreign and Chinese teachers have helped to raise the language proficiency and to improve the teaching skills of many teachers, especially those who work in the poorer provinces and more remote
regions (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). However, there have also been problems with participants’ lack of motivation and involvement (Shih, 1996). Teachers often see few benefits in using the new materials and methods, and to them it means extra work with more planning and extra challenges with new materials and methods. Those teachers who are motivated to implement the change often become discouraged when obstacles arise (Kennedy, 1999). Lin (1993) summarizes the situation as follows:

Reform efforts have set high and diverse expectations for teachers by requiring them to learn more about their subject areas, to use texts that are becoming more and more difficult, and to use new methods in teaching. Yet, lack of motivation and lack of help result in very little change in the classroom. Accordingly, the traditional way of teaching dominates. (p.53)

Many writers on curriculum change have linked attitudes and behavior in a cause-effect relationship (e.g., Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992, p. 7; Yong & Lee, 1984, p. 184). They suggest that teachers’ attitude on change plays a crucial role without which no significant change can take place. Others connect the lack of change to the low status of teachers. “Until the teacher’s status becomes substantially higher in society, there will be little hope for all-round fundamental changes in China’s teacher
education” (Du, 1990, p. 266).

Theory of Reasoned Action

As a result of the developments in social psychology, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) explored ways to predict behaviors. They assumed that individuals are usually quite rational and make systematic use of information available to them. People consider the implications of their actions before they decide to engage or not engage in a given behavior (p. 5). Therefore, Ajzen and Fishbein developed a theory that could predict and explain behavior that is largely under a person's volitional control (Ajzen, 1985). Volitional control is the actual willful control over the behavior. For example, participation in a continuing education program would be a behavior under volitional control. Those who want to participate in the program should be able to do so if they desire.

The theory, which has become known as the Theory of Reasoned Action, looks at behavioral intentions as the main predictors of behaviors. The theory postulates that a person's intention to perform or not to perform a behavior is the immediate determinant of that action (Ajzen, 1985, p. 12). The individual's intention to perform a behavior is a combination of attitude toward performing the behavior and
one’s subjective norm. The subjective norm is the person's perception of the social pressures to perform or not perform the behavior in question.

The individual's attitude toward the behavior includes behavioral beliefs and evaluations of behavioral outcome. For example, a woman who decides to participate in a continuing education program believes that doing so will get her a promotion on her job (behavioral belief), and the promotion is highly desired (evaluation of outcome). The subjective norm includes normative beliefs and the motivation to comply. For example, the woman is enrolled in the continuing education program because she believes her husband, her children, and her boss think she should enroll (normative belief), and she wants to do what they think she should do (motivation to comply).

According to the Theory of Reasoned Action, people's intention to try to do something depends on their attitude and subjective norm. If they perceive that the outcome from performing a behavior is positive, they will have a positive attitude toward performing that behavior. The opposite holds true if the behavior is thought to be negative. If the important others see performing the behavior as positive and if the individual is motivated to meet the expectations of
the important others, then a positive subjective norm is expected. If the important others see the behavior as negative and if the individual wants to meet the expectations of these others, then the experience is likely to be a negative subjective norm for the individual (Ajzen, 1985, p. 14). The more favorable people's attitudes toward trying to perform a behavior are and the more they believe that important others think they should try, the stronger their intention to try becomes (p. 31).

**Theory of Planned Behavior**

The Theory of Planned Behavior, which is based on the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), looks at the relationship among behavior, behavioral intention, attitude toward the behavior, social support of important others, and perceived behavioral control. TRA works most successfully when applied to behaviors that are under a person's volitional control. However, TRA was found to be insufficient in explaining behavioral intention when people perceived that control over the behavior was incomplete. When people did not believe they possessed the required abilities, resources, or opportunities to engage in the behavior, TRA proved to be an unacceptable model for understanding and predicting behavior (Ajzen, 1985). Therefore, Ajzen (1985) proposed the Theory
of Planned Behavior as an extension to TRA to account for the performance of behaviors that are not completely under volitional control.

In addition to attitude and subjective norm, the third construct of perceived behavioral control was added to the model. Perceived behavioral control is "the person's belief as to how easy or difficult performance of the behavior is likely to be" (Ajzen & Madden, 1986, p. 457). If a person holds strong control beliefs about the existence of factors that will facilitate a behavior, then the individual will have high perceived control over a behavior. Conversely, the person will have a low perception of control if that person holds strong control beliefs that impede the behavior.

Ajzen and his colleagues argued that perceived behavioral control will influence both behavioral intention and behavior. Perceived behavioral control has the greatest influence on both behavioral intention and behavior when perceived control over the behavior is low (Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992).

The Theory of Reasoned Action represents a special case of the Theory of Planned Behavior. The two theories are identical when the perceived control over internal and external factors reach the maximum. When this happens, the
volitional behavior of the Theory of Reasoned Action can be applied. When the perceived and actual control over internal and external factors are not complete, the Theory of Planned Behavior should be applied.

**Teacher Training in China**

A major challenge facing China's English Language Teaching today is that China needs more and more young people who can communicate successfully with the English speaking world. There has been a craze for learning English across China especially since the national capital of Beijing won its bid to hold the 2008 Olympic Games and since the country was admitted into the World Trade Organization (“English Fever”, 2001). The importance of English Language Teaching has never before been so evident as it is today. It is believed that the teacher holds the key to student learning. However, the traditional way of language teaching where teachers focus on grammar and structure cannot meet the new challenge. With the traditional approach, students become almost "structurally competent but communicatively incompetent" (Johnson & Morrow, 1981, p. 1). Therefore, there is a need in training teachers in the approach that they can use to teach students to effectively communicate in English. Effective teacher development programs can help
meet the national goal and is of immediate and profound importance for the future of young people and the country.

Many agencies including the Ministry of Education, teachers' colleges, and English Language Teaching publishers have been involved in organizing training programs. However, questions remain about how to develop teacher training programs most effectively (Wu, 2001).

Workshop

The Communicative Activities Workshop was designed by the researcher and was conducted for a total number of 103 Chinese middle school English teachers in February 2004. During the workshop, 11 communicative activities were demonstrated to the teachers. A brief introduction of Communicative Language Teaching was also included.

Communicative activities are activities that aim to replicate the processes of communication. In real life communication, three such processes are information gap, choice, and feedback (Morrow, 1981). Activities that require learners to fill an information gap, give learners choice as to what to say and how to say it, and provide feedback from the audience help learners to learn how to use the language more effectively.

The 11 communicative activities were chosen for several
reasons. First, the teachers had an existing curriculum and had to cover the content areas specified in the curriculum. Therefore, short 10-minute activities were chosen that could be implemented without taking too much class time. Second, teachers would be more likely to implement activities that complement their existing teaching materials, so activities were designed using content materials from the English textbook which was being used by the participants. Third, because of the large class size common in Chinese middle schools, activities chosen are those that can be conducted without too much physical movement of the students. Finally, activities chosen were those that the designer of the workshop had used in teaching and had good experience using them in the classroom setting.

Participant Observer

The researcher of this study played several roles in conducting the research. I designed and conducted the Communicative Activities Workshop, developed the Behavioral Intention Questionnaire, collected data using the questionnaire, and interviewed the participants informally during the workshop and later through e-mail and telephone.

The most important role I played in the study was as a participant observer. In participant observation,
researchers actually participate in the situation or setting they are observing (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). Starting as a language learner, I learned English in China from middle school to college in the typical traditional way of learning English, that is, memorizing vocabulary words, learning to pronounce each word accurately, analyzing grammatical structures, and reciting passages by heart. I was given few opportunities to use the language, and as a consequence, could not communicate effectively even after graduating from college as an English major.

After graduating from college, I started teaching English in the same way I was taught. I did my best in the only way I knew how, that is by explaining grammatical structures explicitly, making sure each word was pronounced correctly, and making sure the students had a good grasp of vocabulary and grammar. Few opportunities were given to the students to use the language communicatively. The consequence of this teaching method was that the students might know a lot about the language but they did not know how to use it to communicate.

I came to the United States in 1991 and enrolled in a master’s program Teaching English as a Second Language. It was then that I learned Western theories and methodologies
about language teaching. At the same time I started teaching English to international students at an intensive English program, where I applied what I had learned from the graduate school to teaching. My main teaching approach has been communicative teaching approach although different methods were used according to the students, materials, and tasks. In my teaching, emphasis is placed on meaning and whole tasks rather than on structures and isolated skills. The students can communicate much more effectively than their Chinese counterparts though they might not know as much about English as their Chinese counterparts.

As a researcher, I have participated in the same situation and setting as the participants I observed. I know their concepts and beliefs about language teaching, their tasks as teachers, and the responsibility they feel as teachers. My experience in using both the traditional language teaching approach and the communicative teaching approach gives me a deeper insight into the cultural factors relating to the two approaches.

**Problem Statement**

The key to an effective training program is how much the knowledge from the training affects practice (Houle, 1980, p. 8). Research needs to be done to identify factors
that influence intentions to implement or not implement the knowledge. However, there is a major gap in the literature on identifying the factors that influence Chinese English teachers' intention to implement the communicative teaching approach. Most of the studies done concerning the communicative teaching approach in China have generated a myriad of attitudes, beliefs, and factors associated with communicative teaching in China (e.g., Anderson, 1993; Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Hird, 1995; Liao, 2000, 2001; Rao, 2002). However, the diverse research findings failed to build a cumulative body of knowledge for lack of a sound methodology framework. Such a framework is needed to help integrate the diverse research findings and to provide explanation of using communicative activities in teaching English. As Cumming argues:

The greatest gap now confronting foreign language educators in China appears to be the absence of applied research to inform program decision-making.... The result is that there is virtually no empirical data now available to assess which innovations have been effective or ineffective, to guide future developments with confidence, or even to support theorizing which might justify current practices. (Cumming, 1987, p. 216)

The Theory of Planned Behavior is a useful tool to identify the specific factors that determine the implementation of communicative activities of the teachers.
The utility of the theory lies in its specificity. The specificity is defined by four components--action, target, context, and time. In this study, the action is using communicative activities in teaching, the target of the action is middle school students, the context is teaching English in China, and the time frame is the spring semester of 2004.

**Purpose**

The purpose of this study was (a) to describe factors that influence middle school English teachers’ intention to implement communicative activities in their classroom in China and (b) to describe their actual implementation of the activities. Because of the potential of the Theory of Planned Behavior for increasing the field's understanding of implementing communicative activities in the classroom, this study utilized the Theory of Planned Behavior as a tool to explain intentions of teachers to use or not to use communicative activities in the classroom.

After communicative activities were presented to the participants at the Communicative Activities Workshop, the study investigated three determinants of teachers' behavioral intentions set forth in the Theory of Planned Behavior. They were attitudes toward the behavior,
subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. More specifically, the study sought to describe teachers' intentions to use or not to use the communicative activities in their classroom in the spring semester of 2004, and then examine their actual behavior one month following the workshop.

**Research Questions**

The research questions which were addressed in this study were:

1. What are participants’ (a) Behavioral Intention, (b) Direct Measure of Attitude towards the behavior, (c) Indirect Measure of Attitude towards the behavior, (d) Direct Measure of Subjective Norm, (e) Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm, (f) Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control, and (g) Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control?

2. What is the relative contribution of each of the predictor variables of attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control to the prediction of behavioral intention?

3. Which salient beliefs within each of the variables of attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control contribute most to the formation of the variables?

4. What is the effectiveness of the Communicative Activities Workshop?
5. What is the actual implementation of the communicative activities by the participants?

Several data analysis procedures were used to answer the 5 research questions. Table 1 shows the data source and analysis for each research question.

Table 1: Data Source and Analysis for Research Questions

<table>
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<th>Questions</th>
<th>Data Source</th>
<th>Data Analysis</th>
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<td>pre- and post-BIQ</td>
<td>frequencies of scales</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>post-BIQ, participant observation</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Follow-Up Survey, qualitative data</td>
<td>frequency count, analysis of qualitative data</td>
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Definition of Terms

Attitude: A person's evaluation of any psychological object (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p.27).

Audio-lingual Methodology: Considered a "scientific" approach to language teaching. Its behaviorist methodology emphasizes repetition drills, transformation drills and application activities where guided oral presentation requires students to memorize expressions. (Omaggio, 2001, p.111).

Behavioral Intention: A measure of the likelihood that an individual will engage in a given behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980, p.42).
Behavioral Intention Questionnaire (BIQ): A 64-item survey that aims to examine participants’ intention to implement the communicative activities presented at the Communicative Activities Workshop. BIQ was administered twice: pre-workshop BIQ and post-workshop BIQ.

Communicative activities: Activities that learners are engaged in where their main purpose is to communicate meanings effectively (Littlewood, 1981).

Communicative Activities Workshop: A five-hour teacher training workshop where communicative activities were demonstrated to middle school English teachers in China. It was designed and conducted by the researcher of the study as a source for data collection for the study.

Communicative Language Teaching: A functional approach to language teaching. Teaching consists of activities that promote communication and real-life tasks. The goal of instruction is fluency and acceptable language use. (Omaggio, 2001, p.116).

Direct Measure of Attitude: Measurement of attitude using broad, encompassing items. The measure targets a response to the entire variable of attitude.

Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control: Measurement of perceived behavioral control using broad, encompassing items. The measure targets a response to the entire variable of perceived behavioral control.

Direct Measure of Subjective Norm: Measurement of subjective norm using broad, encompassing items. The measure targets a response to the entire variable of subjective norm.

Effectiveness of the Communicative Activities Workshop: It is measured by comparing the means of BIQ scales between the pre- and post-workshop BIQ’s. An increase of scores will indicate that the workshop is effective.

English Language Teaching: The process of teaching English in a school setting in a non-English speaking country.
Follow-Up Survey: A survey designed to examine the actual implementation of the communicative activities in participants’ teaching. It was conducted 1 month after the workshop.

Implementation of the communicative activities: The implementation of any activities as presented at the Communicative Activities Workshop by the teachers in the classroom during the spring semester of 2004.

Indirect Measure of Attitude: A measurement of attitude obtained through calculation of behavioral beliefs and evaluation of the outcome.

Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm: A measurement of subjective norm obtained through calculation of normative beliefs and motivation to comply.

Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control: A measurement of perceived behavioral control obtained through calculation of control beliefs and likelihood of occurrence of the event.

Grammar Translation Method: A language teaching method that focuses on the grammar structure rather than communication. Translation from the target language and vice versa is a major method for reaching comprehension.

Perceived Behavioral Control: A person's belief as to how easy or difficult performance of a behavior will be (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1986, p. 457).

Qualitative Data: Data collected through informal interviews, e-mail exchanges, and telephone conversations with the participants of the workshop.

Salient Beliefs: The number of beliefs that a person may hold about any given object at any given time. The number is considered to be small, perhaps five to nine. (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980, p.63).

Subjective Norm: A person's perception of the social pressures that influence the decision to engage in a behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980, p. 6).
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Communicative Competence

The language teaching in the middle part of the twentieth century was marked by emphasis on the teaching of structure rather than language use (Brumfit, 1979, p. 1). The language teachers’ emphasis on structure during that period of time was parallel to a similar emphasis in linguistics. Structurists such as Bloomfield restricted their concern to the study of form, without reference to meaning. Linguistics was almost exclusively the study of structure (p. 2).

In the late fifties, Chomsky and his Syntactic Structures marked the beginning of transformational generative grammar (Brumfit, 1979, p. 2). The main concern of the theory of transformational generative grammar is to provide systems of rules for “expressing indefinitely many thoughts and for reacting appropriately in an indefinite range of new situations” rather than merely to describe the structural possibilities by means of lists (Chomsky, 1965, p. 6). Since his initial transformational generative grammar theory, Chomsky has moved a great deal away from his original position as is shown in his Government and Binding
Chomsky’s original theory has been modified radically in his later work, the language teaching in China draws mainly from his transformational generative grammar.

This emphasis on mastery of structure in both linguistics and language teaching in the late fifties brought about a reaction against the view of language as a set of structures. The new reaction is a view of language as communication in which the use of language is a central part (Brumfit, 1979, p. 3). A very powerful and clear expression of disagreement with the transformation view of linguistics is found in Hymes’ paper “On Communicative Competence”. Hymes claims in this paper that Chomsky’s transformational generative grammar theory did not account sufficiently for the social-cultural and functional rules of language (Hymes, 1972, p. 271).

Hymes’ paper discusses the two concepts central to Chomsky’s generative grammar: the concepts of “competence” and “performance”. For Chomsky, competence is “the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of his language” (Chomsky, 1965, p. 4), which is the prime concern of linguistic theory. It distinguishes itself from “performance”, which is seen as “the actual use of language in concrete situations” (p. 4).
As Chomsky says:

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

In Chomsky’s generative grammar theory, performance is an incomplete and imperfect reflection of the ideal speaker-listener’s competence, and “fairly degenerate in quality” (p. 31). Therefore, performance is of little relevance to the linguistic theory. “A record of natural speech will show numerous false starts, deviations from rules, changes of plan in mid-course, and so on” (p. 31). Hymes (1972) argues in his paper against this major characteristic of generative grammar: “It takes structure as a primary end in itself, and tends to depreciate use.” (p. 272).

In Chomsky’s generative grammar, competence simply means knowledge of the language system—grammatical knowledge. For Hymes, the term competence is a far more general concept than is found in Chomsky’s generative grammar. Hymes (1972) used the term communicative competence in contrast to Chomsky’s competence and claims there are “several sectors of communicative competence, of which the
grammatical is one” (Hymes, 1972, p. 281). He says in the paper that communicative competence is:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails. (p. 281)

This broader notion of communicative competence incorporated sociolinguistic and contextual competence as well as grammatical competence.

During the 1970s, linguists and researchers began to refer to communicative competence as a notion that was distinct from grammatical or linguistic competence. As Canale and Swain (1980) point out, there was some diversity in the literature about whether or not the notion communicative competence included that of grammatical (or linguistic) competence used to refer to the rules of grammar:

It is common to find the term “communicative competence” used to refer exclusively to knowledge or capability relating to the rules of language use and the term “grammatical (or linguistic) competence” used to refer to the rules of grammar.... It is equally common to find these
terms used in the manner in which Hymes (1972) and Campbell and Wales (1970) use them. (p. 5)

Perhaps one of the best known studies involving the concept of communicative competence in the early 1970s was done by Savignon (1972) at the University of Illinois (Ommagio, 2000, p. 4). In that study, Savignon did incorporate linguistic competence as one of its components.

Communicative competence may be defined as the ability to function in a truly communicative setting— that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors. (p. 8)

Savignon went on to point out that success in communication depends largely on the person’s willingness to express themselves by making use of their knowledge of vocabulary and structure (p. 8).

In Savignon’s later work (1983), she defines the development of learners’ communicative competence as “a dynamic..., interpersonal...trait” (p. 8) that is “a continuous process of expression, interpretation, and negotiation” (p. 8) of meaning between two or more persons who share in some degree the same symbolic systems. She sees communicative competence as applying to both written and spoken language, as well as to many other symbolic systems
Savignon (1983) distinguishes, as Chomsky does, between competence and performance with competence being “defined as a presumed underlying ability and performance as the overt manifestation of that ability” (p. 9). “Competence is what one knows. Performance is what one does. Only performance is observable, however, and it is only through performance that competence can be developed, maintained, and evaluated” (p. 9). Because Savignon sees communicative competence as a “relative, not absolute” trait and because it “depends on the cooperation of all the participants involved”, she adds that one should speak in terms of “degrees of communicative competence” (p. 9).

Widdowson’s (1978) distinctions between usage and use and between text and discourse provide an understanding of what “knowing” a language might involve. It clearly involves much more than the ability to speak, hear, read, and write correct sentences. In Widdowson’s distinction between usage and use, usage is words and sentences as manifestations of the knowledge of language system, and use is realization of the language system as meaningful communicative behavior. Knowing the correct usage of the language is of little utility without implementation of knowledge of appropriate
use. “It is possible for someone to have learned a large number of sentence patterns and a large number of words which can fit into them without knowing how they are actually put to communicative use” (Widdowson, 1978, p. 18).

According to Widdowson (1978), whether a text has illocutionary communicative value or not is determined by coherence in discourse. There is a distinction between cohesion and coherence in discourse.

Cohesion has to do with the way propositions are linked together by a variety of structural operations to form texts. Coherence has to do with the illocutionary function of these propositions, with how they are used to create different kinds of discourse. (p. 52)

Hymes (1972) draws attention to the social dimension of communicative competence as against Chomsky’s notion of competence, which only concerns the knowledge of grammar. Hymes claims “There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless” (p. 278). Widdowson’s work is an extension of Hymes’s work in that it provides for the nature of such rules. “Discourse might indicate the nature of such rules, which give us some clues as to how we might approach teaching them” (Widdowson, 1973, p. 50).

Seminal work on defining communicative competence was carried out by Canale and Swain (1980), which has been
referred to by virtually all discussions of communicative competence in relation to second language teaching (Brown, 2000, p. 246). Drawing on the work of many scholars, including Hymes (1972), Savignon (1972), and Widdowson (1978), Canale and Swain identify four different components which make up the content of communicative competence: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence refers to the degree to which the language user has mastered the linguistic code. This indicates “knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 29).

Sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge of the sociocultural rules of language and of discourse. This type of competence requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction. Only in a full context of this kind can judgments be made on the appropriateness of a particular utterance. (Savignon, 1983, p. 37)

Discourse competence involves the ability to combine ideas to achieve cohesion in form and coherence in thought of groups of utterances. “The notion of cohesion refers to
the way sentences and parts of sentences combine so as to ensure that there is propositional development” (Widdowson, 1978, p. 26). “Where we recognize that there is a relationship between the illocutionary acts” which appear not to be cohesive, coherence of the discourse comes into play (p. 29).

Strategic competence, the final component of the framework, involves the use of “verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or due to insufficient competence” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 30). Savignon (1983) explains this competence more specifically as “the strategies that one uses to compensate for imperfect knowledge of rules—or limiting factors in their application such as fatigue, distraction, and inattention” (p. 40). Students at lower levels of language proficiency can benefit from learning effective communication strategies such as paraphrasing, using gestures, and asking others to repeat or to speak more slowly (Omagio, 2000, p. 7).

Strategic competence is described by Canale and Swain (1980) as providing a compensatory function when the linguistic competence of the language users is inadequate.
Canale (1983) later extended this definition of strategic competence to include both the compensatory characteristic of communication strategies and the enhancement characteristic of production strategies. Strategic competence is “mastery of verbal and nonverbal strategies both (a) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence or to performance limitations and (b) to enhance the rhetorical effect of utterances” (Canal 1983, p. 339).

Canale and Swain’s (1980) model of communicative competence has undergone modifications over the years. These newer views are perhaps best captured in Lyle Bachman’s (1990) model for a theoretical framework of Communicative Language Ability. His framework consists of three major components: (a) language competence, (b) strategic competence, and (c) psychophysiological mechanisms.

Bachman (1990) identifies the first component—language competence—as “knowledge of language” (p. 85), which is built on other frameworks of communicative competence such as those described by Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980), and Canale (1983). In Bachman’s description of language competence, two major types of abilities are included: organizational competence and pragmatic competence. He
places grammatical and discourse (renamed “textual”) competence under organizational competence, which are all the rules that dictate what people can do with the forms of language (grammar) and rules that govern how they string sentences together (discourse). Canale and Swain’s sociolinguistic competence is now broken down into two separate pragmatic categories: the functional use of language (illocutionary competence) and sociolinguistic aspects, which deals with the appropriateness of language use to the social context (sociolinguistic competence). Bachman’s framework gives researchers and language teachers a promising alternative for looking at communicative language ability and for addressing the question: What does it mean to know a language? (Ommagio, 2000, p. 8)

Communicative competence is such a complicated theory that involves not only linguistic features but also psychological and sociocultural features. However, the notion of communicative competence is becoming more and more clear through the various definitions and redefinitions from Hymes (1972) to Bachman (1990).

Communicative Language Teaching

Methods vs. Approaches

Edward Anthony (1963) described three levels of terms:
(a) approach, which is a set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language, learning, and teaching; (b) method, which is an overall plan for systematic presentation of language based upon a selected approach; and (c) techniques, which are the specific activities manifested in the classroom and which are consistent with a method and therefore in harmony with an approach as well (Anthony, 1963, p. 63).

There has been confusion related to defining these terms in the field. However, in the pedagogical literature in the field today, Anthony’s original terms are retained but with important additions and refinements. Brown (2000) summarized a set of definitions that reflect the current usage.

- **Methodology**: The study of pedagogical practices in general. The major considerations are involved in how to teach.
- **Approach**: Theoretical principles and beliefs about the nature of language, the nature of language learning, and the applicability of both to pedagogical settings.
- **Method**: A generalized set of classroom practices for accomplishing linguistic objectives. Methods are primarily concerned with teacher and student roles. They are also concerned with teaching objectives, sequencing, and materials. They are thought of as being generalizable across a variety of audiences in a variety of contexts.
- **Curriculum/Syllabus**: Designs for carrying out a particular language program.
Technique: Any of a wide variety of exercises, activities used in different contexts for realizing teaching/learning objectives. (p. 171)

Throughout the twentieth century, the language teaching profession was involved in a search for “methods” or “ideally, a single method, generalizable across widely varying audiences, that would successfully teach students a foreign language in the classroom” (Brown, 2000, p. 169). Therefore, in the history of language teaching, there are a succession of methods such as the Direct Method, Grammar Translation Method, the Audio-lingual Method, Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response, and others. Each of these methods has been more or less discarded in due course as a new method takes its place (p. 169).

Most of the methods which were popular in the field one time or the other take as their primary goal enabling students to communicate using the target language by emphasizing the learning of linguistic structures or vocabulary. In the later part of the twentieth century, the search in the language teaching profession has had a paradigm shift from the search for the “best” method to the search for “an enlightened, dynamic approach to language teaching” (Brown, 2000, p. 169) characterized by
communicative, interactive techniques. The search is best captured by Communicative Language Teaching. To truly understand Communicative Language Teaching, one needs to know two of the most popular traditional English teaching methods: the grammar-translation method and Audio-lingual Method.

Grammar-Translation Method

The grammar-translation method has been used by language teachers for many years. It was first used in the teaching of the classical languages, Latin and Greek. Latin was taught by focusing on grammatical rules, memorization of vocabulary, and translation of texts. It was later used to help students read and appreciate foreign language literature (Ommagio, 2001). The major characteristics of the grammar-translation method are:

- Grammar is taught deductively, and vocabulary is learned by memorizing bilingual lists isolated from contexts.
- Students translate passages from one language to the other.
- Comprehension of the rules and reading is tested through translation. The native and target language are constantly compared, using a dictionary if necessary.
- There were few opportunities for listening and speaking practice. Much of the class time is devoted to talking about the language instead of talking in the language. (Chastain, 1976, p. 103)
Grammar Translation has been “stalwart among many competing models” (Brown, 2000, p. 16). It has little or no theoretical basis, and it does virtually nothing to enhance a student’s communicative ability in the language (p. 16). However, it is not hard to understand its popularity over the years. It requires few special skills on the teacher’s part. For a non-native speaking teacher who is not very proficient in the second language to teach effectively, grammar explanations and exercises are not hard to deal with. Discrete grammar tests are easy to construct and can be objectively scored.

Audio-Lingual Method

In the middle of the 20th century, the combination of structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology resulted in a new language learning theory which described the process of learning in terms of conditioning (Omaggio, 2001, p. 110). The Audiolingual Method (ALM) was grounded in this new learning theory. Lado (1964) proposed the following “empirical laws of learning” as the basis for ALM:

1. The fundamental law of contiguity: when two experiences have occurred together, the return of one will recall or reinstate the other.
2. The law of exercise: the more frequently a response is practiced, the better it is learned and the longer it is remembered.
3. The law of intensity: the more intensely a response is practiced, the better it is learned and the longer it will be remembered.
4. The law of assimilation: each new stimulating condition tends to elicit the same response which has been connected with similar stimulating conditions in the past.
5. The law of effect: when a response is accompanied or followed by a satisfying state of affairs, that response is reinforced. When a response is accompanied by an annoying state of affairs, it is avoided. (p. 37)

Rivers (1981) clarifies the major characteristics of ALM by listing Moulton’s (1961) “five slogans” of the method:

1. Language is speech, not writing.
2. A language is a set of habits.
3. Teach the language and not about the language.
4. A language is what native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say.
5. Languages are different (Moulton, 1961, cited in Rivers, 1981, pp. 41-43).

ALM language teaching consists of three basic parts: (1) the dialogue, (2) pattern drills, and (3) application activities (Omaggio, 2001, p. 111). Pattern drills are mainly repetitive drills and drills which require some minimal changes. Application activities guide oral presentations in which students have a chance to use memorized drills to meet minimal communicative needs. There are few grammar explanations.

ALM enjoyed many years of popularity, and even to this
day, adaptation of the ALM are used in different contexts (Brown, 2000, p. 75). However, due to its failure to teach long-term communicative proficiency and due to its failure to take into account the variety of learning styles and preferences of students, the popularity did not last very long (Omaggio, 2001, p. 112). It is now known that language is not learned through habit formation and overlearning it, and errors are not necessarily bad.

**Communicative Language Teaching**

Richards and Rodgers (1986) describe Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as an approach rather than a method. It is a unified but broadly based theoretical position about the nature of language and of language learning and teaching (Brown, 2000, p. 266).

Although CLT first began with the development of notional-functional teaching syllabus, it has broadened to cover a wide range of principles for enhancing communicative competence (Brown, 2000, p. 266). From the earlier seminal works in CLT (Brumfit & Johnnson, 1979; Johnson, 1982; Littlewood, 1981; Savignon, 1983; Widdowson, 1978) up to the more recent teacher education textbooks (Brown, 2000; Nunan, 1991; Omaggio, 2000; Richard-Amato, 1996), there are definitions, principles, characteristics, and techniques
enough to “send us reeling” (Brown, 2001, p. 43). It is
difficult to synthesize all of the various definitions that
have been offered. Brown’s six interconnected
characteristics of CLT simplify the definition and catch the
main features of CLT:

1. Classroom goals are focused on all of the
   components of communicative competence.
2. Language techniques are designed to engage
   learners in the pragmatic, authentic,
   functional use of language for meaningful
   purposes.
3. Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary
   principles underlying communicative techniques.
   At times fluency may have to take on more
   importance than accuracy in order to keep
   learners meaningfully engaged in language use.
4. In the communicative classroom, students
   ultimately have to use the language,
   productively and receptively, in unrehearsed
   contexts.
5. Students are given opportunities to explore
   their own learning styles and strategies.
6. The role of the teacher is that of facilitator
   and guide. (Brown, 2001, p. 43)

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) marks the radical
departure from the traditional structurally (grammatically)
sequenced curricula such as Grammar-Translation Method and
Audiolingual Method. In CLT, much less attention is paid to
the explicit presentation and explanation of grammar rules
than the traditional methods did. CLT does not exclude
grammar, but instead, grammatical structures are subsumed
under various functional categories. A great deal of use of
authentic, natural language is implied in CLT, as an attempt is made to build fluency (Chambers 1997). However, it is important to note that fluency should not be built at the expense of clear, unambiguous, direct communication (Brown, 2000, p. 267). In CLT classrooms, students are encouraged to use the language with spontaneity, that is, in unrehearsed contexts. Communicative competence in all skill areas are emphasized in meaningful contexts where learners negotiate meaning through interaction with others (Omaggio, 2001, p. 117).

Communicative Activities

Communicative activities are activities that learners are engaged in where their main purpose is to communicate meanings effectively (Littlewood, 1981). Some of the activities that would be representative of Communicative Language Teaching are games, information sharing activities, task-based activities, social interaction, and functional communication practice (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Some of contributions that communicative activities can make to language learning are:

They provide whole-task practice. In foreign language leaning, the means for providing whole-task practice is through various kinds of communicative activities.
They improve motivation. Students’ motivation to learn a foreign language is likely to improve when they see their classroom learning is related to their ultimate goal, which is to communicate with others.

They allow natural learning. Communicative activities allow the learners to learn the language through natural learning, which is not controlled by teachers.

They can create a context which supports learning. Communicative activities help develop a positive relationships among learners which support learning. (Littlewood, 1981, pp. 17-18)

Therefore, communicative activities are an indispensable part of Communicative Language Teaching where the ultimate goal is to promote communicative competence.

Activities that are truly communicative aim to replicate as far as possible the processes of communication (Morrow, 1981). There are three such processes in real communication: information gap, choice, and feedback.

Information gap: In real life, when communication takes place between two (or more) people, one of whom knows something that the other(s) do(es) not know. The purpose of the communication is to bridge the communication gap.

Choice: In real life communication, participants have a choice as to what to say and how to say it.

Feedback: In real life communication, one person speaks to another because he/she wants to reach an aim, such as to invite, to complain, or to threaten someone. What the other person says back will be evaluated in terms of that aim. (p. 62)
In communicative teaching, it is very important that these processes of communication be incorporated in the activities. “It is a moot point whether procedures which do not incorporate these processes are automatically without value—but they are certainly not communicative” (p. 63).

**English Language Teaching in China**

In recent years with the entry of China into the World Trade Organization and the successful bid of Beijing to hold the 2008 Summer Olympics, China has seen an explosion in the demand for English. To have significant numbers of competent users of English in a whole range of professions, businesses, workplaces, and enterprises is seen by the country as a key element in China’s success (Xu, 1990). On a personal level, many students are motivated to learn English because of the many opportunities that good English skills offer: to enter and graduate from a university, to obtain better jobs, and to study abroad (Zhou & Chen, 1991). There are now more teachers and learners of English in China than in any other country. “There are more Chinese currently studying English than there are Americans. Estimates range as high as 250 million Chinese students of English” (Ford, 1988, p. 2).
The New Standards

English Standards for Compulsory Education and Senior Middle Schools (New Standards) (Ministry of Education, 2001) is the document that guides the national English curriculum reform. According to the New Standards, the aim of English education from primary school to senior middle school is to develop students’ integrated language competence. In the New Standards, this integrated language competence consists of five separate goals:

1. Increase language skills. Language skills include listening, speaking, reading, writing, and the integrated skills.
2. Increase language knowledge. Language knowledge includes such content as phonetics, vocabulary, grammar, functions of language, and topics students should be familiar with.
3. Cultivate positive emotions and attitudes. They refer to interest, motivation, confidence, determination, and cooperation that affect the learning process and learning results of the students.
4. Enhance learning strategies. They include cognitive strategies, adjustment strategies (such as planning, evaluating, adjusting learning process or results), social strategies, and resource strategies.
5. Cultivate cultural awareness. It refers to history, geography, customs, traditions, lifestyles, literature and arts, and values. Learning about the culture can help with learning and using the language, deepen the understanding of students’ own culture, and develop inter-cultural communication skills.

The New Standards also include suggestions on teaching,
evaluation, development of resources, and the use of textbooks.

In the New Standards, English courses from the primary school to senior middle school are divided into nine levels. Upon graduating from the primary school at ages of 11-12, students should reach Level 2 of the standards. Junior middle school graduates between the ages of 14-15 should function at Level 5. Senior middle school graduates between the ages of 17-18 should meet the minimum requirements of Level 7. Levels 8 and 9 are electives for advanced senior middle school students (New Standards, 2001).

It is not hard to tell the variety of changes the New Standards entail. The first fundamental change is about the concept of language learning. What does it mean to learn a language? The traditional concept of language learning puts emphasis on the study of knowledge related to the language and the cognitive development of the students, while the new concept of language learning emphasizes the development of integrated skills and the use of the language. The New Standards also aim to cultivate students’ emotions and attitude, learning strategies, and cultural awareness. The traditional concept of language learning does not consider the important roles that emotions, attitudes, and learning
strategies play on learning.

Another challenge to the traditional language teaching and learning would be the roles of teachers and learners. The traditional role of the teacher is one of the authority who transforms knowledge to the students, and the student is the receiver of the knowledge. In contrast, the goal set forth by the New Standards is to develop all-around students, who are motivated to learn and use the language in real-life contexts, who can use the language productively and receptively in conducting meaningful tasks, and who understand their own learning styles and work cooperatively with others. All these require that the teacher be an organizer, facilitator, motivator, counselor, and partner and that the student be the initiator of learning and an active communicator.

New means of assessment are required for the New Standards. The traditional assessments are mid-term and final tests, which evaluate how much the students know and have memorized what they have learned. Students are usually ranked in the class or school based on their exam performance. In contrast, the New Standards promote process evaluation, which evaluates the comprehensive process of learning including assignments, participation, quizzes,
attitudes, learning strategies, cooperation, as well as mid-term and final tests.

The New Standards recommend that teaching be focused on fulfilling language tasks and real-life tasks. The task-based learning is:

A piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right. (Nunan, 1989, p. 10)

A communicative task is fundamentally different from an exercise in focus, settings, evaluation, choice made by the students, and role of errors. In a task the focus is on meaning while in an exercise the focus is on form. A task is carried out in a real-life setting while an exercise is focused on discrete forms separated from real-life. Evaluation for a task is the accomplishment of the task while evaluation for an exercise is test of memorization of forms. A task allows students to make choices while an exercise allows no choice from the students. In a task errors are allowed and are not corrected immediately while in an exercise errors are corrected immediately (Ge, 2003, p. 31).
English in the Educational System in China

The main stages of schooling in China are (a) primary schools, (b) junior middle schools, (c) senior middle schools, and (d) colleges and universities. Children between the ages of 6-11 attend the primary school. In 2001, English became a required subject in the primary school, which marked a new era for the English education in China (Lu, 2003). However, English teaching at this level is restricted by the number of qualified teachers available (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). English teaching in primary schools varies a great deal from regions to regions and from schools to schools. For example, the number of hours of English per week varies from 7 hours to 1 hour (Lu, 2003).

From the ages of 12-15, children attend junior middle schools. In junior middle schools, students study a foreign language together with Chinese, mathematics, and sciences. According to the British Council (as cited in Cortazzi & Jin, 1996), approximately 95% of the students take English. The objectives of English Language Teaching at this level include (a) providing basic training in the four skills through which students will have a command of basic knowledge of English and develop a basic ability to use English for communication, (b) activating students’ interest
in learning English, (c) laying a solid foundation for further English learning, and (d) developing students’ ability for thinking and self-study (Zhao & Campbell, 1995). Students who completed junior middle schools will have received about 400 hours of English classes (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996).

The 9-year compulsory education stops at the completion of junior middle schools. Students have to take Senior Middle School Entrance Examination to go to a senior middle school for 3 years or go to a middle-level vocational school. This examination is seen as very important by students and parents because it determines the quality of the senior middle school into which students may be accepted. In the senior middle school, students may choose to follow sciences or humanities curricula. These courses are designed to lead to the national College Entrance Examination. At this stage, English is one of the most important subjects students are taking.

According to English Standards for Senior Middle Schools (Ministry of Education, 2003), which was the new standards for senior middle schools and was based on English Standards for Compulsory Education and Senior Middle Schools (Ministry of Education, 2001), senior English is divided
into required and elective courses; Levels 6-7 are required courses. All students are required to master basic English phonetics and grammar, to know how to use a minimum of 2,400 words, and to develop certain levels of proficiency in the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing to meet graduation requirements. After the minimum requirements are met, students are encouraged to take tests which qualify them for Levels 8-9 English courses. For students to pass Level 9, they are expected to have fairly good skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing; to have learned to use about 4,500 vocabulary words and a definite number of commonly used idiomatic expressions; to be able to conduct deep level conversations; and to be able to show strong inter-cultural awareness and competence (Ministry of Education, 2003).

After graduating from the senior middle school, students proceed to a university if they can pass the College Entrance Examination. At the university level, every student must study a foreign language for at least 2 years (Yang, 1990). There are two language learning systems in the university: one is for the majority of students who are non-English majors, and the other is for English majors. Most non-English majors choose English, receiving about 300
classroom hours of teaching on average (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996).

Students are placed into one of the six progressive bands after an English placement test and advance to the next band after they study English for about one semester and pass the band test. All college students must pass Band 4 College English Test in order to graduate. Advanced students can take Band 6 College English Test, and graduate students must pass the Band 6 test. There were about 4.15 million university students taking Band 4 and Band 6 College English Tests on December 27, 2003 (“English Equation”, 2004). The scores of the students who took the test are important for the reputation of a college, and teachers whose students receive high scores may get a salary bonus (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). College students spend a lot of time studying and preparing for the tests because a Band 4 or Band 6 College English Test certificate can qualify them for a better job or promotion (“English Equation”, 2004).

Great importance has been placed on English study at all stages of the educational system in China. An article in China Daily, the official English newspaper of the government, reports:

Our students are told the importance of English
when they start learning the language in primary school. Then it takes about one-fourth of their time in junior middle school, one-third of their time in senior middle school and nearly half their time in college to learn the language. In the meantime, they face all kinds of tests on English, such as pop quizzes in class, school and college entrance examinations, and Band four and Six College English Tests. ("English Equation", 2004)

Historical Review of Curriculum Change

The English Language Teaching has had a long history in China. Language teaching has never been conducted in a vacuum. The evolution of foreign language teaching methodologies in the West reveals that they are largely influenced by the socio-historical background (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). English instruction in China was also affected by the ideological emphases of education, which were ultimately determined by the social, political, and economic circumstances of each period (Yang, 2000).

During the early part of the 20th century, China started to open its door to the Western ideal of democracy, following the “May Fourth Movement”, a political student movement to protest Japanese territorial aggressions in China. This was the point when China became more receptive to the Western ideas of democracy and China’s economy became more open to the Western world (Chow, 1960). As a result, English became more important in the Chinese society (Yang,
Many Chinese professors had received their education abroad, and a considerable number of Western educators, missionaries or non-missionaries were invited to teach in China, among whom was John Dewey (Yang, 2000). The prevailing teaching approach used in Chinese secondary schools was the Grammar-Translation Method, which dominated foreign language teaching in Europe from the 1840s to the 1940s (Yang, 2000).

Another method experimented by Chinese teachers was the Direct Method, which was popular in Europe in the early 20th century (Yang, 2000). In this method, instruction was only conducted in the target language and grammar was taught inductively. No translation was allowed (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). Many middle school graduates, especially those graduated from mission schools and schools in coastal areas, could be very proficient in English skills, though students from schools of provincial towns did not have the basic English skills (Fu, 1986).

The Communist victory in 1949 led to the establishment of a completely new social, political, and economic system in China. In line with the new proletarian ideology, a new educational system was set up (Yang, 2000). Everything foreign came under attack and was labeled “du cao”
(poisonous weeds), and many Western trained scholars and foreign language teachers were abused physically and mentally by the Red Guards. Everything related to the Western culture was banned (Fu, 1986).

During this period of time, Russian theories, methodologies, and practices in teaching foreign languages were borrowed. The Grammar-Translation Method was established through Russian textbooks while Western teaching methods, such as the Direct Method, were criticized and abandoned (Dzau, 1990). In the English class, a lot of time was spent on explaining in detail the meaning and usage of words, analyzing grammatical structures, and drilling structures through translation (Dzau, 1990).

After the breakup with the Russians, another language teaching method, the Audio-Lingual Method, was adopted during the 1960s due to the lack of proficiency of the students in oral communications (Fu, 1986, p. 75). This lack of proficiency in oral communication was criticized as “deaf and mute English”—students learned to read and analyze grammar structures but could not speak or understand spoken English. In the Audio-Lingual Method, listening and speaking are emphasized through repetitive drills in the hope to achieve oral proficiency (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).
During the Cultural Revolution from the mid-1960s to
the 1970s, the Audio-Lingual Method was abandoned due to its
association with American methods of language learning,
which was labeled “capitalist” as opposed to “proletariat”. Actually, during the Cultural Revolution, many schools and
universities were closed. If there was any foreign language
teaching, it was the teaching of political slogans, moral
doctrines, and negative descriptions of the capitalist
society (Yang, 2000). The Grammar-Translation Method was
once again the dominant teaching method (Adamson & Morris,
1997).

The termination of the Cultural Revolution in 1977 led
China into a new era, a period of economic development
(Yang, 2000). The Open Door Policy of the leader Deng
Xiaoping encouraged foreign investment and communication
with the outside world on all levels including scientific,
educational, cultural, technological, and political fields.
Once again, the government started to respect and promote
foreign language education. English became a core course in
secondary schools and colleges, and many primary schools
also introduced it into their curricula. Statistics showed
that approximately 97% of China’s 320,000 full-time
secondary school foreign language teachers taught English
The English teaching during the 1980s and 1990s underwent many changes. With the introduction of Western teaching methodologies, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) began to be known (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). Many foreign English teachers used CLT in teaching English. They conducted such activities as discussions, role plays, and debates in the classroom. Fluency was emphasized over accuracy; errors were regarded as the natural process of learning and therefore, were not corrected often. The role of grammar was de-emphasized, and it was taught inductively through the use of the language. Although many Chinese teachers are fully aware of the CLT, know the differences between CLT and the traditional ways of teaching, and see the urgent need for CLT in China, the development of CLT in China has not been simple because of a number of factors related to it (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996).

The first factor that restrains the development of CLT in China is that the concept of language teaching in China is totally different from the Communicative Language Teaching. Traditionally, the goal of the language learning is mastery of knowledge, and there is a longstanding teaching approach of four centeredness: the centers of the
teacher, the textbook, grammar, and vocabulary (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). The teachers are the authority of knowledge and moral models, who are responsible to transfer knowledge to the students. The textbook contains the knowledge and should be learned and even memorized intensively. Grammar and vocabulary are the fundamental building blocks of the language, which should be explained explicitly, transmitted, and memorized.

The Chinese language teaching method of the four centeredness is in direct contrast with the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). In CLT, the goal of language teaching is the development of skills through four very different centers:

The **learner**, who will be involved in talk and will participate in interaction, frequently being engaged in activities or tasks and problems to raise awareness of language, particularly of functions and uses in which practice and communication, rather than memorizing, is held to be paramount. (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996, p. 65)

Another factor that restrains the development of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is the lack of English proficiency of the English teachers. Because of the dynamic and creative nature of CLT, “the teachers were concerned about not being able to answer spontaneous questions on target language, socio-linguistics, or culture as they arose.
from interactions in the classroom” (Burnaby & Sun, 1989). Canale and Swain’s (1980) third principle CLT states that “The second language learner must have the opportunity to take part in meaningful communicative interaction with highly competent speakers of the language who can respond to genuine communicative needs in realistic second language situations” (p. 27). Because of the limitations of the teachers, most Chinese learners of English do not have the opportunity for interactions with highly competent speakers of the language.

The last but probably the most important factor that constrains the development of the Communicative Language Teaching in China is the present examination systems in schools and colleges. Important English examinations such as Senior Middle School Entrance Examination, College Entrance Examination, and Band 4 and Band 6 College English Tests emphasize the development of reading comprehension skills, knowledge of grammar, and vocabulary. These skills do not reflect the real language use ability of the students. For many students, “the main goal of learning English is not for interest, not to establish self-confidence, not to cultivate innovative spirit, not to form a wholesome view of life, but to take tests so as to promote individual or family
surviving situation” (Lu, 2003, p. 7).

The present college entrance examination system was resumed in 1977 after a disruption of 10 years during the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), during which workers, farmers, and soldiers were admitted to universities without examinations (Shi, 2000). The examination is viewed by many as a turning point in their lives, something they cannot afford to fail. It opens doors to their choice of the country’s higher learning institutions and to a promising future.

Competition to get into a university in China is high, and competition to get into a top university such as Beijing University and Fudan University is “cutthroat” (Shi, 2000). “Top companies recruit top graduates from top universities. To earn a better future, I must win at the first hurdle”, an 18-year-old high school graduate Wang Qinyue said to the reporter (Shi, 2000).

Students like Wang usually get up at six in the morning, or even earlier, to recite Chinese and English. After a day of crammed lessons and exams they stay at school to study after supper until 11:00 pm, or even later. To improve his memory and efficiency and to keep himself from falling asleep in class and when he studies alone, Wang takes several kinds of supplements and drinks coffee late at night. As the exam period draws close, many students suffer from insomnia and anxiety. They sweat and their faces are pale. (Shi, 2000).
The intensive pressure the College Entrance Examination gives to the students, parents, and teachers is vividly captured by the phrase people used to refer to the exam month “Black July”. It refers to the tense apprehension of the students and parents and the heat of the weather in July “the scorching heat, deadline pressure, and anxieties as the College Entrance Examination in July draws near” (“Black July“, 2001). Since 2004, the College Entrance Examination has moved to June to avoid the intense heat in July.

The College Entrance Examination puts tremendous pressure not only on students and parents but also on schools and teachers. People judge a school by how many of its students successfully passed the exam and were accepted into top colleges and universities. The teachers get bonuses for producing students who performed well (Krebs, 1996).

The College Entrance Examination has been identified as the single most powerful influence in the resistance to innovation in educational practice in China (Hird, 1995). Matriculation English Test, the English section of the exam, is mainly knowledge focused, containing discrete grammar points, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension. When students are in Senior 3, the last year
in the senior middle school, all the class time plus extra hours in the evenings and on weekends are devoted to exam preparation activities such as grammar exercises, multiple choice questions, and mock exams (Lu, 2003). Students seldom get a chance to speak English in class, and English lessons are usually conducted in Chinese. As one teacher said:

We have to face reality—to send students to university. So I would rather stick to the traditional way of teaching; otherwise, my students will feel strange if I change my way, thus influencing their results in the exam. (Du, 1998, p. 166)

If teachers wish to try different methods, they must first convince themselves that their method will adequately prepare students for the exams (Campbell & Zhao, 1993).

The Matriculation English Test (MET) has undergone several changes in recent years in an attempt to correlate with the English syllabi. Li (1991) records the following revisions to the content of MET since 1984: translation section has been deleted; the formal linguistic knowledge of English (phonetics, vocabulary, grammar) has been downgraded although still a significant part of the test; items on language use have been increased. In recent years, a listening component has been added to the exam. However, the revisions are still in form and not in nature. The listening
section, for example, is testing listening skills rather than language use. If the examination system does not change in nature and if the content of the exams still focuses on knowledge and not on use, the education reform will not happen (Lu, 2003).

**Teacher Training**

Administrators and teachers themselves are increasingly aware that it is teachers who hold the key to the outcome of reform and therefore of English Language Teaching (Wu, 2001). In pre-service training to teach English, teacher candidates study the language, literature, and courses in education pedagogy. Teaching practice takes up comparatively little time, a month or so in the third or fourth year of their college education. It involves a collective approach in which students work in teams jointly preparing, rehearsing, observing, and analyzing lessons together with experienced teachers (Paine, 1990).

In-service courses for English teachers are increasingly available in universities and colleges as the need for systematic training in current methodologies is widely recognized. Much teacher development is done at the school level, for example by observing “master teachers” and discussing methodology after observation (Cortazzi & Jin,
Many teachers prepare lessons in teams, sharing ideas and taking responsibility for different aspects (Ross, 1993).

A number of international agencies have helped with the teacher development in China, usually on in-service courses. Some Chinese universities recruit foreign teachers to conduct teacher training courses (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). A major problem that has affected such in-service teacher training courses is the different expectations about the training courses from the Chinese teachers and the Western training agencies. For Westerners the clear emphasis is on the development of English Language Teaching methodologies while for many Chinese teachers teacher training is taken to mean English language improvement (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). One solution is to acknowledge Chinese expectations in approaches which will combine the two aims (Oatey, 1990). According to the British Council, there is increasing emphasis on the part of Chinese teachers on the need for active learning strategies, for more varied English language teaching materials, and for current methodologies (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). Yet, the term “active” can have different interpretations. For Westerners in China, activity means verbal activities such as group work, role play, and
discussion. However, for many Chinese students or teachers, activity means cognitive involvement such as lesson preparation, review, thinking, memorization, and self-study (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996).

One teacher training project run by Western agencies which has had a wide impact is Senior Middle School Teacher Training program (SMSTT), which gives teachers from remote areas the opportunity to earn a bachelor’s degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language in a 2-year course. A research study investigated the extent that SMSTT courses might have changed teachers’ teaching (Ward et al., cited in Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). Using questionnaires, interviews, visits, observations, and video recordings, the study compared SMSTT graduates with their colleagues who had not taken the courses. Results showed that SMSTT graduates tended to spend less time explaining grammar and vocabulary points and paid more attention to student interaction using pair and group work. However, they made little use of role play, information gap activities, or games. Most of the teachers said they would like to implement more of those activities but felt unable to do so because of situation constraints (Ward, et al., cited in Cortazzi & Jin, 1996).

The 10th Five Year Professional Development Law is a
professional development law issued by the Ministry of Education for the 5-year period between 2001 to 2005. It requires that professionals such as teachers and doctors complete the professional development program during the 5-year period as the basis for promotion and keeping the job. In the City of Beijing, middle school teachers must complete 36 credit hours of professional development to get a completion certificate. The 36 credit hours represents 360 hours of training. The calculation of time is not very strict and is at the discretion of the training agencies. For example, a 5-hour workshop can be equivalent to 1-full day workshop. It may be counted as 8 hours, which is equivalent to 0.8 credit hours. Teachers are usually not allotted time to take training courses offered by education colleges or universities, and they have to take training courses in their free time: weekends, vacations, or after school hours. Training courses for English teachers include three areas: (a) common courses such as political education, professional ethics, and psychology courses; (b) required courses, which could be teaching methodologies or improvement of language skills; and (c) elective courses. Teachers receive the certificate of professional development at the completion of 36 credit hours of training. The 10th
5-Year Professional Development Law is in effect in big cities, and each city may have its own implementation policies (Personal conversation with Dong, Jiancun, February 10, 2004).

**Existing Problems**

Although English Language Teaching in China is flourishing, there still exist many problems. The English Language Teaching in many of China’s middle schools is still far from being satisfactory.

A national survey in 15 provinces and cities made by the State Education Commission in 1986 revealed that most of middle school leavers found it hard to communicate even in simple English after spending 900 hours in English class. The Grammar-Translation teaching methods, the out of date language materials, the shortage of qualified teachers and equipment, and the rigid written exams have hampered the effectiveness of both teaching and learning. (Liu, 1995, p. 1)

although somewhat dated, this information still provides a useful context to the current language teaching situation in China.

One problem seems to be the discrepancy between the national goal and personal goal of English teaching and learning. The new English Standards for Compulsory Education and Senior Middle Schools (New Standards) (Ministry of Education, 2001) is the most complete and systematic
national policy for English Language Teaching in China. It provides an integrated goal for English Language Teaching in China, which includes language skills, language knowledge, emotions and attitudes, learning strategies, and cultural awareness. However, the goal of English learners in China is to take the variety of tests and pass them so that they can have opportunities to raise their living standards (Lu, 2003, p. 7).

What causes the polarized goals between the national policy and the English learners? The fundamental cause is that the examination system of the country does not correspond with the national goal (Lu, 2003, p. 8). The examinations such as College Entrance Examination, and Band 4 and Band 6 College English Tests test students’ knowledge of the language such as vocabulary and grammar but not the real ability of language use (Lu, 2003, p. 11).

Another problem that hinders the innovation in English education is the lack of qualified English teachers (Yu, 2001). Many teachers know only some basic English grammar and vocabulary. For many of these teachers with limited English communicative skills themselves, the traditional way of teaching is the most convenient because they can basically teach English in Chinese (Yu, 2001).
Staff Development

Teachers are adult learners. “Only when educators think of themselves as learners, with continuous opportunities to learn, can they create environments for all their students to become life-long learners” (Loucks-Horsley, 1995, p. 265).

Adult Learners

According to Knowles (1980, 1984, 1990), there are six basic characteristics of adult learners. They are:

1. Adult learners are self-directed, self-motivated. They are active participants of the learning process and take responsibility for learning.
2. Their past experiences affect what they learn and are the foundation for current learning.
3. Adults learn best when new learnings are relevant to the changes in their life.
4. Adults tend to be problem-centered rather than subject-centered. They seek learning to solve immediate problems.
5. Their motivation to learn is internal rather than external.
6. Adults need to know why they need to learn before participating in the learning activity.

Effective staff development programs should take into account the nature of adult learners. Smith (1982) recommends six optimum conditions for learning in which adults learn best:

1. They feel the need to learn and know what, why and how they will learn.
2. The content and processes of learning bear a meaningful relationship to past experience, and experience is utilized as a resource for learning.
3. What is to be learned relates to real-life tasks.
4. They need adequate amount of autonomy.
5. Adults learn best in a climate that minimizes anxiety and encourages freedom.
6. Their learning styles are taken into account.

(p. 47-49)

Knowles’ assumption of adult learning and Smith’s recommended conditions for optimum adult learning are readily applicable to teacher training programs in China. Organizers and teacher trainers of middle school English training programs need to understand how adults learn best and establish the conditions that optimize their learning. Middle school English teachers need to be provided with trainings that can solve their real-life problems. They need to be able to establish meaningful learning objectives and be able to apply what they learn in an immediate and relevant way. Like other adult learners, English teachers have existing attitudes and face numerous challenges concerning staff development, and, therefore, they have the need to learn in a comfortable, supportive, and nonthreatening environment.

Characteristics of Staff Development Programs

There exists a large body of literature that examines
the characteristics of effective staff development programs. These studies show that there are identifiable characteristics which contribute to the success of staff development programs (Butler, 1992). Joyce and Showers (1980) identified four levels of impact for staff development programs in terms of the response of the participants:

- **Awareness.** Participants realize the importance of the training and begin to focus on it.
- **Concepts and Organized Knowledge.** Concepts are understood and organized.
- **Principles and Skills.** Principles are understood and skills are learned. They can think effectively about them. At this level there is potential for action.
- **Application and Problem Solving.** Participants transfer the concepts, principles, and skills to real-life professional settings. (p. 380)

The ultimate impact that staff development programs want to make on the participants is at the application level where participants have internalized the new content and use it. These levels must be built on one another to have the best effect. Organized knowledge that is not backed up by the acquisition of principles and skills and the ability to use them will have little effect (Joyce & Showers, 1980, p. 380).

The following characteristics of effective content for
staff development programs are identified through review of research:

- Content of programs is based on assessed needs of the participants.
- Content is concrete—specific skills rather than just introducing new concepts. The theoretical basis is part of the content about new skills.
- Content is focused on job tasks faced by teachers.
- There are clear, specific goals and objectives related to implementation.
- The use of new behaviors is made very clear, and applicability to individuals’ home situations is understood. (Butler, 1992, p. 8)

Overall, clear program goals and operational objectives are reflected in the content of staff development programs. Participants’ prior experiences are utilized as a learning resource, and participants are prepared to apply what they have learned (Butler, 1992).

Several researchers have studied program components to identify the most essential ones. Joyce and Showers (1980) analyzed and identified five widely acknowledged components of effective staff development programs:

1. Presentation of theory or description of skill or strategy.
2. Modeling or demonstration of skills or models of teaching.
3. Practice in simulated and classroom settings.
4. Structured and open-ended feedback to provide information about performance.
5. Coaching for application. (p. 380)
Each of these training components contributes to the impact of a training program although they should be used together to increase effectiveness. Sparks (1983) suggests the following list as effective components of each activity in a training program:

- Diagnosing and prescribing—diagnosing needs and building an awareness for the need to change before attempting change.
- Giving information and demonstrating its application—providing clear detailed prescriptions and demonstrations of recommended practices.
- Discussing application—sharing of problems, successes, and concerns with others.
- Practicing and giving feedback—such as peer observation.
- Coaching—hands-on, in-classroom assistance with the transfer of skills and strategies to the classroom. (p. 67-70)

Generally, the research emphasizes a systematic process approach to move participants from awareness of the new learning through transfer and application. This straightforward process promotes long-term behavior change through staff development (Butler, 1992). Other researchers emphasize the importance of a follow-up component which provides support and assistance in the actual implementation of the new skills (Butler, 1992).

Change in Education

National Curriculum Change
It is currently an age of change with governments increasingly concerned about producing citizens who will be able to contribute to the fast-changing society. Most governments invest heavily in education since they tend to see the educational process as a primary means of producing what the countries need in this changing environment at all levels of the economy (Kennedy, 1996).

We are therefore experiencing a period of expansion and change in many public educational systems throughout the world, as governments try to implement the sort of educational programs they think will achieve their aims but within the resources available to them. (Kennedy, 1996, p. 77)

Change in education is complicated and therefore very challenging. Cuban (1988) categorizes change into first- and second-order. First-order changes are those that improve the efficiency and effectiveness of what is currently done “without disturbing the basic organizational features, without substantially altering the way that children and adults perform their roles” (p. 342). Second-order changes seek to alter the fundamental ways in which organizations are put together, including new goals, structures, and roles.

Most reforms foundered on the rocks of flawed implementation. Many were diverted by the quiet but persistent resistance of teachers and
administrators who, unconvinced by the unvarnished cheer of reformers, saw minimal gain and much loss in embracing second-order changes boosted by those who were unfamiliar with the classroom as a workplace. Thus first-order changes succeeded while second-order changes were either adapted to fit what existed or sloughed off, allowing the system to remain essentially untouched. The ingredients change, the Chinese saying goes, but the soup remains the same. (Cuban, 1988, p. 343)

The challenge of the 21st century is how to deal with more second-order changes—changes that affect the culture and structure of schools by restructuring roles and re-organizing responsibilities, including those of students and parents (Fullan, 1991). Many curricula changes in education require such a shift in values and beliefs that they represent a paradigm shift.

Educational changes are multidimensional. Fullan (1991) claims there are at least three components at stake in implementing any new program or policy: (a) the possible use of new or revised materials, (b) the possible use of new teaching approaches, and (c) the possible alteration of beliefs (p. 37).

In major national curriculum reform, those having to implement the educational changes are the teachers who have to adopt new ideologies and implement them in their teaching. This double demand, having to adopt new ideologies
and implement them in their teaching, “puts teachers under strain where the changes involved represent a major shift in beliefs and practices, and can threaten successful implementation unless necessary logistical and professional conditions are met” (Kennedy, 1996, p. 78).

One major factor that affects successful implementation of curriculum change seems to be teacher attitudes. “It is not enough for people to act differently, which is a surface phenomenon, they may also be required to change the way they think about certain issues, which is a deeper and more complex change” (Kennedy, 1988, p. 329). The investigation of teachers’ attitudes can help identify the difficulties teachers face when implementing curricular innovations in the classroom and can help in establishing the most appropriate kind of support that is needed in in-service teacher development (Karavas-Doukas, 1996).

However, several studies show a disparity between teachers’ expressed attitudes and their classroom practices (e.g., Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Morris, 1988; Needham, 1992). Kennedy and Kennedy (1996) warn that drawing a cause-effect relationship between attitude and behavior is not sufficient for successful implementation of change. Effective implementation throughout national systems involves other
equally important factors.

More knowledge in the complex inter-relationship of beliefs, attitudes, and actions can be gained from the work of Ajzen (1980, 1985, 1991) and his Theory of Planned Behavior. Rather than taking attitudes as the determining factor in behavior, he focuses on behavioral intentions. People form intentions to do something, and these intentions indicate how hard someone is willing to try to do something. In due time, these intentions lead to action. The original model of Theory of Planned Behavior is the Theory of Reasoned Action.

Theory of Reasoned Action

Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) explored ways to predict behaviors and proposed the Theory of Reasoned Action to relate beliefs, attitudes, social pressure, and behaviors. They assumed that individuals are usually quite rational and make systematic use of information available to them. People consider the implications of their actions before they decide to engage or not engage in a given behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980, p. 5). They argued that most human behaviors can be predicted and explained almost exclusively in terms of individual beliefs and attitudes. The Theory of Reasoned Action could predict and explain behavior that is largely
under a person's volitional control or capability, which is the actual willful control over the behavior (Ajzen, 1985). The theory has been used to understand and predict a variety of behaviors including family planning, consumer behavior, voting, weight loss, the intent to enroll in a science course, and intent to use investigative teaching methods (Crawley & Coe, 1990).

According to the Theory of Reasoned Action, the primary determinant of a person's observable behavior is the person's intention to perform or not to perform the behavior. Behavioral intention is the variable that predicts a person's behavior. Intention can be predicted if two variables are known: (a) the person's favorable or unfavorable attitude toward the behavior and (b) the person's perceived social pressures, the subjective norm. The Theory of Reasoned Action links beliefs with attitude toward the behavior, beliefs with the subjective norm, and attitude and subjective norm with behavioral intention (Crawley & Coe, 1990).

Attitude toward the behavior is the individual's feelings about performing the behavior. It is a function of behavioral beliefs about expected outcomes of the behavior and the evaluations of these outcomes. Attitude toward
behavior can be measured indirectly and directly. The
Indirect Measure of Attitude is obtained relying on an
expectancy-value model. According to the model, the Indirect
Measure of Attitude is determined by multiplying belief
strength and outcome evaluation, and summing the resulting
products (Azjen, 1985). The basic structure of the model is
shown in the following equation (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975):
\[ A_B = \sum (b_i \times e_i) \]
where \( A_B \) is the attitude toward the behavior \( B \), \( b_i \) is the
strength of the belief that the behavior will produce
outcome \( i \), \( e_i \) is the evaluation of outcome \( i \), and the sum is
taken over all accessible outcomes (Hrubes & Ajzen, 2001).
Attitude toward the behavior can also be measured directly
by asking a person to rate on a series of scales from most
favorable, beneficial, desirable to least favorable,
beneficial, desirable. Responses are summed to provide the
Direct Measure of Attitude (Ajzen & Madden, 1985).

Subjective norm is the person’s perception of the
social pressures exerted by important others, or referents,
to perform the specific behavior. It is a function of
normative beliefs and the motivation to comply with the
referents. Subjective norm can be measured indirectly and
directly. The Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm is a
function of normative beliefs and motivation to comply. According to the expectancy-value model, the relationship between normative beliefs and subjective norm is expressed by the following equation:

\[ SN = \sum (nb_j \times mc_j) \]

Here, SN is the subjective norm, \( nb_j \) is the normative belief concerning referent \( j \), \( mc_j \) is the person’s motivation to comply with referent \( j \). By multiplying normative belief strength and motivation to comply with each referent, and summing all the resulting products, the Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm is obtained (Ajzen, 1985). Subjective norm can also be measured directly by asking the person to rate on perceived social pressure in a more global fashion. Using 7-point unlikely-likely scales, normative beliefs and motivations to comply are assessed with respect to “most people who are important to me,” and the product of the two responses serve as the Direct Measure of Subjective Norm (Ajzen & Madden, 1985).

Thus, a behavioral intention consists of a personal component and a social component. The attitude and subjective norm carry different weights. It is a function of the weighted attitude toward performing a behavior and weighted subjective norm. In other words, the sum of the
weighted attitude and weighted subjective norm predicts behavioral intention, which in turn, predicts behavior (Ray, 1991). Theory of Reasoned Action has been used to investigate a wide variety of behaviors (Bowman & Fishbein, 1978; Koballa, 1986, 1988; Linn, 1987; Riddle, 1980).

**Theory of Planned Behavior**

The Theory of Reasoned Action works most successfully when applied to behaviors that are under a person's volitional control, which is the actual willful control over the behavior. However, the Theory of Reasoned Action was found to be insufficient in explaining behavioral intention when people perceived that control over the behavior was incomplete. When people did not possess the required abilities, resources, or opportunities to engage in the behavior, the theory proved to be an unacceptable model for understanding and predicting behavior (Ajzen, 1985). The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Madden, 1986) is an extension to the Theory of Reasoned Action to account for the performance of behaviors that are not completely under a person's volitional control.

In addition to attitude and subjective norm, the third construct of perceived behavioral control was added to the model. Perceived behavioral control is "the person's belief
as to how easy or difficult performance of the behavior is likely to be" (Ajzen & Madden, 1986, p. 457), and it represents the extent to which the individual believes that performance of the behavior is affected by internal and external factors. Internal factors may include inadequate skill, talent, or ability, and external factors may include lack of resources such as time, supplies, funds, space, support of others, or opportunities.

The perceived behavioral control can be measured directly and indirectly. The Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control is based on the control beliefs individuals hold about the availability of resources and opportunities to perform a behavior. Based on the expectancy-value formulation, the relationship between perceived behavioral control and control beliefs is expressed in the following equation:

$$ PBC = \sum (cb_k \times lo_k) $$

Here PBC is perceived behavioral control, $cb_k$ is control belief over a factor $k$, and $lo_k$ is likelihood of occurrence of the factor $k$. The Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control is obtained by multiplying $cb_k$ with $lo_k$ and summing all the products (Crawley & Koballa, 1994). The Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control is obtained
by asking a person to rate on questions that relate to this variable in a global fashion.

Thus, behavior, behavioral intention, attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control are linked together. According to the Theory of Planned Behavior, it is supposed that the behavioral intention to perform a certain behavior is a function of weighted attitude toward the behavior, weighted subjective norm, and weighted perceived behavioral control (Crawley, 1990). In other words, behavior is closely associated with behavioral intention, and behavioral intention is the combination of attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control, each of which has different weight in the equation.

Ajzen and his colleagues argued that perceived behavioral control will influence both behavioral intention and behavior. Perceived behavioral control has the greatest influence on both behavioral intention and behavior when perceived control over the behavior is low (Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992).

The predictive power of the Theory of Planned Behavior has been well-documented (Patterson, 2000). In a review of 12 studies, Ajzen (1991) found that in 11 cases, the
correlation between perceived behavioral control and behavioral intention was significant. Perceived behavioral control appears to add to the predictive power of the Theory of Planned Behavior.

**Application to English Language Teaching**

There has been very little application of the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Theory of Reasoned Action in the field of English Language Teaching. Chris Kennedy and Judith Kennedy (1996) are probably the first in the field to draw on the ideas of Azjen by suggesting that attitude and behavior is a complicated relationship. They give one example from Needham’s study (1992) where a teacher showed an awareness of the importance of errors as part of learning and thought that learners should not be continually be corrected. However, the teacher’s classroom behavior did not appear to reflect this previously expressed attitude. The teacher corrected a student continually even though the purpose of the section of the lesson was to relax and “warm-up” the students, and communication and fluency should have been the main objective. The purpose of the lesson at this point was lost. There was clearly a mismatch between the teacher’s expressed attitudes and actual behavior in the classroom. This example indicates that the relationship
between attitude and behavior is complicated and factors other than attitude are at play in the implementation of a behavior.

Kennedy and Kennedy (1996) suggested to turn to Ajzen’s (1991) Theory of Planned Behavior for explanation of the complexity between attitude and behavior. Based on the Theory of Planned Behavior, Kennedy & Kennedy explained that the teacher’s favorable attitude was overwhelmed by the fact that she lacked the skills and knowledge to deal with errors other than interrupting the student by correcting him. It was the perceived behavioral control at work--the teacher perceived that it would be easier to continue using a strategy she was comfortable with (immediate error correction) since in this way she could control and feel at ease with the class. Kennedy and Kennedy (1996) proposed that:

Such illustrations and their explanation may also help to explain the dismay expressed by writers on curriculum development when teachers apparently enthusiastic when presented with a particular methodology, for example at in-service seminars, return to their schools where the enthusiasm does not appear to be sufficient for them to change their practices in the classroom. (p. 158)

Another example from the curriculum literature also illustrates the disparity between attitude and behavior and
the utility of Theory of Planned Behavior. Morris (1988) writes of a project involving Hong Kong teachers of economics which was attempting to move teachers from the traditional approach of transmission of information and of encouraging rote learning toward a more process-oriented interactive approach through in-service training. On a questionnaire asking about the teachers’ attitudes to the curriculum change to which they were being introduced, the teachers generally expressed positive attitudes to the new approach. However, although the teachers showed a much stronger agreement on general educational principles, their degree of agreement was substantially less on the operational dimensions of the new curriculum such as group work and exams. This difference in attitude was demonstrated in classroom observation where teachers did not implement that approach. The study indicates that a distinction must be made between teachers’ expressed attitudes towards the general principles of teaching and their expressed attitudes towards the reality of teaching. The discrepancy between teacher attitudes and behavior indicated the existence of certain social constraints or situational norms. In the case of Morris’ study, the powerful social norms were to achieve results as measured by covering the syllabus and examination
pass rates as the major determinants and indicators of a teacher’s effectiveness. New teaching approaches were viewed by teachers as dysfunctional for achieving these purposes (Morris, 1988). In other words, the questionnaire results showed generally favorable attitudes towards the new teaching approach, but the teachers were not influenced by their attitudes in their implementation in the classroom. They were more influenced by subjective norm and perceived behavioral control.

Although there has been little application of the Theory of Planned Behavior in the field of English Language Teaching curriculum change, the theory has the potential utility in explaining the complexity of change in the field. It may help the field to accumulate knowledge systematically and understand factors that interact with one another in the English Language Teaching curriculum change in China.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Research Methodology

This is a descriptive research study undertaken as a step in understanding intentions of Chinese middle school English teachers to implement communicative activities in teaching English and their actual implementation of the communicative activities. A descriptive study:

...involves collecting data in order to test hypotheses or answer questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study. A descriptive study determines and reports the way things are. (Gay, 1987, p. 189)

This study investigated a group of 101 Chinese middle school English teachers’ intentions to implement communicative activities in their classroom and factors that affect their decisions on implementation. The Communicative Activities Workshop was designed to demonstrate communicative activities that are appropriate for middle school students in China. The Theory of Planned Behavior was used as the framework through which to analyze intentions.

According to the Theory of Planned Behavior, people’s intention to behave in a certain way is based on three predictor variables: their attitudes towards the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived control over the behavior.
These three variables are in turn based on the salient beliefs they hold for this behavior. In order to predict and explain these teachers’ intentions to implement or not to implement the activities demonstrated at the workshop, data were collected in three ways: (a) Behavioral Intention Questionnaire (BIQ) (see Appendix A) was constructed and administered to the participants to get quantitative data, (b) the Follow-Up Survey (see Appendix B) examining teachers’ implementation of the activities and obtaining opinions about using the communicative activities in teaching was designed and administered 1 month after the Communicative Activities Workshop was conducted, and (c) qualitative data were collected through informal interviews and conversations via e-mail and telephone.

Population

The population of this study consisted of the participants of the 5-hour Communicative Activities Workshop. In February of 2004, Beijing Education College in Beijing, Beijing Fengtai Education College, and Shengyan Shiyan Middle School in Shenyan sponsored and hosted the Communicative Activities Workshop. A total of 103 junior and senior middle school teachers participated these workshops, 55% of whom were senior middle school teachers. Secondary
schools are called middle schools in China and are made up of junior middle school and senior middle school. Junior 1, 2, and 3 represent the first, second, and third year of junior middle school; Senior 1, 2, and 3 correspond to the first, second, and third year of senior middle school.

Thirty five teachers from the eight districts of the City of Beijing participated in the Communicative Activities Workshop at Beijing Education College in Beijing. The Communicative Activities Workshop was part of the 1-week Senior 1 New Curriculum Training Program (SONCTP) that Beijing Education College hosted in February, 2004. Other workshops and training sessions at SONCTP included: “New Textbooks, New Concepts” given by Edwin Baak, one of the editors of the new revised Senior 1 textbook; “Task-based Teaching Design and Application” by Professor Zhang Zhou of Beijing Education College; “Explanation of the New Standards for English Curriculum ” by Dr. Xiaotang Cheng, a key member of the New Standards Committee. Other presenters were Professor Niu Jian, director of the Foreign Language Department at Central China Online University and Professor Chen Hong, Beijing Normal University.

The participants of the training program were selected by each of the 8 districts in Beijing. Thirty of the thirty-
five teachers who participated in the Communicative Activities Workshop at Beijing Education College were Senior 3 teachers. They were in the Senior 1 New Curriculum Training Program due to the fact that they were going to start teaching Senior 1 in the fall semester of 2004 after completing the 3-year cycle from Senior 1 to Senior 3. The participants received credits for attending the training program as part of their fulfillment of the 10th 5-Year Professional Development Program, an on-going government regulated professional development program.

Forty-one teachers attended the Communicative Activities Workshop sponsored by Beijing Fengtai Education College. Fengtai is one of the eight districts in the City of Beijing, and Fengtai Education College is a branch of Beijing Education College. The participants taught both junior and senior middle school students. The Communicative Activities Workshop was part of their teacher training program and the teachers who participated received credits to fulfill the requirements for the 10th 5-Year Professional Development Program required by the government.

Twenty-seven teachers from Shengyang Shiyan Middle School attended the workshop. Shengyang is a big industrial city in Northeast China, and Shengyang Shiyan Middle School
is a key middle school in Shengyang. Key middle schools are schools that are evaluated and designated by the government. Middle schools are evaluated mainly according to the success rate in sending graduates to universities or colleges. Schools are designated as key schools if a high success rate is maintained. The participants from Shengyang Shiyan Middle School were required to attend the Communicative Activities Workshop by the school administration. Shengyang Shiyan Middle School is a junior middle school, and all the participants taught junior English.

At the beginning and at the end of the workshops, the Behavioral Intention Questionnaire (BIQ) was administered to the participants. Both pre-workshop BIQ and post-workshop BIQ were collected for data analyses. 103 pre- and post-BIQ were distributed, of which 101 were returned. The return rate was 98%.

Of the participants, 89% were women, and 11% were men. The average age of the teachers was 33.5 with the average years of English teaching experience of 10.6. The average class size taught was 45.4 students, and 42% of the classes had over 50 students. Of the schools represented, 44% were key schools, and the rest were regular schools.

The participants of the Communicative Activities
Workshop had a fairly high level of education. A total of 71.4% held university or advanced degrees: 61.2% of the teachers held 4-year university degrees, and 10.2% had master’s degrees. For those without a university degree, 28.6% held 2-3 year associate degrees, and only one teacher had high school certificate as the highest level of education.

**Instrumentation**

Data were collected from the Behavioral Intention Questionnaire (BIQ) and the Follow-Up Survey. The BIQ was designed for this study based on the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Madden, 1986) to examine behavioral intentions. The Follow-Up Survey was designed and administered to volunteers from the participants 1 month after the workshop to examine the implementation of the activities.

**Collection of Salient Beliefs**

Salient beliefs, a small number of beliefs that people attend to about a given behavior, are considered to be the prevailing determinants of a person’s intentions and actions (Ajzen, 1991). Three kinds of salient beliefs are identified: behavioral beliefs which influence attitude toward the behavior, normative beliefs which are
determinants of subjective norms, and control beliefs which are the basis for perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991). The first step in constructing BIQ was to obtain the salient beliefs on using communicative activities in teaching English in China. A list of 21 salient beliefs was identified from the review of literature (see Appendix C).

Ten experts were identified to review and revise the list of salient beliefs. These experts are all professionals in the field of Teaching English as a Second Language and have had many years of experience teaching English in China (see Appendix D). The list of 21 salient beliefs identified from literature review was sent to these experts to seek their opinions based on their experience teaching in China. They were encouraged to make comments and to add or delete any salient beliefs they deemed to be appropriate. To select the most salient beliefs, Fishbein and Ajzen recommended that 75% of the most frequently voiced responses be retained (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The feedback of the experts was analyzed and over 75% of the most frequently voiced responses were retained to form the revised list of 27 salient beliefs (see Appendix E).

**Construction of Behavioral Intention Questionnaire**

After the salient beliefs were ascertained, the 64-item
Behavioral Intention Questionnaire (see Appendix A) was developed according to the guidelines from the work of Fishbein and Ajzen (1980) and Ajzen and Madden (1986), and it was modeled after the Behavioral Intention Questionnaire of Patterson (2000). Sixty two of the 64 questions were used to form 7 separate scales: (a) Behavioral Intention, (b) Direct Measure of Attitude, (c) Direct Measure of Subjective Norm, (d) Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control, (e) Indirect Measure of Attitude, (f) Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm, and (g) Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control. Two of the 64 items were not used in data analysis because they were not relevant to the specific behavior (Personal conversation with Ajzen, July, 2004).

The salient beliefs formed the indirect measures of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. The Indirect Measure of Attitude comprised 24 questions based on 12 behavioral beliefs. Two questions were written for each belief; one linked the outcome to the behavior, and the other was an evaluation of the outcome of that behavior. For example, for the salient belief that using communicative activities increases students' interest in learning English, the outcome statement was: “My students will be more interested in learning English if I use more communicative
activities”. The statement was evaluated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1--Extremely Unlikely to 7--Extremely Likely. The evaluation of the outcome statement was written as “Students' interest in learning English is”, and was rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1--Extremely Unimportant to 7--Extremely Important.

In the same way, for each of the 5 groups of people associated with normative beliefs, two statements were written. For example, since students were determined to be influential in the decision to use communicative activities in the classroom, the subjective paired statements were:

1. My students think that I should use communicative activities as part of my English teaching.
2. I want to do what my students think I should do concerning my teaching decisions in English.

Statement 1 is the normative belief, and Statement 2 measures motivation to comply. Each statement was evaluated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1--Extremely Unlikely to 7--Extremely Likely.

In the same fashion, each of the 10 control beliefs associated with perceived behavioral control resulted in an item pair on the questionnaire. One item linked the event to the behavior, and the other assessed the likelihood of
occurrence of the event. For example, one perceived behavioral control pair reads:

1. Good verbal communication skills in English would make it easier for me to use the communicative activities.
2. My ability to communicate in English in the spring semester of 2004 will be adequate to allow me to conduct the activities successfully.

Each statement was measured from 1--Extremely Unlikely to 7--Extremely Likely on a 7-point Likert scale. Thus, the BIQ consisted of paired statements, each pair was derived from a salient belief identified from the review of literature and verified and revised by experts.

In addition to items that indirectly measure the variables of attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control, items that measure these variables directly, along with an item on behavioral intention, were included in BIQ. The Behavioral Intention scale included 1 item, the Direct Measure of Attitude scale included 4 items, the Direct Measure of Subjective Norm scale included one item pair, and the Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control scale included 1 item.

Traditionally, several items measuring the Behavioral Intention and the Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control should be included in the Behavioral Intention
Questionnaire (BIQ). According to Ajzen, single item tends to be unreliable, but he encouraged the researcher to run the statistics (Personal conversation, July, 2004). However, the researcher considered the item used to measure these 2 scales were specific and clear, and there was no need to use more than one item.

To differentiate between the indirect and direct measures, it should be noted that the indirect measures of the three variables ask participants to respond to items based on the salient beliefs identified from the review of literature and verified by experts. The direct measures ask participants to comment on a direct question that is general and encompassing that variable.

The BIQ also included questions about demographic information. Teachers were instructed to check on the appropriate lines relating to their gender, age, years of teaching experience, highest degrees held, average class size, type of school, and the grade level they were teaching.

Construct Validity of BIQ

Validity of an instrument is indispensable (Gay, 1992). More than anything else, researchers want the information they collect through the use of an instrument to serve their
purpose. Validity is concerned with what an instrument actually measures. While there are several types of validity, the three most important types recognized in educational research are construct, content, and criterion-related validity (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 457). Construct validity is “the degree to which a test measures an intended hypothetical construct” (Gay, 1992, p. 157).

Usually, there are three steps involved in obtaining construct-related evidence of validity: (1) the variable being measured is clearly defined; (2) hypotheses, based on a theory underlying the variable, are formed about how people who possess a “lot” versus a “little” of the variable will behave in a particular situation; and (3) the hypotheses are tested both logically and empirically. (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 164)

BIQ measured the intention of the participants to implement communicative activities. It was specifically defined in terms of action, target audience, context and time for the behavior. The action was participants’ implementing communicative activities in their teaching, the target audience was their students, the context was English teaching in middle schools in China, and the time frame was the upcoming spring semester of 2004.

The hypothesis of BIQ, based on the Theory of Planned Behavior, was that the participants’ intentions to implement
the communicative activities were based on three variables: attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. With a more favorable attitude, with feeling more social support, and with more perceived behavioral control, their intention to implement the communicative activities can be expected high.

A number of studies have been done using the Theory of Planned Behavior in their attempts to predict and understand people’s intentions to engage in various activities. A considerable amount of variance in intentions have been accounted for by the three predictors in the Theory of Planned Behavior. Ajzen reviewed the results of 16 studies in 1991, and the average correlation between intention and the three predictors was .71 (Ajzen, 1991).

BIQ was constructed using four theoretical constructs: intention, attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. Salient beliefs of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control were first identified in the literature and then verified and revised by ten experts in the field. This questionnaire design has been established through more than two decades of utilization of Theory of Reasoned Action and Theory of Planned Behavior, and has been validated in the social sciences and education.
as cited earlier in the review of literature.

Content Validity of BIQ

Content validity refers to the sampling adequacy of the content of the instrument (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 458). For the Behavioral Intention Questionnaire (BIQ), content validity is concerned with the degree to which the items are representative of the three independent predictors of intention. In BIQ, all three major theoretical constructs that predict intention: attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control were represented. Three sets of salient beliefs: 12 behavioral beliefs, 5 normative beliefs, and 10 control beliefs were used to construct the questionnaire.

Another important step in establishing content validity is in the process of collecting salient beliefs about the behavior so that the beliefs reflect the beliefs of the intended audience as opposed to those of the investigator (Munby, 1983). The beliefs used in the construction of the questionnaire were first identified from an extensive review of literature. They were then sent to 10 experts in the field of Teaching English as a Second Language who have had many years of teaching experience in China. This process helped to reduce the researcher bias and improve the content
validity of the instrument.

Follow-Up Survey

The Follow-Up Survey was developed in order to obtain actual behavior of the participants and their opinions about the workshop and the three variables predicting intention: attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. One month after the workshop was conducted, participants were contacted and sent the Follow-Up Survey.

The Follow-Up Survey consisted of two parts. The first part listed the 11 activities presented at the workshop and the participants were asked to indicate a level of implementation: A--I have used this activity with my students exactly as it was presented at the workshop during this semester; B--I have used a modification of this activity with my students; C--I plan to use this activity with my students this semester, but have not used it yet; D--I don’t plan to use this activity with my students this semester. Participants were also asked to make comments on the implementation of each of the activities. The second part of the survey consisted of nine open-ended questions: one question related to the evaluation of the workshop; six questions related to the three variables of behavioral intention: attitude towards using the communicative
activities, social norm, and perceived behavioral control; another question related to their intention to implement; and the last question asked for suggestions for future workshops (see Appendix B).

The Communicative Activities Workshop

Structure

Communicative activities are activities that students are engaged in where their main purpose is to communicate meanings effectively (Littlewood, 1981). Communicative activities provide “whole-task practice” rather than “part-skills” in language learning, they improve learners’ motivation to learn, they allow natural learning, and they create a positive environment that supports learning (p. 17).

Communicative activities are an indispensable part of communicative teaching, which aims to develop learners’ communicative competence: grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Activities that are truly communicative will aim to replicate as far as possible the processes of communication. Three such processes in real communication are information gap, choice, and feedback (Morrow, 1981, p. 62).
The Communicative Activities Workshop was designed as part of the study and was conducted for three groups of middle school teachers in Beijing Education College, Beijing Fengtai Education College, and Shengyang Shiyan Middle School in February, 2004. The workshop had four objectives: at the completion of the workshop, participants would be able to: (a) describe the general characteristics and principles of Communicative Language Teaching, (b) incorporate short (10 minutes) fun communicative activities in their regular classes, (c) incorporate communicative activities that complement their existing teaching tasks, and (d) incorporate communicative games in their classroom teaching.

There is a myriad of communicative activities to choose from. The choice of these activities was based on three considerations. First, it was understood that the teachers had a heavy teaching load and that their most important task was to help students to pass the College Entrance Examination. Therefore, the activities chosen were those that could be adapted into their existing teaching tasks without causing much interruption. Second, due to the large class size of most Chinese middle schools, the activities chosen were mostly small group work that could be arranged
without much physical movement of the students. Third, the activities were chosen based on the teaching experience of the designer. The designer had used these activities in the classroom and they worked well in the classroom setting.

The communicative activities presented at the workshop are of three types. The first type is short fun activities which can add communicative and fun elements to regular classes. Each activity takes about 10 minutes of class time to conduct, and it does not take much time to prepare. Teachers who feel pressured to cover content materials can still use these activities without using much of their class time. Activities 1 to 5 are of this type. Activities 6 to 8 belong to the second type, which are easily adaptable to their textbook content. Teachers can adapt these activities in teaching the textbook materials. Activities 9 to 11 are communicative games which offer students with communicative opportunities and excitement of games.

**Activities**

1. **Telling Jokes.**

   Half of the class listen to one joke while the other half cover their ears. Then the other half listen to another joke while the first have their ears covered. Students then form pairs and share their jokes.

   This activity provides an opportunity for students to
listen with a purpose—they must understand the meaning of the joke in order to retell it to others. The three processes of communication: information gap, choice, and feedback are incorporated in the activity. An information gap exists when one person knows the joke, and the other person does not. The speaker also has a choice about how to get the meaning across. Finally, the speaker receives feedback from the partner relating to whether or not the communication is successful through the partner’s reaction to the joke. Discourse competence is practiced when students try to tell a coherent joke that others can understand. This game takes very little time to prepare and implement. The teacher can also have the students tell jokes to the class instead of the teacher.

2. Conversation Wheels

Teachers make wheels divided into sections with adjectives such as “embarrassing”, “amusing”, “unforgettable” written on each section. Insert a spinner in the middle of the wheel. The teacher writes on the board “Tell us something that is _____.” Students form groups of four and take turns to spin. Each one has to tell the others a story or personal experience relating to the adjective where the spinner has stopped. The wheels are reusable by putting a stack of paper on top of the wheel and writing different words or structures depending on the content of the teaching.

One of the basic assumptions of the Communicative
Language Teaching is that students will be more motivated to learn if they feel they can do meaningful things with it. Teachers should give students opportunities to express themselves, which helps students “to integrate the foreign language with their own personality and thus to feel more emotionally secure with it” (Littlewood, 1994). Conversation Wheels gives the students this kind of opportunities. They learn more about one another by sharing stories, and thus it helps to build the learning community. Students use the language in the social context where they interact with one another, share the information, and make decisions on the appropriateness of the language. This activity is fairly easy to implement, and the teacher can roam in the classroom to offer help or be a co-communicator.

3. Keep Talking

Students choose a letter and generate a list of nouns/topics beginning with the letter. The teacher writes the words on the board. Each pair then chooses one word on the board and talks about it for 2-3 minutes without stopping.

This very simple activity has the same goal as “Conversation Wheels” except students can choose their own topics. Again the three features of communication of information gap, choice, and feedback exist in the activity when they share with each other information and experience.
The teacher makes sure that students do not stop talking. Students have to use strategic and discourse skills to compensate for imperfect knowledge of the language when there is communication breakdown.

4. Pair Rotation

Students generate a list of topics they are interested in at the beginning of a semester. The teacher will have a corpus of interesting topics to choose from throughout the semester for this activity. The teacher writes a topic on the board, and pairs are formed to talk about the topic. After 2-3 minutes, they change partners and talk about the same topic. Students can change partners several times depending on their interest level. The same topics can also be used as journal topics after this activity.

This activity has the same goal as “Conversation Wheels” and “Keep Talking” by offering students opportunities to share their ideas and individuality. The difference is the topics are pre-chosen by the students themselves. Topics may be fun, thought provoking, or controversial. Students have to use different strategies and social skills such as agreeing/disagreeing, persuading, showing interest, and apologizing and accepting apology to keep communication open. Thus, sociolinguistic competence is being practiced. Students change their partners, which helps them to hear a variety of opinions and to build on their own opinions. This activity can be expanded into a writing
activity. Students will have more confidence to write when they have discussed the topic with others.

5. Black Magic

The teacher designates a helper who is informed of the trick. The teacher tells the students that he/she can read minds. The teacher then leaves the room. The students pick one object to be “it”. When the teacher comes back, the helper asks the teacher Yes/No questions. For example: “Is it the poster?” If the helper picks an object which is black, the next object will be “it”. The students will be fascinated and puzzled by the “magic”.

This little game can be classified as a “pre-communicative activity” (Littlewood, 1981) in that it serves to prepare the learner for later communication. This gives learners, especially those with limited proficiency skills, motivation to learn when they see that they can use the language to do something meaningful. It also shows them that communication can be achieved despite their limited English skills.

6. Weaving the Web

This can be a pre-reading activity. Teacher writes the topic in the center of the board and encourages students to generate ideas about the topic. The teacher connects the ideas with the topic in the form of a web. (Sayavedra, 1993)

Communicative activities apply to both written and spoken language (Savignon, 1983). This activity can serve as a pre-reading activity, where students draw from their prior
experience or knowledge to contribute to the topic. Reading can be more meaningful if students can relate to the topic. In addition, a lot of discussion can be generated as students talk about what they already know about the topic.

7. Team Comprehension

Assign one article in the textbook to one group and another article from the textbook to another group. Have groups read their article and write 3-4 comprehension questions about the article. Groups exchange questions with each other, read the new article, and answer each other’s questions. (Isbell, 1993)

When students have to write comprehensive questions for others to answer, they have a purpose to read. The three elements of communicative activities are incorporated in this activity: they need to read to fill an information gap; they have a choice as to what questions to ask and how to ask; and they get feedback from the other group when the other group can or cannot understand the questions.

Grammatical competence is practiced in this task. Students have to write grammatically correct questions in order to convey the meanings successfully.

8. Scanning Game

This is a fun and competitive reading game. Students work in groups of four and race to find answers to questions read by one member of the group. Members in the group take turns to read questions. Everybody in the group must understand
the oral question before they can start scanning for the answer to the question. The winner is the one with the most correct answers. (Crolley, 1993)

As was mentioned earlier, communicative activities apply to both written and spoken language. Reading with a purpose is an important part of the Communicative Language Teaching. Students trained by traditional methods often focus too much on grammar structures and vocabulary when they read, sometimes at the expense of meaning. Another consequence of the traditional grammar-focused teaching methods is students read too slowly. Students trained that way are often at a loss when it comes to finding specific information from authentic materials such as maps, schedules, and advertisements. This activity forces them to scan quickly and locate where the specific information is as fast as possible. Though it is a competitive game, it is not usually the “good student” who is the winner. The “weaker student” can sometimes find the information faster. This demonstrates that good reading strategies are sometimes more important than a good command of grammar and vocabulary. Strategic competence is at play when students use strategies to locate information by focusing on the main idea of the questions, finding the key words in the reading passages, and judging the location of the information.
9. Relatively Speaking

Cards of pictures of people, places, and machines are put face down in the center of a group. Students take turns to give definitions of the pictures, and others in the group guess what they are. The one who guesses right gets awarded the picture. (Hatfield, 1990)

Communicative competence includes grammatical competence, which allows the language user to form meaningful sentences. This activity gives students an opportunity to practice the grammar structure of adjective clauses in a context. For example, the definition of a washing machine might be “This is a machine that you use about once a week”. This activity also includes the three elements of a communicative activity. Information gap exists when students have to guess what the picture is by understanding the clues given by the clue giver. The clue giver can choose ways to prevent the others from guessing it right. The feedback is given when the card is claimed by another student.

10. The Detective Story

A murder was committed and presumably happened between 7:30 pm to midnight. All the events that happened during that time frame of a murder suspect are recorded. The list of events is cut and shuffled. Groups work together to put these events in order and decide if the suspect could have had the 20 minutes, which is what it takes, to commit the murder. (Hatfield, 1990)
This activity involves many forms of communicative competence. Discourse competence is at play when students string the ideas together through cohesive and coherent functions of the language. They recognize the cohesive functions of words such as “he” and “she”, and verb tenses such as simple past and past perfect. They determine the time order of the events through time phrases such as “after she called her uncle on the phone” and “before she cooked dinner”, which make the story coherent. They also recognize the lack of coherence when the events do not flow in a meaningful way. This is also a problem solving task where students work together to put the events in the right order and decide if the suspect can account for the twenty minutes, which is what it takes to commit the murder. The three features of communication are evident: information gap, choice, and feedback. In addition, the activity allows students to negotiate meanings together in an effort to solve the puzzle.

11. Where Am I?

Cards of places are put face down in the center of a group. Students take turns to pick up a picture and say what is permissible in the place. Other students can ask questions using modal verbs. The one who guesses right gets rewarded the card. If nobody guesses it right, the clue giver keeps the
card. The winner is the one with the most cards. (Hadfield, 1984)

As in Relatively Speaking, this activity gives students an opportunity to practice grammatical structures in context. Students practice the use of modal verbs by giving clues about places such as hospitals and swimming pools while others make guesses. Grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence all come into play. Like most of the other activities, the three elements of communicative activities are included in the activity: information gap, choice, and feedback.

Data Collection

The data collection was conducted in three forms: pre-workshop and post-workshop BIQ, Follow-Up Survey, and qualitative data from interviews via e-mail and telephone. At the beginning of the Communicative Activities Workshop, each participant was given two copies of BIQ. One was printed on blue paper and the other was on pink paper. Both had the same ID. The participants were then asked to answer the blue BIQ, based on their existing beliefs and experience. To make sure both copies of BIQ were answered by the same participant, they were instructed to keep the answered BIQ until the end of the workshop.
At the end of the 5-hour workshop, participants were asked to answer the pink BIQ without referring back to the earlier blue one. Participants were also asked to enter their e-mail addresses if they were willing to cooperate with a Follow-Up Survey 1 month after the workshop was conducted. The Follow-Up Survey was sent by e-mail to those who entered their e-mail addresses on the pink BIQ. Fifty Follow-Up Surveys were sent by e-mail, and 13 were returned.

Qualitative data were collected through informal interviews, e-mail, and telephone conversations to enhance the quantitative data. Qualitative data were investigated in combination with the data collected through BIQ and the Follow-Up Survey to explore factors that affected teachers’ intentions and behaviors to implement the communicative activities presented at the Communicative Activities Workshop.

Data Analysis

Behavioral Intention Questionnaire

The 62 items of Behavioral Intention Questionnaire (BIQ) comprised 7 separate scales: Behavioral Intention, Direct Measure of Attitude, Direct Measure of Subjective Norm, Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control, Indirect Measure of Attitude, Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm,
and Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control.

The first step in the analysis of BIQ was calculation of these 7 scales according to the method described by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and subsequently used by other researchers (Crawley, 1991; Patterson, 2000; Smith, 1993). The computation scheme is shown in Table 2. Items 2 and 27 of BIQ were not included in the computation because they did not measure the specific behavior (Personal conversation with Ajzen, 2004).

Table 2: Computation Scheme for Various Scales on the BIQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Questions (Q)</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Scales</th>
<th>Computation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Behavioral Intention</td>
<td>Q1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q59, Q60, Q61, Q62</td>
<td></td>
<td>Direct Measure of Attitude</td>
<td>Q59 + Q60 + Q61 + Q62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3 through Q14</td>
<td>Behavioral beliefs (b)</td>
<td>Indirect Measure of Attitude</td>
<td>( \sum (b_i \times e_i) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q48 through Q58, Q63</td>
<td>Evaluation of the outcome (e)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15, Q16</td>
<td></td>
<td>Direct Measure of Subjective Norm</td>
<td>Q15 \times Q16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17 through Q21</td>
<td>Normative beliefs (nb)</td>
<td>Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm</td>
<td>( \sum (nb_j \times mc_j) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q22 through Q26</td>
<td>Motivation to comply (mc)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Behavioral Intention score was calculated based on the answer to one question which dealt directly with intentions to implement or not to implement the communicative activities in teaching during the spring semester of 2004. The score for the Direct Measure of Attitudes was the sum of 4 semantic-differential scales. The score for the Direct Measure of Subjective Norm was obtained by multiplying the two items which dealt with subjective norm directly, and the Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control score came from 1 item. The Indirect Measure of Attitude score was the sum of 12 products of beliefs and evaluation of the outcomes. The Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm was the sum of 5 products of normative beliefs and motivation to comply. The Indirect Measure of perceived behavioral was the sum of 10 products of control beliefs and likelihood of occurrence.
To answer Research Question 1, frequency distributions of the seven scales for both pre-workshop BIQ and post-workshop BIQ were conducted. To answer Research Question 2, multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the relative contribution of each direct measure of the predictor variables: Direct Measure of Attitude, Direct Measure of Subjective Norm, and Direct Perceived Behavioral Control toward the prediction of Behavioral Intention scores.

To answer Research Question 3, correlation analyses between each of the 3 sets of direct and indirect measures of variables were first conducted to establish relationships between direct and indirect measures of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. Then multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine which salient beliefs contributed the most to form each of the directly measured variables of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control.

To answer Research Question 4, a series of t-tests were conducted. The t-tests compared means of scales between pre-workshop and post-workshop BIQ to see if significant differences were made as the result of the workshop.
Follow-Up Survey

To answer Research Question 5, the Behavioral Intention scores of the 13 Follow-up Survey participants were first compared with those of the total workshop participants to determine if the 13 participants were representative of the study population. Then implementation frequency count of each of the 11 communicative activities was conducted to form groups of activities according to the popularity of the activities.

Qualitative Data

In order to enhance and supplement data collected through the BIQ and Follow-Up Survey, the investigator also collected qualitative data in three ways: (a) informal interviews conducted during the Communicative Activities Workshop, (b) e-mail exchanges with the participants, and (c) telephone conversations. All the data were transcribed and categorized into major themes grouped by the three variables of behavioral intention: attitude toward implementing the activities, social norm, and perceived behavioral control. In addition, teachers’ opinions on the Communicative Activities Workshop were also collected for analysis.
CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

Frequencies of BIQ Scales

The Behavioral Intention Questionnaire (BIQ) was administered to the participants for this study. There are two scaling systems for the BIQ: the unipolar scale and the bipolar scale. According to Ajzen (1991), there is nothing in the theory to inform the researcher whether responses to these scales should be scored in a unipolar fashion (from 1 to 7) or a bipolar fashion (from -3 to +3). The Theory of Planned Behavior does not prefer one over the other. However, Ajzen’s optimal scaling suggests that the optimal scaling be the one with better correlation between the direct and indirect predictor variables. Thus, unipolar system was used in this study. Scales were scored from 1 to 7 with 7 representing either Extremely Likely, Extremely Important, or Strongly Agree, and with 1 representing either Extremely Unlikely, Extremely Unimportant, or Strongly Disagree.

Frequencies of scales were conducted to answer Research Question 1, which dealt with (a) Behavioral Intention, (b) Direct Measure of Attitude, (c) Indirect Measure of Attitude, (d) Direct Measure of Subjective Norm, (e)
Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm, (f) Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control, and (g) Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control.

Behavioral Intention

The overall Behavioral Intention was measured by the answer to one question at the beginning of the questionnaire. This statement was, “My use of communicative activities with my students in the spring semester of 2004 is”, and it was rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1—Extremely Unlikely to 7—Extremely Likely. On the pre-workshop BIQ, the Behavioral Intention scores of the participants ranged from 1 to 7. The average score was 5.18 with the standard deviation of 1.32. On the post-workshop BIQ, they ranged from 2 to 7. The average score was 5.94 with the standard deviation of 1.10. Table 3 shows the Behavioral Intention frequency scores for both pre- and post-workshop when grouped by quartile on the pre-BIQ.

Table 3: Behavioral Intention Scores for Pre- and Post-Workshop Grouped by Quartile on Pre-BIQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-BIQ</th>
<th></th>
<th>Post-BIQ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 to 5</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 to 6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Direct Measure of Attitude

The Direct Measure of Attitude was obtained by means of a set of evaluative adjectives: beneficial, good, valuable, and pleasant. The BIQ contained four statements with the stem of “Using communicative activities with my students is” and then ended with one of the four adjectives. They were rated on 7-point scales from 1--Strongly Disagree to 7--Strongly Agree. The sum over these four scales served as the Direct Measure of Attitude.

On the pre-workshop BIQ, the scores for Direct Measure of Attitude ranged from 16 to 28. The average was 24.02 with the standard deviation of 2.77. On the post-workshop BIQ, they ranged from 16 to 28. The average was 25.17 with the standard deviation of 2.75. Direct Measure of Attitude scores for both pre- and post-workshop when grouped by quartile on the pre-BIQ are shown in Table 4 .

Table 4: Direct Measure of Attitude Scores for Pre- and Post-Workshop Grouped by Quartile on Pre-BIQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-BIQ</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 to 22</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 to 24</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Indirect Measure of Attitude

The Indirect Measure of Attitude scores were obtained from 24 items. 12 of them were behavioral beliefs, and the other 12 were evaluation of outcomes. The 12 behavioral beliefs about using communicative activities were assessed on 7-point scales ranging from 1—Extremely Unlikely to 7—Extremely Likely. The 12 evaluation of outcomes were rated on 7-point scales ranging from 1—Extremely Unimportant to 7—Extremely Important. Each behavioral belief was multiplied by the corresponding evaluation of outcome, and the sum over the 12 products served as the Indirect Measure of Attitude. The Indirect Measure of Attitude scores for both pre- and post-workshop when grouped by quartile on the pre-BIQ are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Indirect Measure of Attitude Scores for Pre- and Post-Workshop Grouped by Quartile on Pre-BIQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Pre-BIQ</th>
<th>Post-workshop</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>192 to 343</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>344 to 394</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Indirect Measure of Attitude dealt with 12 behavioral beliefs about communicative activities: (a) engaging the students, (b) helping students learn content areas, (c) increasing interest, (d) producing better verbal communicators, (e) making learning more meaningful, (f) increasing motivation, (g) making teaching more enjoyable, (h) taking more time to prepare, (i) easily adaptable, (j) promoting cooperative learning, (k) not having control of the students, and (l) covering less materials.

Direct Measure of Subjective Norm

The Direct Measure of Subjective Norm assessed perceived social pressure in a general fashion. Two items, normative belief and motivation to comply, were assessed with respect to “most people who are important to me”. The normative belief of “Most people who are important to me in my teaching decisions will think that I should use communicative activities” and the motivation to comply statement “I want to do what most people who are important to me in my teaching decisions think I should do” were rated on 7-point scales ranging from 1—Extremely Unlikely to 7—
Extremely Likely. The scores from both scales were then multiplied, and the product served as the Direct Measure of Subjective Norm. On the pre-workshop BIQ, the scores ranged from 2 to 49. The average score was 26.6 with the standard deviation of 10.7. On the post-workshop BIQ, they ranged from 4 to 49. The average was 30.4 with a standard deviation of 9.7. Table 6 shows the Direct Measure of Subjective Norm scores for both pre- and post-workshop when grouped by quartile on the pre-BIQ.

Table 6: Direct Measure of Subjective Norm Scores for Pre- and Post-Workshop Grouped by Quartile on Pre-BIQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Pre-BIQ</th>
<th></th>
<th>Post-BIQ</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 to 20</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 to 25</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 to 35</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 to 49</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm

The Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm was the belief-based measure assessed by normative beliefs and motivation to comply. Normative beliefs concerned the expectations of five referents: students, parents of the students, colleagues, school administrators, and the education
department in the government. Questions for normative beliefs and motivation to comply were rated on 7-point scales ranging from 1—Extremely Unlikely to 7—Extremely Likely.

Each normative belief was multiplied by motivation to comply with the referent. The products of the 5 item pairs in respect to the 5 referents were added up, and the sum of the products constituted the Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm. On the pre-workshop BIQ, the scores for the Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm ranged from 60 to 206. The average score was 130.4 with the standard deviation of 31.3. On the post-workshop BIQ, the scores ranged from 63 to 231. The average score was 155.6 with the standard deviation of 34.6. Table 7 shows the Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm scores for both pre- and post-workshop when grouped by quartile on the pre-BIQ.

Table 7: Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm Scores for Pre- and Post-Workshop Grouped by Quartile on Pre-BIQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Pre-BIQ</th>
<th>Post-BIQ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 to 103</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104 to 131</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>132 to 148</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control

The Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control was assessed by means of one question. Participants rated the statement of “If I want to, I could easily use communicative activities in my teaching during the spring semester of 2004” on a 7-point scale ranging from 1--Extremely Unlikely to 7--Extremely Likely. On the pre-workshop BIQ, the scores ranged from 1 to 7. The average score was 4.8 with a standard deviation of 1.4. On the post-workshop BIQ, they ranged from 1 to 7. The average score was 5.2 with the standard deviation of 1.3. Table 8 shows the frequency scores of both pre- and post-workshop for the Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control grouped by quartile on the pre-BIQ.

Table 8: Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control Scores for Pre- and Post-Workshop Grouped by Quartile on Pre-BIQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Pre-BIQ</th>
<th>Post-BIQ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 4</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>40.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 to 5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 to 6</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control

The Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control was assessed by 20 items. Of them, 10 were questions relating to control beliefs as to how easy or difficult using communicative activities in teaching was likely to be. These items were rated on 7-point scales ranging from 1--Extremely Unlikely to 7--Extremely Likely. The other 10 items related to how likely each of the control beliefs is to occur, namely likelihood to occur. The Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control scores were obtained first by multiplying each of the control beliefs scores with the scores on likelihood to occur and then by summing the 10 products.

On the pre-workshop BIQ, the Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control scores ranged from 109 to 427. The average was 258.5 with a standard deviation of 73.5. On the post-workshop BIQ, the scores ranged from 115 to 449. The average was 299 with a standard deviation of 80. The frequency scores of both pre- and post-workshop for the Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control grouped by quartile on the pre-BIQ are shown in Table 9.
Table 9: Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control Scores for Pre- and Post-workshop Grouped by Quartile on Pre-BIQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Pre-BIQ Freq.</th>
<th>Pre-BIQ Percent</th>
<th>Post-BIQ Freq.</th>
<th>Post-BIQ Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>109 to 211</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212 to 249</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250 to 303</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>304 to 449</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Correlation Comparisons Between Variables

The data for the Behavioral Intention Questionnaire represented both direct and indirect measures of the three variables of attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. The direct measures are general, encompassing the entire variables while the indirect measures are specific to individual beliefs within the variable. Multiple regression analyses and correlation analysis were conducted between these various variables to answer Research Questions 2 and 3.

Direct Measures of Variables and Behavioral Intention

The general purpose of multiple regression analysis is (a) to describe the nature of the relationship between the criterion variable and the predictor variables in the form
of a mathematical equation and (b) to assess the relative importance of the various predictor variables in their contribution to variation in the criterion variable (Kachigan, 1991). In a multiple regression analysis, the correlation coefficient $R$ represents the degree to which the predictor variables are related to the criterion variable. The $R$-square or the coefficient of determination represents how much of the variance of the criterion is explained by the mathematical equation.

Stepwise regression is a way of choosing a smaller set of predictor variables from among a larger set. In the stepwise procedure, the predictor variable accounting for the most variance in the criterion variable is chosen first. Then, the variable which accounts for the most of the remaining or residual unexplained variance is added. This procedure continues by adding the variables, one by one, that explain the most of the remaining unexplained variance. This stepwise procedure is stopped at the point where the introduction of another variable would account for only an insignificant portion of the unexplained variance (Kachigan, 1991).

To answer Research Question 2 which dealt with relative contribution of each of the three variables to the
prediction of intention, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the relative weight of each of the three variables: Direct Measures of Attitude (AB), Direct Measure of Subjective Norm (SN), and Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) to the accurate prediction of the criterion variable Behavioral Intention (BI). The multiple regression formula from this analysis was as follows:

\[ BI = 0.252(AB) + 0.034(SN) + 0.107(PBC) + 0.904 \]

Beta coefficients or beta weights are the coefficients of the standardized predictor variables. They are the coefficients in the multiple regression equation when all variables are in their standardized score form (Kachigan, 1991). The beta weights of the equation were as follows: PBC = .31, SN = .30, and AB = .27. The stepwise analysis showed that all three predictors contributed approximately equal amounts to the formula, with perceived behavioral control contributed slightly more and attitude toward the behavior the least. Overall, the formula had a \( R \) of .555 and \( R^2 \) of .31. Thus, this formula explains approximately one third (31%) of the variance in predicting the Behavioral Intention of the teachers in implementing the communicative activities in their English teaching in the spring semester of 2004.
Direct and Indirect Variables

Once the relative significance of each of the predictor variables when directly measured had been established, the data analyses were concentrated on the correlation between direct and indirect measures. Then multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine what salient beliefs contributed the most to each of the three variables. In other words, this process was used to explore why participants held certain attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control by examining the most weighted salient beliefs.

To answer Research Question 3, which asks which salient beliefs within each of the areas of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control contribute most to the formation of the variables, the following analyses were conducted: (a) correlation analysis of the direct to indirect measures for each of the variables, (b) stepwise multiple regression analysis between the Direct Measure of Attitude and its salient beliefs, (c) stepwise multiple regression analysis between the Direct Measure of Subjective Norm and its salient beliefs, and (d) stepwise multiple regression analysis between the Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control and its salient beliefs.
The first test in this analysis series was to examine the relations between the indirect and direct measures of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. According to the theory, beliefs provide the basis for the formation of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. Therefore, appreciable correlations between the two types of measures should be expected. The results of the analysis in Table 10 showed that the correlation between the direct and indirect measures for attitude was fairly strong at .637 explaining 40.6% of the variance. The correlation between the direct and indirect measures for subjective norm was medium at .394 explaining 15.5% of the variance. Both of them were significant beyond the .01 level. The correlation between the direct and indirect measures for perceived behavioral control was weak at .159 explaining less than 3% of the variance, and it was not significant (p = .112).

Table 10. Correlation Coefficient Analysis Between Direct and Indirect Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct Variables</th>
<th>Indirect Variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AB Direct</td>
<td>.637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN Direct</td>
<td>.394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBC Direct</td>
<td>.159</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The unsatisfactory correlation between the direct and indirect measures does not mean the relationship between global and belief-based measures is questionable. Rather, it suggests that the expectancy-value model may fail adequately to describe the process whereby individual beliefs combine to produce the global response. Alternative models should be found to better describe the relationships between direct and indirect measures of the variables (Ajzen, 1991).

The next step in this analysis series was to investigate the relationships between the individual salient beliefs comprising the indirect measures of variables and the direct measures for these variables. These analyses seek the relative contributions of each of the salient beliefs within the indirect measures to the prediction of the direct measures of variables. The belief-based foundation of the perceived behavioral control was also further analyzed although significant correlation between the direct and indirect measures of perceived behavioral control was not established.

A multiple regression analysis was conducted between the Direct Measure of Attitude and each of the salient beliefs making up the Indirect Measure of Attitude. The multiple regression formula is
AB = .106(Interest) + .11(Cooperative Learning) + .077(Enjoyable Teaching) + .036(Cover Less Materials) + 12.6

The formula showed 4 of the 12 beliefs had predictive power to predict the Direct Measure of Attitude while the other 8 beliefs carried little power for predicting attitude. The beta weights of the four beliefs were, respectively, Interest = .30, Cooperative Learning = .34, Enjoyable Teaching = .22, and Cover Less Material = .15. The belief that “communicative activities promote cooperative learning” carried the most weight, while the belief that “using communicative activities will result in covering less materials” carried the least weight among the 4 beliefs. Overall, the formula had a R of .72 and adjusted R² of .50. Thus this formula explained 50% of the variance in predicting the Direct Measure of Attitude.

The second stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the Direct Measure of Subjective Norm and the salient beliefs of subjective norm. The multiple regression formula was

SN = .40 (Parents)+ 19.7

The analysis showed only the belief that “Parents will approve my use of communicative activities in the classroom” carried a significant power toward the prediction of the Direct Measure of Subject Norm score. The other 4 referents
of students, colleagues, schools, and government carried little predicting power and were all dropped from the analysis. The formula had a $R$ of .45 and a $R^2$ of .20. In other words, the formula explained 20% of the variance in predicting the Direct Measure of Subjective Norm score.

The third stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control and its salient beliefs. The multiple regression formula for this relationship was

$$PBC = .045(\text{Better Communication Skills of the Teacher}) + 3.6$$

Only the belief that “Better communication skills of the teacher will make it easier to implement the communicative activities” was included in this formula while the other 9 salient beliefs carried little predictive power toward the prediction of the Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control. The formula had a $R$ of .31 and $R^2$ of .10. Thus, the formula explained only 10% of the variance in predicting the Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control.

**Comparison between Pre- and Post-BIQ**

To answer Research Question 4 which dealt with the effectiveness of the Communicative Activities Workshop, a series of $t$-tests were conducted between the means of the
various scales of pre-workshop and post-workshop Behavioral Intention Questionnaire (BIQ) to determine if the Communicative Activities Workshop made significant differences in participants’ scores of these scales. These scales are (a) Behavioral Intention and Direct Measures of Attitude, Subjective Norm, and Perceived Behavioral Control; (b) Indirect Measures of Attitude, Subjective Norm, and Perceived Behavioral Control; and (c) individual salient beliefs.

Behavioral Intention and Direct Measures of Variables

Paired samples $t$-tests were conducted to compare pre- and post-workshop scores of Behavioral Intention (BI), Direct Measure of Attitude (AB), Direct Measure of Subjective Norm (SN), and Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC). Using a probability level of .05, the group as a whole improved significantly on the post-workshop BIQ scores. (See Table 11).

Table 11. $t$-tests of BI and Direct Measures of AB, SN, and PBC on Pre-workshop and Post-workshop BIQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales (Direct)</th>
<th>Pre-BIQ</th>
<th>Post-BIQ</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BI</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>5.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB</td>
<td>24.03</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>25.17</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>4.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN</td>
<td>26.63</td>
<td>10.73</td>
<td>30.41</td>
<td>9.69</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The BI score was based on the rating of a single item. The pre-workshop BI score of 5.18 equated to Slightly Likely, which shows the participants were receptive of communicative teaching but might not be ready to use it in their teaching yet. The post-workshop BI of 5.94 increased to Quite Likely, which was almost one increment increase on a 7-point scale and shows the participants were now willing to try out the idea.

The Direct Measure of Attitude score was obtained from the sum of 4 items with the overall range from 4 to 28. The pre-workshop AB score was 24.3, which equated to 6.01 per item on the 7-point scale and was equivalent to Quite Important. This score shows the teachers had a favorable attitude toward communicative teaching at the beginning. As a result of the workshop, the AB score moved even closer to Extremely Important, with an increase of a quarter of an increment. Even though the increase was not much, there was not much room to move to considering it was high already in the beginning.

The Direct Measure of Subjective Norm (SN) score was obtained from the product of two items. On a range between 1
to 49, the pre-workshop SN score was 26.63, which equated to 5.16 on the 7-point scale and was slightly over Slightly Likely. The post-workshop SN score moved halfway towards Quite Likely with an increase of a third of an increment.

The Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) score was obtained from a single item. The pre-workshop PBC score was close to Slightly Likely. As the result of the workshop, the post-workshop PBC score moved a third of an increment to above Slightly Likely.

Indirect Measures of Variables

Paired samples t-tests were conducted to compare the pre-workshop and post-workshop Indirect Measures of Attitude (AB), Subjective Norm (SN), and Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC). Using a probability level of .05, the group as a whole improved significantly on the post-workshop scores (See Table 12).

Table 12. t-tests of Indirect Measures of AB, SN, and PBC on the Pre-workshop and Post-workshop BIQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales (Indirect)</th>
<th>Pre-BIQ</th>
<th>Post-BIQ</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AB</td>
<td>388.07</td>
<td>59.26</td>
<td>435.31</td>
<td>66.56</td>
<td>8.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SN</td>
<td>130.40</td>
<td>31.32</td>
<td>155.59</td>
<td>34.60</td>
<td>7.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PBC</td>
<td>258.55</td>
<td>73.52</td>
<td>299.39</td>
<td>79.97</td>
<td>6.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Indirect Measure of Attitude (AB) score was obtained from 24 items with a possible range from 12 to 588. This overall range was converted to the 7-point scale with 7 increments of 96 points and the midpoint at 300. The pre-workshop AB score was close to Slightly Likely. As a result of the workshop, the AB score increased to half way toward Quite Likely, which is an increase of one half of an increment.

The Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm (SN) score was obtained from 10 items of 5 paired statements. The overall possible range of SN scores was from 5 to 245, which was converted to a 7-point scale with 7 increments of 40 and the midpoint at 125. The pre-workshop mean of SN score was neutral, neither high nor low. After the workshop, the score moved to almost Slightly Likely, an increase of two thirds of an increment.

The Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) score was obtained from 20 items of 10 paired statements. The overall possible range of PBC was from 10 to 490, which was converted to 7-point scale with 7 increments of 80 and the midpoint at 250. The pre-workshop Indirect Measure of PBC score was at the neutral point. The post-workshop score increased one half of an increment to close
to Slightly Likely.

**Salient Beliefs**

A series of t-test analyses were also conducted to compare the pre-workshop and post-workshop salient beliefs that made up of the indirect measures of attitude toward the behavior (AB), subjective norm (SN), and perceived behavioral control (PBC). Using a probability level of .05, the group as a whole improved significantly on 26 of the 27 beliefs (See Table 13).

**Table 13. t-tests of Salient Beliefs on Pre-workshop and Post-workshop BIQ**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Beliefs</th>
<th>Pre-BIQ</th>
<th>Post-BIQ</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude Toward Behavior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engage students</td>
<td>35.96</td>
<td>10.73</td>
<td>40.57</td>
<td>9.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help learn content areas</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>9.11</td>
<td>37.38</td>
<td>8.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Produce better communicators</td>
<td>34.99</td>
<td>9.71</td>
<td>39.50</td>
<td>7.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaningful learning</td>
<td>35.33</td>
<td>8.62</td>
<td>39.80</td>
<td>7.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase motivation</td>
<td>36.40</td>
<td>10.31</td>
<td>40.58</td>
<td>8.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More enjoyable teaching</td>
<td>37.97</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td>40.84</td>
<td>7.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take more time to prepare</td>
<td>31.54</td>
<td>9.57</td>
<td>34.34</td>
<td>10.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easily adaptable</td>
<td>26.85</td>
<td>9.31</td>
<td>31.69</td>
<td>9.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject Area</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Median</td>
<td>Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote cooperative learning</td>
<td>34.28</td>
<td>9.96</td>
<td>38.51</td>
<td>8.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Control of students</td>
<td>22.45</td>
<td>10.08</td>
<td>26.52</td>
<td>11.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cover less materials</td>
<td>17.74</td>
<td>9.59</td>
<td>22.96</td>
<td>11.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective Norm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>25.83</td>
<td>9.86</td>
<td>32.40</td>
<td>9.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>21.39</td>
<td>9.03</td>
<td>26.45</td>
<td>10.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleagues</td>
<td>25.94</td>
<td>8.23</td>
<td>31.51</td>
<td>8.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School</td>
<td>27.26</td>
<td>8.95</td>
<td>32.02</td>
<td>9.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>29.98</td>
<td>10.16</td>
<td>33.23</td>
<td>9.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Behavioral Control</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better communication skills of teachers</td>
<td>31.10</td>
<td>10.29</td>
<td>35.83</td>
<td>9.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More training</td>
<td>30.03</td>
<td>11.37</td>
<td>34.18</td>
<td>10.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More resources</td>
<td>30.89</td>
<td>11.61</td>
<td>35.02</td>
<td>10.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More class time</td>
<td>19.67</td>
<td>11.15</td>
<td>26.89</td>
<td>12.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Entrance Exam</td>
<td>29.02</td>
<td>12.94</td>
<td>30.39</td>
<td>11.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication with other teachers</td>
<td>31.77</td>
<td>10.70</td>
<td>33.78</td>
<td>10.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smaller class size</td>
<td>21.38</td>
<td>15.58</td>
<td>24.53</td>
<td>15.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in testing methods</td>
<td>20.74</td>
<td>14.52</td>
<td>26.67</td>
<td>14.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More administration support</td>
<td>24.97</td>
<td>10.94</td>
<td>28.37</td>
<td>10.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The only salient belief that did not change significantly on the post-workshop BIQ was the belief that “The pressure to teach to the College Entrance Examination would make it more difficult to use communicative activities in the classroom” (p = .185). This finding showed that the teachers felt the same level of pressure on teaching to prepare students for the exam. The training did not change the perceived behavioral control regarding this salient belief.

Results of Follow-Up Survey

The Follow-Up Survey was designed to answer Research Questions 5, which dealt with the actual implementation of the communicative activities. Of the 50 Follow-Up Surveys sent to the participants, 13 surveys were returned. The Follow-Up Survey consisted of two parts. Part I asked participants to choose a level of implementation for each of the activities based on the following choices: A--used the activity exactly as it was presented, B--used a modification of the activity, C--plan to use it within the semester but have not used yet, and D--not plan to use it. Comments for
each activity were encouraged. Part II of the survey contained nine open-ended questions. The answers to the 9 open-ended questions will be discussed together with the qualitative data.

Comparison of the Two Groups

The Behavioral Intention (BI) scores of the 13 participants were compared with the total group of workshop participants. It was found that the 13 participants were representative of the total group in terms of their Behavioral Intention scores.

Table 14. Behavioral Intention scores for Follow-Up Survey Participants and Total Workshop Participants Grouped by Quartile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentiles</th>
<th>Follow-Up Group</th>
<th>Total Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14 showed that the Behavioral Intention scores of the 13 Follow-Up Survey participants was the same as that of the total workshop participants when grouped by quartile. The minimum score for both groups was 2 and the maximum score for both groups was 7. The mean Behavioral Intention
score of the 13 participants was 5.8, compared to 5.9 for the total group. Therefore, based on these scores, the 13 participants of the Follow-Up Survey were representative of the workshop participants. It was assumed that their actual implementation of the communicative activities were representative of the total workshop participants, too.

Groups of Activities

Frequency count was conducted on the 11 communicative activities presented at the workshop based on the self-reports of the 13 Follow-Up Survey participants. The different implementation levels indicated the popularity of the activities. Table 15 showed the implementation frequencies of the communicative activities reported by the 13 participants in the Follow-Up Survey. They are grouped by Implementation Levels of A (used), B (modified), C (plan to use), and D (not plan to use).

Table 15: Implementation Frequencies of the Activities Grouped by Implementation Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telling Jokes</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversation Wheels</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keep Talking</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair Rotation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the Follow-Up Survey, participants were also encouraged to comment on each activity. The following is a summary of the comments given by the participants grouped by each activity.

1. Telling Jokes: Respondents enjoyed the activity because it activated the class and motivated students. However, good suitable jokes were not easy to find.

2. Conversation Wheels: Though it was intended for providing communication opportunities, teachers commented that it was useful for vocabulary teaching. Some commented that using the activity made it hard to control the class.

3. Keep Talking: Teachers reported that it was a good way to practice speaking, but students could not say complete sentences. Students liked to give words, but did not like to talk about topics.

4. Pair Rotation: Teachers reported it was a good way to practice speaking, but students did not know what to do in the beginning. It took too much time, and it was hard for lower level students. Some
teachers gave suggestions as to how to use it. One teacher used it in the writing class to help students get ideas for writing. Some said choosing the right topic was the key for successful implementation.

5. Black Magic: Some teachers liked it as a warm-up exercise; others said it was too easy for senior students.

6. Team Comprehension: Teachers commented that it was a challenging activity. When the students struggled to understand the text, it was hard for them to come up with the right questions to ask.

7. Weaving the Web: It was an effective way to teach reading, especially as a pre-reading activity. Because it required previous knowledge about the reading topics, some teachers said it was too complicated.

8. Speed Reading: It was very popular among the participants. Many teachers tried it or planned to try it. The problem was some students did not observe the rules.

9. Relative Speaking: Teachers commented it was good for lower level students or junior middle school students. Teachers thought it was a good way for grammar practice though grammar practice was not the only purpose for the game.

10. Detective Story: Teachers said it was too time-consuming and too challenging for lower level students or junior middle school students.

11. Where Am I: Teachers said it was a good grammar exercise though grammar practice was not the only purpose for the game. It was good for lower level students but not challenging enough for senior
students. Appropriate pictures were hard to find.

Analysis of frequency count of the 11 activities showed that they tend to fall into 3 groups: Useful, Possible Implementation, and Not Plan to Use. The activities that fall into the Useful group were those that were implemented by close to half or majority of the participants either exactly as they were demonstrated at the workshop or through a modified version. “Telling Jokes”, “Waving the Web”, and “Speed Reading” belong to this group. “Telling Jokes” was implemented by 7 of the 13 teachers, and 5 teachers indicated they planned to use it. Only one teacher did not intend to use it in the spring semester of 2004. “Waving the Web” was implemented by 6 of the 13 teachers, and 4 more indicated a plan for implementation during the specified period of time. “Speed Reading” was implemented by 5 teachers and 6 others indicated a plan to implement within the specific semester.

The activities in the Possible Implementation group had a fair implementation level. “Pair Rotation”, and “Team Comprehension” fall into this category. “Pair Rotation” was implemented by 5 teachers, 4 others indicated they planned to use it sometime during the semester, and 4 teachers did not plan to use it. “Team Comprehension” was implemented by
only 3 of the 13 teachers, but 6 of them indicated a plan of implementation.

(C) The Not Plan to Use group of activities were those that about half or majority of the participants indicated no plan of implementation. The activities of “Conversation Wheels”, “Keep Talking”, “Black Magic”, “Relative Speaking”, “Detective Story, and “Where Am I” fall into this category.

The Useful group of activities proved to be useful for the teachers tend to be easy to implement or they complement teachers’ existing teaching tasks. Jokes are usually short, fun, and easy to find although cultural jokes are not easy to understand. Speed Reading helps students to locate information quickly in reading tasks, which is an important skill for test taking. Weaving the Web is a good activity for pre-reading exercise, and it also helps to improve reading comprehension, which can enhance the performance of teachers’ existing tasks. These activities tend to be popular among the participants, who are busy and have high pressure to prepare students for all kinds of tests with the College Entrance Examination being the ultimate test.

The second group of activities, the Possible Implementation Group, had only fair levels of implementation. “Pair Rotation” is not hard to implement and
provides a good opportunity for students to talk about topics interesting to them. However, teachers who used it said it was a good pre-writing activity; writing is an important skill for tests, especially for the College Entrance Examination. Teachers who did not use it said it was hard to control the class when the activity was used. “Team Comprehension” was also aimed at improving reading with more comprehension. Yet, teachers said it was hard for students to come up with appropriate questions when they did not quite understand what they were reading. This group of activities has the potential to be implemented by more teachers, but control of class and low skills of the students were concerns of the participants.

The last group of activities, the Not Plan to Use group, were rejected by half or majority of the participants. Six of the 11 activities belonged to this category. Based on the qualitative data and observations, the reasons this group of activities were rejected are (a) they were purely intended for communication and had little to do with skills for tests (“Conversation Wheels” and “Keep Talking”), (b) they were complicated and took too much time to implement even though the teachers liked them very much during the workshop (“Detective Story”), (c) too easy
(“Black Magic”, “Relative Speaking, “Where Am I”), and (d) they focused on specific grammar structures and could only be implemented when the specific grammar structures were being taught (“Relative Speaking” and “Where Am I”).

Major Themes from Qualitative Data

Effectiveness of the Workshop

Qualitative data were collected by means of the Follow-Up Survey, informal interviews, telephone conversations, and e-mail exchanges. Participants reported positively on the effectiveness of the workshop. Some teachers expressed their excitement over the new ideas presented at the workshop. One teacher wrote in her e-mail:

I’m very glad to have attended your lecture, from which I gained a lot. I should say you have led me into a new world in my teaching career.

Another teacher reported:

Your workshop was great and interesting. It was the most rewarding day because I learned much from you. I think the games you told us are all very interesting and useful.

Some teachers reported the reasons why they liked the workshop. One reason was the workshop made learners the center and brought teachers and learners closer. As one teacher wrote:

It makes learners central to the learning process. Whatever the activity, the principle of the workshop is to narrow the traditional gap.
between teachers and students, and teaching and learning are taking place on both sides. I really like it!

One important characteristic of Communicative Language Teaching is student-centered teaching. Students are given opportunities in the classroom to use the language in unrehearsed contexts, and the teacher takes the role of a facilitator and guide (Brown, 2001). However, the traditional way of language teaching is teacher-centered teaching. Students are given few opportunities to use the language productively, and much of the class time is the teacher talking about grammar rules of the language and students are intensively involved in exercises and drills.

The fact that the participants preferred student-centered learning to teacher-centered learning is congruent with adult learning principles. Adult learners learn the best in a learning environment that promotes mutual respect (Knowles, 1980). Adult learners feel safe and supported as the facilitator promotes a learner-centered instead of a teacher-centered atmosphere.

Another reason teachers liked the workshop was the workshop made them think about their own teaching. One teacher wrote “It makes me think a lot about the new teaching method and its influence on the students”. This
comment showed that critical reflection in adult learning took place during the workshop.

Critical reflection is the process by which adults become critically reflective regarding the assumptions, beliefs and values which they have accepted as norms (Brookfield, 2000). Mezirow considered critical reflection to be the distinguishing characteristic of adult learning, and saw it as the vehicle by which one questions the validity of his world view (Mezirow, 1991). In other words, the real significance of adult learning appears when learners begin to re-evaluate their assumptions they held formerly, to revise previously unquestioned mind, and to make them more inclusive, discriminating, open, emotionally capable of change, and reflective so they may generate beliefs and opinions that will prove more true or justified to guide action. (Mezirow, 2000, p.8)

A third reason teachers liked the workshop was its hands-on demonstration. One teacher wrote, “You asked us to do the activities by ourselves, it gave us a deep impression, so that we can use these activities better.” The participants’ appreciation of hands-on demonstration verifies the adult learning principle that experience plays an essential role in adult learning.

The notion of experience as a key element in learning
can be traced back to Lindeman (1926), Dewey (1938), and others (Merriam & Brockett, 1996).

The idea of experience as a core aspect of adult learning is so pervasive in the theory and practice of adult education that it would be difficult to find examples that do not address the role of experience. (p. 153)

Central to understanding the importance of the relationship of experience to adult education is “the idea that it is not merely that the accumulation of experience makes a difference; it is how learners attach meanings to or make sense of their experience that matters” (p. 153). The participants of the workshop brought their own teaching and learning experience to the workshop, and their past experience served as foundation for the current learning. The hands-on experience they had at the workshop made learning more meaningful and helped them to readily apply in their own teaching.

Attitude toward Communicative Activities

The qualitative data showed the participants had a mixture of attitudes toward the use of communicative activities. The teachers identified three major advantages of using the communicative activities.

The first advantage is using the activities can promote students’ interest in learning English. Most
teachers reported the activities motivated students to learn English. Students loved the changes the communicative activities brought to class and were happier and more active in class. As one teacher reported:

In my school, most of the students are not interested in studying English. They are tired of English, which requires hard memory. English reading is the most difficult part. They used to sleep or do other things in class. After I tried the new reading activity, the reading class takes on a new face. They are very interested in my class. They enjoy reading in a competitive way and everybody tries to be the first to give the answer. Nobody sleeps in the class! The difficult part now is they are too excited in the class. Sometimes they talk about other subjects.

The second advantage identified by the participants was using the activities can improve relationship in the classroom. Students enjoyed working in groups and learning English in a relaxing atmosphere. As one teacher reported: “I find that the relationship has changed, and students like to talk and to be known. They can say what they want.”

The third advantage of using the activities in the classroom identified by the teachers was they helped students to know the real purpose of learning English. One teacher wrote that “They [the communicative activities] help the students to understand that language is more a tool than knowledge. The activities help them to use the language in
real life.”

However, some teachers showed their resistance to communicative teaching or any new methods imposed upon them. They saw the main goal of an English teacher was to help students to get into college, not to communicate in English. As one teacher wrote:

There are now too many new ways to teach English, and many of them are not relevant to the Chinese situation. It’s chaotic! Communication is important if students are to go abroad, but my students are high school students. Their first step is to get into the university.

Some teachers expressed their opinions on the constant change of textbooks and on the New Standards, English Standards for Compulsive Education and Senior Middle Schools (2001). They said that although the change was toward a more communicative approach, as long as the College Entrance Examination did not change, all the other changes would not take effect. The Chinese teachers compared the College Entrance Examination to a baton that an orchestra conductor uses to conduct music. Just as a conductor uses the baton to control the whole orchestra, the College Entrance Examination controls all the teaching and learning processes in China. As one teacher reported, “We change textbooks all the time. The new textbook is focused on all skills, but
with so much content and so little time, the [actual] focus is still in the traditional content.”

Since the College Entrance Examination seems to be the goal of English education in China, some teachers were resentful of the constant change of syllabi and textbooks while at the same time they had to focus on teaching to the College Entrance Examination. As one teacher pointed out,

> Without the change of the Exam, the change of syllabi or textbooks doesn’t work. The new syllabus says English teaching should focus on language competency, but the Exam is the old way.

**Social Pressure**

The qualitative data indicated that parents and schools played an important part in teachers’ decision to implement or not to implement the communicative activities. Parents only cared about students’ performance on exams, ultimately the College Entrance Examination, which can determine the future of a student. If the teaching method resulted in improved performance, parents would approve the use of the method. If it did not help to improve the performance, they would disapprove the use of it. As one teacher wrote, “The most important thing is the College Entrance Examination. Parents will say communicative teaching might be better, but our children can not get high
marks on the exams. So parents won’t be happy if they don’t see their children’s marks improve.”

Next to the parents, schools put extra pressure on the teachers to increase students’ performance on the College Entrance Examination. One teacher reported,

It’s crucially important to increase the college entrance rate, to be more accurate, the famous university entrance rate. It’s the school’s publicity. The school uses it to lure good students. The whole educational system in China is to teach to the exam, and there is no other way to solve the problem.

Perceived Behavioral Control

From the qualitative data, 5 barriers of implementing the communicative activities in English teaching, which reflected participants’ perceived behavioral control, were identified: (a) College Entrance Exam, (b) Not Enough Time, (c) Lack of Control, (d) Poor Skills of the Students, and (e) Poor Communication Skills of the Teachers.

College Entrance Exam. Almost all the teachers reported on the high pressure the College Entrance Examination had placed on them. They reported that the exam was like the baton of an orchestra that controlled the English Language Teaching in China, and the students’ performance on the exam was the only evaluation of the teachers. Therefore, the goal of English teaching in senior
middle schools was to increase students’ performance on the College Entrance Examination, not to promote communication skills. Even though teachers reported positive attitude toward the use of communicative activities, the pressure of the exam made it difficult for them to implement.

Because of the pressure of the College Entrance Examination, teachers and students, especially those of Senior 3, faced unbearable pressure everyday. One teacher gave a fairly comprehensive report on the nature of the pressure:

First, when we recruit the students, we have a rank, and when they graduate, we’ll check to see if they advance in the rank or the opposite. But better be the first option. Otherwise, the teacher will certainly lose face, for one thing, and the school and students will doubt the teacher’s ability, and consequently, the teacher will get less bonus. Second, in most schools, the teacher will be assigned to one class and teach from Senior 1 to Senior 3 all the way and then be responsible for the result of the English test of the College Entrance Examination. So Senior 3 is the crucial time for the teachers because they are in the position to be examined. Nobody would like to see their effort of all the three years just result in nothing. And the teachers attending your workshop are the ones selected from each urban district, and they should be good teachers. Being a good teacher simply doubles the pressure. At the present Senior 3 are making their last effort before the exam. There are three simulation tests this semester. So basically, they do not have any time for other things. They can only be engaged in doing simulation tests of all the districts.
The fact that many teachers attending the Communicative Activities Workshops were Senior 3 teachers might explain the low return rate of the Follow-Up Survey. They simply did not have time to implement the activities, and they felt bad about reporting the reality. This reaction of not responding in problematic situations is quite common in the Chinese culture. In order to avoid embarrassment and spare bad feelings of both parties, people usually react by not responding. One teacher, however, did acknowledge her embarrassment and gave reasons for not sending back the Follow-Up Survey.

I feel ashamed to answer your e-mail so late. I am teaching Senior 3 and preparing my students for the coming College Entrance Examination. As a result, I haven’t tried any of the communicative activities although I do think they are very helpful. I plan to use them in my later teaching experience if I can teach any other grades except Senior 3. So I can’t finish your survey this time. I’m terribly sorry and I hope to be able to do the task next semester.

Not only did Senior 3 teachers face extreme pressure, Junior 3 teachers also faced much pressure. As the teachers reported, the biggest goal for Junior 3 English teachers was to prepare students to pass the Senior Middle School Entrance Examination, the exam that Junior 3 students take to enter senior middle schools. The government required a passing rate, and teachers and schools were judged by
whether or not the passing rate was achieved. As one teacher reported on the phone:

I am teaching Junior 3. The biggest goal is to prepare students to pass Beijing Senior Middle School Entrance Exam. The pressure is from everywhere, from the school, parents, and the government. The required passing rate is 95%. What would be the result if the requirement is not reached? That is not convenient to say. The exam consists of grammar, writing, close texts, and reading. It doesn’t test speaking. Students are too young, and they don’t have much motivation. Your activities are good but won’t help us to accomplish our tasks. They might be helpful for Junior 1 and 2. Our time is too limited.

Thus, the pressure of the two exams, College Entrance Examination and Senior Middle School Entrance Examination made it very difficult for teachers to implement communicative activities in Senior 3 and Junior 3 classes.

**Not Enough Time.** The word time was mentioned more than 50 times in the qualitative data. Almost all the teachers in the interviews talked about not having enough time to implement the communicative activities. They reported that the required content areas to cover in class were so much that they could not implement the activities. Some of the activities were time-consuming and took too much class time. Teachers have to cover a lot of content areas in class because these areas will be tested in exams. One teacher said that the content they had to cover in each class was so
much that they could not even spare a few minutes for the short 10-minute activities. “In this 10 minutes, students can learn knowledge that helps them to increase scores on exams.” A Senior 1 teacher described the content that had to be covered in a week.

Every lesson takes 5 class periods a week. There is a dialogue, which takes one class period, there are two reading articles to cover, a listening activity, a writing activity, plus workbook exercises. Teachers follow the mode to teach. Exams cover all the content areas.

With so much content that teachers had to cover, the regular class time, which was from 5 to 6 hours a week, was not enough, and it did not allow time for extra communicative activities. One teacher said, “Your activities will help me when students are really tired. I will use one or two to lighten them up. But I have to consider time and benefits.” Another teacher reported she had to give extra classes after school and on weekends to accomplish teaching tasks. She taught English to two classes, seven hours for each class a week. “In addition to the regular classes, I work with each class for 80 minutes a week after school. On Saturdays, I give 80 minutes of extra tutoring to each class.” This practice of giving extra classes after school and on weekends was prevalent in all schools represented by the participants of the workshop.
The large class size also resulted in prolonged time when implementing the communicative activities. One teacher reported:

In our class there are about 45-55 students. If we use these activities more often, it will take much time. As a result, we are not likely to finish our teaching tasks because we really have a lot of things required to teach.

Teachers said if they could squeeze time for communicative activities, they would use the activities that would not take too much time and were easier to control.

Lack of Control. Because of the large class size, many of which were over 60 students, teachers expressed concern for lack of control when using the communicative activities. One teacher reported,

If I can, I want to use all the activities you provided, but sometimes it takes too much time and sometimes the students make too much noise during the activities, for there are around 60 students in one class in our school.

Another teacher also talked about difficulties of control when using the activities. “I find it hard to control my class. I have more than 60 students, 40 boys and 24 girls.” Teachers said they would choose to use the activities in which the teacher had better control over the students.

Poor Skills of the Students. Some teachers reported on the poor English skills, poor study skills, and low
motivation of the students, which made implementation of communicative activities difficult. Teachers were reluctant to put students into groups for communicative activities. They reported that students did not have the ability to carry on conversations. Students liked activities that required them to guess words but were at a loss when they had to talk on a topic. They did not know what to say or what to do.

Other teachers blamed the English teaching in elementary schools for students’ poor skills in English. One teacher teaching junior middle school students complained:

English in elementary schools is very inconsistent. Some came to middle school as if they had never learned English. What’s worse, they are tired of English already. It would be better if they had never learned English so that they can start fresh in middle school.

Students’ low motivation to learn English also made it hard for teachers, especially those who taught in regular schools as opposed to key schools. As one teacher reported:

The students’ skills are very low, and they have no motivation. They have little opportunity to speak English. Their parents have very low education level. The students in my school are leftovers after other better schools picked their students.

Another concern for teachers was students’ poor study skills. They might be highly motivated, but were not taught
how to learn.

My students have high motivation. But when they were in junior school, they didn’t learn any study skills. Now they are in senior middle school, they don’t know how to learn. They have no good study habits and no study skills.

Communication Skills of the Teachers. A few teachers expressed their lack of confidence in implementing the communicative activities because of their poor communication skills themselves. One teacher showed her desire to go to America to improve her verbal skills.

I wish I could go to America to improve my English. I have taught English for 20 years, yet my pronunciation and spoken English are still poor. If the government can send us to America for a few months or half a year, that will be so wonderful. Even if we have to pay for some costs, say, half of the costs, most of us would be willing to do it.

According to the result of the stepwise multiple regression analysis examining the relative contribution of each of the salient beliefs to the Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control, lack of confidence in teachers’ own communication skills was the only control belief that contributed significantly to the Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control. The 9 other control beliefs were dropped from the analysis because none of them accounted for the unexplained variance significantly. However, this belief only
explained 10% of the variance.
CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATION

Summary of the Study

The increasing involvement of China in world affairs has made it necessary for the country to become part of the global English speaking community. However, the traditional English teaching method in Chinese middle schools is a teacher-centered, book-centered, grammar-translation method with an emphasis on rote memory. Due to the fact that the traditional way of English teaching cannot meet the needs of the rapid development of China, the government has called for an educational reform in language teaching, which was manifested in the 2001 document English Standards for Compulsory Education and Senior Middle Schools (New Standards). The New Standards specify that the goal of language teaching is to improve the communicative competence of students. With communicative language teaching as the general approach, the New Standards promote a task-based teaching method in which students learn how to use the language in the process of fulfilling different tasks.

The New Standards represent a paradigm shift from the traditional language teaching in China. To use the communicative teaching approach in language teaching instead
of the traditional book-centered, grammar-centered, and teacher-centered way of teaching offers a new approach for carrying out the New Standards. There have been research studies done investigating teachers’ attitudes toward communicative teaching in China and the constraints of implementing communicative teaching in China. However, there has been little research done explaining factors that influence teachers’ intentions to implement or not to implement communicative activities using a methodological framework.

The purpose of the study was to describe (a) factors that influence middle school English teachers’ intention to implement communicative activities in their classroom in China and (b) the actual implementation of the communicative activities in their teaching. The Theory of Planned Behavior was utilized as the framework for the study to analyze the behavioral intentions of 101 participants of the Communicative Activities Workshop presented in China in February of 2004. The Theory of Planned Behavior was chosen as the methodological framework because of its demonstrated ability to explain behavioral intentions in science-related teaching behaviors (Crawley, 1990; Haney, Czerniak, & Lumpe, 1996; Patterson, 2000; Smith, 1993).
The study investigated three variables to predict behavioral intention: attitudes toward behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. More specifically, this study sought to explain a specified behavior among participants of the Communicative Activities Workshop: the implementation of the communicative activities in the participants’ classroom teaching in the spring semester of 2004.

The study was descriptive. The Communicative Activities Workshop was designed to demonstrate communicative activities and was conducted with three groups of Chinese middle school English teachers with a total of 103 participants; of these, 101 turned in their pre-workshop and post-workshop Behavioral Intention Questionnaire (BIQ). The BIQ was designed specifically for this study following the guidelines of the Theory of Planned Behavior. A follow-up survey was designed and sent to the participants 1 month after the Communicative Activities Workshop. It gathered information about participants’ actual implementation of the activities and their opinions on using the activities. In addition, qualitative data were collected during and after the workshop through informal interviews, e-mail, and telephone conversations with the participants to enhance
Summary of Findings

Findings from the BIQ

To answer Research Question 1, frequencies of various scales were conducted. The 62 items in the Behavioral Intention Questionnaire (BIQ) were grouped into 7 scales. These scales were (a) Behavioral Intention, (b) Direct Measure of Attitude, (c) Indirect Measure of Attitude, (d) Direct Measure of Subjective Norm, (e) Indirect Measure of Subjective Norm, (f) Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control, and (g) Indirect Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control.

The 7 scales of both pre- and post-workshop BIQ revealed the following findings:

• The overall intention scores tended to be high. On the pre-workshop BIQ, the mean was 5.18, which shows the participants were slightly likely to implement. On the post-workshop BIQ, the mean was 5.94, which shows the participants were quite likely to implement.

• The scores of direct measures of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control were higher than those of indirect measures. The Direct Measure of Attitude had the highest score of all the scales. The high scores of Direct Measure of Attitude showed the participants had a very positive attitude toward using communicative activities before the workshop, and as a
result of the workshop that attitude improved even more.

- The scores of indirect measures of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control tended to be lower than those of the direct measures. Of the three indirect measures, the scores of Indirect Measure of Attitude showed to be the highest.

To answer Research Question 2, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was done to examine the relative contribution of each of the three direct measures of variables to the prediction of intention. The stepwise analysis showed all the three variables contributed approximately equal amounts with perceived behavioral control contributing slightly more and the attitude contributing the least. Overall, the multiple regression formula explained approximately one-third of the variance.

To answer Research Question 3, correlation analysis between direct and indirect measures of variables was first conducted. The results of the analysis revealed that there was a fairly strong correlation between the direct and indirect measures of attitude at .637, accounting for 40.6% of the variance. The correlation between the direct and indirect measures of subjective norm showed medium magnitude at .394, accounting for 15.5% of the variance. The magnitude of correlation of .159 between the direct and indirect
measures of perceived behavioral control was weak and not significant; it only accounted for less than 3% of the variance. The unsatisfactory correlation between the direct and indirect measures suggests that the expectancy-value model may fail adequately to describe the process whereby individual beliefs combine to produce the global response (Ajzen, 1991).

The next step in the data analysis was to investigate the relationships between the individual salient beliefs comprising the indirect measures of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control and the direct measures of these three variables. The stepwise multiple regression analysis between the Direct Measure of Attitude and its salient beliefs showed 4 of the 12 salient beliefs carried predictive power. The 4 beliefs were communicative activities (a) help increase students’ interest in learning English, (b) promote cooperative leaning, (c) make teaching enjoyable, and (d) result in covering less material. Overall, the multiple regression formula explained 50% of the variance in predicting the Direct Measure of Attitude score.

Stepwise multiple regression analysis between the Direct Measure of Subjective Norm and its salient beliefs
showed that only the parents of the students carried predictive power in predicting the Direct Measure of Subjective Norm score. The formula explained only 20% of the variance. Stepwise multiple regression analysis was also conducted to examine possible relationship between the Direct Measure of Perceived Behavioral Control and its salient beliefs. Only the belief that dealt with teachers’ limited communicative skills carried some predictive power.

To answer Research Question 4, t-tests between the means of pre- and post-workshop BIQ scores were conducted, which showed that the Communicative Activities Workshop made a significant difference in all the scales and the individual beliefs except one belief which dealt with College Entrance Examination. This finding showed that the workshop was effective although teachers’ perceived pressure to prepare students for the College Entrance Examination remained the same in spite of the training.

**Findings from the Follow-Up Survey**

To answer Research Question 5, the implementation of the 11 communicative activities collected from the Follow-Up Survey were analyzed. These 11 activities can be categorized into 3 groups: (a) the Useful group, (b) the Possible Implementation group, and (c) the Not Plan to Use group. The
findings showed that activities that were easy to implement, helped to complement existing teaching tasks, and helped to improve skills required by tests were being implemented. Activities that took much class time, were hard to control, and had little to do with testing skills were being rejected.

**Major Findings from Qualitative Data**

To enhance data collected through the BIQ and the Follow-Up Survey, qualitative data were collected through informal interviews, e-mail, and telephone conversations. Participants reported positively on the effectiveness of the Communicative Activities Workshop. The three reasons emerged from the data that explained why the workshop was effective were: (a) the workshop focused on the learners and brought teachers and learners closer, (b) the workshop helped the teachers to reflect on their teaching methods, and (c) the workshop offered hands-on demonstration of the activities.

Teachers’ attitude toward the communicative activities was mixed. The majority of the participants reported positively on using the communicative activities. Three advantages of using communicative activities were identified from the qualitative data: using the activities in the classroom can (a) promote students’ interest in learning
English, (b) improve relationship among students and between students and teachers, and (c) help students to know the real purpose of learning English. This finding from the qualitative data was congruent with the findings revealed from the data analysis of BIQ, where 4 behavioral beliefs explained 50% of the variance and all the 4 beliefs were related to the student-centeredness of communicative teaching. However, some teachers showed resistance to communicative teaching techniques or any other new methods imposed upon them because the new ways of teaching did not seem to be relevant to the ultimate goal of the students, which was to get into college.

Parents and schools were identified to be the key referents in teachers’ decision to implement or not to implement communicative activities, which enhanced the finding from BIQ. The analysis of BIQ revealed that only parents of the students were important referent in teachers’ decision making. The qualitative data showed that what parents and schools cared about most was not students’ communicative competence but their performance on all kinds of exams, with the ultimate exam being the College Entrance Examination. Students’ performance on exams was the ultimate evaluation of teaching and thus, of teachers.
Although relationship between the direct and indirect measures of perceived behavioral control by means of correlation analysis was found not significant, five important barriers that prevented teachers from implementing the activities were revealed from the qualitative data. These were:

A. College Entrance Examination. Teachers face tremendous pressure to prepare students for this ultimate exam.

B. Time. Almost all the teachers talked about not having enough time to implement the communicative activities due to the heavy load of teaching during specified class time.

C. Control. Because of the large class size, teachers experienced a lack of control when implementing communicative activities and when students had freedom to talk.

D. Students’ poor skills. Students poor language skills and poor study skills made it hard to implement communicative activities.

E. Communication skills of the teachers. Teachers felt a lack of confidence in implementing communicative activities.

**Theory of Planned Behavior**

The Theory of Planned Behavior is a useful tool in understanding factors that influence teachers’ intentions to implement or not to implement communicative activities in classroom teaching in China.

The predictor variables used in the theory to define
behavioral intention: attitude towards the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control significantly predicted the behavioral intention scores. This finding validated the addition of the third construct of the perceived behavioral control to the original model to predict behavioral intention. The original model of the Theory of Reasoned Action consisted of two variables: attitude toward the behavior and subjective norm. The Theory of Planned Behavior is an extension to the Theory of Reasoned Action to explain behaviors that are not under volitional control, that is, when people’ perceived control over the behavior is incomplete. The conclusions relating to the Theory of Planned Behavior are that (a) the theory is a useful evaluation tool, (b) cultural forces might explain the different contributions of the 3 variables, and (c) student-centered teaching determines teachers’ attitude.

A Useful Evaluation Tool

One conclusion of this study is that the Theory of Planned Behavior can be applied as a useful tool in predicting and explaining teachers’ intention to implement communicative activities in teaching. The 13 returned Follow-Up Surveys, though low in number, were representative of the total workshop participants in their behavioral
intention scores. The fact that 12 of the 13 participants implemented at least one communicative activity confirms the hypothesis of the theory that the intention is a fairly accurate predictor of behavior relating to the participants’ implementation of communicative activities in the spring of 2004.

The process of collecting teacher beliefs using experts in the field led to the development of the Behavioral Intention Questionnaire. This questionnaire permitted a deeper understanding of the complexity of behavioral intention of the participants to implement communicative activities in the spring semester of 2004, which was an interaction of attitudes, social pressure, and perceived behavioral control.

The utility of the Theory of Planned Behavior in understanding teachers’ intentions to implement the communicative activities in their teaching in the spring semester of 2004 offers the field a promising tool that future studies can use to build an accumulative body of knowledge relating to the field. The use of the Theory of Planned Behavior would also provide education colleges, universities, Western language experts, and curricular reform committees a method of evaluating the impact of
training programs in terms of behavioral changes.

Cultural Factors

The finding that perceived behavioral control contributed the most and attitude toward behavior contributed the least in predicting the behavioral intention of Chinese middle school English teachers differs from most of the research done in the West using the Theory of Planned Behavior. Attitude was found to contribute the most in most of the studies done in the West. In some studies, attitude was found to be the only variable that contributed to the prediction of behavioral intention (Crawley, 1990; Haney, Czerniak, & Lumpe, 1996; Patterson, 2000). The influences of Chinese and the Western cultures might explain the difference.

In Western cultures, individuality is the highest value people hold. Consequently, attitude toward performing a behavior is very important in people’s intention. A person is more likely to perform an action if the person has a more favorable attitude toward the outcome of the behavior. People will perform a behavior if they believe the outcome is favorable even if other people are not in favor of the behavior. Generally speaking, people have more control over their behaviors in Western cultures.
In contrast, the Chinese culture is a culture that values the social norm. People might have a very positive attitude toward the outcome of a behavior, but they will most likely not perform the behavior if the social norm is not favorable for the behavior. During the Communicative Activities Workshop, the participants showed high interest and involvement in the communicative activities. The Direct Measure of Attitude scale was the highest among all the other variables. Very positive attitude toward using the communicative activities in teaching was also evident in the qualitative data. However, the Direct Measure of Attitude carried the least power in predicting the Behavioral Intention.

In Chinese culture, people tend to feel responsible for the benefits of others. Teachers feel morally responsible for the well-being and future of the students; helping them to get into a university is teachers’ highest responsibility in teaching. Because of the moral responsibility and high social pressure, the participants of the study felt they did not have much control over the implementation of the activities. In spite of teachers’ favorable attitude toward using the communicative activities in teaching, it was the perceived behavioral control that
influenced teachers’ intention the most.

**Student-centered Approach and Attitude**

Four of the twelve behavioral beliefs carried the most predictive power in predicting the Direct Measure of Attitude. The four beliefs together explained 50% of the variance. All the four beliefs that communicative activities (a) help increase students’ interest in learning English, (b) promote cooperative learning, (c) make teaching more enjoyable, and (d) result in covering less material dealt with student-centered teaching approach. In conclusion, the student-centered approach determined the attitude of the participants.

**Adult Learning Principles in Teacher Training**

Effective teacher training programs are grounded in adult learning principles.

It was found from the data analysis of BIQ that the Communicative Activities Workshop made an impact on the participants in almost all the factors examined in the study. The qualitative data revealed that the participants liked the workshop for 3 reasons: (a) it was learner-centered, (b) it helped the teachers to reflect on their own teaching, and (c) it offered hands-on experience. All these reasons are congruent with adult learning principles.
Malcolm Knowles’ theory of adult learning was based on six assumptions: (a) adult learners are self-directed learners who are in charge of their own learning, (b) adults bring with them rich experiences, (c) their readiness to learn is based on application to life problems, (d) adult learners learn better when they can apply learning to their circumstances, (e) motivation to learn is an internal factor, and (f) they need to know why they learn before participating in the learning activity (1973, 1984, 1990). These basic adult learning principles were applied in conducting the Communicative Activities Workshop.

The busy middle school English teachers had a lot of pressure to increase students’ performance in all kinds of tests. When coming to a mandatory training workshop, the least they needed was to be lectured on from an authority figure. The teachers needed to be self-directed and did not want to be pushed. The facilitator made sure to meet the needs of the participants by communicating with the organizer before the workshop and by communicating with the participants during the workshop.

All the participants who came to the workshop had a rich experience, which was a rich learning resource for themselves and for others. During the workshop, the
participants were encouraged to share their experience and opinions of the activities. They were also encouraged to adapt the activities in creative ways and e-mail their ideas and experience to the facilitator later.

Hands-on experience was a rich resource for adults to learn. During the workshop, the participants were actively involved in the learning process. All the activities were presented through hands-on practices and through different arrangements such as paired work and small group work. Participants were actively involved the whole time during the workshop.

Adults learn better when the learning task is relevant to their immediate task. All the activities presented at the workshop were chosen based on the consideration whether or not the participants could apply them to their immediate teaching tasks. Some activities were designed using materials from participants’ textbook to ensure applicability of the activities.

Adult learners are motivated to learn when they know why they are learning what they are learning. The teachers needed to know how the training could help them in their teaching. In order to motivate the participants in the learning process, clear instructional goals for the learning
activities were provided that aimed to stimulate learners’ interests. The facilitator of the workshop shared with the participants her own teaching experience to show the values of the activities presented in order to develop motivation of the participants.

Adult learning principles were applied throughout the workshop. Even though the participants did not know these principles, the reasons why they liked the workshop correlated with adult learning principles. This finding shows that applying adult learning principles was an effective way in conducting the workshop.

**Effective Staff Development Programs**

Established staff development models are effective in increasing teachers’ behavioral intention.

According to Cuban (1988), second-order changes seek to alter the fundamental ways in which organizations are put together, including new goals, structures, and roles. The challenge in the English curriculum change in China is how to deal with the second-order change that affects goals of teaching, roles of students and teachers, teaching and learning approaches, and the status quo of beliefs and values.

This second-order change requires training programs
that are effective enough to bring about the change in question. Many training programs failed to achieve their goals because those who conducted them were unfamiliar with the participants and the classroom teaching (Shih, 1996; Penner, 1995). Although there are many training programs, questions remain about how to develop teacher training programs more effectively and what the suitable models of teacher training programs are (Wu, 2001).

The ultimate impact that staff development programs want to make on the participants is at the application level where participants have internalized the new content and use it (Joyce & Showers, 1980). The content areas of training programs and program components should have the following characteristics to bring about the behavioral change.

**Content**

The content for effective workshops has several characteristics. These characteristics were addressed in the Communicative Activities Workshop.

A. Content is based on assessed needs of the participants (Wood, et al. 1981; Griffin, 1982).

B. Content includes both the theoretical basis and specific skills (Berman & McLaughlin, 1975; Joyce & Showers, 1980).

C. Content is focused on specific job tasks
faced by teachers (Fullan, 1982; Purkey & Smith, 1983).

In order to meet the needs of the participants, the facilitator talked to the organizers and participants about their work situation before and during the workshop. During the workshop, the theory behind the communicative teaching approach was laid out and the rational for each activity was given before the activity was demonstrated. The designer and conductor of the workshop took into consideration the participants’ specific job tasks—pressure to prepare students for all kinds of test, and provided a variety of activities that could fit into teachers’ busy schedule.

Program Components

Several researchers have studied program components to identify those which are essential of effective development programs (Joyce & Showers, 1980; Sparks, 1983). The following components were identified for the Communicative Activities Workshop which correlate with those supported by research.

A. Presentation of theory of the activities.

B. Demonstration of each activity with clear detailed directions.

C. Discussion of application.

D. Hands-on coaching for each activity.
Workshops that include these content areas and components can be effective in changing teachers’ attitude toward using communicative activities, their perceived social norm, their perceived behavioral control, their intention to implement, and ultimately their practice, at least, in short term. Long-term change of teacher practice needs to be further studied and researched.

Communicative Activities

Busy Chinese middle school teachers are most likely to implement communicative activities that complement their existing tasks. Although group activities are an indispensable part of communicative teaching, they are not being implemented.

Communicative activities are activities that learners are engaged in where their main purpose is to communicate meanings effectively (Littlewood, 1981). The goal of teachers who use communicative activities is to have students become communicatively competent, which includes grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

The communicative activities designed for the Communicative Activities Workshop were to help learners to be communicatively competent. Based upon the needs of the participants of the workshop, the designer chose the
activities to present based on the following considerations:

1. Teachers would have to cover a large amount of content areas during class time. They might be able to incorporate short activities in teaching. Therefore, 5 short 10-minute activities were included.

2. Teachers would be more likely to implement activities that complement their existing teaching tasks. Therefore, three such activities were included.

3. Teachers might sometimes implement communicative games to increase students’ interest in learning English and for fun; therefore, three communicative games were included.

The findings from the Follow-Up Survey and from qualitative data showed that these considerations were congruent with teachers’ needs. Although these assumptions proved correct, other factors influenced their implementation. Most of the group work was rejected because of the large class size, limited time, and pressure of tests unless they were easy to control. Communicative games were all rejected due to the same reasons. Some activities were rejected because they were “too easy”, and teachers saw little benefit in implementing them.

In conclusion, for busy teachers in China to implement communicative activities, activities that complement teachers’ existing tasks are more likely to be implemented.
Activities that are short, easy to control, and can add an element of fun are more likely to be implemented because they energize the students and get them refocused on their tasks. Activities that fit in their existing teaching tasks help teachers to accomplish their tasks better and are likely to be implemented. Teachers are also opting to implement activities that can help increase students’ performance on tests such as listening, reading, and vocabulary activities.

Even though the participants of the workshop were excited about the student-centered interactive communicative activities during Communicative Activities Workshop, activities that involved group work and activities that were purely for communication purposes were not implemented by the middle school teachers. This finding showed teachers’ lack of understanding of how student-centered learning approach facilitates learning. Student-centered group work is an important characteristic of Communicative Language Teaching. Learning takes place when students interact with one another to solve problems. This kind of activities gives students a real need and purpose for communicating with one another. Need, purpose, and a task give rise to real-life communication (Li, 1984). Because communication in real-life
is unpredictable, group work may seem to be out of control for the teacher, but it is part of the process of communication.

**Barriers for Implementation**

In order for communicative activities to be implemented, these barriers need to be reconceptualized: College Entrance Exam, time, and poor skills of students.

The qualitative data revealed several barriers for implementation of communicative activities. These barriers present real problems for implementation, and ways to solve them should be found. However, teachers’ lack of understanding of the Communicative Language Teaching approach was also revealed from the way they looked at the barriers. The outcome could be different if the teachers reconceptualized the following barriers: College Entrance Exam, time, and students’ poor skills.

**College Entrance Exam**

The College Entrance Examination has been identified as the single most powerful influence in the resistance to innovation in educational practice in China (Hird, 1995). The government has called for a national English education reform that pushes for communication. However, the goal of millions of English learners is to pass tests (Lu, 2003, p.
7). In view of this, the examination system of the country does not correspond with the national goal.

Due to the highly competitive nature of the College Entrance Examination, students and teachers put all the time and resources into preparing for it in order to get high scores. Parents and students see entering a university--to be more accurate entering a good university--as the ultimate goal of secondary education and a guarantee for future jobs and therefore future life. The English section of the College Entrance Examination only tests students’ English skills in grammar, reading, vocabulary, writing, and listening skills. It does not test students’ ability to use the language communicatively. Teachers, students, and parents do not want to invest their limited time into something they cannot use to meet their immediate goal.

However, teaching students to communicate in a language will increase their language skills. Current research indicates that by practicing speaking the language, students are better able to understand and remember the structures as well (Anderson, 1993). Using communicative activities will not hinder students’ learning but rather help students to understand the language better. Better understanding of the language will in turn help students
perform better in tests.

Not Enough Time

As shown in the Follow-Up Survey, informal conversations, and e-mail exchanges with the participants, the issue of time emerged repeatedly. Teachers reported they had no time to implement the activities due to heavy work load and limited class time. The participants explained that their main job was to prepare students for all kinds of tests with the ultimate test being the College Entrance Examination. Therefore, there was no time left for using communicative activities in the teaching schedule. They viewed the communicative activities as an extra load that should be cut rather than a way to help students learn the language better.

The traditional book-centered, teacher-centered, and test-centered way of language teaching has little or no theoretical basis, and it does virtually nothing to enhance a student’s communicative ability in the language (Brown, 2000). Putting all the time in the traditional language teaching is not an efficient way of teaching a language. Communicative Language Teaching has some specific advantages over the traditional way of teaching. Some of them are (a) it is more likely to produce the four kinds of competence
needed in language learning, (b) it is relevant to students’ learning, (c) it motivates students better who would probably be more willing to use English in a communicative way, and (d) it is less wasteful of time since only the relevant is emphasized, and (e) it equips learners for the real world (Maley, 1984). Using communicative activities is a more efficient way of teaching, which helps students learn the language more effectively and therefore can help students improve skills for tests.

**Poor Skills of the Students**

The participants of the Communicative Activities Workshop liked the activities because they were student-centered. However, they did not implement the activities in their teaching because their students did not have the skills to carry out these activities and did not know what to do when put in groups.

Skills to engage in and contribute to group activities do not come naturally and need to be practiced and taught. Students who have been given few opportunities to use the language in a communicative way will always find themselves at a loss as to what to do in a group activity. They will face the same awkwardness in real life. As a middle school English teacher explained:
It is comparatively easy for foreign language learners to study textbooks, do the exercises, and pass the examinations. But they always find themselves at a loss when they meet a foreigner. The students might have studied English for five or six years, but they cannot find anything suitable to say. It is the same in my case. I have studied English for 50 years, but my English, being out of practice, is unnatural and halting (Lu, 1987, p. 33).

How do students gain skills for communicative activities?

The answer is obvious: students cannot gain the communicative skills they need until they are given opportunities to communicate using communicative activities.

**Cultural Constraints**

The traditional way of language teaching in China is in direct contrast with characteristics of the Communicative Language Teaching.

In order to fully understand Chinese teachers’ intention to implement or not to implement communicative activities, culturally constraining factors relating to the implementation of communicative activities in middle schools in China must be considered and understood. The Communicative Language Teaching approach is a Western teaching approach designed to suit Western concepts of learning and needs of the learners based on good classroom condition (Holliday, 1994). These good classroom conditions such as small and well-equipped classes are absent in the
Chinese classroom setting. There are fundamental differences between the Communicative Language Teaching approach and Chinese traditional views of language teaching.

Role of the Teacher

Communicative Language Teaching promotes student-centered approach. Students are given opportunities to explore their own learning styles and strategies and the role of the teacher is that of facilitator and guide (Brown, 2001). In Chinese culture, teachers are the authoritative figures who transmit knowledge to students. Teachers are moral models for the students and feel personally responsible for students. Therefore, the sense of in control is very important for Chinese teachers, and they feel incompetent when they are not in control.

Fluency or Accuracy

In Communicative Language Teaching, fluency is emphasized over accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use (Brown, 2001). In Chinese culture, however, accuracy is much more important than fluency. Learning the correct grammatical structures, the exact meanings of words, and memorization are emphasized, sometimes, at the expense of meaning. This way of learning a language is a reflection of the belief that
the mastery of form will eventually lead to the understanding and creative use of the language (Penner, 1995).

**Group Activities**

Group activities in Communicative Language Teaching are very important and are designed to engage students in pragmatic and authentic use of language (Brown, 2001). However, the large class size of 50 students in Chinese middle schools makes group activities difficult if not impossible to conduct. For Chinese teachers, verbal group activities are hard to control, waste time, and do not benefit learning. Time can be used more effectively by transmitting knowledge because this can be done in relatively a short period of time to a large group of students. For Chinese teachers and students, activities do not have to be verbal participation. Activities can mean cognitive involvement, review, thinking, memorization, and self-study (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). A quiet classroom is considered to be ideal because it induces thinking and independent work, while a large noisy classroom is regarded not appropriate for learning.

**Use or Knowledge**

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) promotes
functional use of language for meaningful purposes (Brown, 2001). The CLT approach assumes that English is “knowledge how to”, that is, how to use it to accomplish various tasks. However, Chinese traditional approach focuses on the “knowledge of” grammar, lexicon, and rules (Penner, 1995). Some of the communicative activities presented at the Communicative Activities Workshop were seen as too simple and not worth spending time doing in class. To the teachers, if students already know the structures, there is no need practicing them in a communicative activity.

Evaluation

The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) aims to help students gain communicative competence; therefore, it requires holistic evaluation. Emphasis is also placed on the process of learning such as participation, problem solving skills, and projects. It is during the process of using the language that actual learning happens. In the Chinese context, however, the aim is to provide the grammatical and vocabulary knowledge so the students can successfully pass the many exams (Penner, 1995). The evaluation system in China has a strong impact on language teaching and learning. Students are usually ranked in the class or school based on exam performance. Real-life communication skills are not
evaluated in exams; therefore, teachers are not motivated to help students to gain communicative competence.

**Recommendations for Future Studies**

This study sought to use the Theory of Planned Behavior as a means to identify factors that influence teachers’ behavioral intention and to investigate their actual implementation of the activities in teaching. The findings from this study indicate the following areas for further studies.

Although BIQ scores showed that attitude had the highest scores, it was the perceived behavioral control scores that contributed the most in predicting behavioral intention. Attitude contributed the least among the three variables to the behavioral intention scores. This finding is in contrast with most of the studies done in the West using the Theory of Planned Behavior as the framework. It was concluded in this study that cultural forces might explain the difference. Further studies need to be done to verify the finding.

For this study, salient beliefs were identified through review of literature and then verified by experts in the fields rather than by teachers themselves. This was done based on the consideration that experts who were familiar
with both communicative teaching approach and Chinese traditional language teaching method might be able to pinpoint salient beliefs better than Chinese teachers who might not be familiar with the communicative teaching approach. Ten experts in the field were identified and their opinions were sought, which led to the final set of 27 salient beliefs. Future studies need to verify these salient beliefs by surveying the teachers. If different or additional salient beliefs are identified, these salient beliefs should be included in the BIQ.

This study had a low return rate from the Follow-Up Survey. Future studies should get more participants to respond to the Follow-Up Survey. This type of data is needed to further validate the assumption of the Theory of Planned Behavior that human behavior is generally based on behavioral intentions.

Demographic information was collected in this study to describe the population. However, it was not used to generate quantitative data. Participants had a range of teaching experience from less than one year to 30 years. They were from different types of schools, had different educational backgrounds, and taught different grade levels. All these may influence an individual’s decision to
implement or not to implement communicative activities. Future studies should be conducted to investigate the effects of these factors.

The Follow-Up Survey of this study was sent out 1 month after the workshop was conducted to collect implementation data, but the specific time frame of the behavioral intention was throughout the semester. Therefore, future studies need to survey the participants again at the end of the semester. Survey should not only include questions on levels of implementation but also how many times each of the activities was being implemented.

Although weak in the finding for this study, the control belief relating to the inadequate communication skills of the teachers is identified in the literature as a major problem that hinders the innovation in English education in China. Future studies should be done to investigate this area.

Future study should be conducted to see how students learning with the Communicative Teaching Approach actually do for the College Entrance Examination. Successful implementation of communicative teaching approach in China is possible as it is shown with Shanghai Foreign Language School, which employs communicative teaching approach. The
students have made outstanding progress (Wang, 1990). Further studies of this type are needed to support the assumption that successful implementation of communicative teaching approach does have impact on student performance.

This study found that workshops that applied adult learning principles and followed established staff development models made an impact on participants’ behavioral intention and all the variables examined in the study. Participants’ actual behavioral change before and after the workshop was not examined. Future studies need to be done to examine behavioral change and long-term effects of training where adult learning principles and staff development models are applied.

**Recommendations for Teacher Training Programs**

Recommendations for teacher training programs are based on the findings and conclusions of the study. These recommendations are related to (a) adult learning principles, (b) communicative activities, (c) educational philosophies, (d) cultural constraints, and (e) the College Entrance Examination.

**Adult Learning Principles**

One important reason for the effectiveness of the Communicative Activities Workshop was the fact that adult
learning principles were applied in the design and conduction of the workshop. Middle school English teachers are adult learners. They bring to the training rich experience that they can build on and others can learn from. They need to be provided with training that can solve their real-life problems. They want to learn something relevant to their job immediately. They have existing attitudes and face numerous challenges. They also have the need to learn in a comfortable, supportive, and nonterrorizing environment. Because of these characteristics of adult learners in China, it is recommended that adult learning principles be applied in designing and conducting teacher training programs.

Communicative Activities

The findings of the study showed that teachers are more likely to implement the communicative activities that are easy to implement and that are relevant to the unique situation in China. Communicative activities with the following characteristics are more likely to be implemented by middle school English teachers.

First, activities should be ready made. Teachers in China have to cope with many external pressures. They do not have time to look for appropriate materials such as pictures, stories, video clips or other teaching aids. In
addition, appropriate materials are hard to find in China. It is important that they be handed with ready made activities that they can directly walk into the classroom with and apply immediately.

Second, activities that are short and fun are more likely to be implemented. Teachers in China have a heavy load of teaching tasks and their main responsibility is to prepare students for all kinds of tests. Both students and teachers are highly stressed by this heavy load. Activities that are short and fun can lighten the atmosphere and relax the students, and are more likely to be implemented. Even though increasing students’ communicative competence may not be teachers’ main purpose of using them, it is hoped that these short and fun activities can give students opportunities to use the language communicatively.

Third, activities should allow teachers to have certain level of control. The class size in China, ranging from 40 to 60 students, makes it difficult to monitor communicative activities. Students who are not motivated to learn English or have poorer skills would fall behind without benefitting from the activities. Teachers in China have a great sense of responsibility for their students; they would feel incompetent if they cannot monitor the
progress of the students.

Fourth, activities that complement teachers’ existing tasks are likely to be implemented. Since teachers in China have to cover a large amount of content in teaching, communicative activities that are closely tied to the materials in the textbooks are more likely to be implemented. It is recommended that activities be designed based on the teaching tasks of the teachers.

Finally, although participants at the Communicative Activities Workshop rejected the majority of the activities because they were time-consuming, difficult to control, or too easy, teachers should be encouraged to view these seemingly negative elements from a different perspective. Time should be viewed differently in that using communicative activities is a more effective way to improve communicative competence. Easy structures do not necessarily mean that students can use them appropriately, and more emphasis should be placed on application rather than knowledge. Classroom management should also be addressed in order to equip teachers to conduct communicative activities more effectively. When teachers start to look at these aspects of communicative activities from a different perspective and understand the real purpose of using them,
they might be more open to communicative activities in spite of difficulties in implementing them. Teachers might not simply avoid the activities but will focus on how to make these activities more manageable and applicable in the classroom.

**Educational Philosophies**

In addition to theories about second or foreign language acquisition and methodology, teachers should also learn about the different educational philosophies that act as the driving force for different teaching behaviors. Placement of an educational philosophy is not to stereotype a person; instead, placement is designed to help one to stimulate critical thinking and reflection about the teaching-learning transaction (Conti & Kolody, 1998). Identification of one’s educational philosophy can allow teachers to better understand how their philosophy has contributed to their overall behavior in the classroom. Elias and Merriam (1995) have suggested that the difference between those who are just practicing a profession and professionals is an awareness of the causal factors behind their basic behavior.

The principles of Communicative Language Teaching are congruent with the educational philosophy of humanism.
Humanism is a learner-centered philosophy that focuses on the learner, and the role of the teacher is that of a facilitator. The most important principle in humanism is the trust between the teacher and learner (Elias & Merriam, 1995). One reason that participants liked the communicative activities presented at the Communicative Activities Workshop was that the activities were learner-centered and promoted relationship between teachers and learners. Teachers who held this view might identify themselves as humanists. This self-identification can help teachers to understand the Communicative Language Teaching approach better and to reflect on their teaching practices.

Cultural Constraints

The second-order changes that are current with implementing the Communicative Language Teaching in China are challenging, but deeper understanding of the cultural conflicts will pave the way for solutions. Cultural constraints must be taken into consideration when conducting communicative teacher training programs. Also taken into consideration should be the conditions of teaching such as class size, resources, and facilities.

The beliefs, experience, and insights of participants of training programs should be respected. “The most common
concern host country EFL experts and teachers have expressed is that foreign experts do not respect their experience and insight” (Penner, 1995, p.14). At the beginning of training programs, participants should be invited to share their experiences, preferences, and reactions to the Communicative Language Teaching. Explaining the different learning assumptions between the West and China will help teachers to understand the learning process. As Penner (1995) explains:

The most important element in this pedagogical change debate is that all the participants clarify their own cultural learning and teaching assumptions, as understanding another culture can really only occur when people understand their own. (p. 14)

Trainers of teacher training programs should have extensive teaching experience in both cultures, understand the cultural constraints, and ideally have made the transition from the traditional way of teaching to the Communicative Language Teaching approach. The personal experience of the trainer can give more insight into the nature of the communicative teaching approach.

Cultural constraints exert powerful resisting influences on the adoption of the Communicative Language Teaching approach into the Chinese setting. These cultural forces are deeply rooted and must be understood from a deep
level. However, since the Communicative Language Teaching approach is proven to be an effective approach in developing communicative competence of the learner, and since the communicative competence is also the national goal, the adoption of it should and can be achieved. As Fullan (1991) notes, “The ultimate goal is changing the culture of learning for both adults and students so that engagement and betterment is a way of life in schools” (p. 344).

**College Entrance Examination**

The participants indicated that the College Entrance Examination was the driving force of English education in middle schools in China. While teachers had a good attitude towards the communicative teaching activities, Senior 3 teachers were not implementing them at all because they focused all their time and resources on the College Entrance Examination. Junior 3 teachers were not implementing them either because they focused all their time and resources on Senior Middle School Entrance Examination. Teachers of the other grades were only implementing a limited number of activities because their focus was on preparing students for all kinds of tests to get ready for the College Entrance Examination.

The key for change in the English Language Teaching in
China is changing the English test of the College Entrance Examination so that it matches the goals of the New Standards (2001). If communicative components are not part of the test, the New Standards could not be implemented successfully, and the national goal to produce communicatively competent students will not be reached. It is vital that communicative components be an indispensable part of the College Entrance Examination in order for change to take place in China’s English Language Teaching.

The participants of the Communicative Activities Workshop said metaphorically that the College Entrance Examination was the baton the conductor of an orchestra used to control the English education in China. The baton does not have communicative elements, and so the music produced is book-centered, teacher-centered, and grammar-centered teaching approach.

To extend the metaphor, the English Language Teaching in China can be compared to a huge orchestra, the conductor of which is the New Standards of language teaching reform. Currently, the conductor is not using the baton—the College Entrance Examination—effectively, so the music produced is not in harmony with the needs of the country. In order for the New Standards to be carried out, the conductor must
modify the baton by adding communicative components to it. The musicians of the orchestra, the English teachers, must fully understand the music--the goal of English Language Teaching in China and the appropriate approach to reach the goal. All the other elements that make a great orchestra such as lighting, sound effects, and technicians representing teacher training, society, schools, should all work together to bring out the best effects of the music. Only until then will the music come to life and be in harmony with the rapid development of the country.
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APPENDIX A

BEHAVIORAL INTENTION QUESTIONNAIRE
Behavior Intention Questionnaire

**Directions:** Please read each item and circle the number that best fits your opinion about the question asked. Throughout the questionnaire, the words of the scale (likely, unlikely, important, unimportant, agree, and disagree) may change, but the seven scale items will remain the same. **Please select one and only one of the choices for each item.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. My use of communicative activities with my students in the spring semester of 2004 is</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. When I make up my mind to do something, I do it.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Communicative activities are more engaging to the students.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Communicative activities help students learn content areas in the curriculum.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I think that using communicative activities will increase students' interest in learning English.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I think that using communicative activities will produce better verbal communicators.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I think that using communicative activities will make learning more meaningful to students.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Communicative activities will increase students' motivation to learn.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Communicative activities will make teaching more enjoyable.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Communicative activities will take more time to prepare and implement.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Communicative activities will be easily adaptable in the curriculum</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Communicative activities will promote cooperative learning among my students</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I will not have control of my students and/or their learning when using communicative activities.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I will cover less material if I use communicative activities as opposed to other activities.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Most people who are important to me in my teaching decisions will think that I should use communicative activities.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I want to do what most people who are important to me in my teaching decisions think I should do.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. My students will approve of my use of communicative activities.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. The parents of my students will approve of my use of communicative activities.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. My colleagues will approve of my use of communicative activities.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. My school administrators will approve of my use of communicative activities.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. The education departments in the government will approve of my use of communicative activities.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
22. I will do what my students think I should do regarding my teaching decisions. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23. I will do what the parents of my students think I should do regarding my teaching decisions. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24. I will do what my colleagues think I should do regarding my teaching decisions. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25. I will do what my school administrators think I should do regarding my teaching decisions. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
26. I will do what the education departments in the government think I should do regarding my teaching decisions. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
27. I often try to change things that are beyond my control. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
28. If I wanted to, I could easily use communicative activities in my teaching during the spring semester of 2004. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
29. If I have better verbal communication skills, it would make it easier for me to use communicative activities. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
30. More training in Communicative Teaching Approach would make it easier for me to use communicative activities. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
31. Additional resources of new activities would make it easier for me to use communicative activities. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
32. Additional class time would make it easier for me to use communicative activities. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
33. The requirement to teach to the College Entrance Exam would make it more difficult for me to use communicative activities. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
34. More opportunities to communicate with others who use communicative activities would make it easier for me to use communicative activities, too. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
35. Smaller class size would make it easier for me to use communicative activities. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
36. Change in testing methods would make it easier for me to use communicative activities. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
37. More support from the administrators would make it easier for me to use communicative activities. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
38. Having better verbal communication skills in the spring semester of 2004 is | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
39. More training in Communicative Teaching Approach in the spring semester of 2004 is | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
40. Receiving more resources on new communicative activities in the spring semester of 2004 is | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
41. Having additional class time in the spring semester of 2004 is | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
42. Pressure to teach to the College Entrance Exam in the spring semester of 2004 is | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
43. Opportunities to share ideas with other teachers using communicative activities is | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
44. Having smaller class size in the spring semester of 2004 is | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
45. Change in testing methods in the spring semester of 2004 is | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
46. Additional support from my administration in the spring semester of 2004 is | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
47. The change of expectations of parents and students for the outcome of English classes in the spring of 2004 is | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The following information will help us better understand the information that you provide us. Please check one response for each item.

**Gender:**

--- Male

**Average Class Size You Teach:**
___ Female

Age: ___

Years of Teaching: ___

Highest Degree Completed:
___ High School Certificate
___ 2-3 Year College Certificate
___ Bachelors Degree
___ Masters Degree
___ Doctoral Degree

Grades You Teach
___ Junior High
___ First Year Senior High
___ Second Year Senior High
___ Third Year Senior High

Type of School
___ Key school
___ Regular school
APPENDIX B

FOLLOW-UP SURVEY
Part I

Instructions: For each activity presented at the workshop, please select A, B, C, or D from the following scale that best describes your use of that activity. Please give additional written comments to assist us in understanding your implementation. Click on the blue box to select your answer or type in the answer. The answer is not limited to the size of the box. You can give as much information as you want.

Description of Level of Use:
A--I have used this activity with my students exactly as it was presented at the workshop.
B--I have used a modification (please explain) of this activity with my students.
C--I plan to use this activity with my students this semester, but have not used it yet.
D--I don’t think I will use this activity with my students this semester.

Example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Level of Use</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Telling Jokes</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>I assigned students to read Aesop’s fables on line and have them tell each other the stories they read in class. Most of the students enjoyed the activity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Level of Use</th>
<th>Comments: Please enter your comments in the text box for each item.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Telling jokes (to each other in pairs)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversation wheels</td>
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<tr>
<td>Keep talking (Students choose a letter, generate nouns/topics beginning with the letter. Pairs choose one topic and keep talking for 2-3 minutes.)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair Rotation (Students or teacher generate a list of interesting topics. Teacher writes a topic on board and pairs talk about it for a few minutes. Rotate partners and talk about the same topic. Keep rotating until the excitement level is low.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Black Magic</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Team Comprehension</strong> (Assign one article or half of the same article to one group. Assign another or the other half of the same article to another group. Groups read together and write 3-4 questions about their reading. They should be able to answer the questions themselves. Exchange the questions and articles with another)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Weaving the Web</strong> (Pre-reading activity. Generate ideas from the students about a reading topic in the form of a web.)</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Speed Reading</strong> (Speed reading activity. Students race to answer questions in a group. The one with most questions answered correctly is the winner.)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relatively Speaking</strong> (Pictures of people, places, and machines are cut and put face down in the middle of a group. Students take turns to give definitions of the pictures. The one who guesses right gets awarded of the picture.)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Detective Story</strong> (A list of events are cut and shuffled. Groups work together to put these events in order and decide if the suspect has the time to commit the murder.)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Where Am I?</strong> (Pictures of places are cut and put face down in the center of a group. Students take turns to pick up a picture and say what is permissible is the place. Other students can ask questions using modal verbs.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Part II
For each question, please click on the blue box and continue to type in your answer. You can type in as much information as you want. More detailed feedback will allow me to evaluate the workshop better.

As a whole, describe how the workshop was successful in helping you understand the communicative teaching approach and in making an impact in your teaching?

How can the communicative teaching approach be adapted into your teaching? Include how often do you plan to use the activities. If you cannot use the communicative approach, please tell why.

What are the advantages of using the communicative activities demonstrated at the workshop?

What are the disadvantages of using the communicative activities demonstrated at the workshop?

Who are the people who would approve of your using the communicative teaching activities with your students?

Who are the people who would disapprove of your using the communicative teaching activities with your students?

What things would make it easy for you to use the communicative teaching activities demonstrated at the workshop with your students in this semester?

What things are making it difficult for you to use these activities demonstrated at the workshop with your students in this semester?

What type of similar communicative teaching workshops would help you in the future?

After you have completed this survey, SAVE it by any name that you want. This may be a name with part of your name in it, with part of the name of your school, or with any code you want to use. The important thing is that it has a name different from the file that I sent you. After you have saved this file, ATTACH it to an e-mail and return that e-mail to me at jhuang@oru.edu. Thank you for making this study possible.
APPENDIX C

LIST OF SALIENT BELIEFS
This set of salient beliefs of teachers about implementing Communicative Activities in English Language Teaching in China is identified from the review of existing researches. The revised set of salient beliefs will be used to design Behavior Intention Questionnaire, a survey that intends to identify determining factors that help or prevent the teachers’ use of communicative activities. In order to establish the construct validity of these salient beliefs, the opinions of the experts in this field are sought. Please review these beliefs, add or delete any of them, and send your highly valued opinions back. Thank you for your cooperation.

**Salient Beliefs about Implementing Communicative Activities in China**

**Attitudes toward the outcomes of the use of Communicative Activities**

Communicative activities:

- increase students’ interest in learning English
- produce better verbal communicators.
- make learning more meaningful to students.
- increase motivation to learn.
- make teaching more enjoyable.
- take extra time to implement.
- result in less materials covered.
- result in loss of control of the teaching and learning process.

**Relevant persons associated with implementation of Communicative Activities**

- Students
- Parents
- Fellow teachers
- School Administrators
- Education departments in the government
- Researchers and scholars

**Factors that help or prevent the implementation of Communicative Activities**

- Better communication skills of the teachers
- More training in Communicative Teaching Approach
- More resources of new activities
- More class time
- Requirement to teach to the College Entrance Exam
- More opportunities to share ideas with others using communicative activities
- More support from administration
APPENDIX D

LIST OF EXPERTS
List of Experts

1. Dr. Nancy Frank is a professor teaching TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language) courses at Regent University. She holds a doctoral degree in Curriculum Design. She has taught in China for a total of four years including directing an intensive English program at Jingmei University in Beijing.

2. Dana Weld has a Master's Degree in Teaching English as a Second Language and has spent the last 10 years in China teaching English and studying Chinese.

3. Janice Willson has a Master's Degree in Teaching English as a Second Language and has lived in China for over 10 years teaching English and writing Teaching English as a Second Language materials for a Chinese publisher.

4. Byrene Culver is the former Director of University Language Institute in Tulsa, Oklahoma. She has a Master's Degree in Teaching English as a Second Language and taught English in Chinese universities for 2 years.

5. Becky Eppinger has a Master's Degree in Adult Education. She has taught English in the intensive English program at Jingmei University and also did teacher training for middle school English teachers in the city of Huairou, Beijing.

6. Dr. Bruce Liu is the Director of Studioclassroom in China. The company conducts teacher training workshops, publishes English studying magazines and other English teaching and learning materials, and hosts a TV and radio English teaching program. It is one of the biggest English consulting businesses in China and Taiwan.

7. Judi Krupa has a Master's Degree in Teaching English as a Second Language. She has taught English in China for 10 years.

8. Roxanne Lee has a Bachelor's of Arts degree in English. She has taught ESL for 12 years in China. Prior to that, she taught ESL for 1 year in Taiwan and 2 years in Canada.
9. Freda Hepler is a teacher from the Sino-American training center at Northeast University in China. The center provides teacher training for Chinese English teachers. She has a Bachelor's of Science degree in Elementary Education, and has had 15 years of ESL teaching in China.

10. Ryan Shaffett is an English teacher in Shenyang middle schools. He is also a teacher trainer conducting teacher training programs in the city of Shenyang.
APPENDIX E

REVISED LIST OF SALIENT BELIEFS
Salient Beliefs about Implementing
Communicative Activities in China (Revised)

Attitudes toward the outcomes of the use of Communicative Activities

Communicative activities:

1. increase students' interest in learning English
2. produce better verbal communicators.
3. make learning more meaningful to students.
4. increase motivation to learn.
5. make teaching more enjoyable.
6. take extra time to implement.
7. result in less materials covered.
8. result in loss of control of the teaching and learning process.
9. are easily adaptable into the curriculum
10. promote cooperative learning
11. are not engaging to the learners
12. help students to learn content areas in the curriculum

Relevant persons associated with implementation of Communicative Activities

1. Students
2. Parents
3. Fellow teachers
4. School Administrators
5. Education departments in the government

Factors that help or prevent the implementation of Communicative Activities

1. Better verbal communication skills of the teachers
2. More training in Communicative Teaching Approach
3. More resources of new activities
4. More class time
5. Requirement to teach to the College Entrance Exam
6. More opportunities to share ideas with others using communicative activities
7. More support from administration
8. smaller class size
9. change in testing methods
10. parents' and students' expectations for the outcome of English classes
APPENDIX F

IRB APPROVAL LETTER
Dear PI:

Your IRB application referenced above has been approved for one calendar year. Please make note of the expiration date indicated above. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact me in 415 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, colson@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Carol Olson, Chair
Institutional Review Board
VITA

Jiuhan Huang

Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

Thesis: UNDERSTANDING INTENTIONS OF CHINESE ENGLISH TEACHERS TO IMPLEMENT COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES IN TEACHING

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Biographical:

Education: Graduated from Shizuishan First Middle School, Shizuishan, China; received Bachelor of Arts degree in English from Ningxia University, Yinchuan, China, in February 1992; received Master of Education in Teaching English as a Second Language from Oral Roberts University, Tulsa, Oklahoma, in May 1993. Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree with a major in Occupational and Adult Education at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, in May 2005.

Experience: Employed by Ningxia University as English instructor. Employed by Suzhou Institute of Urban Construction and Environmental Protection as English instructor. Employed by University Language Institute as ESL teacher.

Professional Memberships: National Association of Teachers of English as Second and Other Languages, Oklahoma Association of Teachers of English as Second and Other Languages, and Oklahoma Educational Research Association.