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Declaration of Authenticity

I hereby declare that the present paper was conceived and composed all by myself. Verbatim quotations as well as any ideas or passages borrowed and paraphrased from the works of other authors are truthfully acknowledged and identified in the paper. References to primary and secondary sources are all fully and clearly stated in the bibliographical section.

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Bianca Wegscheider

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List of abbreviations

AHS	Allgemeine Höhere Schule
BA	Bachelor degree
BEd	Bachelor of Education
BHS	Berufsbildende Höhere Schule
CBI	Content-based instruction
CEFR	Common European Framework of References
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
Dipl.-Päd.	Diplompädagoge/Diplompädagogin
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching

ESL	English as a Second Language
FFI	Form-focused instruction
FLT	Foreign Language Teaching
FonF	Focus on Form
FonFs	Focus on Forms
HS	Hauptschule
KAG	Knowledge about grammar
KAL	Knowledge about language
L1	First language
L2	Second language
L3	Third language
LV	Lehrveranstaltung (lecture)
MEd	Master of Education
MFI	Meaning-focused instruction
NMS	Neue Mittelschule
NÖ	Niederösterreich (Lower Austria)
OÖ	Oberösterreich (Upper Austria)
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PH	Pädagogische Hochschule
PPP	Present-Practice-Produce model
PTS	Polytechnische Schule
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SLT	Second Language Teaching
SLTE	Second Language Teacher Education
TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESL	Teaching English as a Second Language

1. Introduction

Personal interest

*“Grammar teaching has always been one of the most controversial and least understood aspects of language teaching.”
(Thornbury 1999: ix)*

Precisely because of what the quote above states and grammar teaching's high relevance for my future career as an English language teacher, I have decided to dedicate my diploma thesis to this topic. Grammar has always been a special interest of mine, which is also the reason why two of my electives were focusing on grammar teaching. Despite the fact that I had spent significantly more time on this topic during my studies than many of my peers, who usually only dealt with grammar teaching in the more general methodological courses, I was still unsatisfied. I did not know all the 'rules and functions' and I was worried that my future pupils would begin to dislike this aspect of language-learning simply because I did not know how to teach it. After many discussions with my fellow students, it became clear to me that I was at least not alone with these anxious thoughts. But why was that? And was it maybe different for students from tertiary colleges or students from other public universities? And what about in-service teachers? How did they develop their grammar teaching skills?

Background and Research Questions

The present thesis focuses on Austrian EFL teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching and their potential correlations to external factors, such as institutional differences, work experience and professional development experiences of teachers. The claim that grammar teaching has not changed (enough) within the last two decades, has been voiced by several well-known researchers (Ur 2012, 2014; Larsen-Freeman 2015, Newby 2012). However, more and more authors voice that not one method or approach can be the solution to the heterogeneity experienced in language-learning classrooms (cf. Ur 2012, 2014). Therefore, a variety of methods and approaches is required from teachers to apply in the respective situation;

however, one must not forget that teachers need to learn and experience these methods before they can actually apply them in their own classroom (Ur 2012). Moreover, teachers have observed and experienced a certain kind of language teaching during their own time at school and university, and therefore often have already a clear idea of language teaching in mind. For this reason, the present thesis wishes to investigate whether in-service teachers vary in their beliefs due to different teacher training experiences.

Furthermore, it has been found that innovations in Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) or teachers' further training courses are not always successful in terms of changing teachers' beliefs. Thus, another potential factor that has been assumed to influence teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction is their professional development. With regard to that, teachers' interest in research as well as the number of hours spent on further training in in-service courses or self-study has been evaluated. In conclusion, my thesis will attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What are Austrian EFL teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching?
2. Are these beliefs correlated with teachers' education, referring to institutional differences, and with their teaching experience?
3. Are these beliefs correlated with teachers' research engagement and/or professional development experiences?

As a means of receiving an impression of the Austrian teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction, a quantitative instrument, namely a questionnaire, has been chosen. The first part of the questionnaire will be a replication study of Graus and Coppen (2016), whereas the second part will focus on answering research question number 2 and 3, being more tailored to the Austrian context.

Outline of the study

In order to answer the research questions listed above, the present paper consists of a theoretical part and an empirical part. Section 2 presents a concise overview of the relevant methods and approaches of grammar instruction that are represented in the statements of the study's questionnaire.

The subsequent section explains in more detail the development of SLTE¹, focusing on grammar methodology, the relevance of teacher's knowledge of language and teacher cognition. Moreover, studies on teachers' beliefs on language instruction are discussed and, lastly, teachers' research engagement.

In section 4 the study is described, providing a closer look into the Austrian 'two-tier' school system, as well as the study's research instrument and its sample size. This is followed by a chapter presenting the study's findings and results in more detail. The last chapter discusses also the study's limitations and indications for further research.

¹ I would like to point out that despite English being the obligatory second language in the Austrian curriculum, for many students it represents already the third or additional language. While there is certainly a difference between teaching a second or additional language, the terms second language teaching (SLT) or foreign language teaching (FLT) are used synonymously in the present thesis. In accordance to Freeman (2009: 13) who suggests that "the term *second language* [...] [is] increasingly taken to refer to English as a foreign, second, or additional language" [original emphasis].

2. Theories on grammar instruction

Grammar instruction has been an intensively discussed aspect of EFL teaching and has remained a highly controversial topic for several decades now. Studies that have investigated learners' and teachers' associations and beliefs about grammar are revealing that grammar teaching and learning is often perceived as boring and necessary but not enjoyable both on teacher's and learner's sides (cf. Larsen-Freeman 2003, Jean & Simard 2011). Thus, it is only reasonable that SLA and EFL research have concerned themselves intensely with the improvement of this prominent part of language teaching. Graus and Coppen (2016) have investigated student teachers' and in-service teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction. The study asked participants to reveal their preferences towards different approaches in grammar teaching and this multi-item scale with statements about meaning-focused vs form-focused, FonF vs FonFs, implicit vs explicit, inductive vs deductive instruction is also used in the present study. It is for this reason that the following sections providing an overview of approaches and possibilities in grammar instruction will focus especially on those represented in the study by Graus and Coppen and, hence, in my replication of it.

In general, however, the question whether explicit grammar instruction is actually useful in acquiring a new language has nurtured thousands of pages in applied linguistics literature. The so-called interface debate, which will be discussed in more detail in chapter 2.1.1, evolved from this question and has been strongly debated since then. Investigations have concentrated on measuring the effect grammar instruction could have on language learning and which teaching methods would lead to 'better' and 'easier' acquisition of a language. Successful acquisition includes fluency and communicative competence, which is what SLA researchers and instructors have been striving for since the 1970s and 1980s (cf. Hinkel & Fotos 2002, Keßler & Plessner 2011). Considering that grammar teaching ought to support *inter alia* the learners' communicative skills, this claim can also be found in the Common European Framework of References (CEFR 2001: 113), which is used as a reference framework for the Austrian curriculum. The aspired language levels of each school level are defined according to the CEFR, for instance in English students' development ranges from A1-B2. Grammatical competence in the CEFR (2001: 113)

is described as follows:

Grammatical competence may be defined as knowledge of, and ability to use, the grammatical resources of a language. Formally, the grammar of a language may be seen as the set of principles governing the assembly of elements into meaningful labelled and bracketed strings (sentences). Grammatical competence is the ability to understand and express meaning by producing and recognising well-formed phrases and sentences in accordance with these principles (as opposed to memorizing and reproducing them as fixed formulae).

Conceivably, methods such as the Grammar-Translation method or the Audio-Lingual approach, which will be further explained in chapter 2.1, are, due to their drill-focused methods, not compatible with the desire for a more communicative classroom setting. How is it possible that something as abstract and complex as grammar can be taught in a way that supports the covert process of developing fluency? A multitude of different methods and approaches have been brought forward; nevertheless, there has not been a consensus yet in the field of applied linguistics about what the 'best' way to teach grammar is. As Han and Finneran (2014: 382) suggest, "the field of second language acquisition can be hampered rather than facilitated by this state of affairs [referring to the non-consensus]". In order to gain a certain understanding of this plentitude in methods, approaches, studies and opinions, the following subchapters focus on some of the most prominent discussions in SLA research and pedagogy.

First, I will provide a historical background of instruction methods that have influenced present-day grammar teaching and the perception of it. The subsequent section explains in detail which positions can be found in the interface debate and its representatives. As mentioned before, the sections 2.2-2.5 provide discussions of the dichotomous pairs in grammar instruction which are used in the empirical part of the study. Section 2.2 gives information on the difference between meaning-focused and form-focused instruction. Followed by section 2.3, which illustrates the differences between Focus on form and Focus on forms. Another dichotomy of language teaching, namely explicit versus implicit instruction, is introduced in section 2.4. Lastly, section 2.5 deals with the distinction between inductive and deductive instruction, and offers a concluding paragraph, which allows the reader to reflect upon the various stances and definitions that have been presented.

2.1. Historical background

*“If grammar ever went away, it was only very briefly and not very far.”
(Thornbury 1999: 23)*

Grammar teaching has a long history as an activity since it represents, or potentially represented, a primary part of language learning. The first approach to grammar teaching derives from the language learning process of languages such as Greek and Latin which were typically translated word by word. The Grammar-Translation method has strongly influenced the language-learning classroom, despite the fact that it lost its effectiveness as soon as grammarians started to use the approach for other languages as well, such as English (Hinkel & Fotos 2002: 1-2). The decontextualized memorization of vocabulary and grammar rules led to a shortage of communication in the classroom and, thus, paved the way for a new method. By exclusively using the target language, the Direct Method attempted to create more possibilities to communicate in the target language and provided students with a more learner-centered atmosphere (Keßler & Plesser 2011: 52-5). Another approach, which emerged due to the demand for communication, was the Audio-Lingual approach. In “audio-lingualism”, however, “pattern drilling” (Keßler & Plesser 2011:55) in an oral rather than written form, was again the main instructional tool and supposedly helped students to remember new language forms. Additionally, a method that quickly trained students’ fluency in foreign languages was needed during and after WWII, allowing a teacher-centered lesson with a large number of students (Keßler & Plesser 2011: 55). In the 1950s and 1960s the theory by Chomsky of a “Universal Grammar” (Hinkel & Fotos 2002: 3), which is applicable to all languages, led to a renaissance of explicit grammar teaching. As Hinkel and Fotos (2002: 4) state:

At the time, the cognitive view of language acquisition held that language includes an infinite number of structures that speakers could create and understand, and the L2 pedagogy needs to include the teaching of grammar as a foundational framework for all L2 skills.

Despite the constant back and forth between drills, explicit instruction and communicative goals, language teaching experienced one enormously influencing and prevailing approach, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the 1970s.

While Hinkel and Fotos (2002: 4) claim that CLT has been a reaction to the high increase in ESL learners, especially in California, and the need for an effective tool to 'teach' communicative competence, Keßler and Plesser (2011: 57) attribute the origin of CLT to British applied linguists (e.g. Wilkins, Widdowson and Hymes), who wished "to overcome the limitations of structuralism and behaviourism" (Keßler & Plesser 2011: 57). Whether it originated in America or Britain, CLT had an enormous influence on the language-teaching classroom. Expressions such as "[a]n explicit focus on grammar is generally rejected" and "focus is on fluency rather than on accuracy" (Keßler & Plesser 2011: 57) describing CLT led to the widespread belief that CLT means excluding grammar from the language learning classroom entirely. Thornbury (1999: 18) talks of two different 'ways' commonly used in the CLT approach to reach the communicative competence learners are striving for. The "shallow-end" approach is similar to what one might associate with methods which were applied before CLT - one ought to "learn the rules and then apply them in life-like communication" (Thornbury 1999: 18). On the opposing side one encounters the "deep-end" (ibid.) approach, which claims that a language is best learned by simply using it, and thereby unconsciously acquiring the grammar alongside. In other words, although the CLT approach has altered the current practices in EFL classrooms, there has not been a consensus about the role of grammar in this approach. López and Luque (2012: 182-3) talk of the various approaches that have blossomed, and still are, during the, in their term, post-CLT era. The authors emphasize that the deep-end approach has been shown to be unsuccessful in supporting the learner's "fluent language learning" (López & Luque 2012: 182). Therefore, other approaches have derived from the demand to combine communication and grammar instruction, considering grammar "as a means towards communication and not as the end itself" (ibid: 183). For López and Luque (2012: 183), these include a weak form of Task-based language teaching (TBLT), Focus on Form and Content-based instruction (CBI). In TBLT grammar can be taught "through enabling tasks" and "focus on form after providing enough input", also CBI provides opportunities in which grammar can be taught in a more communicative way than the traditional grammar teaching allows, namely teaching grammar "within context, inductively or deductively" or through "focus on form through activities which are related to the topic in question", so López and Luque (2012: 186). Despite this being merely a very brief description of

the possibilities to implement grammar instruction in communicative language teaching, the authors thereby underline the statement that grammar instruction does not need to be separated from communication. Since it is commonly known that grammar is needed for communicating in a foreign language, why should it be a burden to students? To conclude, López and Luque (2012: 185) state “all communicative approaches have a role for grammar teaching”. However, the method or approach that should be used when introducing learners to grammar is yet another topic of interest to many researchers and offers a substantial area for discussions.

Batstone and Ellis (2009: 195), for instance, talk of one general principle that should underlie grammar teaching, namely “[e]ffective grammar instruction must complement the processes of L2 acquisition”. They put forward three principles that are based on this general idea, which allow learners to create “connections between grammatical forms and meanings” (Batstone & Ellis 2009: 194). First of all, the “Given-to-New Principle”, refers to the action in learning when new knowledge is linked or aligned with already existing information (ibid: 195). The authors claim that existing knowledge “is used as a resource in order to help them [learners] perceive something new” (Batstone & Ellis 2009: 195). An example would be to know the meaning and to see how it “is signaled by a form with which they [learners] are unfamiliar” (ibid.). Indicated already by its name, the “Awareness Principle” describes the essential process of “making learners aware of how a particular meaning is encoded by a particular grammatical form” (ibid: 197). The third principle “real-operating conditions principle” covers the necessity of implementing communication in the process of acquiring new grammatical forms. The authors (Batstone & Ellis 2009: 199) argue that engaging learners in authentic and effective communication is necessary in order for them to essentially acquire a new form. In general it can be stated that the authors attempted to filter the most effective or necessary steps in acquiring new grammatical forms from the depth and breadth of existing theories and approaches, and created this principled grammar teaching approach, which serves one purpose, namely that “[e]ffective grammar teaching must complement the processes of L2 acquisition” (ibid: 203). Their three principles are of a more general nature, informed by the multitude of approaches, and should be, according to them, catered for in language instruction in general as a means of enabling successful acquisition (ibid: 203-4).

So far, I have described the most influential approaches in the history of grammar instruction and brought forward methods that are currently debated as to whether their practice is successful or not. The so-called ‘interface debate’ is concerned with that matter, expressing stances in favor and against of explicit grammar instruction or grammar teaching in communicative classrooms in general. In part, these arguments are based on empirical data, which is however not always entirely equivalent with situations in the classroom. The following subchapter will provide a concise overview of the strongly debated issue, the interface debate.

2.1.1. The interface debate

The discussion on whether explicitly learned (conscious) knowledge can be transformed into implicit (unconscious) knowledge is subsumed under the term ‘interface debate’. The ‘interface’ describes the “connection or overlap between the[se] two types of knowledge” (Han & Finneran 2014: 371). Three different positions can be found within this discussion: the non-interface, weak-interface and strong-interface position. Each of these standpoints represents a certain theory of how a second or foreign language can be learned and acquired (Ellis 2006: 97). Thus, advocates of the non-interface position hold the view that the ‘interface’ does not exist and, consequently, explicitly learned knowledge cannot become implicit (Ellis 2006: 96). The most famous representative of this position is Krashen (1983: 19-21), who argued that language cannot be taught explicitly, thus explicit grammar instruction was not sufficient in order to acquire a foreign language. On the contrary, in his Natural Approach he compared L2 acquisition with L1 acquisition and argued that there may also be a “silent period” for instance, where learners do not produce any spoken utterances; furthermore, students should not be “forced to speak before they are ready” (ibid: 20). He supports his approach with inter alia the Monitor Hypothesis, which indicates, according to him, that “conscious learning has an extremely limited function” as it merely works as an editor to what has been said and “is not responsible for fluency” (ibid: 30). Therefore, one can observe that Krashen with his Natural Approach is a strong representative of the non-interface position, or even, as primarily referred to in the literature, the founding father of it.

However, the non-interface position has faced two counterclaims, one of these is the weak-interface position. Han and Finneran (2014: 372) identify two diverging

stances within the weak-interface position:

One position considers the learning process largely explicit and the other largely implicit, and accordingly, in one position, explicit knowledge is necessary, but ancillary, in the other. Nonetheless, the two views are in unison on one understanding, namely that *explicit knowledge may help where implicit knowledge fails* [...], and, in essence, that *everything is learnable*. [original emphasis]

Thus, grammar teaching and learning is also relevant in the weak-interface position, yet this does not mean that it has to be provided explicitly. Ellis (2006: 97) supports this argument by stating “[t]he weak-interface position also lends support to techniques that induce learners to attend to grammatical features”. Unsurprisingly, the strong-interface position argues that a language can only be learned when the learner is consciously engaged with it and its rules. Han and Finneran (2014: 372), as well as Ellis, ascribe this position to DeKeyser’s (1998) “skill learning theory” (Ellis 2006: 97), which “argue[s] that explicit knowledge becomes implicit knowledge if learners have the opportunity for plentiful communicative practice” (ibid.). Hence the three positions vary from no explicit grammar teaching, some explicit or implicit grammar instruction, to the standpoint that an explicit focus on grammar is necessary for successful acquisition.

These three positions within the interface debate have had varying influences on language pedagogy, each supporting a different theory of how language may be acquired. The non-interface position characterizes itself with a “*zero grammar*” [original emphasis] (ibid.) approach, which has been a controversial topic in SLA pedagogy ever since. Nonetheless, despite research findings partly supporting the non-interface position, it has had very little impact on the language-learning classroom in general (Larsen-Freeman 2015: 264-5). Furthermore, Larsen-Freeman (2015: 265) observes “while the research is certainly not unequivocal, it can be instructive to ask why it is that teachers have not abandoned explicit grammar instruction as they have been advised to do”. On the one hand, Larsen-Freeman (2015: 266) brings forward the argument that teacher education often has very little impact on teachers’ beliefs and practices, which will be discussed in more detail in chapter 3, and, on the other hand, she observes that language instruction should in fact not imitate “any natural acquisition process”, but rather “accelerate” it (ibid.). In contrast, the weak-interface position, according to Ellis (2006: 97), has inspired

“consciousness-raising tasks” in which learners have to induce grammar rules from the text or other language data they are engaged with. Meaning that including grammar in the language-learning classroom to some extent has been promoted stronger than the non-interface approach. Above all is however the strong-interface position which follows the well-known PPP-model, in which teachers first present grammatical items to learners, then encourage students to practice these until they can produce the new form (ibid.). Hence the strong-interface debate is describing inter alia what has been happening in SLA pedagogy for decades.

SLA research has been ruling in favor of and against grammar instruction, respectively (Thornbury 1999: 14), and the multitude in methods and approaches that can be listed nowadays when asking: ‘How should we teach grammar?’ seems endless. What is apparent, however, is that the weak-interface position has currently attracted SLA researchers’ interest and has also gained support from several applied linguists. While Ellis (2006: 86) acknowledges the evidence that grammar instruction is in fact supporting language acquisition, however, he highlights the “disagreement regarding what should replace this [traditional approach, drill-like practice]” (Ellis 2006: 102). Summer (2011: 71) continues this argument, when she elaborates on the fact that non-interface approaches would be insufficient for learners’ language development and that grammar instruction ought to be viewed “in its variety of forms as a central component of EFL teaching” (ibid: 74). Keßler and Plesser (2011: 147) position themselves similarly at an intermediate stance, arguing that language learning should center around meaning as long as communication is the main aim; however, whenever learners are in need of learning new language patterns, focus on form is reasonable. Wong and VanPatten (2003: 403) join the debate by declaring that mechanical drills need to be excluded from the language-learning classroom. In their article they present sufficient evidence that supports the argument that “drills are simply unnecessary and at best a waste of time for the development of communicative language ability” (Wong & VanPatten 2003: 415-8). Thus, a consensus on the positive effect of the weak-interface approaches has been found; however, there has not been one definitive solution. Conceivably, there is none.

To conclude, I wish to refer once more to Thornbury (1999: 25), who convincingly writes “[i]t may be that communicative competence is best achieved through communicating, through making meanings, and that grammar is a way of

tidying these meanings up". As mentioned above, several disparate methods have been suggested and developed in order to create a supportive and effective learning environment for SLA acquisition. The following chapters will provide insights into the dichotomies that have concerned grammar teaching over the last decades.

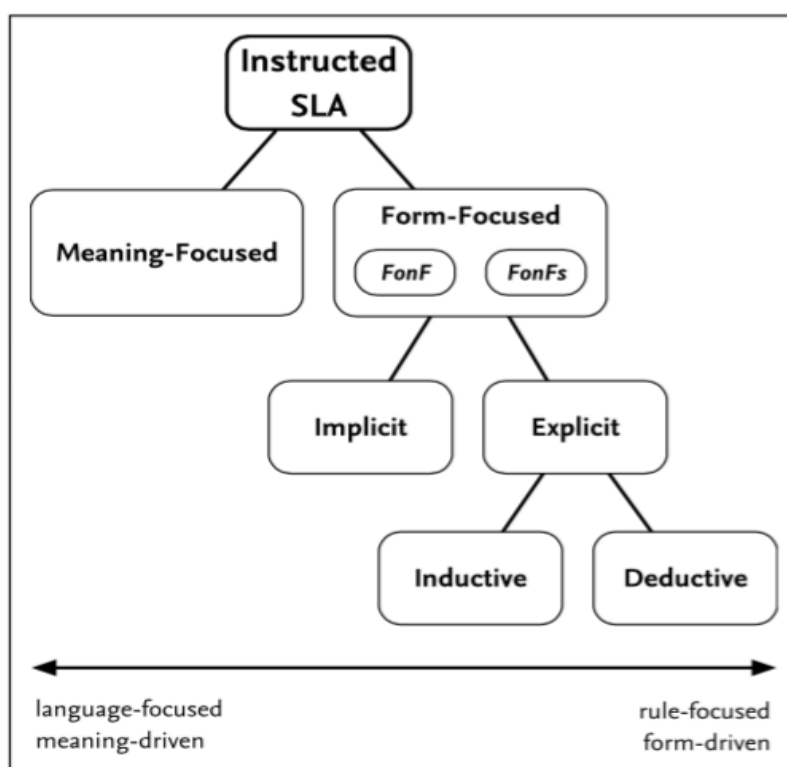
2.2. Meaning-focused versus form-focused instruction

First and foremost, an important distinction ought to be made between meaning-focused (MFI) and form-focused (FFI) instruction in second or foreign language teaching. Doughty and Williams (1998a, 1998b), as well as Williams (2005) have dedicated parts of their work to sort out the confusion of terms, which emerged through the growing interest, and, thereby, increasing amount of literature on the topic. When talking about FFI, there is a need to distinguish between form-focused instruction, focus on forms (FonFs) and focus on form (FonF). The first represents an umbrella term for the following two, demonstrating that FonFs and FonF do not equate the opposition form versus meaning (Doughty & Williams 1998a: 4). For Nassaji and Fotos (2011: 10) FFI “refers to grammar instruction that takes place within communicative contexts”. Another very concise and often quoted definition is the one by Ellis (2001: 1-2):

form-focused instruction (FFI) is used to refer to any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form. [...] Thus, FFI includes both traditional approaches to teaching forms based on structural syllabi and more communicative approaches, where attention to form arises out of activities that are primarily meaning-focused

Whereas, meaning-focused instruction (MFI) is equated with non-interventionist (non-interface) positions by Ellis & Shintani (2014: 16-7), and opposed to FFI which refers to interventionist instruction. This opposition clearly separates, so Ellis and Shintani, MFI and FFI, the latter primarily focusing on “the direct teaching of specific linguistic forms” (Ellis & Shintani 2014: 16), while MFI includes a broad spectrum, e.g. “the Natural Method [...], extensive reading programmes, [...] content-based language teaching, or [...] immersion programmes” (ibid.). The authors continue, however, by acknowledging the fact that immersion programs have failed to equip learners with a high level of grammatical competence and linguistic accuracy, as has been verified by Canadian immersion programs (ibid.). Ellis and Shintani’s (2014: 16-7) discussion continues by referring to FonF as a solution to this failure, which is consistent with what has been suggested by many other researchers as well (see below); yet, to attribute FonF to a MFI approach is rather rare and unfortunately confusing, since most writers have listed it among the advantages of FFI. An argument concerned with the definition and application of the term ‘meaning’ brought

forward by DeKeyser (2005) could be however an explanation for Ellis and Shintani's untypical description of FonF as a MFI approach. DeKeyser (2005: 5-7) talks of the difficulties learners experience when learning a new language, problems that revolve around meaning, form and form-meaning mappings. First of all, learners may encounter difficulties with grammatical structures that carry meanings that do not exist in their L1 and therefore represent a major obstacle to them. Secondly, a similar problem can be found, when learners know the meaning they wish to express, but lack the grammatical competence to formulate an adequate phrase or even word in inflected languages. Lastly, internalizing the connection between a form and a meaning, especially if the connection between these two is not clearly recognizable, is rather problematic for learners (ibid.). As can be seen from this short discussion, the term 'meaning' cannot be excluded from grammar instruction in principle; however, when concerned with the 'exact' definition of approaches and methods, it becomes clear that FonF is a form of FFI and not MFI, despite its elements including meaning in the work with grammar learning. In the following chapters it will become evident that FFI has a great potential to present learners with situations which focus



Graph 1: Taxonomy of SLA instruction (Graus & Coppen 2016: 576)

on meaning and on form equally. Graus and Coppen (2016: 576) have designed Graph 1, which illustrates the taxonomies of language learning pedagogy. The Graph

illustrates the position of FFI in relation to other approaches in SLA. As mentioned before, FFI represents an umbrella term for various forms of grammar instruction, including FonF and FonFs, explicit and implicit instruction, and inductive and deductive grammar teaching. In this taxonomy the juxtaposition of MFI and FFI becomes evident. What is also interesting is that it clearly shows that inductive or implicit grammar instruction are in fact also a form of FFI since they draw attention to linguistic elements of the language at some point in the process of acquisition. The exact definition of these terms will be covered within the following three subchapters. Before turning the attention towards these various kinds of form-focused instruction, I will briefly discuss SLA research concerned with FFI, its development and its relevance for language pedagogy.

Form-focused instruction has gained a lot of attention from SLA research and language pedagogy over the last 30 years, arguably because it is applicable to and thus relevant for both areas. Another reason for this increased interest is its efficacy in language acquisition, which has been shown by several research projects (Ellis 2001: 2). The history of FFI starts in the 1960s and 1970s when SLA research began to examine the varying teaching methods (grammar-translation method, audio-lingual method, etc.) and their effect on language acquisition. At the same time interest grew in how far L2 (second language) acquisition equates L1 (first language) acquisition, leading to the question, whether FFI was in fact helpful (ibid: 3-4).

From the results of early studies investigating the effect of FFI, Ellis (2001: 4) argues that one can find influences in current research, as these have shown that FFI can merely enhance “the process involved in natural language acquisition” but not change it. In other words, early research has revealed that FFI can have beneficial influences on learners, however, “it needed to be made compatible with the learning process” (Ellis & Shintani 2014: 18). While studies designed to measure the effect of FFI have increased, classroom-based research, which considers all variables a language teacher would have to bear in mind, is unfortunately rather rare so far. Conceivably, the diversity a language-learning classroom represents in terms of language levels, learner types, different L1s, to name only a few, challenges SLA research which wishes to measure the efficacy of proposed forms of FFI. It is because of this accumulation of factors that various kinds of measurement tools and studies have been designed and conducted over the last decades (ibid: 18-9). This

later research has concerned itself with classroom-based research, beginning with an emphasis on error treatment, continuing to investigate more general interactions in the classroom, and further focusing on process-product relations in the language-learning classroom (Ellis 2001: 4-5). Despite the high interest and ambitious research, one main question remained – whether FFI was ‘working’, i.e. whether it helped learners to use the forms they have been studying effectively in their written and spoken production (ibid.). In a later publication, Ellis and Shintani (2014: 19) affirm that FFI as a whole is “a very complex phenomenon”; however, what can be taken for a fact is that “FFI does benefit learning!” (ibid: 20).

2.3. Focus on form versus focus on forms

An extensive amount of literature has been written on the distinction between FonF and FonFs, as well as their efficacy in language acquisition and teaching. The interest for FonF has derived from SLA research findings which revealed that exclusively naturalistic approaches failed their purpose of enabling learners to attain “targetlike [language] levels” (Doughty & Williams 1998a: 2). One reason for the successful influence of FonF on learners’ acquisition process is, Doughty and Williams (1998a: 3) believe, that learners are engaged in a communicative situation beforehand and only then are in demand of a linguistic item, and this need gives the item more relevance from the learners’ perspective. The struggle to “decode or encode a message” (Ellis & Shintani 2014: 144), which is important to the learners, creates a situation in which learners are more open to acquire this new language item. For the teacher or language instructor, this however means to decide whether formal elements of the language are selected “*in advance*” (Doughty and Williams 1998b: 198) [original emphasis] and brought to students via a specifically designed task, also referred to as “proactive” (ibid.), or whether linguistic items are dealt with spontaneously as they arise from context, which is called “reactive” (ibid.). A reactive stance in FonF is rather demanding for the teacher, who needs to be not only highly attentive in order to notice learners’ errors, especially in classes with a higher language level, but also decide whether these errors should be dealt with in that moment or not, and then be prepared to react to these errors adequately (ibid: 206-7). Another difficulty experienced by teachers is the decision of which form to focus on, since different kinds of errors occur, and how to introduce and implement the focus on form in the ‘active’ lesson. Doughty and Williams (1998b: 228) argue “that these decisions [which form, when and how] should be based upon the research findings on learnability of forms”. In part, a prerequisite would be the engagement with SLA research findings and results for language teachers to follow that appeal. And, at the same time, SLA research would need to improve its usability for language pedagogy, as previously said. Doughty and Williams (1998b: 202) provide an extensive review of the SLA research on FonF that has been relevant at the time of the publication; yet, they also acknowledge the fact that “pedagogical questions [...] are quite different from those regarding ultimate attainment that bedevil researchers”. In other words, research on FonF is not always relevant for language pedagogy,

since the circumstances differ immensely.

Apart from the research being inconclusive, it is affirmed by Nassaji and Fotos (2011: 11) that while FonF has been accepted as a suitable and helpful approach in grammar instruction, authors have “defined and interpreted” the notion of FonF very differently. For this reason, a few of the most influential definitions and applications of the term have been brought together here. As one of the pioneers in FonF, Long (1991: 45-6) defines FonF as “overtly draw[ing] students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication”. Moreover, he clearly defines the role of language, which should not be the “object of study” but rather represent the “medium of communication” (ibid: 41). Hinkel and Fotos (2002: 5) make the “distinction between explicit instruction on grammar forms (with an *s*) and meaning-focused use of form (no *s*) in such a way that the learner must notice, then process the target grammar structure in purely communicative input” [original emphasis]. Although this definition may appear clear cut, one ought to bear in mind that it opposes terms such as ‘meaning-focused’ and ‘explicit instruction’, which may, unintentionally, lead to a misinterpretation of FonF as being a part of MFI, similar to the definition of Ellis and Shintani (2014). However, FonF is part of FFI despite including meaning-focused elements. A more comprehensible definition has been provided by Doughty and Williams (1998a: 3), when stating that focus on forms refers to instructional situations in which grammatical items are presented entirely without a context or communicative situation. Hence, FonF includes, among other things, a focus on linguistic elements, while FonFs “is *limited* to such a focus” [original emphasis] (ibid: 4). Ellis (2006: 100) continues this line of argument, when stating that FonFs exclusively centers around one grammatical item and the learners’ accuracy in using it, whereas the focus on form in FonFs arises out of a communicative situation. Ellis (2006: 100) also talks of planned and incidental focus on form, the former referring to “focus tasks”, which are designed as a means of eliciting situations that allow to focus on a certain linguistic form. The researchers Nassaji and Fotos (2011: 10) define FFI as “grammar instruction that takes place within communicative contexts”. It is stressed by Keck and Kim (2014: 28) that the attention only shifts to linguistic form once the learners experience difficulties or are in danger of experiencing a “communication breakdown”. This line of argument is supported by Williams (2005: 674-5) who

concludes that FonF is always a reaction to learners' problems or difficulties, whether these are selected in advance or dealt with reactively. In general, one major point has remained steady throughout the multitude of definitions and application theories, namely the "incorporation of a focus on grammar into meaningful communication" (Nassaji & Fotos 2011: 12). Nassaji and Fotos (2011: 13) stress that they view FonF "as a series of methodological options", which allow various possibilities to focus on form, "while adhering to the principles of communicative language teaching".

In a successful attempt to subsume the most important definitions of FonF/FonFs, Williams (2005: 673) has brought forward an explanation of the taxonomy that surrounds FonF. At the very beginning one can find "problematicity" (ibid: 674) referring to the origin of FonF, which rests in learners' difficulties to express themselves. Various reactions to this problem are possible: as already mentioned the dichotomy of reactive and proactive are at the teacher's disposal. Another option is the preemptive approach, which tackles learners' problems already before they arise; in other words, the teacher anticipates a potential problem and focuses briefly on the form that learners may need or may struggle with (ibid: 674). However, Williams (2005: 675) also points to the fact that this variety of FonF is not always accurate in anticipating learners' needs and thus "an example of how the term [FonF] has been stretched to fit our need to describe various kinds of communication interaction and instruction". The next step in the taxonomy of FonF is "planning" (Williams 2005: 675):

It may be useful to consider several related features, in particular, to distinguish among the following: (a) overall lesson planning, (b) whether a technique or approach is proactive or reactive, and (c) the degree to which a technique or an activity has a specific instructional target (i.e., a form that will be focused on).

Hence, planning does not begin with the teacher's decision to react to learners' mistakes on the spur of the moment or to elicit occasions, which allow FonF, in fact it is already part of the "overall lesson planning" (ibid.). Another possibility is called "unplanned, reactive FonF", which refers to a spontaneous "mini-lesson" the teacher decides to hold, because he or she observed that learners were struggling, and "without having made a decision to do so in advance" (ibid: 676). The third factor in FonF is "obtrusiveness", which in fact describes "the degree to which an activity or technique interrupts the flow of communication" (ibid.). Due to the multitude of

different interpretations of FonF, the extensive amount of varying applications and the disparate research results concerning FonF, the determination of the degree of FonF's obtrusiveness is unfeasible at this point (for further discussion of this issue see Williams, 2005). Lastly, the "locus of responsibility" represents the final aspect of FonF. The underlying question, as stressed by Williams (2005: 679) is "who takes responsibility for initiating the cognitive process involved in acquisition" – learners or teachers? The allocation of this responsibility depends greatly on the approach that dominates the language-learning classroom; however, a majority of methods is "teacher/materials-directed" (ibid.).

So far, I have presented the multitude of definitions of FonF and set these into the context of language pedagogy. Before moving on to another dichotomy in SLA, namely explicit versus implicit instruction, I will briefly touch upon one last factor of FonF, which has been considered of great importance in the discussion. What is continuously stressed concerning FonF is the learners' "engagement in meaning" in an activity before it redirects its attention to form (Doughty & Williams 1998a: 3). Willis & Willis (2007: 16-17) have illustrated the importance of this concept with a simple comparison. They talk of a radio show, in which participants are not allowed to answer questions with yes and no, while any other words may be used. Although participants concentrate and manage to evade the questions, in the end they are asked very short and personal questions in a row until they say yes or no. By bringing forward this example, Willis and Willis (2007: 17) wish to exemplify how difficult it is "to concentrate on what we are going to say and at the same time on *how* we are going to say it, in the sense of what words or forms we are going to use". Thus, when applying this theory on language learners, one can detect that starting an activity with an explicit focus on form, can, and most likely will, hinder the subsequent communicative task. Learners will either try to produce the new form correctly and, hence, stop to pay attention to "real-time communication" or they will not concentrate on the new form and engage in a communicative activity (Willis & Willis 2007: 17). As a result, the teacher's intentions of the lesson have failed, since neither of the proposed outcomes leads to development of fluency and incorporation of the new linguistic item (ibid.). Recapitulating, for FonF instruction to be effective and successful, it needs to begin with a meaningful task, which establishes the need for a linguistic item which learners will welcome with open arms (or minds in that case).

2.4. Implicit versus explicit instruction and learning

Two sets of terms will be at the center of this chapter's discussion since they are interrelated and often wrongly discussed interchangeably, which makes the distinction all the more important. Explicit and implicit learning (sometimes equated with 'knowledge') are portrayed in contrast to explicit and implicit instruction. Hulstijn (2005: 131-2) explains why explicit/implicit learning is often put on a level with explicit/implicit knowledge: "learning is often defined with reference to the nature of the knowledge learned". Hence, it is not surprising that explicit learning is referred to as learning of explicit knowledge; similarly, this conclusion is drawn for implicit learning and knowledge. Ten years after Hulstijn's call for more clarity concerning these terms, as well as a plea for more research concerning implicit/explicit learning, Leow (2015: 47) writes about the lack of consensus on the importance of the role of implicit learning in SLA, which he ascribes to, amongst other things, the inconsistent definition of the term itself. The author emphasizes, "definitions or perspectives of what comprises implicit learning appears to have methodological implications for research designs" (ibid: 48). Thus, the field of SLA research strives for more clarity in that terminology and, resulting from that refinement, an improvement in the measurement of implicit and explicit learning/knowledge is hoped for (cf. Ellis 2015, Leow 2015). Despite the discussion surrounding the terminology, another important aspect of implicit/explicit learning and knowledge is the question of their interrelatedness (see also 2.1.1 The interface debate). A study by Williams (2004: 204) has for example tested whether implicit learning enables learners to acquire form-meaning connections. Despite the simplicity of the examples given in the test, only very few of the participants were able to detect the form-meaning connections (ibid: 215). Nonetheless, Williams (2004: 216) stresses the fact that "[m]uch is likely to depend on the nature of the participant [...] and upon the nature of the system". DeKeyser (2003: 331) presents similar results in his review of a variety of studies investigating implicit and explicit learning. The conclusion he draws is that the "large body of sophisticated research" dedicated to find evidence that "people can learn abstract patterns without being aware of them" has failed to do so (ibid: 335). From this perspective, it may seem as if implicit learning is not relevant for language pedagogy; however, it is necessary to understand the difference between implicit learning and implicit instruction, which will be, besides explicit instruction, at the

center of discussion in the following paragraphs. What may have become evident by now is the fact that definitions and terminology in SLA are rather broad. In part, because of the different applications among researchers and, in part, because of their continuing relevance, which sometimes leads to reinterpretations. In order to achieve an overview of the terms ‘implicit and explicit instruction’, various standpoints have been brought forward.

Doughty and Williams (1998b: 230) for example refer to the literal sense of the terms explicit and implicit and thereby show that they have two interpretations, respectively:

- Implicit* a. Implied or understood though not directly expressed.
- b. Contained in the nature of something though not readily apparent.
- Explicit* a. Fully and clearly expressed, defined or formulated.
- b. Readily observable.

It is being argued that these definitions have caused a great amount of confusion in the terminology, since both terms can be interpreted differently when referring to their literal sense. Nevertheless, Doughty and Williams (1998b: 231) promote the viewpoint that overall language instruction can be explicit and implicit. Terrell (1991: 53) stresses the fact that he uses “the term ‘explicit grammar instruction’ (EGI) somewhat loosely” when defining it as “the use of instructional strategies to draw students’ attention to or focus on form and/or structure”. In his paper, he highlights once more the fact that grammar instruction should help students to establish “meaning-form relationship[s]” and to “aid in comprehending and segmenting the input” (ibid: 58). Explicit instruction can support learners in detecting the “instructional target” (Ellis & Shintani 2014: 83) and it offers activities, which cater to the learning of this linguistic item. In a similar vein, Fotos (2002: 136-7) reports of the positive effect that explicit language instruction can have in a communicative classroom. Furthermore, a much-debated meta-study by Norris and Ortega (2000: 500) revealed that explicit instruction, including inductive and deductive, is more efficient in language acquisition than implicit instruction.

However, Keck and Kim (2014: 146) relativize the assumption that grammar instruction needs to be either implicit or explicit. The authors of *Pedagogical Grammar* acknowledge that “[o]ver the years, the pendulum has swung from a structural syllabus, towards meaning-focused Communicative Language Teaching,

and back again to at least some focus on grammatical form” (Keck & Kim 2014: 146). Therefore, they suggest viewing “explicit and implicit instruction as a continuum, rather than as a dichotomy” (ibid.). Whereas, Hulstijn (2005: 132) defines explicit and implicit instruction very briefly, merely by stating, “learners do or do not receive information concerning rules underlying the input, respectively”. For Ellis and Shintani (2014:83) the conditions in implicit learning represent a different process, namely that learners are unaware of the target item. Learners engage with it in activities and ideally use it in their own speech without realizing that they have acquired a new word (Ellis & Shintani 2014: 83). Lastly, Summer’s (2011: 54) representation of implicit and explicit, as well as inductive and deductive instruction, based on DeKeyser (2003) reveals how these two ‘dichotomies’ are interrelated. However, one combination, namely deductive and implicit, is “less obvious, but the concept of parameter setting in Universal Grammar could be seen as an example; supposedly learners derive a number of characteristics of the language being learned from the setting of the parameter” and, of course, this process takes places without the learner’s awareness (DeKeyser 2003: 314-5).

Dimensions of teaching and learning:		
	Deductive <i>(from rules to examples)</i>	Inductive <i>(from examples to rules)</i>
Explicit <i>(learning with awareness)</i>	traditional teaching	Rule discovery, e.g. students study examples in a text to find rules
Implicit <i>(learning without awareness)</i>	Using parameters	Learning L1 from input, e.g. children acquiring their native language without thinking about its form

Table 1: Dimensions of SLA (Summer 2011: 54, adapted from DeKeyser 2003: 314)

2.5. Inductive versus deductive instruction

Especially since Communicative Language Teaching predominated the field of SLA research and pedagogy, the terms inductive and deductive instruction have become more and more prevalent. Situations in which learners are presented with a rule or grammatical item are known as “deductive presentation” (Ellis 2001: 18) In a later publication, Ellis (2006: 97) relates this methodical way to the first step of the three P’s as in “the present-practise-produce sequence”, where learners are at first confronted with the linguistic structure and then encouraged to practice it. As opposed to inductive teaching, which allows learners to discover the rule or grammatical feature on their own, by analyzing the input they have been provided with by the teacher. It is the teacher’s choice whether there will be “a final explicit statement of the rule” or not (ibid.). In other words, to refer once more to Hulstijn (2005: 132), who contrasts these two terms simply by the fact that for deductive instruction the “rules are presented before examples are provided” and for inductive instruction the exact opposite is true. However, the author does not concur with Ellis (2006) in terms of the presentation of the rule, which “is always given at some point” for Hulstijn (2005: 132) and, therefore, he clearly determines deductive and inductive instruction as a part of explicit language instruction. For a better understanding, Thornbury (1999: 29) compared inductive and deductive instruction with a real-life example. When travelling to foreign countries, one is sometimes told that it is customary to greet one another only, for example, with the left hand; thus the rule is known beforehand. However, without that preexisting knowledge the traveller has to deduce this ‘social rule’ from the context and then apply it, which would equate inductive learning (ibid.).

Referring back to DeKeyser (2003) once more, who differentiated between inductive and implicit learning, the latter describing an unaware learning process, it becomes clear that the distinction between implicit and inductive learning is essential. His definition of inductive learning lines up with the above listed descriptions, namely as a process “going from the particular to the general, from examples to rules” (DeKeyser 2003: 314). Yet, one substantial difference is made in terms of discussing the rules behind the linguistic items. If the rule is not discussed or made explicit in any way, and remains implicit and inductive, that process refers to the acquisition of children’s “native language”. Thereby DeKeyser (2003: 314) distances himself from

any non-interface or natural approaches and excludes this form of acquisition from the language-learning classroom. He verifies his argument with a “large body of sophisticated research”, which has not been able to prove that “abstract patterns” of a language can be learned “without being aware of them” (DeKeyser 2003: 335).

Apart from the terms’ definitions, another considerable part involved in the discussion of these terms is their application and the effect of it. Ellis and Shintani (2014: 84-5) have discussed several advantages and disadvantages of each approach. Deductive instruction is for instance “easier and quicker”, “it confirms many students’ expectations about classroom learning” and is “time-saving” (Ellis & Shintani 2014: 85). However, the list of advantageous aspects of inductive learning is even longer: “involves greater depth of processing which assists memory”, “encourages students’ active involvement”, “can be done collaboratively” and “encourage learner autonomy” to mention only a few (ibid.). Of course, both approaches have drawbacks as well, ranging from “teacher-fronted” demotivating situations in deductive instruction, to “[t]ime-consuming” guessing, which may “frustrate students” or lead to “misunderstanding the rule” in inductive language-learning classrooms (ibid.). Ellis and Shintani (2014: 109) stress, “teacher educators and SLA researchers recognize the value of inductive grammar presentation”. At the same time they ask, why the majority of textbooks are presenting grammar primarily in a deductive approach (ibid: 85). Answers to these questions are yet to be found, nonetheless, it is possible to conclude from the brief overview provided in this subchapter, that inductive language teaching has positive effects, not only on learners’ acquisition process but also their motivation.

In conclusion, it can be noted that despite the efforts of years of research in second language acquisition, there has not been a consensus on what method or approach teachers should adhere to. There is not one exclusive approach or theory that teachers should follow; on the contrary, Graus and Coppen (2016: 576) stress that “language teachers are likely to employ a combination of several approaches depending on their perception of the context and the perceived merits of each of the approaches”. Ellis and Shintani (2014: 27) express a quest for improved SLA research, because “good teaching is teaching that proceeds in accordance with how learners learn” and SLA research should enable and support teachers to create

these circumstances. As worthwhile and praiseworthy this may sound, the authors are realistic enough to recognize that the complexity of bringing together SLA research and language pedagogy is unfortunately too enormous at this point. Willis and Willis (2007: 30, original emphasis) pessimistically observe that “[t]here is still no consensus on how we learn languages, but there is a growing consensus on how we do *not* learn”.

3. Grammar teaching in Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE)

While discussing the many options of grammar teaching has shed light on this controversial topic, one must not forget those practicing in real life classrooms, namely the teachers. On average, teachers graduate at the age of twenty-four in Austria and start their teaching career then. Certainly, teachers are offered in-service training courses and they are also developing through their own practical experience. Nevertheless, it may be presumed that their education, at least in part, influences their beliefs on language instruction. Therefore, this section will investigate how current developments in grammar teaching methodology are implemented in SLTE programs. The potential effects of changes in teacher education on teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction are especially relevant to the empirical study of the present thesis. For example, whether student teachers were enabled to try out unfamiliar methods or whether they learned about the variety of methods and approaches available in grammar teaching.

Since studies have shown that teachers' knowledge of grammar and their personal experiences in language learning can also strongly influence their way of teaching a language, those aspects are discussed in subchapter 3.2. The relevance of teachers' knowledge about a language as a potential influencing factor for teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction is also reflected in the empirical part of this thesis. Additionally, for a better understanding of teachers' choices made within the complex surroundings of a language-learning classroom, research has begun to investigate the mental lives of teachers and to consider their decision-making processes as a helpful instrument for teacher education. Furthermore, investigating the development of teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction and language learning, as well as the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices will be at the center of discussion in section 3.3 in order to be able to understand and interpret the results of the present study adequately.

Lastly, subchapter 3.4 will discuss the subject of teacher research engagement and teachers' further professional development beyond their academic education. How can teachers integrate recent findings of research into their own teaching? Studies have, for example, shown that merely reading or learning about new

teaching approaches rarely turns into regular practice for most teachers. Teachers' further professional development and its effects on teachers' grammar beliefs are central to the third research question of the present thesis.

3.1. Grammar teaching methodology in SLTE

*There is no one 'right' way to teach grammar.
Penny Ur (2012: 91)*

Second Language Teacher Education has seen tremendous changes within the last 40 years² (cf. Freeman 2002, 2009; Johnson 2006, Crandall 2000, Richards 2008). The question remains, however, in how far student teachers' preparation for grammar teaching has been subject to that change. Thus, one of the research questions of the present study attempts to investigate, whether inter alia changes in SLTE curricula have had an impact on teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching. Moreover, the emerging consensus on the fact that there is not "one 'right' way to teach grammar", as Ur (2012: 91) put it, is similarly believed to result in changes in SLTE grammar teaching methodology. As discussed in chapter 2, grammar teaching methodology offers a broad spectrum of various approaches and methods that can be employed by teachers. Evidently, the same vast spectrum is available to teacher educators and SLTE programs in general. Nevertheless, well-known researchers of the field (Ur 2012, 2014; Larsen-Freeman 2015, Newby 2012) observe similar circumstances in the average language-learning classroom around the world, namely, the application of traditional and, arguably, outdated methods when it comes to teaching grammar. This section is an attempt to provide an overview, a status quo of the current situation in many EFL classrooms and potential reasons for this phenomenon.

Observations by researchers are similar, as Ur (2012: 84) for example reports that "[m]ost (school) teachers whom I have observed, or with whom I have spoken, teach grammar *explicitly*, through a traditional 'presentation-practice-production' (PPP) model" [original emphasis]. For Newby (2012: 103), this has also been the main observation in his work as he states that a "traditional view concerning both the nature of grammar and how it should be taught dominates many classrooms across

² The core of SLTE is no longer exclusively SLA research, but rather a more extensive knowledge base, which includes SLA research, PCK, KAL, contextual knowledge, reflection skills and several more. Johnson (2006: 250) states that "the field should expect no longer to think about L2 teacher education as something that is done to L2 teachers, [i]nstead, the view of L2 teacher education should be broader". Language teachers are recognized as professionals with valuable insight into the practices of language teaching, which can benefit the development of SLTE. Moreover, the value of practical experience in SLTE increased tremendously (Ur 2012, 2014; Newby 2012, Freeman 2009).

Europe and beyond". Larsen-Freeman (2015: 263) perceives this phenomenon from a different angle but with a similar outcome when she claims "that not much second language acquisition or applied linguistics research on grammar has made its way into the classroom". What is now of concern is, why this is the case, if this situation has to be altered and if so, how this can be done. Unfortunately, change and innovation are major endeavors, especially since the authorities and people partaking in these tasks are from completely different institutions (ministry of education, universities, schools, etc.) and, therefore, innovation has to go through several stages until it eventually arrives in the language-learning classroom. Waters (2014) and other researchers (cf. Waters & Vilches 2005, Fullan 2007) have concerned themselves with the task of finding ways to facilitate this process of innovation.

Of particular interest are potential reasons why ELT classrooms have not been entirely adapted to communicative language teaching, despite the fact that official curricula have been changed accordingly. Ur (2012: 83) emphasizes that it is not because of the history of grammar teaching methodology that today's classrooms still experience a strong focus on "explicit teaching of grammar". It needs to be mentioned here that CLT does not exclude grammar teaching as such; however the traditional explicit presentation of grammatical items ought to be transformed into a more communicative way of grammar teaching, such as FonF for instance, and this lack of change in methodology is being criticized primarily. Whereas Newby (2012: 101-2) and Larsen-Freeman (2015: 266) both observe the deficiencies of second language research, which has mainly focused on the definition of "what is minimally necessary to explain language acquisition" (Larsen-Freeman 2015: 266). Moreover, the authors further criticize that SLA merely focuses on the similarities between L1 and L2 acquisition, despite the fact that in most cases L2 instruction only takes place in the classroom and, thus, provides the learners with a completely different learning environment (Newby 2012: 102; Larsen-Freeman 2015: 266).

Furthermore, potential factors may be teachers' beliefs, which influence their practice heavily, and students' expectations, which often demand explicit grammar instruction since this is believed to be necessary in order to acquire a second language (cf. Jean & Simard 2011). Newby (2012: 101) is of the opinion that student teachers "are unwilling to step outside the familiar didactic framework that they had experienced during their own time as learners". Research has also shown (cf. Bartels

2005) that teachers' previous beliefs often do not change throughout their training, meaning that the training programs are merely partly or very little successful in 'training' their teachers (Richards 2008: 172).

Yet, these circumstances are only partly responsible for the current situation in the language-learning classrooms; another factor is also the gap between theoretical knowledge and practical knowledge that novice teachers experience as they begin their careers. It has been found that learning to teach is more than learning the content and the "teaching practices" (Johnson 2006: 238), therefore Johnson addresses "an epistemological gap between how L2 teacher educators have traditionally prepared L2 teachers to do their work and how L2 teachers actually learn to teach and carry out their work" (ibid: 239). Additionally, local conditions that impede the implementation of communicative language teaching are similarly responsible for hampering teachers' practices. Moreover, a lack of knowledge of language functions (Andrews 2003) as well as methodological choices concerned with grammar instruction on the teachers' part, similarly lead to the teachers falling back on traditional 'safe' methods (cf. section 3.2).

It has become evident that grammar teaching methodology cannot be limited to one singular approach, because depending on the learners' competence and the context, different methods will be necessary (Ur 2012: 93). Thus, practitioners need to be aware of the spectrum of methods and approaches in grammar teaching and learning in order to make appropriate decisions in the respective teaching situation. Ur refers to Seidlhofer (2003 cited in Ur 2012: 95), who argued "that there is a place for courses based on controversies in applied linguistics", when stating that a similar approach might benefit grammar teaching courses. It is however not merely the variety of methods that needs to be implemented in SLTE curricula in order to provide teachers with necessary tools. Ur (2012: 96) stresses that it is indispensable for student teachers to try out "techniques of explanation, practice, error correction and so on". Newby (2012: 101) affirms that one essential step in student teachers' education is for them to realize through experience the value and suitability of various methods; otherwise so Newby: "students tend to consume theories but do not digest them" (ibid.). Thus, one major challenge for SLTE is enabling student teachers to overcome the gap between theoretical knowledge of the content and the necessary focus on the practical aspect. Here, Johnson (2006: 240) suggests that combining

these two opposites (theory and practice) would serve all parties best, since theory could inform practice and student teachers would be able to actually learn from their experiences by applying the underlying theories. Wright affirms (2010: 274) in his review that more practical experience has already been implemented in many SLTE programs when stating “[a]ll the new forms of SLTE pedagogy share the primacy of experience (or ‘doing’) [...] [and] [p]rinciples are derived inductively from practice or experience”.

Apart from directly experiencing classroom activities, another considerably useful method of bridging the gap between practice and theory is mentioned by Johnson (2006: 241-2), who suggests implementing narratives from teachers’ experiences. What the author here means is that teachers usually know what they do, how they act and why they act that way. By acknowledging the fact that teachers have a valuable knowledge, which can help student teachers to understand the complex processes or situations in teaching, in other words exploring “the interconnectedness of how teachers think about their work” (Johnson 2006: 242), SLTE would allow student teachers to learn from other teachers’ experiences. Another positive side effect of this cooperation is that through their work with student teachers, experienced teachers re-engage with theory, which helps them to understand their various ways of acting, allowing them to connect their choices with theory (ibid.); hence, it contributes to their development as well. On the whole, it can be observed that the value of practical experience in SLTE and the inclusion of practice, by whatever means, in teacher training programs is certainly an essential aim of development in SLTE. Thus, and as Newby (2012: 101) states, practical experience is necessary for teachers to be able to use their knowledge about methods and approaches in the actual classroom. However, the solution to what type of grammar instruction is ultimately most effective for the EFL classroom remains further unknown.

In a later publication, Ur (2014: 5-7) elaborates on her perspective that there is not one perfect solution to the problem of L2 grammar instruction and offers a salient point of critique of the concept ‘method’. The author (Ur 2014: 5-7) emphasizes that research has queried the structure and exclusivity of the concept ‘method’ for several years now. Ur (2014: 5) continues this argument, as she elaborates on the fact “that method, in any case, is not the critical variable in successful teaching”. At least, it is

not the exclusivity of one teaching method that proves to be successful, on the contrary, an inclusive model, which Ur (2014: 7) terms “a *language pedagogy*” that is “*principled and localized, determined by the teacher(s), informed by reflection on experience and other professional knowledge sources*” [original emphasis] should be aimed for. The most outstanding attribute of this pedagogy is that it accumulates knowledge relevant to teaching in general, e.g. “classroom management, the arousal and maintenance of student motivation” (Ur 2014: 8), and teaching a language. Thereby this pedagogy attempts to cover the breadth and depth of situations found in language teaching environments. Teachers ought to be clear about their pedagogical choices, overall striving for “the achievement of good learning” (ibid.). With that Ur does not merely refer to students’ language skills, but rather their development in general, which can also include broadening their horizon or enabling them to work autonomously (Ur 2014: 8). In this model, the teacher is trusted with the competence to decide as a professional practitioner what is best for his or her students’ progress. In order to be able to do so, Ur (2014: 9) stresses the fact that teachers must develop and deepen their knowledge and expertise. The most common and valuable source of teacher expertise is in fact, as research has shown, classroom experience and the reflection of it. However, the author also talks of several supportive and helpful sources for teachers, such as “sharing with colleagues, feedback from students, information from courses and conferences, and the theoretical, practical and research literature on language teaching” (Ur 2014: 9). Newby (2012: 119) determines another barrier in equipping student teachers with an adequate repertoire of methods for grammar teaching, namely that their perception of grammar does not allow them to view it as something other than formal and explicit, an entrenched belief in traditional grammar. In order to rattle these beliefs, he developed a “cognitive + communicative grammar” (Newby 2012: 103), which “seeks to analyse and describe grammar, on the one hand in terms of the mental processes that underlie the use of language (cognitive), and on the other, as an act of communication” (ibid: 104). With this new approach student teachers are invited to rethink their previous beliefs about grammar instruction and their perception of the linguistic system and its interconnectedness with communication.

So far, I have focused on teacher education and respective changes that are necessary in SLTE in order to provide student teachers with helpful tools to apply in

their classrooms. Of further importance is, however, the improvement of teachers' in-service training, since it often happens that practicing teachers are unable to implement the new knowledge they have gained in such courses, Ur (2012: 94) criticizes. The author (ibid.) sees this as a result of an inordinate focus on communicative language teaching, which is intended to entice away teachers from their beloved traditional PPP-method. Yet, what happens is in fact that teachers either reject this strong approach before trying it out or fail to implement it in their classroom and ultimately return frustrated to their previous methods (ibid.). Thus, it is only logical that teacher educators have suggested courses that "present the research, but [are also] making very clear the controversies and conflicting opinions that exist" (Ur 2012: 95), similar to what has been proposed for the SLTE curriculum. This can be seen as a way of introducing in-service teachers to current research findings, whilst allowing them to decide for themselves which method or approach they perceive as suitable in certain situations. In this way, practitioners are acknowledged as professionals, who are qualified to decide what might be suitable for their learners and what might not be.

Acknowledging the fact that in order to provide teachers with a model of grammar instruction that is not the traditional PPP-structure, change is needed in several areas. A plea from Ur (2012: 96) with which she concluded her chapter on 'grammar teaching' gets to the heart of the problem:

This chapter has attempted to answer a number of questions, such as: Is there such a thing as correct grammar? Should grammar be explicitly taught? Is there a best way to teach grammar? How can we help teachers to teach it effectively? None of such questions has a simple answer. On the other hand, to refuse to give any answer on the pretext that the questions are so complex that one can only list the complexities and end up saying 'it depends', is in my opinion unacceptable. The teacher needs an answer, because the teacher needs to teach; we cannot embark on classroom teaching of English grammar without having taken decisions on how we are going to do it.

3.2. Knowledge about Language (KAL) and teacher cognition in SLTE

Knowledge about language (KAL) does not equate knowing a language; in other words one can, for instance, teach English while using a different language. Thus, KAL refers to “knowledge about the language and its use” (Freeman, Orzulak & Morrissey 2009: 83). In former times when the grammar-translation method was used more frequently, this distinction was rather straightforward; however, due to the implementation of CLT, the language of instruction and the content of an EFL lesson have become the same subject. Moreover, it is important not to forget that KAL is as relevant for teachers as speaking a language fluently (ibid: 83-4). A presumed shortfall of attention on KAL or the inability for teachers to make use of their KAL has drawn several researchers’ attention to investigate factors relevant in acquiring and using KAL and, most importantly, its impact on the teachers’ teaching practices.

To begin with, Bartels (2009: 126) has concerned himself with the question how KAL can be adapted in order to meet the requirements for spontaneous classroom use, since teachers need to react and respond within seconds in the classroom. Four factors of KAL have been identified as being most relevant to language teachers, namely “knowledge that (a) is implicit, (b) is specific to the activity, (c) addresses a wide range of factors that effect [sic] the situations and (d) is organized into a dynamic network” (Bartels 2009: 126). Teachers would not be able to take the time or cognitive capacity to analyze students’ errors with their “explicit academic knowledge” (ibid.), thus a certain amount of implicit knowledge is ubiquitous in language teaching. Hence, in order to give relevant and helpful feedback to students, teachers need to have a far more complex knowledge, than solely academic knowledge, because they need to be able to react to situations that involve “social, emotional, technical and local factors in their particular classrooms” (Bartels 2009: 126). What becomes apparent through these 4 variables, which teachers’ KAL should include, is that this kind of knowledge is likely to differ from their academic knowledge. Moreover, Bartels (2009: 128-9) highlights the importance of student teachers “participating in activities central to teaching”, which gives them the opportunity to organize their knowledge and learn from “deliberate practice”, in which they are “deliberately designing and participating in activities that help them learn

more about a particular aspect of the activity” (ibid: 129), as a means of developing a more practice-oriented KAL.

A study by Borg (2001: 21) has revealed that teachers’ confidence in their knowledge about grammar (KAG) strongly influences the practices of their grammar pedagogy. While, the results of this study are certainly merely a part of what constitutes teachers’ decisions in practice, it is nonetheless interesting to consider which aspects of teachers’ practices are influenced by their confidence in their KAG, especially since further empirical data has brought forward similar tendencies (Andrews 2003, Farrell and Richards 2007). Borg (2001: 27) defines the following aspects of grammar instruction, which are influenced by teachers’ confidence in their KAG:

- the extent to which teachers teach grammar
- their willingness to engage in spontaneous grammar work
- the manner in which they respond to students’ questions about grammar
- the extent to which they promote class discussion about grammar
- the way they react when their explanations are questioned
- the nature of the grammatical information they provide to students

While Borg’s (2001) investigation is of a qualitative nature, Andrews (2003) presents survey data of 170 participants in which he has been able to find a correlation between explicit grammar knowledge and teaching practices. The results have shown that “those [teachers] most in favour of an inductive approach to grammar teaching are those who have a relatively high level of explicit grammar knowledge” (Andrews 2003: 361). The trend is also observable in the opposing direction, namely teachers who prefer the deductive approach have a “relatively low level of explicit grammar knowledge” (ibid.). Additionally, Andrews (2003: 361) hypothesizes that teachers are also influenced by their confidence in their KAG and self-confidence. Since adhering to an inductive approach would mean a more learner-centered environment in which the teacher cannot hold on to explicit grammar rules or activities that are clearly structured and which he or she can prepare for (ibid.). Questions concerning grammatical explanations, giving corrective feedback or spontaneously reacting to students’ errors and including a brief focus on a grammatical item demand a high level of KAG from the teacher. Hence, the

assumption that teachers' confidence in their KAG is partly responsible for their actions in the language-learning classroom is certainly a worthwhile consideration for SLTE. Borg (2005: 339) strongly suggests that "KAL and methodology courses" should be "interconnected" in SLTE, allowing the student teacher to gain an understanding of how these two are intertwined, and, moreover, making it clear that their KAL will develop throughout their career. SLTE courses "can also assist teachers in learning how to monitor their own KAL, to identify gaps, and to respond strategically to these" (ibid.). By including such a focus in SLTE courses, student teachers are invited to reflect and develop awareness for their development as professionals, which contributes to the current trend in SLTE, namely to equip teachers with reflective skills.

In the handbook *Reflective Language Teaching*, Farrell and Richards (2007: 55) emphasize that teachers' language proficiency in general can and will influence their methodological choices. It is stressed once more that especially CLT, including open pair or group work with speaking activities, creates the opportunities for spontaneous student questions, which often concern linguistic problems the teacher might wish to avoid when he or she does not feel confident enough to answer such queries without preparation (ibid: 56-7). Hadjioannou and Hutchinson (2010: 91) have brought forward an important and relevant question concerned with this topic, namely how language teachers can be prepared best in linguistic knowledge and awareness. The case study revealed that before they participated in the language course of the study, the student teachers were "lacking significant declarative knowledge about grammar and had serious misgivings both about their understanding of English grammar and their ability to teach it" (ibid: 98). A recent study by Svalberg (2015: 529) has similarly concerned itself with grammar pedagogy in SLTE, in specific, "how grammar might be taught so that it equips student teachers, in subject knowledge terms, for their own classrooms". The interest in developing a grammar course for student teachers partly derived from empirical data, which has shown that "teachers do not necessarily develop KAG on the job (Andrews 1999), making grammar courses in teacher education all the more essential" (Svalberg 2015: 532). Moreover, incomplete teaching materials and at the same time a dependency on textbooks from the side of teachers were strongly criticized by the author and, thus, the case study sought to test the efficiency of different methods in SLTE to develop student teachers' KAG

(ibid: 530). Svalberg (2015: 529) refers to KAG as “declarative knowledge about grammar” that teachers “can subsequently draw on, explicitly or implicitly, in their own teaching”. Conceivably, it is necessary to enable student teachers during their education to develop their KAG “to the level where they can apply it to the analysis of authentic texts and learner errors, provide explanations, and also have the confidence that they can do all of this in the classroom” (ibid: 533).

Another finding by Hadjioannou and Hutchinson (2010), which coincides with other empirical data, is that due to the lack of methodological knowledge, student teachers fall back on traditional methods in grammar learning that they had experienced as language learners. Thus, it is not surprising that Hadjioannou and Hutchinson (2010: 103) also suggest that student teachers need to experience and try out new forms of grammar instruction in order to “effectively move [...] away from the comfort zone of traditional grammar instruction”.

To sum up, knowledge about language needs to be accessible for teachers; it should be linked to their practices so that they can use it in the language-learning classroom. Furthermore, teachers ought to be encouraged and enabled to explicitly work on their knowledge about grammar and language during their studies and feel confident about that knowledge in order for them to use it successfully in the EFL classroom. Since a lack of KAL or even feeling insecure about one’s KAL heavily influences the teaching choices and, thereby, impedes effective grammar teaching.

Which other factors influence teachers’ decision-making processes in the classroom? How can one understand the “mental lives” (Borg 2009: 163) of teachers? These questions are of interest to the field of teacher cognition, which focuses on investigations that are concerned with teachers’ decision-making processes as a means of learning about the profession and its characteristics. Borg (e.g. 1998, 2003, 2006a, 2009), for instance, has dedicated a substantial amount of his work to this field.

When searching for reasons for the criticized practices of teachers in the EFL classroom, the following findings become relevant. One major finding of “teacher cognition in grammar teaching” (Borg 2006a: 109) is, for instance, the strong influence that students’ prior language learning experiences can have on their methodological choices as teachers (Borg 2006a: 112-6). Concepts and beliefs that are already set in the student teachers’ minds as a result of their own learning

experiences must not be ignored in SLTE, but should rather be made explicit and the subject of reflection, especially when new approaches taught in the SLTE program do not correspond with pre-service teacher beliefs (Borg 2009: 164). In general, the impact that pre-service teacher training has on the students' beliefs has also been investigated; and because of inconclusive results from pre- and postcourse questionnaires, Borg (2009: 166) has advocated qualitative methods. Although student teachers' practices may have changed during their studies in order to conform with what has been taught at university, Borg (2009: 165) states that further research has shown that student teachers merely adhere to the requirements that are expected from them during their assessed practicum, and in many cases the student teachers' views do not actually change.

In addition to investigating teachers' beliefs on and views about teaching methods, the field has also tried to find out whether teachers' cognitive beliefs about language teaching practices are in fact congruent with their actual practices, which is relevant for the interpretation of studies on teachers' beliefs. It is stressed by Borg (2006a: 132) that in spite of research revealing "that teachers [...] teach grammar in a way that reflects their stated beliefs", there is also evidence that this conformity is not always given. However, although it has been observed that "what teachers say and do" (Borg 2009: 167) is not always aligned, this is not necessarily the teachers' fault. Meaning that although teachers might prefer more communicative ways of teaching grammar, they are not solely responsible for failing to act accordingly in their classes. Borg (2009: 167) emphasizes that "social, institutional, instructional, and physical settings in which teachers work often constrain what they can do". Another factor is that teachers have more than one specific belief related to, for instance, grammar instruction, and, thus, another factor may be more influential in a teaching situation, which is why he or she is not acting in accordance with his or her beliefs (*ibid.*).

Since the empirical study of this thesis is also interested in potential reasons for teachers' grammar beliefs, it is necessary to consider what factors might have influenced their beliefs. Certainly, a lack of KAL or little confidence in one's own KAL represents a strong influencing factor; however, the development of teachers' beliefs during their studies and first experiences of teaching is also of high interest. Whether student teachers are invited to experience new grammar teaching methods during

their training time is likely to influence their beliefs on grammar teaching as the literature review has revealed. Thus, the question is whether differences between teacher training institutions can be related to teachers' beliefs due to varying amounts of time spent on working on grammar beliefs, grammar teaching methodology as well as student teachers' KAL.

On the whole, Borg (2006a: 132) adequately sums up this complex and manifold topic by arguing that whilst teacher cognition has become more and more popular since the 1990s, there is yet a substantial amount of unaddressed issues. One particular deficiency within the research of this field, Borg (2006a: 134) stresses, is investigating "the relationships among teacher cognition, classroom practice and learning". The following chapter will provide a deeper understanding of teacher beliefs in grammar instruction.

3.3. Teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction

This section provides an overview of recent studies concerned with EFL language teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching and learning. Various factors that influence teaching practices have already been discussed, as well as teachers' beliefs, which have a strong impact on their practice. Thus, it is highly relevant to explore what has been found in this field of empirical research.

First of all, in order to understand the value of teachers' beliefs, one needs to know whether beliefs are always congruent with teachers' actual practices in the language-learning classroom. Thus, empirical data has been gathered on account of addressing this problem by several researchers (Incecay 2011, Phipps & Borg 2009, Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis 2004). Using a qualitative approach, Incecay (2011: 128) observed two pre-service teachers during their practice, followed their development by means of journal entries and conducted structured interviews with them. The results in this study have shown that the teachers' beliefs have a strong effect on their teaching practices and that these beliefs are correlated with the student teachers' own experiences as pupils (ibid: 130-2). The study focused on the student teachers' beliefs in four areas: "ideal English learner, ideal English teacher, ideal English classroom, difficulties in language learning process [and] strategies of learners to overcome difficulties" (ibid: 131). However, although teachers' beliefs had an impact on their practices, the study also found that external factors, such as "[t]he level they are teaching, the theories they received, the number of students and the competencies they need to have" also had an effect on teachers (ibid: 132).

Another study, by Phipps and Borg (2009: 380) explicitly focused on the differences between teachers' stated beliefs and their actual practices in grammar teaching. Three experienced EFL teachers were observed during their lessons and interviewed "over a period of 18 months" (ibid: 382). What has been found in this study is that teachers' stated beliefs often diverge from their actual practices; moreover, the explanations they provided for their actions are especially worth considering, since they show the vast amount of influencing factors that are relevant to classroom practices. Table 2 presents an overview of the participating teachers' stated beliefs, the observed practice and explanations given for situations in which these two factors diverged.

Tensions in grammar teaching practices and beliefs.

Aspect	Stated belief	Observed practice	Explanation given
Presenting grammar	Grammar should be presented in context Learners learn better if they discover the rules	Expository grammar work Sentence-level, rule-based presentation	Student expectations Assessment Students' level/ responsiveness/ motivation
Controlled grammar practice	Sentence-level practice is not beneficial Mechanical practice is not beneficial	Sentence-level gap-fill Mechanical practice	Student expectations Classroom management
Group-work for oral practice	Group-work is beneficial for oral practice	Teacher-centred/ lockstep oral practice	Need to monitor errors Classroom management Student responsiveness

Table 2: Tensions in grammar teaching (Phipps & Borg 2009: 387)

In an earlier research project, Borg (1998: 10-1) found similar results when working with an experienced native-speaking teacher, who had been working in the TEFL context for over 15 years at that time. For instance, the teacher's beliefs about "students' expectations had a powerful influence on his behaviour" (ibid: 16), as well as "classroom management issues" (ibid: 26). Understanding the decision-making processes and reasons for teachers' practices is an important insight into the art of teaching and helps teacher educators to, potentially, prepare student teachers better for the transition from theory to practice; and, certainly, encourage student teachers to reflect about their behavior and how and why it may diverge from their ideals (Phipps & Borg 2009: 388-9).

Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004: 243) focused their investigation on "teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form" in relation to their actual "classroom practices". The study method was again of a qualitative nature and included observations of lessons and semi-structured interviews, which invited teachers to reflect upon their teaching choices (Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis 2004: 248-51). Also this research project has found that teachers' stated beliefs and practices are not congruent in certain areas, for example when asked about "interfering with the communicative flow of the lesson, and their beliefs about the need to focus on errors relating to previously taught structures, or to address student-initiated enquiries about form" (ibid: 267) the teachers' answers did not match their practices. The researchers suggest that this may be due to the fact that the interview results tend to represent the teachers' "technical rather than their practical knowledge" (ibid.). When talking about an abstract teaching situation teachers may

have different views, in contrast to when being confronted with a situation from their classroom, where they apply their “practical knowledge” (Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis 2004: 267). The results from this study have shown that especially “the least experienced teacher of the three teachers, was also the most inconsistent” (ibid.), suggesting that “technical knowledge” might be “proceduralized” with more experience (ibid.). Nonetheless, since the focus of this study has been the implementation of FonF and in how far teachers actually achieve to maintain a communicative environment while including short sequences of focusing on form, the authors argue that this task is an extremely challenging one, in which not even the literature is entirely clear (Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis 2004: 267). Thus, they suggest that the differences found between teachers’ beliefs and practices should be treated as “*potentially* conflictual rather than inherently inconsistent” (ibid: 268).

Farrell (2007: 31) reports of a study with two experienced language teachers, who were asked to state their beliefs concerned with grammar teaching and were later observed during their lessons. What is interesting in this study is that the results were congruent, in contrast to many other studies. These two teachers were acting in accordance with their stated beliefs. One of them preferred traditional grammar teaching that includes overt and explicit instruction, because she has experienced such an approach as a student herself and is convinced that this is the best method. The other participant adhered to a more alternative approach that includes covert and implicit instruction, which was also mirrored in her teaching practices most of the time (ibid: 32-5). The author (Farrell 2007: 36) stresses the importance of learning about the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and practices, as they are needed in order to initiate changes to teachers’ approaches and methods.

In how far teachers’ beliefs can actually be changed, especially when student teachers arrive at university with an already fixed mindset about grammar teaching has been the concern of several studies. A large mixed methods study with approximately 380 participating pre-service teachers, conducted by Busch (2010: 318), suggests that beliefs can be altered by means of teacher education. The study provides data collected from a questionnaire distributed before and after the course, as well as personal statements from the participants explaining their beliefs at the end of the course (ibid: 319). By means of analyzing this data, Busch (2010: 327) revealed that student teachers’ beliefs changed throughout the course; however, it is

also stressed that this change does not necessarily have to last (ibid: 335). Whilst the study certainly provides insightful data concerning the development of teachers' beliefs, one ought to consider that the results cannot be generalized, since several factors have impacted on its outcomes. Busch (2010: 334-5) underlines the fact that only one teacher educator has taught this course, posing the question whether results would have been different otherwise. Furthermore, the author has expressed concerns about the questionnaire instrument used in this study, since "it is in need of updating to reflect more current findings about language acquisition in order to counterbalance the heavy audio-lingual emphasis in some of the statements" (Busch 2010: 334). In general, it may be stated that student teachers' beliefs have changed "as a result of professional coursework that included reflective and experiential activities" (ibid: 335).

Earlier studies by Peacock (2001) and Urmston (2003) contradict these findings, since both research projects revealed that the student teachers' beliefs did not change during the observed training period. Peacock (2001: 181) accompanied 146 teacher trainees through a three-year period in which they were attending a "BA TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language) programme in the Department of English at the City University of Hong Kong". To the disappointment of the author (Peacock 2001: 186), student teacher beliefs did not change during their three years of study. "Far too many third-year trainees still believed that learning a second language means learning a lot of vocabulary and grammar rules", Peacock (2001: 186) criticizes. While learning vocabulary and grammar rules certainly represents a considerable part of learning a new language, the author fears that student teachers will overemphasize this part of language learning in their future teaching to the disadvantage of more communicative activities (ibid.) Because of the undesirable stability of student teachers' beliefs, the author implemented reflective work on trainees' beliefs in an elective course and found that by means of raising the participants' awareness for and interest in their beliefs about language teaching, "changes in trainees beliefs were observed" (ibid: 188). Thus, Peacock (2001: 189) expresses the need for SLTE programs to include work on and with student teachers' beliefs about language teaching in order to affect and, potentially, change these beliefs. The second study mentioned above took place in the same environment, at the City University of Hong Kong and also observed student teachers' developments

over a time period of three years (Urmston 2003: 112). What has been found in this study is that student teachers' beliefs on language teaching did not change significantly due to the fact that student teachers were very familiar with the teaching environment and school system in Hong Kong and thus found themselves in a conflict between values and concepts taught in their training program and the reality of the language-learning classroom (ibid: 122). In other words, student teachers' beliefs were more influenced by their practical experience or knowledge of the education system, than by their three-year BA course. The author (Urmston 2003: 122) notes that there are certain areas in which trainees' beliefs changed, such as "how they assess their roles and responsibilities as teachers and the relationships they need to develop within the teaching environment".

As a means of exploring the development of pre-service teachers in Northern Cyprus, Debreli (2012: 367) accompanied three student teachers throughout a period of nine-month training. Data was gathered by interviewing participants in "three-months intervals and through contemporaneous diary writing activity throughout the training program" (ibid.). What is interesting about this study is that the participants' beliefs did not change in the first few months, where their beliefs' coincided with the training program (strong focus on CLT); however, when the pre-service teachers started their practical training program, where they were observing and teaching in real classrooms, their beliefs changed (ibid: 372). Debreli (2012: 372) states that "they [student teachers] developed an awareness of the applicability of the theoretical issues they already knew, and they developed and modified their beliefs". Despite the fact that teachers' practical experience in this training program was limited to merely four hours, the knowledge gained in these few lessons had surprisingly already had an effect on their beliefs (ibid.).

A mixed-method research project by Andrews (2003: 351) focused on in-service teachers' "beliefs, feelings and understandings [...] concerned with grammar and grammar pedagogy". In the first part of the study quantitative data was gathered by means of a "brief bio-data questionnaire [demographic information]", "a 60-item belief inventory questionnaire" and several "tests, focusing on their [teachers] language proficiency" (ibid: 355). The author deduced from the data that the bio-data, or demographic information, and the stated beliefs of the teachers did not show any significant correlation, whereas a correlation was found between teachers' language

proficiency and the grammar teaching approaches they preferred (ibid: 360-1). As already mentioned in chapter 3.2, professionals with a higher level of grammatical knowledge were more in favor of inductive teaching methods; whereas teachers with a low proficiency preferred a deductive approach (ibid.). The second part of the study was of a qualitative nature, including “17 Hong Kong secondary school teachers of English” (Andrews 2003: 362). The data collection included “semi-structured interviews” as well as “videotaped grammar lesson[s]” and writing tests (ibid.). By examining participants’ feelings, beliefs and understandings of grammar teaching, Andrews observed, for instance, that grammar teaching does not enjoy great popularity; on the contrary, both teachers and students view it “as a boring necessity” (ibid: 370). Furthermore, teachers’ classroom practices mainly consisted of the “conventional ‘presentation-practice-production’” approach (ibid.). Apparently, teachers’ practices are bound to the constraints and demands they experience through the educational system, which lead them to choose form-focused, explicit methods in order to prepare their students accordingly. Although the communicative language teaching approach has not been adapted entirely in the teachers’ practices, they absorbed parts of it theoretically (Andrews 2003: 370). Overall, it has been shown that teachers’ beliefs were not correlated with their demographic data, but rather with their knowledge of grammar and their teaching experience (ibid: 372).

After discussing the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and practices, and their respective development, both in pre- and in-service teacher training contexts, I will now very briefly focus on associations and perceptions of grammar teaching and grammar instruction, both from the teachers’ and the students’ point of view. Jean and Simard (2011: 467) conducted a study with approximately 2300 students and 45 teachers investigating their beliefs and perceptions towards grammar. The intention of the study was to gain an understanding of both parties’ perceptions of grammar instruction, in order to allow learners and teachers to realize and understand the other’s needs and intent (Jean & Simard 2011: 477). The large number of student participants, learning English or French as L2, showed a tendency towards perceiving grammar as something indispensable in language-learning, yet not something they would enjoy (ibid.). When asked about the positive aspects of grammar instruction, surprisingly, the “[s]tudents believed even more than teachers in the value of error correction and in the usefulness of mechanical-type exercises”

(ibid: 478). So overall, what has been the main finding of this endeavor is that students “did not report liking learning grammar, but they reported valuing it” (ibid.).

Larsen-Freeman (2003: 9) has asked teachers to name words they associate with ‘grammar’ and ‘communication’. Her findings were, unfortunately, rather dichotomous, since ‘grammar’ was mostly associated with “rules, parts of speech; verb paradigms, structures; forms, word order in sentences, memorizing, red ink, drills, boring” (ibid.). Whereas the word ‘communication’ elicited associations such as “dynamic understanding, the four skills, meaning, accomplishing some purpose, interacting, establishing relationships, small group activities, fun” from the participating teachers (ibid.). Thus, those results show that grammar is still perceived as something disparate from communication, revealing that there is definitely room for improvement in terms of making grammar more communicative.

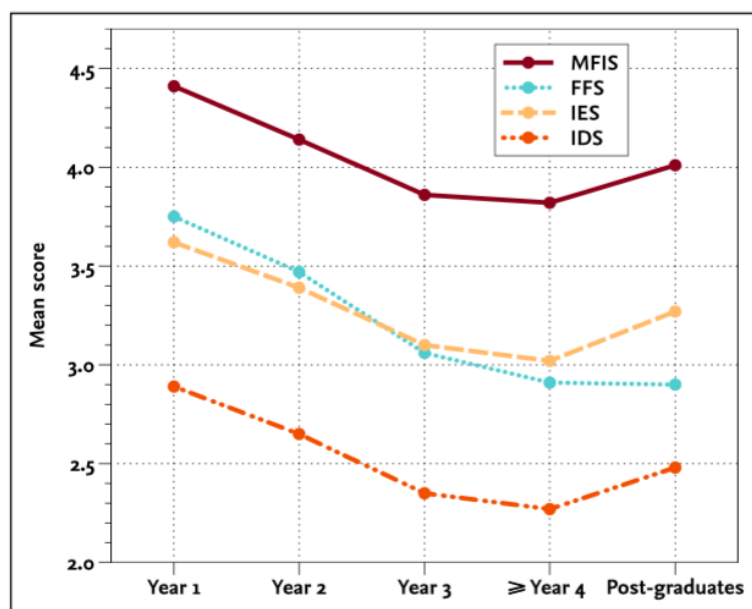
To conclude this much-debated topic, it can be noted that research in this area helps teacher educators understand the processes that student teachers have to experience when they transmit from academic practices to teaching practices. Understanding how teachers’ decision-making processes are influenced by their beliefs and how these beliefs develop and change throughout their training and their career is a major source for SLTE development (Borg 1998: 32). Introducing courses that emphasize reflective work on teachers’ beliefs and encourage them to discuss the benefits of a less traditional grammar teaching approach with their students for example, as Jean and Simard (2011: 480-1) have suggested, may be also relevant. However, before I move on to the last section in this theoretical part of my thesis, I will discuss the study by Graus and Coppen (2016) in more detail, which is partly replicated in my empirical study.

3.3.1. *Graus and Coppen (2016)*

The research undertaken by Graus and Coppen (2016: 577-80) investigated teachers’ beliefs concerning the following opposing pairs in grammar teaching methodology: meaning-focused/form-focused instruction, FonF/FonFs, implicit/explicit and inductive/deductive instruction. In addition to that, the relationship between the teachers’ beliefs of these approaches and learners’ language levels as well as the grammatical difficulty of items has been observed (ibid.). However, the items’ grammatical difficulty was only tested “in relationship to the explicit–implicit

and the deductive–inductive distinction, since meaning- versus form-focused instruction and FonF versus FonFs are curriculum-related choices”, so the authors (Graus & Coppen 2016: 580). Out of 3021 potential participants from “all nine universities of applied sciences in the Netherlands that offer English teacher education programmes” a total of 832 responses were gathered (ibid: 578). The participants were still enrolled in either their under- or postgraduate programs, meaning that postgraduate participants already had some teaching experience. The researchers, Graus and Coppen (2016), developed a questionnaire with statements describing the above-mentioned opposing pairs in grammar teaching methodology and linked these to learners’ language level and grammatical difficulty of items. Further details concerned with the development of the instrument and the definition of the construct pairs can be found in section 4.3.2.

The results, shown in Graph 2, revealed that student teachers who were at the beginning of their studies showed a tendency towards form-focused (high mean in MFIS) and explicit grammar instruction (high mean in IES); yet, the data suggested a trend that the further students proceeded in their studies, the stronger their preferences for “more meaning-focused, reactive, and implicit grammar instruction” grew (Graus & Coppen 2016: 589).



Graph 2: Average scores for construct pairs according to participants’ study progress (Graus & Coppen 2016: 589)

However, as this study has not had a longitudinal focus, this trend can only be

implied on the basis of the results of the different year representatives. Nevertheless, since pre-service students claimed that their major sources for their beliefs were the undergraduate courses, which have a focus that mirrors their beliefs, as the authors (ibid: 589) explain, such a development can be presumed. However, when examining the beliefs of postgraduate students, who were already teaching, the results were partly congruent with the development that Debreli (2012) observed, namely that the teachers' beliefs have returned to lean towards "form-focused, explicit, and deductive instruction [high mean in IDS]" (Graus & Coppen 2016: 589). Since the postgraduate participants named as one of their most-influential factors for their beliefs their work experience, it can be hypothesized that their beliefs have changed due to the experience gathered in real classrooms (ibid: 590). Moreover, another viewpoint the researchers, Graus and Coppen (2016), have taken in this study is that teachers' beliefs concerned with grammar instruction might change according to the learners' language level. The data gathered in this respect "provided ample evidence" for a correlation between these factors (Graus & Coppen 2016: 590). Interestingly, teachers preferred "form-focused instruction, FonFs, and inductive instruction for pupils in the highest level of secondary (pre-university) education; meaning-focused instruction and deductive instruction were deemed most suitable for lower-level pupils" (ibid.). In addition to that, grammatical difficulty of the linguistic structures taught in the respective teaching situations has been found to be an influential factor for teachers' methodological choices as well; meaning that difficult structures were reported to be better taught explicitly and deductively, whereas implicit and inductive teaching approaches were more popular with easier structures (ibid: 594). This quantitative study by Graus and Coppen (2016) underlines the fact that a great many factors contribute to teachers' decision-making processes in the classroom. Hence, teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction may change in relation to the respective teaching situation, namely, for instance, whether the grammatical item is presumed to be difficult or not. At the same time, the language level of students can also influence teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction.

3.4. Teacher research engagement

Since one research question of this thesis concerns itself with Austrian teachers' research engagement, it is only logical to look at other studies and empirical data gathered in this area. Research engagement can also include teachers' partaking in further training courses, which are offered to them. Such courses can be used to introduce new and innovative teaching methods or approaches. The field of language teacher research engagement concentrates on language teachers' engagement with research and in research (Borg 2013: 75). The distinction of engagement with and in research is insofar important, as teachers are either consumers or performers of research. Consuming and implementing current research findings appears as something rather common and expectable, since many other professions have a similar need to develop through further training and to remain up to date.

Yet, it has been revealed that teachers' engagement with research is not always as self-evident as one may think. First of all, Borg (2010: 410) brings forward "four erroneous assumptions" that are often made, when assuming teachers' research engagement as natural, namely "(1) teachers have access to published research; (2) teachers want to read published research; (3) teachers need to read published research; and (4) teachers have the time to read such material". It is stressed that there is more to this topic, than simply the matter whether teachers' wish to engage with or in research or not. Indeed, Borg (2013: 77) discusses the value of SLA research for teaching practices and points out that the criticism of SLA research as being impractical for teachers often voiced by researchers is in fact not entirely justifiable. Since SLA research does not insist on 'being' the instructions for teaching, but can rather be viewed as recommendations, the practitioner chooses from (ibid.). What Borg (2013: 77) however strongly criticizes is the inaccessibility of knowledge. He points out that "if academics agree that teachers should critically engage with research knowledge, but then fail to take steps to facilitate this engagement, we will have not really moved away from the historically prevalent academic view" (Borg 2013:77), which was that teachers have to engage with research and apply it as they are told to.

Studies on research engagement of teachers have brought forward certain obstacles that need to be overcome, for example, the fact that academics and

teachers often read for different purposes in articles – the teacher is looking for practical advice he or she can use in the classroom, whereas the academic is more interested in the research itself (ibid: 79-80). Furthermore, teachers' access to research is another hindrance, as well as lack of time and interest in engaging with research are at the top of the list for reasons why teachers do not engage with research (ibid: 96-7). Borg (2013: 92) also questioned the impact research has on teachers and their practices, and found that almost 88% of approximately 940 participants affirmed in his study that reading research has "at least a moderate influence" on their practices. The author (Borg 2013: 98) notes that results concerned with the amount of time teachers spent on research engagement are to be treated with caution, although 75% of the teachers "said they read research at least 'sometimes'"; the word 'sometimes' provides a rather broad understanding of time. Furthermore, the kind of research teachers were referring to is another factor that needs to be considered, since not all participants were referring to academic journals, but also referred to "publications which are typically practical in nature" (ibid.). Thus, a more detailed investigation of these aspects is needed, before drawing conclusions on teachers' engagement with research. Moreover, to lay the blame for none, little or extremely slow change in EFL teaching exclusively on the teachers is wrongful, as several institutions and parties are involved in the process of change, making it a complex and challenging endeavor. It is in fact the entire educational context that strongly influences and, conceivably, hinders the successful implementation of innovation. As Fullan (2007: 18 cited in Waters 2014: 108) disappointingly observes:

The main reason that change fails to occur in the first place and on any scale, and is not sustained when it does, is that the infrastructure is weak, unhelpful, or working at cross-purposes. By the infrastructure I mean the next layers above whatever unit we are focusing on. In terms of successive levels, for example, a teacher cannot sustain change if he or she is working in a negative school culture; similarly, a school can initiate and implement successful change, but cannot sustain it if it is operating in a less than helpful district; a district cannot keep going if it works in a state that is not helping to sustain reform.

3.5. Summary

In chapter 2 I have presented the methodological developments in grammar instruction, offering a substantial insight into the current practices and methodological options available to teachers and teacher educators. This chapter, however, revealed that the actual practices in language-learning classrooms worldwide are reflecting different images, namely that teachers often do not make use of the many options they would have in theory. Reasons for this can only be speculated about, however, section 3 attempted to find possible explanations for this situation, with the purpose of relating them subsequently to the Austrian context in the empirical research of this thesis. It has been pointed out several times that student teachers need to experience and try out various methods, acquiring a substantial methodological repertoire from which they can draw on in real life classroom situations. Hence, one major challenge SLTE is still dealing with is the implementation and fusion of theory and practice. Whilst the importance of practical experiences has been recognized, more research on closing the gap between these two dichotomous practices is still necessary.

Furthermore, teachers' knowledge of a language needs to develop and adapt according to the needs of practical situations. Studies have found that teachers often cannot access their KAL in spontaneous teaching situations or that it is simply not compatible with the practitioners' needs in the respective classroom situations. In addition to that, a lack of confidence in one's KAG also represents a substantial impediment of effective grammar teaching. Thus, the importance of KAL and confidence in this knowledge on the student teachers part is a highly relevant issue for SLTE. For this reason, the present study investigates Austrian teachers' self-evaluation of their KAL and their knowledge about methodological choices in grammar instruction, and potential relationships of those with teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction.

In relation to interest in teachers' KAL is the research field of observing or investigating teachers' cognitions. A substantial part of this research field has to do with studies concerned with teachers' beliefs and the beliefs' relationship to teachers' practices. Here, it has been found that while beliefs and practices of teachers can be partly congruent, external factors strongly influence this correlation. Since teachers' beliefs are, at least partly, influencing their behavior, research has also investigated

the development of teachers' beliefs throughout their studies and careers as well as the sources for their beliefs. Although a definitive statement cannot be made, research suggests that through reflective work and awareness-raising teachers' beliefs can change to some extent. Nonetheless, teachers' practices are, as mentioned before, constrained through their environmental circumstances. Moreover, the beliefs of language teachers strongly resemble their personal experiences in language learning and, as they proceed in their career, their beliefs are further shaped by the knowledge gathered through practical experience. Thus, the development of, external effects on and influence of teachers' beliefs represent a broad research area.

Lastly, empirical data gathered on language teachers' engagement with research has also been of relevance to the present study. It became evident that teachers' engagement with research should be of more concern to academics, as they may need to make findings of their research more accessible to teachers. Both in terms of physical access and in respect to the knowledge transmitted in papers addressed to practitioners. Moreover, in-service training courses as well as teachers' professional development and their effect on teachers' grammar beliefs are of further concern to the present thesis, as it is hypothesized whether there is a correlation between teachers' research engagement and their beliefs on grammar instruction.

4. The study

The chapter at hand provides a detailed description of the empirical part of the present study. It opens with a presentation of the research questions guiding this endeavor, followed by a detailed report on the setting in which the study is conducted. The forthcoming section outlines the methodology used in the study, which includes the description of the instrument, its administration and the participants.

4.1. Research questions

The theoretical part of this thesis has sought to contextualize the present study within the fields of SLTE and grammar teaching methodology. From the accumulation of these various studies, it can be seen that methodological differences as well as varying settings have yielded differing results. The study at hand attempts to describe and analyze a specific setting, by means of gathering information on and exploring the beliefs of Austrian EFL teachers. The empirical research aims to answer the following three research questions:

1. What are Austrian EFL teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching?
2. Are these beliefs correlated with teachers' education, referring to institutional differences, and with their teaching experience?
3. Are these beliefs correlated with teachers' research engagement and/or professional development experiences?

Hence, this study seeks to analyze Austrian EFL teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching and learning in order to explore whether these beliefs show statistically significant correlations with (i) their place of teacher education or their year of graduation; or (ii) their interest and motivation to engage with research and to participate in further training courses for in-service teachers. Due to its limitations this study can merely provide an insight into the Austrian EFL teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction, thus it is hoped to fuel further investigations into this field in order to offer more specific and relevant data.

4.2. Austrian context

The Austrian secondary school system can be categorized into three main school types: compulsory lower secondary education (Neue Mittelschule [NMS], former Hauptschule [HS]), academically oriented secondary schools (Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule [AHS]), and vocationally oriented secondary schools (Berufsbildende Höhere Schule [BHS]). From the age of ten to fourteen students either attend a NMS/HS or a AHS and after those 4 years of general education Austrian students can choose, whether they wish to continue their school career at either an AHS or BHS; or if they complete their last compulsory school year and start an apprenticeship at the age of fifteen. On average students have 3 teaching units of English per week, both in lower and upper secondary schools.

In the school year 2015/16, according to Statistik Austria, 28,068 students were instructed in English in HS school types, 176,556 students attended English classes in NMS, 114,185 students participated in English in lower secondary AHS and 88,691 students in upper secondary AHS classes, and finally 125,954 received English lessons in BHS school types (Statistik Austria – Die Informationsmanager 2017). Overall, the Statistik Austria lists 186 HS³, 1,126 NMS, 348 AHS and 353 BHS schools in the school year 2016/17 (ibid.). The distinction between the various school types is insofar important, as the teacher training programs for Austrian teachers is also separated into two diverging systems. Although the Austrian system for teacher education has recently changed, for the purpose of this study both former systems need to be introduced. In Austria, tertiary colleges of education (Pädagogische Hochschulen [PH]) used to train English teachers for HS or NMS school types until 2015; whereas English teachers for AHS or BHS school types were educated at public universities (Universitäten [Uni]). The subsequent chapters will provide an overview of the differences between these two systems of teacher education.

4.2.1. Tertiary colleges of education

In Austria, according to the ministry for education and science (BMBWF – Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft und Forschung 2017), there are

³ In the following, references to NMS will include HS school types as well, since the distinction between these two types is not relevant for the discussion and, more importantly, HS school types will be dissolved or adapted into a NMS within the current school year.

currently fourteen tertiary colleges of education offering teacher training programs to Austrian students. Table 3 lists all fourteen institutions, illustrating that five of the fourteen PHs are private institutions.

Tertiary colleges of education	Pädagogische Hochschule Wien Pädagogische Hochschule Niederösterreich Pädagogische Hochschule Steiermark Pädagogische Hochschule Kärnten Pädagogische Hochschule Oberösterreich Pädagogische Hochschule Salzburg Pädagogische Hochschule Tirol Pädagogische Hochschule Vorarlberg Hochschule für Agrar- und Umweltpädagogik
Private tertiary colleges of education	Private Pädagogische Hochschule Wien/Krems Private Pädagogische Hochschule Burgenland Private Pädagogische Hochschule Graz Private Pädagogische Hochschule Linz Private Pädagogische Hochschule Edith Stein

Table 3: List of Austrian tertiary colleges of education

English language teachers, who were educated at tertiary colleges of education, had been restricted to teach in NMS. However, ‘top-performing’ students from NMS should in fact be able to transfer to the AHS or BHS upper secondary schools, if they wish to continue their education at the age of fourteen. Thus, teachers in NMS and AHS lower secondary schools have students of the same age and follow a very similar curriculum. In spite of the fact that teachers of NMS and AHS (lower secondary) students carry out the same task, their training diverged in certain areas, as Renner (2013: 19) has observed. While PHs seemed to put a very strong emphasis on practical teaching experiences for their student teachers, they were often criticized for a lack of “scientific orientation, research-based subject knowledge and reflexivity” (ibid.). Whereas, Richards (2008: 165) non-judgmentally observes that different locations for SLTE programs accordingly “create different potentials for learning”. The author (Richards 2008: 166) voices a plea for cooperation with schools and mentor teachers in order to facilitate student teachers transition of theoretical knowledge to practical use. Hence, the practical orientation of PHs must not only be viewed as something negative, in my opinion.

The teacher training at PHs was aligned with the Bologna requirements in 2007; and students graduated from a three-year Bachelor program with a BEd (Bachelor of Education). This transformation sought to further professionalize the training program, committing it “to educational, teacher-related research; a commitment that has not yet however reached its full potential” (Renner 2013: 20). Before that

transition student teachers had graduated with the Austrian *Diplompädagoge/Diplompädagogin (Dipl.-Päd.)* title, which some of the participants in the present study will carry. In general, training at the PH comprised more practice than teacher education at public universities, since student teachers had commonly one day of school practice per week at the PHs, albeit not always, it was still substantially more than student teachers' practical training at public universities.

Furthermore, it is important to note that since the school year 2016/17, teacher-training programs for both NMS and AHS (lower secondary) have been united - a fusion mandated by the government. As part of the merger between universities and tertiary colleges of education, the teacher education program for lower secondary teachers now has a uniform curriculum (*Lehramt Nord-Ost* n.d.), which is also offered jointly, however the same curriculum can still result in rather different realities of NMS and AHS. The following chapter is offering a concise overview of the most relevant aspects of teacher training at public universities and more information on the fusion of teacher training programs.

4.2.2. Public universities

The teacher-training program at universities is offered at six universities, which are listed in table 4. The process of becoming a teacher has also changed

Public universities	Universität Wien Universität Salzburg Universität Innsbruck Universität Graz Universität Klagenfurt Universität Linz
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Table 4: List of Austrian public universities offering teacher-training programs

tremendously at public universities. First of all, the traditional and long-lasting form of study, where students graduated with the Austrian *Magister/Magistra* title was adapted to the Bologna requirements in 2014. Before that the minimum study period was 9 semesters and the required amount of ECTS was approximately 300, there is no exact number of ECTS since the old study system was calculated with Semesterwochenstunden (hours/week and term).⁴ Student teachers attended courses at, at least, three different departments, such as the institute for educational

⁴ I am still in this program and, therefore, am able to provide certain insights, if partly subjective, into that curriculum.

sciences and the institutes of the respective subjects one chose to study. Overall, there were three main courses in which student teachers were practicing their teaching skills in real school contexts. The total amount of lessons taught by student teachers was at most 11, provided that sufficient practicum places were found for all trainees. If this was not the case, a maximum of eight of these lessons could be taught in team-teaching sessions. Subject-related observations were also part of the practical experience and these made up 23 observed lessons in total. Arguably, teaching methodology courses might have, in some rare cases, provided participants with the possibility to gain one or two more hours of teaching experience, or at least provided a chance to sit in on classes. Thus, over a period of four and a half years of studying, student teachers spent comparatively little time in an actual classroom. However, after graduating student teachers were obligated to complete a one-year teaching practicum in which they were supervised and continued to observe their mentor teachers. Despite the fact that their academic education was finished, student teachers needed to participate in their practicum as a means of officially completing their teacher education. Richards (2008: 166) observes that “[w]hile the teaching practicum is often intended to establish links between theory and practice, it is sometimes an uncomfortable add-on to academic programs rather than seen as a core component”.

As indicated above, in the school year of 2014/15 the curriculum of the university teacher-training program was renewed and aligned with the Bologna reform. Student teachers could study four years for a Bachelor’s degree (BEd) with a total amount of 240 ECTS, which enabled them to teach lower secondary levels; and afterwards they were able to study, either alongside teaching or not, another two years in order to acquire a Master’s degree in Education (MEd) with 120 ECTS. This curriculum had been running for the last two years, and since the school year 2016/17 the curriculum of the Bachelor’s degree has been adapted in order to merge into uniform standards with the BEd program from PHs. From this confusing multiplicity of changes within the last five years, it can be deduced that the Austrian teacher education programs have been striving for more professionalism and standardization, but also for an equal education for teachers. It has already been mentioned before that teachers without a degree from public universities were previously not allowed to teach at an AHS or BHS. With the merger of the teacher-

training programs teachers are no longer restricted to teach at certain school types, as long as they acquire their Master's degree. Differences, however, between the curricula of the training institutions remain insofar as not all Austrian universities and tertiary colleges follow the same curricula, but certain 'networks' (Verbund) of teacher-training centers have been formed.

In Table 5 those four 'networks' (Verbund) are listed with their respective cooperation partners, including tertiary colleges for education, public universities and private universities. Since the merger of public universities and tertiary colleges of education is extremely recent, it does not affect the participants of this study; however, a follow-up study once teachers trained in the new program are starting to teach would be highly interesting in order to see whether the formation of networks and the merger of teacher training institutions and curricula has had an effect on teachers.

Verbund Nord-Ost	Universität Wien Pädagogische Hochschule Wien Pädagogische Hochschule Niederösterreich Private Pädagogische Hochschule Wien/Krems Hochschule für Agrar- und Umweltpädagogik
Verbund Süd-Ost	Alpen-Adria-Universität Klagenfurt Karl-Franzens-Universität Graz Kirchliche Pädagogische Hochschule Graz Pädagogische Hochschule Burgenland Pädagogische Hochschule Kärnten Pädagogische Hochschule Steiermark Kunstuniversität Graz Technische Universität Graz
Verbund Mitte	Anton Bruckner Privatuniversität Johannes Kepler Universität Linz Katholische Privatuniversität Linz Pädagogische Hochschule Oberösterreich Pädagogische Hochschule Salzburg Paris Lodron Universität Salzburg Private Pädagogische Hochschule der Diözese Linz Kirchliche Pädagogische Hochschule Edith Stein Universität Mozarteum Salzburg Universität für künstlerische und industrielle Gestaltung Linz
Verbund West	Pädagogische Hochschule Tirol Universität Innsbruck Pädagogische Hochschule Vorarlberg Kirchliche Pädagogische Hochschule - Edith Stein Universität Mozarteum Salzburg

Table 5: List of Austrian 'networks' of collaborating teacher training institutions

It is, however, of interest to the present thesis whether the place of education has an influence on teachers' perceptions of grammar instruction. For example, David Newby, founder of the "cognitive+communicative grammar" (Newby 2012: 101)

has been lecturing at the University of Graz since 1985 and his approach is now taught at the University of Graz. Newby (2012: 120) notes that “two specific courses are offered that seek to mediate C+C Grammar”, namely an applied linguistics course for language teachers, which focuses on “competing theories of language and of language acquisition” and, secondly, “a hands-on seminar on the teaching of grammar, in which materials and activities based on a C+C rationale are presented”. Whereas, I can report from my teacher training at the University of Vienna that I have had one lecture ‘Language Analysis’, which required students to deal with English grammar on a high meta level; a methodology course ‘Introduction to Language Teaching 2’ in which three 90-minute sessions were dedicated to teaching grammar; and, lastly, several, more general approaches to language teaching (CLIL, CLT, Lexical Approach, Outcomes-based language teaching) have been discussed in the study courses’ last methodology course within three 90-minute sessions. Thus, it appears reasonable to ask whether there are significant differences between teachers’ beliefs on grammar instruction in relation to their place of education and thereby the extent to which they have dealt with grammar instruction and knowledge about language or grammar.

4.2.3. Teachers’ professional development

Since the study focuses on in-service teachers who have already been teaching for several years, it is also necessary to consider the opportunities for in-service training courses and further training possibilities for Austrian teachers. It has been found that the service law for teachers in lower secondary schools (NMS) states that they must participate in further training a total amount of 15 hours per year (Bundeskanzleramt Österreich 2018a, § 43 (3.4)). For teachers of upper secondary schools (AHS, BHS) the School Education Act (Schulunterrichtsgesetz) states that teachers have to attend ‘necessary further training’, however there is no indication of the amount of hours per year (Bundeskanzleramt Österreich 2018b, § 51(2)). With regard to further training I also had a closer look at the range of seminars, which are usually offered at the tertiary colleges of education, where almost all in-service training courses for teachers are taking place. As a representative sample I investigated the seminar programs of the PH NÖ, PH OÖ, PH Wien and the AHS-

Bundesseminare⁵. Within these programs I have found six seminars, out of more than thirty seminars for English in general, that either focused on teaching grammar or partially included aspects concerned with grammar teaching.

4.3. Methodology

This subsection explains in detail the methodology and research instrument used in this study. The advantages and disadvantages of the tool are discussed, as well as its layout and administration. Since parts of the questionnaire are based on a study conducted by Graus and Coppen (2016), the development of their questionnaire items as well as the procedure of their study will also be discussed. The chapter opens with an analysis of the research instrument's strengths and weaknesses.

4.3.1. Questionnaire

For the present study a quantitative data collection method has been selected, namely a questionnaire survey for Austrian in-service EFL teachers. Dörnyei (2007: 102) notes that the term 'questionnaire' is rather widely used and, thus, its definition is not as straightforward as one wishes it to be. On the one hand, since questionnaires do not necessarily contain questions, in the literal sense, this instrument is also often referred to as "'inventories', 'forms', 'opinionnaires', 'tests', 'batteries', 'checklists', 'scales', 'surveys', 'schedules' [...]" (Dörnyei 2007: 102). Secondly, the general term 'questionnaire' is commonly used as an umbrella term for "(a) interview schedules/guides [...] and (b) self-administered pencil-and-paper questionnaires" (ibid.); however, for the purposes of this study, only the second reference is relevant. Questionnaires are used to collect data of different kinds: factual, behavioral and attitudinal. Factual questions elicit demographic data from the participants, such as "age, gender, [...], level of education, language learning history" (Dörnyei 2007: 102). Whereas, behavioral questions "are used to find out what the respondents are doing or have done in the past, focusing on actions, life-styles, habits and personal history" (ibid.). The last category, attitudinal questions, are

⁵ Links to the respective seminar programs are provided in the bibliography

commonly used to obtain data on participants' "*attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests and values*" (Dörnyei 2003: 8) [original emphasis].

Due to the fact that the stated aim of this study is to investigate Austrian EFL teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction, a large part of this questionnaire consists of attitudinal questions. However, since the present study seeks to answer more than one research question, the focus of some questions in the survey, for instance asking for teachers' research engagement and their time invested in further training, is partly behavioral. Lastly, in order to correlate the findings of teachers' stated beliefs with their demographic characteristics, several factual questions are necessary as well.

The main reason for choosing a quantitative instrument is, undoubtedly, its "efficiency in terms of (a) researcher time, (b) researcher effort, and (c) financial resources" (Dörnyei 2003: 9). Additionally, questionnaires are also easily adaptable to various kinds of research projects and are for that reason extremely popular in the "behavioral and social sciences" (ibid: 10). Moreover, once the questionnaire is put together, its statistical evaluation is mostly quite straightforward and fast, especially when using computer programs (Dörnyei 2007: 115), such as SPSS. Although questionnaires allow the participants to remain anonymous and the process of filling in a survey usually lasts only a short amount of time, the instrument certainly has several unfavorable features as well (ibid.). For instance, the "[s]implicity and superficiality of answers" often hinders the researcher to go into more detail and depth in his or her study (Dörnyei 2003: 10). At the same time, respondents may not always be highly motivated to participate in a questionnaire, since this instrument is widely used and people might be oversaturated and, thus, unmotivated to do the survey (ibid.). Another factor that is especially relevant for this study is the influential factor of "[s]ocial desirability (or prestige bias)" (ibid: 12), which simply refers to the fact that people tend to adapt their opinions or statements to what they think is socially accepted or desired. Similarly, Dörnyei (2003: 13) reports of the "*halo effect*" [original emphasis], which describes "the human tendency to overgeneralize", meaning that if something or someone is perceived as either positive or negative, this perception wears off on the entire impression of someone or something. Hence, quantitative instruments are useful in terms of gaining an overall impression or picture of a certain topic, however, due to certain disadvantages are often validly supplemented with qualitative research methods for example.

Ethical considerations have also been taken into account when designing this study, since questionnaires are in various kinds of ways “an intrusion into the life of the respondent” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007: 317). For this reason, it has been stressed at the beginning of the questionnaire that the information provided is voluntarily and participants’ answers were anonymous. Furthermore, due to the fact that the questionnaire has been administered online, respondents were merely invited to participate and were also able to close, and therefore quit, the questionnaire at any stage.

The design process of the questionnaire has been split into two parts since the first part of the present study is a replication study of Graus and Coppen’s (2016) study. Graus and Coppen (2016) have designed a questionnaire tool and kindly given their permission⁶ to use this instrument. A more detailed description of this part of the survey is given in section 4.3.2.

The second part of the questionnaire has been developed as a means of answering the second and third research questions, which are concerned with the relationship between the Austrian SLTE program as well as teachers’ research engagement and teachers’ stated beliefs about grammar instruction. The majority of the questions used in part two of the study were close-ended questions in form of multiple-choice items. According to Dörnyei (2003: 35) close-ended questions share the feature of offering “ready-made response options to choose from” for the participants. Most of the multiple-choice items in the questionnaire provided the respondents with a variety of options and with a section called “other”, which would enable them to write down their response in an open-ended question (ibid: 43). The true-false items were only used in a few questions and commonly led to a follow-up question, which would ask for further information about the respondents’ choice. Yet, true-false items were only used in a small number of questions due the “*acquiescence bias* [...] that is, the [respondents’] tendency to respond in the affirmative direction when in doubt” (ibid: 42) [original emphasis]. At the very end of the questionnaire, after participants had filled in the demographic information, one open-ended question asked about their feelings and opinion about grammar teaching in the EFL classroom. Respondents were left with the choice of answering this question, and I will occasionally draw on answers that I have received, in the

⁶ E-mail exchange in September 2017.

discussion section below as a means of exemplifying participants' opinions.

4.3.2. Replication study

The first part of the questionnaire is based on a multi-item scale compiled by Graus and Coppén (2016), who managed to accomplish the laborious task of testing and putting together statements that would conform to the dichotomous concepts in language teaching (FFI vs. MFI, FonFs vs. FonF, explicit vs. implicit, deductive vs. inductive). The authors (Graus & Coppén 2016: 579) report of composing “an initial pool of 17 to 20 statements” per construct, “of which ultimately three statements per pole were chosen after two rounds of careful revision by a panel of four expert teacher educators”. The complete list of statements, which included 24 in their final version, has been made available in the additional material of the study (appendix 8.4.1.1). In September 2017, permission was asked for and kindly given to use their instrument in the present study. However, since the original study was conducted in Dutch and the English translations in the extra material have not been linguistically validated, it was important to check their validity before using the instrument. Moreover, it was decided to conduct the present study in German, as this is the mother tongue of most, if not all, English language teachers in Austria. Thus, I have translated the English statements into German and Univ.-Prof. Dr. Evelien Keizer from our department, who is a native speaker of Dutch, has kindly agreed to check the translation for errors and inconsistencies. This step was especially important since, as Dörnyei (2007: 103) points out, the “actual wording of the items can assume an unexpected importance”. Seemingly little differences in statements may elicit “radically different levels of agreement or disagreement” (ibid.), which is of course the main reason for using a multi-item scale as an instrument; however, due to the fact that the statements have been translated twice, it was important to verify their validity. A German translation of the 24 statements can be found in the appendix section 8.4.1.

Another important factor has been the determination of the various construct pairs, which are queried in the test. Therefore, the researchers (Graus & Coppén 2016: 577) have defined each and every construct and presented them in a tabular form, which I will also provide, in order to adhere exactly to their definitions of the terminology. Table 6 presents their operationalization of the construct pairs, which

are represented in the Likert scale part of the questionnaire. The discussion in chapter 2 of the several dichotomies that can be found in SLA pedagogy provides a concise overview of the relevant standpoints that are necessary for the first part of the empirical research of this study.

Construct	Learners	Grammar features (in input)	Pedagogical arrangements	Teachers
Meaning-focused	Receive no grammar instruction	Are part of overall input	Focus on meaning	Focus on meaning
Form-focused	Receive grammar instruction	Are basis for instruction	Provide grammar instruction	Provide grammar instruction
FonF ^a	Focus mainly on meaning	Are only dealt with if problematic	Focus on meaning, but turn to form briefly when necessary	Focus on meaning and choose forms to focus on in response to learners' needs
FonFs	Focus mainly on form	Are taught one by one	Systematically deal with grammar features	Focus on forms as main objective of (part of) lesson
Implicit	Process input containing a grammar feature and memorize chunks	Are incorporated in meaningful input, but are not discussed	Are aimed at processing input for meaning, memorizing chunks, and using a grammar feature in a communicative setting	Do not discuss form, but do attract learners' attention to it
Explicit	Gain conscious knowledge of a grammar feature	Are object of metalinguistic study	Explain grammar features and provide practice opportunities	Direct learners attention to form, discussing rules
Inductive	Search for a rule	Are used as examples from which to extract a rule	Induce learners to infer rules themselves	Guide learners to search for rules
Deductive	Are taught a rule	Are used to exemplify a rule that has already been taught	Focus on explaining a rule	Explain rules

Notes. ^aTo make the contrast with Focus on Forms (FonFs) as sharp as possible, we defined FonF as a reactive and incidental teaching option (following the original definition by Long, 1991). As a result, planned FonF was not part of this study.

Table 6: Application of construct pairs (Graus & Coppen 2016: 577)

4.3.3. Structure and content of the questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this study comprises four parts. The first part is a multi-item scale querying participants' beliefs about grammar instruction. The statements of the replication study have been separated into three pages and mixed up, so that the first page included the statements MF1, MF4, FS1, FS4, IE1, IE4, ID1, ID4; the second page listed all statements number 2 and 5, and the third page the remaining statements with the number 3 and 6. A complete list of all translated statements and their abbreviations can be found in the appendix section 8.4.1. After

those 24 statements, participants were also asked to indicate the sources of their beliefs. This question was similar to the original study by Graus and Coppen (2016), however it had to be adapted according to the Austrian teaching system.

Part 1 [teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction]:	
MF1-6	Likert scale
FS1-6	Likert scale
IE1-6	Likert scale
ID1-6	Likert scale
Sources of beliefs [FA]	Multiple-choice question

Table 7: List of questions in the questionnaire, part 1

The second part of the study has been concerned with the teachers' education and certain features of their study program. As can be seen in Table 8, this section majorly included multiple-choice questions, as well as four numerical rating scales and one true-false item. The numerical rating scales were asking respondents to grade their knowledge about both methods of teaching grammar and explicit

Part 2 [teacher training, perception of it, self-evaluation]:	
Information about methodology courses in the study program [MK]	Multiple-choice question
Application of methodology in the study program [AU]	Multiple-choice question
Information about lectures concerned with explicit grammar knowledge [EX]	True-false item
Application of that knowledge during teaching [AN]	Multiple-choice question
Self-evaluation of explicit grammar knowledge after graduation [EGS]	Numerical rating scale
Compared to now [EGJ]	Numerical rating scale
In case of improvement: source of knowledge [ING]	Multiple-choice question
Self-evaluation of knowledge of grammar teaching methodology after graduation [WMS]	Numerical rating scale
Compared to now [WMJ]	Multiple-choice question
In case of improvement: source of knowledge [INM]	Multiple-choice question
Joy in teaching grammar [FG]	Multiple-choice question
Insecurity in teaching grammar [UG]	Multiple-choice question

Table 8: List of questions in the questionnaire, part 2

grammar knowledge, respectively after their graduation and at the time of the survey. Besides looking into teachers' education program, they were also asked to state whether they enjoyed grammar teaching and whether they have ever felt insecure about it during their career.

In part 3 of the survey, teachers' research engagement has been evaluated. First of all, teachers were asked to name the average amount of hours they spend on further training, self-study or in-service courses within one year. Because this information is rather private and may be interpreted as an imputation of teachers being indolent, which is very likely due to the Austrian society's prejudices against teachers, I have, at the beginning of this section, particularly stressed the anonymity of this survey as well as the fact that the information would solely be used for scientific purposes.

Unfortunately, the results from questions asking for different kinds/types of further training [WJ] and reasons for not participating in further training [WN] are not very informative. This is probably because they were placed after a group of questions asking for further training in general and further training concerned with grammar teaching and thereby the relation of the follow-up question became ambiguous. I will discuss this weakness of the questionnaire further in the discussion of the results of this study. Part 3 further investigated teachers' research engagement by looking at their knowledge and use of professional journals and teacher handbooks (focusing on grammar) in their teaching careers, which can be seen in the overview in table 9.

Part 3 [teachers' research engagement]:	research
Average hours spent on further training for the subject English in general: external courses [WEE] self-study [WES]	Numeric items Numeric items
Average hours spent on further training concerned with grammar methodology: external courses [WGE] self-study [WGS] (If yes, which further training [WJ]) (If no, reason for no further training [WN])	Numeric items Numeric items (Multiple-choice question) (Multiple-choice question)
Reading journals [JO] If yes: Which journals [WJA] Application of knowledge gained from reading journals regularly [ANW] If no: Why not [WNE]	True-false item Multiple-choice question Multiple-choice question Multiple-choice question
Knowledge of teacher handbooks written by well-known researchers [LB] Usage of these in the classroom [VLB]	True-false item True-false item

Table 9: List of questions in the questionnaire, part 3

In part 4 of the study, participants were asked questions about their place of education, year of graduation, years of teaching experience, current school type in which they are teaching, age, gender and highest school degree. Last of all, I invited them to share their opinion and feelings towards grammar teaching with me in an open-ended question, which was voluntary.

4.3.4. Administration

In December 2017, after constructing the questionnaire, it was piloted among six friends of mine, who are all English teachers, partly already teaching and partly still in their studies. The pilot study helped me to identify erroneous or ambiguous items, as well as to get an impression of the length of the study. The study was conducted via the Google Forms platform, which presents the data of each individual participant in an Excel sheet making the data more accessible for coding and the

subsequent analysis. The questionnaire started after the Christmas holidays, in the second week of January and lasted for 17 days. Originally, the intention was to send an invitation to the questionnaire to all NMS, AHS and BHS schools in Austria via e-mail. However, due to a telecommunications act sending out a mass mail was prohibited by law and, thus, the size of the study was reduced to a much smaller number of participants. Nevertheless, by means of inviting teachers in 12 different Facebook groups on two occasions, as well as invitations sent to former English teachers through friends and family a significant sample size of respondents has been gathered. At the same time, supervising teachers of the institute have been invited to participate, as well as partner schools of the University of Vienna. Overall, a total of 112 participants responded by the end of deadline, after which the Google Form document was closed.

4.4. Sample

Despite 112 teachers participating in the study, only 103 can be involved in the study, since nine of them did not fit the participation requirements. Of the total of 103 respondents 88 were female, 13 were male and 2 of the respondents chose to not indicate their gender. Furthermore, the participants were asked to indicate in which school type they were teaching at the moment, revealing that 46 respondents taught at a AHS, 28 at a BHS and 29 at a NMS school type. Table 10 shows the distribution of participants according to their highest degree of education. Teachers who listed the ‘Allgemeine Reifeprüfung’ (school leaving exam) as their highest degree are most likely still in training, but started teaching alongside their studies, which is legally possible in Austria.

Highest degree of education	
BEEd	12
MEEd	1
Magister/Magistra	71
Dipl.-Päd.	13
Allgemeine Reifeprüfung	2
Andere	4
Gesamt	103

Table 10: Respondents according to their highest degree of education

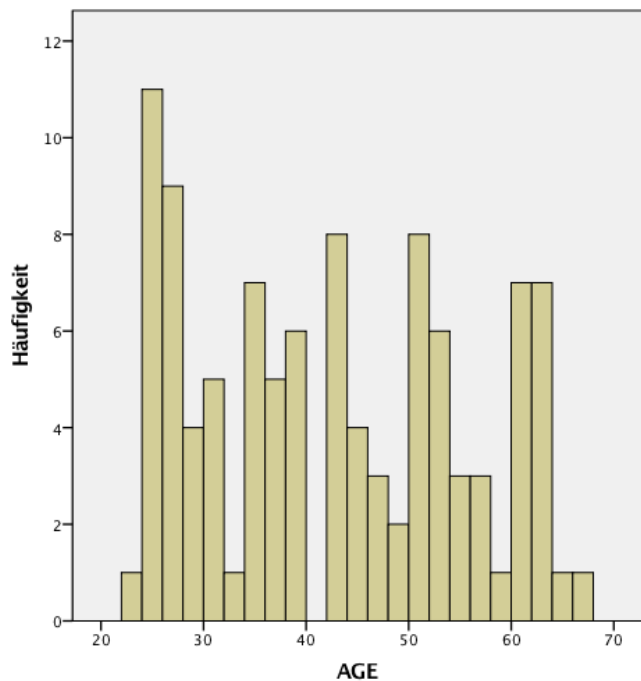
The distribution of participants' institutions of education is, unfortunately, also unbalanced with 79 respondents graduating from a public university, 33 participants

from a tertiary college for education and two others. These numbers make a total of 114 answers given, because several participants graduated from two or more institutions for teacher training. In table 11 the distribution of public universities and tertiary colleges is presented in more detail. It can be clearly seen that the University of Vienna is the institution with the largest number of graduates who participated in the present study. Unfortunately, only 11 teachers who graduated from the University of Graz could be motivated to participate, since it would have been interesting to see whether teaching practices are different between graduates from the University of Vienna and the University of Graz, since David Newby is focusing on his C+C grammar, as discussed above. Conceivably, a follow-up study, potentially investigating only student teacher beliefs of the respective institutions would be interesting.

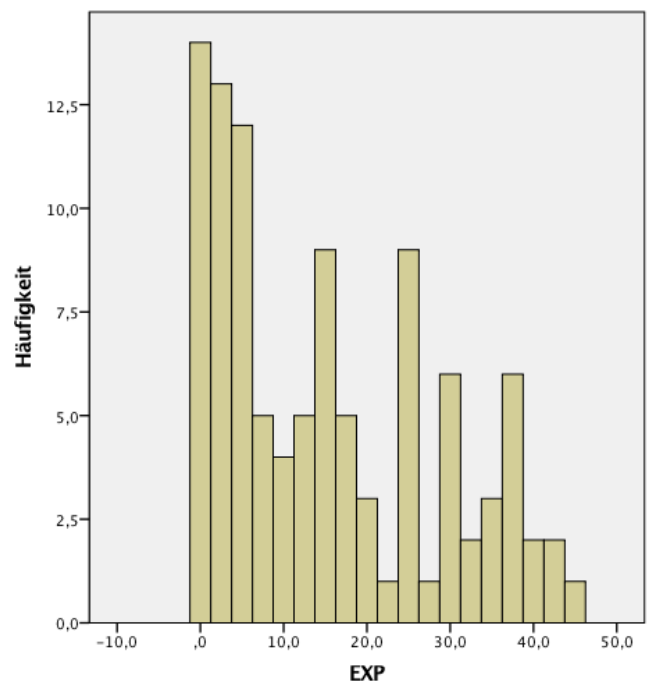
Distribution of public universities and tertiary colleges of education	
Universität Wien	58
Universität Salzburg	7
Universität Graz	11
Universität Innsbruck	2
Universität Klagenfurt	1
PH Niederösterreich	7
PH Oberösterreich	4
PH Wien	6
PH Steiermark	4
PH Burgenland	1
PH Kärnten	1
PH Tirol	2
KPH Krems/Wien	8
Andere	2
Gesamt	114

Table 11: Respondents according to their institutions of teacher training

Finally, the sample's age, years of experience and the year of their graduation have also been analyzed. Graph 3 shows the distribution of participants age, which has been grouped for the purposes of further analysis, thus, the age groups in the evaluation will be 20-30 years old, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60 and above 60 years old. A similar procedure has been applied to the respondents' years of graduation, which have been transferred into the following categories 1970-80, 1981-90, 1991-2000, 2001-10, 2011-20. Lastly, the respondents' years of experience have been altered and coded in the following groups: 0-5 years of experience, 6-15, 16-25, 26-35, more than 35 years of experience. In graph 4 the results are presented before the grouping of the responses.



Graph 3: Age of participants



Graph 4: Teaching experience of participants

It can be seen from the comparison of these two histograms that the age of the respondents and their years of teaching experience is not entirely congruent. A reason for this could be the fact, that 85 percent of the respondents were female and since Austria offers paid maternity leave for 2 ½ years, it may be speculated whether this is the reason for the differences. Another reason might be the volatile demand for teachers, which results, in certain years to a lack of positions of employment for teachers who have just completed their training. Finally, Table 12 represents the means and standard deviation for all three categories, namely age, year of graduation and years of experience. The range between participants is relatively high, the youngest being 23 years old and the oldest being 66 years old.

	Age of respondents	Year of graduation	Years of experience
Mean	42,11	2001,32	15,49
Standard deviation	12,97	13,03	13,16
Median	42	2003	13
Minimum	23	1973	0
Maximum	66	2018	44

Table 12: Overview of age, year of graduation and years of teaching experience of respondents

This large variation is of course also true for the year of graduation, as well as the years of teaching experience, which ranges from 0 to 44 years. Two participants stated that they had only 0.5 or 0 years of experience, meaning that they are only in their first year of teaching. Thus, respondents have gone through substantially

different eras of SLTE and further analysis will show, whether there is a statistically significant difference observable.

4.5. Reliability

Since the descriptive statistics of the data have already shown a strong tendency towards a non-normally distributed sample, certain tests have been run to affirm this hypothesis. For testing the normality of distribution of the data the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test have been conducted. Field (2009: 144) notes that “if the test is non-significant ($p > .05$)” then the null-hypothesis of the data being normally distributed can be accepted. The opposite becomes true, however, when the test is significant “($p < .05$)”, meaning that the distribution of the sample is significantly different from it being normally distributed. In addition to these tests, Fields (2009: 144) suggests to look at histograms, Q-Q plots and P-P plots in order to gain a detailed overview whether the sample is normally distributed or not. To know this distinction is in so far highly important as it determines the nature of the subsequent tests, namely parametric or non-parametric tests, the latter being used for data that is not normally distributed. When applying both the K-S test and the Shapiro Wilk test it has become evident that the previously mentioned assumption has been confirmed – the data is not normally distributed. Several factors have been tested: the highest degree of education [SAB], gender [SEX], year of graduation [AB], age of participants [AGE], institution of their education [UNI], years of teaching experience [EXP], school type participants are teaching in [SF]. In table 13 it can be seen that all cases are significantly different from the null hypothesis, revealing that the data is not normally distributed. For this reason, the subsequent tests of this study will be non-parametric tests.

Tests auf Normalverteilung						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistik	df	Signifikanz	Statistik	df	Signifikanz
SAB	,383	103	,000	,749	103	,000
SEX	,506	103	,000	,432	103	,000
AB	,111	103	,003	,927	103	,000
AGE	,106	103	,006	,935	103	,000
UNI	,298	103	,000	,620	103	,000
EXP	,145	103	,000	,896	103	,000
SF	,286	103	,000	,766	103	,000

a. Signifikanzkorrektur nach Lilliefors

Table 13: Results from the K-S test and the Shapiro-Wilk test

After having established the distribution of normality, the data needed to be tested further for internal consistency in the multi-item scales. Field (2009: 673) describes this test essential since “a measure (or in this case a questionnaire) should consistently reflect the construct that it is measuring”, thus making the test reliable. Besides the “split-half-reliability”, researchers commonly use the “Cronbach’s alpha” in order to measure scale reliability (ibid: 674). The Cronbach’s alpha has been calculated in SPSS and is represented in table 14. In the literature one can find varying opinions about the threshold for the Cronbach’s alpha to be statistically significant. Conceivably, it depends on the field of research, since disparate tests or research interests have different requirements (Field 2009: 675). In general, any value higher than .7 can be accepted, and in psychological constructs even values below .7 “can, realistically, be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured” (ibid.).

Concept	Number of items	Cronbach’s alpha
MF1-MF6	6	,810
FS1-FS6	6	,679
IE1-IE6	6	,758
ID1-ID6	6	,916

Table 14: Cronbach’s alpha

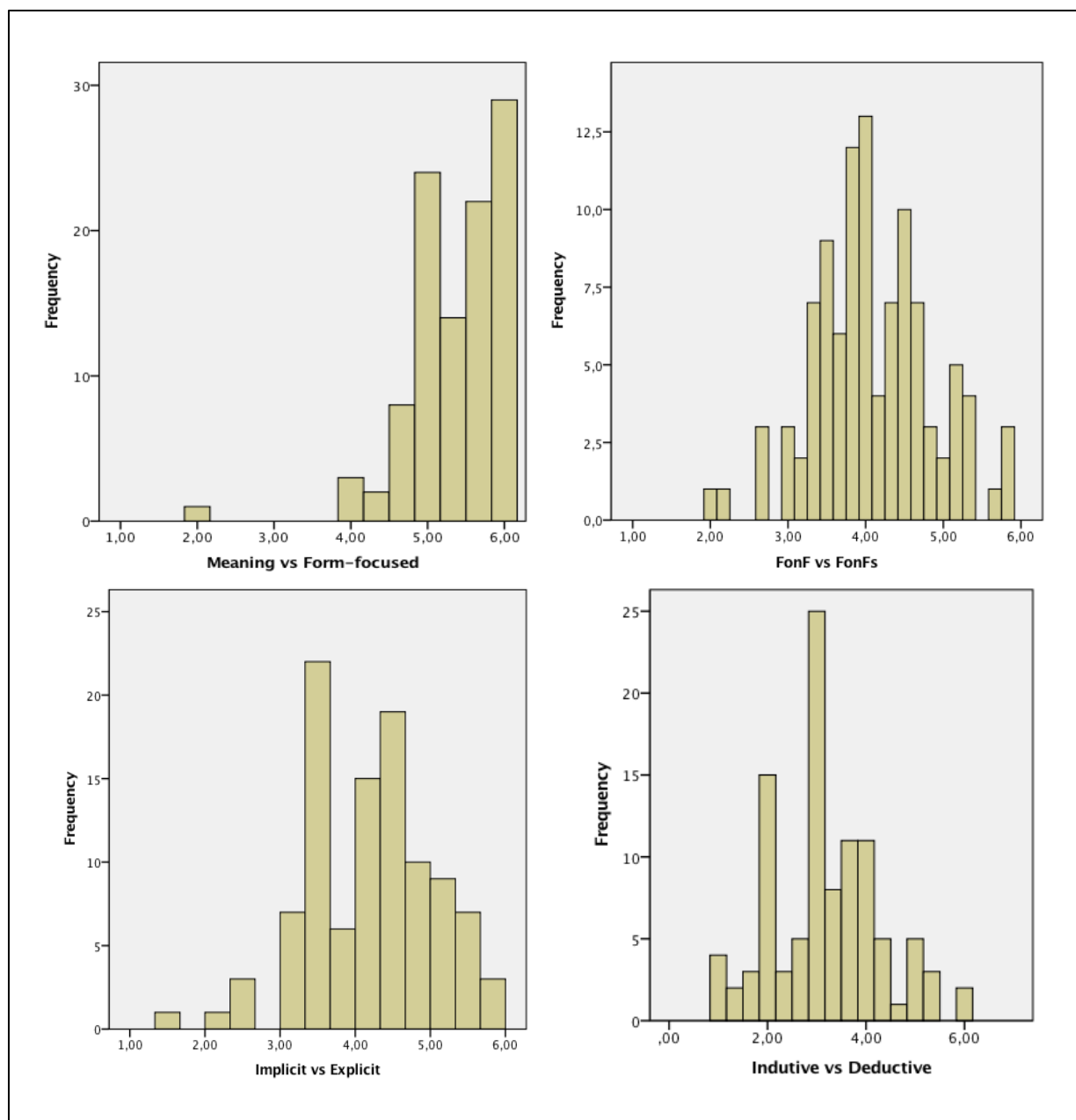
The present study has a Cronbach’s alpha for the construct pair ‘meaning vs. form-focused’ (MF1-MF6) of .810. The second multi-item construct is ‘FonF vs. FonFs’ (FS1-FS6) with a Cronbach’s alpha value of .679. It needs to be mentioned that this construct pair has also been difficult in the original study, where two items have been deleted in order to receive a higher Cronbach’s alpha. A test evaluating whether the deletion of an item would improve the construct’s reliability has been done in SPSS for the present study as well, however the value of the Cronbach’s alpha would not change, therefore all items remain in the construct. The third category is ‘implicit vs. explicit’ (IE1-IE6) and shows a Cronbach’s alpha of .758. Lastly, the multi-item construct ‘inductive vs. deductive’ (ID1-ID6) revealed a Cronbach’s alpha value of .916, which is extremely good. Since the internal reliability has been established, the means of each multi-item scale have been calculated for each respondent, and are used as a variable for correlation in the following analysis.

5. Findings and discussion

Based on the three research questions, introduced in section 4, I will split the analysis of the findings accordingly. The first section describes the beliefs of Austrian EFL teachers and their correlations with age, gender and teaching experience. Subsequently, I will report on findings related to the second research question, which focuses on the teachers' training institutions and the differences among those. Lastly, in subsection 5.3 the correlations between teachers' beliefs and their research engagement will be explored. As a means of knowing which correlations are worthy to explore further, meaning they have a statistical significance, the Spearman rho test has been applied. The "Spearman' correlation coefficient [...] is a non-parametric statistic and so can be used when the data have violated parametric assumptions such as non-normally distributed data" (Field 2009: 179). A complete overview of the results of the Spearman rho test is included in the appendix, section 8.5.

5.1. Austrian teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction

The first research question I will focus on is: What are Austrian EFL teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching? As a means of answering this query, graph 4 provides an overview of the distribution of respondents' mean for each construct. With regard to the replication study (Graus & Coppen 2016), the numerical codes assigned to the statements of the Likert scale show a tendency towards form-focused instruction if the mean is high (maximum 6) and a preference for meaning-focused instruction if the mean is low (minimum 1). A similar procedure has been applied to the other construct pairs, namely a tendency towards FonFs is represented by a higher mean, whereas FonF advocates have lower means. The construct pairs implicit (low means) and explicit (high means) grammar instruction, as well as inductive (low means) and deductive (high means) follow the same principle.



Graph 5: Frequency of respondents' means for the respective construct pairs

Graph 5 illustrates the tendencies of Austrian EFL teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction, revealing that, for instance, form-focused instruction is clearly preferred over meaning-focused instruction. The construct pairs 'FonF/FonFs' and 'implicit/explicit' show a similar trend, towards a more explicit instruction in which FonFs is preferred; however, the distinction between inductive and deductive is more diversified.

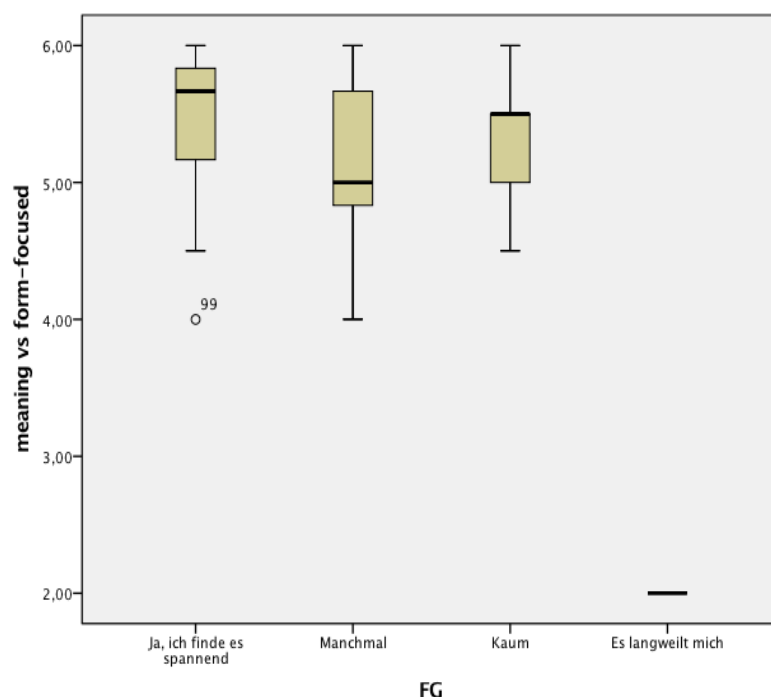
Furthermore, the comparison of the present study's results with the results from Graus and Coppen's study is in so far difficult as the present study exclusively

focused on in-service teachers, whereas Graus and Coppen's (2016) participants were mainly inexperienced student teachers. Nevertheless, the results from postgraduate students in the original study can be compared with those from Austrian EFL teachers, because postgraduate participants have also already been teaching. The results are similar in their tendency towards 'form-focused instruction' and 'explicit instruction', as can be seen in Graph 5 and in Graph 2 (section 3.3.1). On a side note, when comparing the means, one ought to bear in mind that the original study used a 5-point Likert scale, whereas the study at hand uses a 6-point Likert scale, meaning that a mean of 4.41 in Graus and Coppen's study (2016) does not equal a mean of 4.41 in the present study since the maximum of the Likert scale is different in these two analyses.

By applying the Spearman rho test, certain statistically significant correlations between genders, age, teaching experience and the teachers' preferred instructional approaches have been found. In terms of variances between gender, one statistically significant correlation has been found, namely that male teachers tend to prefer deductive grammar instruction to a greater extent than female teachers. A similar tendency has not been analyzed in any of the reviewed studies and therefore it would certainly be interesting to investigate further, whether female and male teachers significantly differ in their teaching techniques.

Another, more common, influential factor for teachers' beliefs has been age or years of teaching experience: The teachers' tendencies towards inductive teaching appear to be the strongest among 20 to 30 year old teachers; whereas teachers between 30 and 40 years old, as well as teachers, who are beyond 60 years have a slight tendency towards deductive teaching, and, lastly, teachers between 40 and 60 remain to a greater or lesser extent undecided, as they fluctuate around a mean of 3.0 to approximately 3.2. A similar observation can be made, when looking at the correlations between the construct pair 'implicit vs explicit' and the teachers' years of teaching experience. Here again, teachers with a maximum of 5 years of teaching practice are the least in favor of explicit instruction, whereas teachers with 6 to 15 and 26 to 35 years of experience tend to be more reluctant to implicit teaching. Teachers with 16-25 or more than 35 years of practice fluctuate around a mean of 4, leaving them with a slight tendency towards explicit teaching, but not as strong as their younger colleagues.

What is however unexpected is the fact that three construct pairs showed a significant correlation with the teachers' attitude towards grammar instruction, namely whether they enjoyed teaching grammar or not. Surprisingly, those teachers who stated that they thought that grammar teaching was exciting and or that they enjoyed it at least sometimes, had higher means in the construct pairs 'implicit vs. explicit' and 'FonF vs FonFs' than those who rarely enjoyed grammar teaching. Graph 6 shows the statistically significant correlations between the construct pair 'meaning vs form-focused' and the teachers' attitude [FG] towards grammar teaching.

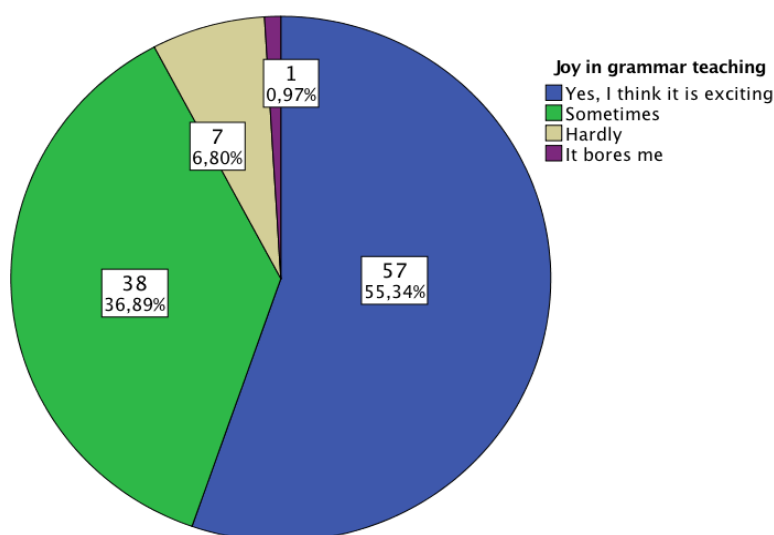


Graph 6: Correlation between construct pair 'MFI vs FFI' and 'joy in grammar teaching'

In graph 6 it can be seen that teachers who enjoy grammar teaching ('Ja, ich finde es spannend') have a strong tendency towards form-focused instruction, whereas those who only sometimes enjoy it ('Manchmal') have a significantly lower score. However, teachers who rarely enjoy grammar teaching ('Kaum') show, interestingly, a stronger tendency towards form-focused instruction, which may be due to various reasons. Additionally, one participant who does not enjoy grammar teaching ('Es langweilt mich') has a very strong tendency towards MFI. On the one hand, teachers who do not prefer grammar teaching, may not wish to spend a lot of time preparing meaning-focused exercises, but might rather keep to the exercises that can be found in schoolbooks. Those are often explicitly describing the grammar item with subsequent

gap-filling practice exercises, as Ellis (2002: 156-160) confirms in his study investigating ESL/EFL grammar practice books. Another reason for this tendency may be that teachers who do not like to teach grammar, at the same feel insecure in their own knowledge about grammar and therefore wish to hold on to a clear and structured way of teaching it, as in, for instance, Borg' study (2001: 21) and similarly in Andrews' study (2003: 361).

Graph 7 shows the distribution of teachers' responses when being asked whether they enjoy grammar teaching or not. Overall, 95 participants stated that they either think that grammar teaching is exciting or that it brings them at least sometimes joy to teach grammar. Solely one participant stated that grammar teaching was boring and seven more respondents had the feeling that grammar teaching hardly ever brings them joy.



Graph 7: Distribution of answers to the question 'joy in grammar teaching'

Participants in the present study have also been asked about the sources of their beliefs on grammar instruction. The results are congruent with what Graus & Coppen (2016) have found, as well as, for instance the findings by Borg (2001: 16). In table 15 it can be seen that by far the most common source of belief is the teachers' work experience. Consistent with other studies (cf. Graus & Coppen 2016, Borg 2001) are 'expectations of students' ranked second as an influential factor of teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction. It is interesting to observe that participants' study courses are listed third as a major source of teachers' beliefs. Because several studies (cf. Debreli 2012, Busch 2010, Borg 2009, Urmston 2003, Peacock 2001)

have reported that teacher training does not influence teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction, or if it does teachers' beliefs change significantly once they start teaching. Graus and Coppen (2016: 588) found similar tendencies among their post-graduate students, who were already teaching and also ranked work experience highest and filled second and third place with students expectations and their own studies.

Sources of beliefs			
	Antworten		Prozent der Fälle
	N	Prozent	
Arbeitserfahrung [work experience]	94	33,3%	91,3%
Erwartungen meiner SchülerInnen [expectations of students]	48	17,0%	46,6%
Mein Studium [my studies]	39	13,8%	37,9%
Meine eigenen Lehrpersonen [my former teachers]	34	12,1%	33,0%
KollegInnen (Engischlehrpersonen) [teaching colleagues]	27	9,6%	26,2%
Fort- und Weiterbildungen [in-service teacher training]	23	8,2%	22,3%
Andere [other]	6	2,1%	5,8%
Meine StudienkollegInnen [my study colleagues]	4	1,4%	3,9%
Professionelle Journals [professional journals]	4	1,4%	3,9%
Tagungen [conferences]	3	1,1%	2,9%
Gesamt	282	100,0%	273,8%

a. Dichotomie-Gruppe tabellarisch dargestellt bei Wert 1.

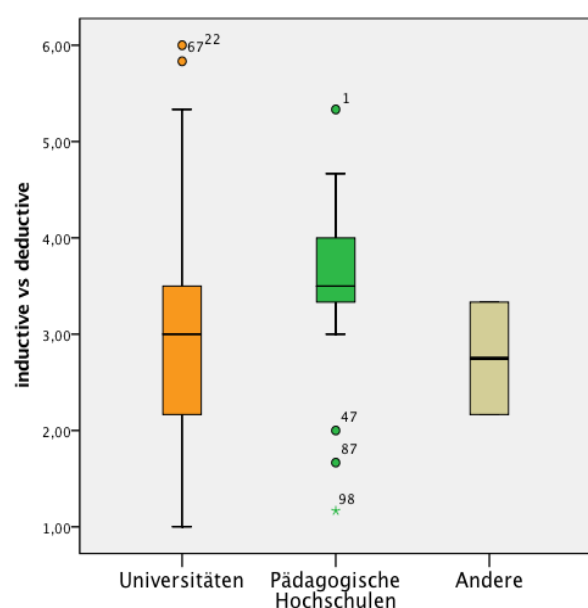
Table 15: Distribution of sources of teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction

Seeing that age or years of experience, gender and even attitude towards grammar instruction can have a statistically significant correlation with teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction, the following subchapter intends to investigate further connections. The focus will now shift towards external factors, such as institution of teacher training, year of graduation and the differences between public university teacher programs and those from tertiary colleges of education.

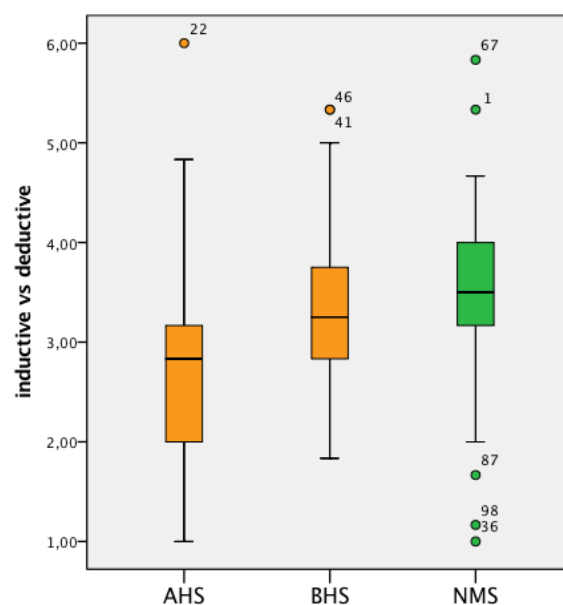
5.2. Differences between institutions and curricula

The results of the second research question are difficult to compare to other studies or related research since they are partially dominated by the ‘two-tier’ system of Austria’s educational institutions in general. I will however try to link it to the description of the Austrian school system, as I have described it above; and in addition to that, certain questions about teachers’ self-evaluation of their KAG and knowledge about methodology can be contrasted with results from other research. To recall the focus of the second research question I will provide it once more: Are these beliefs correlated with teachers’ education, referring to institutional differences, and with their teaching experience?

In graph 8 the statistically significant correlation between the teachers’ tendency towards either inductive or deductive teaching and their education is



Graph 8: Correlation between construct pair ‘ind. vs ded.’ and teacher education

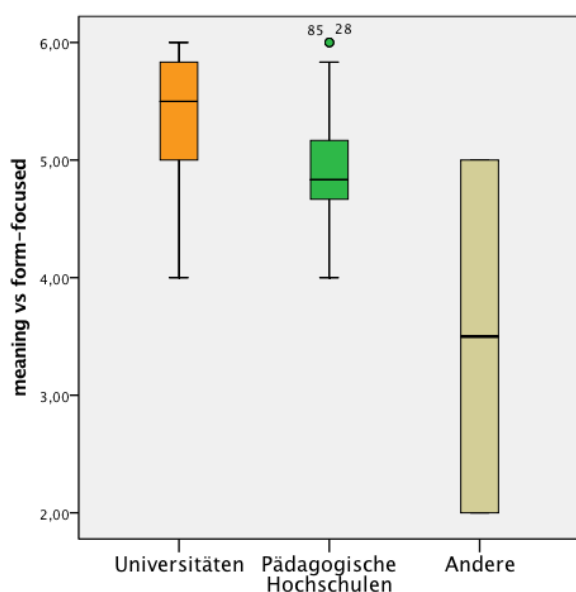


Graph 9: Correlation between construct pair ‘ind. vs ded.’ and teacher’s workplace

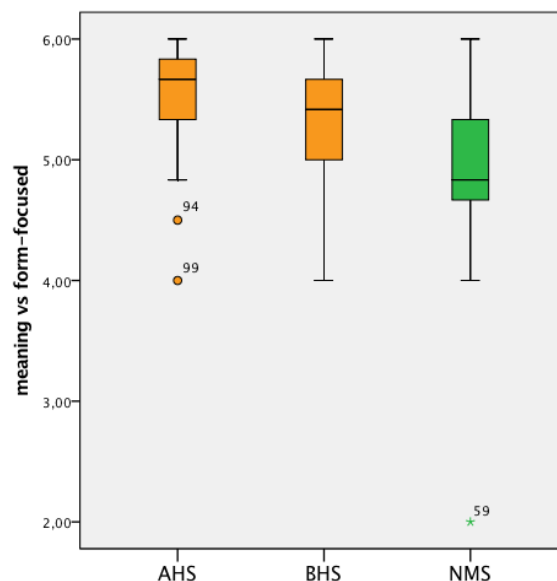
represented. The tendency of teachers graduating from a tertiary college of education appears to be leaned toward deductive teaching. However, a similarly significant correlation is found between the school type and the teachers’ beliefs. Certainly, the school type and the teachers’ training program are related due to the Austrian circumstances; however, it is difficult to say whether the teachers’ education or their experiences gathered in their working environment have formed their beliefs in that respective case. Since the beliefs of teachers who graduated from a public

university diverge when looking at the correlation with school types they are teaching in (orange column in graph 9), it may be assumed that the working environment is more influential than or at least as influential as the teachers' education program in terms of their beliefs on grammar instruction. When looking more closely at the outliers in this graph, it can be stated that several of them are still very young and at the beginning of their careers, which could be a potential reason for their deviating answers; however, due to the quantitative nature of this study a closer analysis of the potential reasons for their tendencies cannot be provided.

The same pattern, as in Graph 8 and 9, is reflected in the correlation of teachers' beliefs on the construct pair 'meaning vs form-focused' and their training program and their working environment, which strengthens the assumption that teachers' studies might not have as much influence on their beliefs as their work setting. Graph 10 represents this statistically significant correlation, revealing that a strong preference for form-focused instruction can be found among graduates from public universities, whereas these preferences slightly change when looking at the respondents' school types. This correlation is especially interesting, since as already mentioned, tertiary colleges of education have more practical training during their studies and, thus, may enable their student teachers to already practice more meaning-focused methods and reflect the efficiency and process of using such methods with their supervising teachers. Thus, they are not shy or insecure of using these methods, because they were guided while testing and practicing them.



Graph 10: Correlation between construct pair 'MFI vs FFI.' and teacher education



Graph 11: Correlation between construct pair 'MFI vs FFI.' and teacher's workplace

In each of these graphs, 10 and 11, two outliers can be found again, however their deviation is not as significant from the mean as in graph 8 and 9. Moreover a further analysis of the sources for their beliefs would demand a qualitative method.

Furthermore, another possible, and potentially more likely, reason for the general tendency towards certain approaches shown in these graphs is the ultimate aim of teachers and school types. To further explain this, AHS teachers might wish to prepare their students with as much form-focused practice and precision as possible, since students will be tested in their, inter alia, grammatical knowledge during their school leaving exam ('Language in Use'). Whereas, this part of the school-leaving exam does not exist in the BHS school types, and NMS teachers are not concerned with it since they accompany students only until their 4th year of English-learning. These assumptions are in part confirmed through teachers' statements in the open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire, which invited them to express their feelings and opinion towards the aspect 'grammar teaching in the Austrian EFL classroom'. The original statements are italicized and the respective translations can be found below:

In der 4. Klasse NMS haben wir eine eigene Stunde zur Förderung von jenen SchülerInnen, die in eine weiterführende Schule weitergehen. Für diese Kinder ist es extrem wichtig die Grammatik zu kennen und können. SchülerInnen die in eine PTS gehen werden eher in Kommunikation und den „Basics“ gestärkt. Grundsätzlich finde ich Grammatik schon sehr wichtig.

(Answer received on January 8th, 2018)

In the 4th grade of the NMS we have specific lessons that are supposed to foster those children who wish to attend an upper secondary school. For those children it is extremely important to know the grammar and to be able to use it. Pupils who wish to start their apprenticeship are strengthened in communication and the "basics". Overall I believe grammar is very important. [my own translation]

Ich finde Grammatikunterricht ist ein wesentlicher Bestandteil des Sprachenlernens an sich. Auch die Zentralmature - Language in Use Teil erfordert ein gewissen Wissen in diesem Bereich.

(Answer received on January 13th, 2018)

I believe that grammar teaching is an essential part of language learning. Also the standardized school leaving exam part – Language in Use requires certain knowledge in that area. [my own translation]

Although these statements only provide little insight into teachers' reasoning behind their teaching practices or beliefs, one can see that there might be relations

between the various school types, their respective aims, and teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction. I believe however that a qualitative study would be a necessary and interesting addition to investigate this assumption further.

As a way of exploring differences between teachers' training institutions and a potential relation to the teachers' beliefs, several questions have focused on the description of participants' studies with regard to grammar knowledge and methodology. First of all, participants were asked, whether they attended a lecture or course that focused on explicit English grammar knowledge and its functions. Subsequently, participants determined whether the knowledge acquired in these

Cross tabulation "lecture on explicit grammar * use that knowledge in class"

		Lecture on explicit grammar			Gesamt [Total]
		Ja [Yes]	Nein [No]	Ich weiß es nicht (mehr) [I do not know anymore]	
Use knowledge in classroom	Einen kleinen Teil davon [small part of it]	42	2	2	46
	Ja, alles [yes, everything]	8	0	0	8
	Nein, gar nichts [no, nothing]	6	9	4	19
	Einen großen Teil davon [large part of it]	30	0	0	30
Gesamt [total]		86	11	6	103

Table 16: Cross tabulation "lecture on explicit grammar * use that knowledge in class"

courses or lectures has been useful for their teaching practices. The cross tabulation in table 16 shows that the vast majority could only use parts of that knowledge, most of them only small parts of it. Interestingly, one participant reported of a similar experience in the open-ended question:

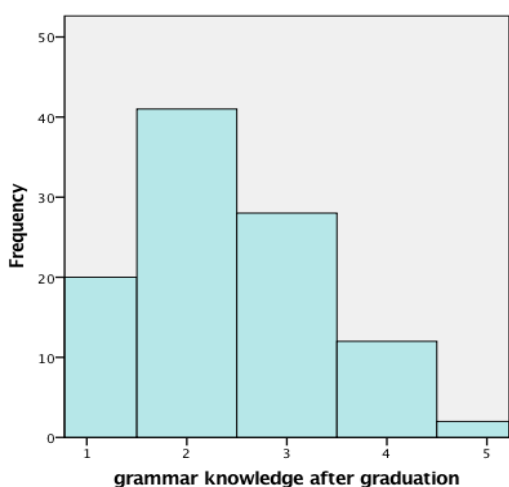
Ich habe während des Studiums (schließe heuer ab) keine einzige LV zum Thema Grammatikvermittlung erlebt; alle LVs, die auch nur entfernt mit englischer Grammatik zu tun hatten, waren auf einer so hohen Metaebene angesiedelt, dass ich nicht im Traum daran denken würde, irgendetwas davon im Unterricht umzusetzen. Ich würde mir praxisnahe, methodenorientierte LVs im Lehramtsstudium wünschen, denn schließlich spielt die Vermittlung von Sprachkompetenz eine zentrale Rolle im Lehrberuf.

(Answer received on January 7th, 2018)

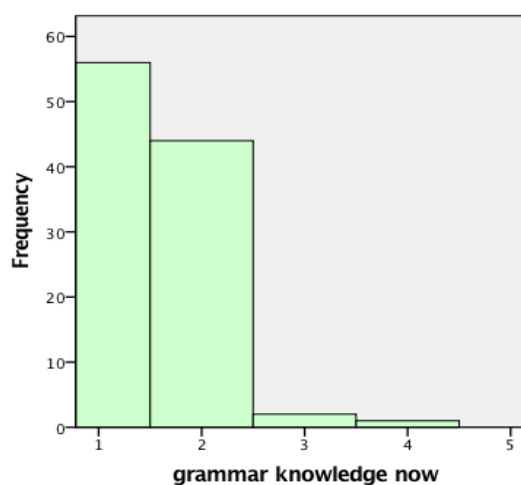
During my studies (I am graduating this year) I have not had one single lecture concerned with grammar teaching; all lectures, which have been concerned with English grammar in the slightest form, have been at such a high meta level that I would not dream of using any of it in my classroom. I would wish for practical, method-oriented lectures in the teaching program, because in the end the teaching of language

competence represents a central role in the teaching profession. [my own translation]

The lack of ‘useable’ knowledge about language and a lack of knowledge about grammar in general have been reported in other research as well (cf. Andrews 2003, Bartels 2009, Svalberg 2015). Since however, the perception of teachers’ KAG also turned out to be a strong indicator for favoring form-focused, explicit grammar instruction in empirical studies (Andrews 2003, Borg 2001), I have decided to ask teachers not only whether they were able to use their explicit grammar knowledge in school, but also to grade their knowledge about English grammar in Austrian school grades (1 = very good, 5 = fail) as a means of understanding how they perceived their knowledge. Graph 12 and 13 show the different perceptions between teachers’ self-evaluation of their KAG at the time when they graduated university or college, and now.



Graph 12: Teachers’ self-evaluation of grammatical knowledge after graduation



Graph 13: Teachers’ self-evaluation of grammatical knowledge now

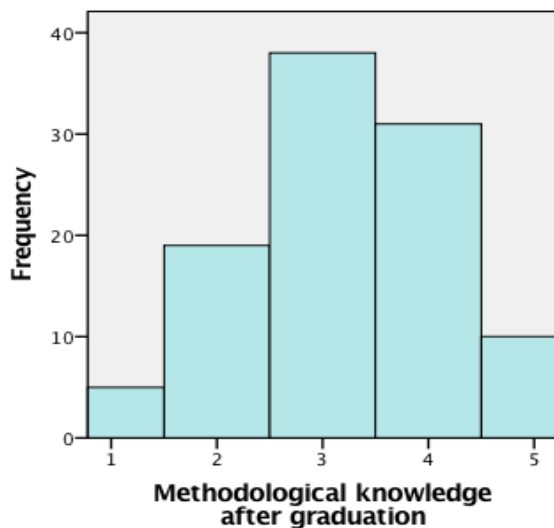
What becomes apparent is that teachers clearly have the feeling that their knowledge of grammar was poorer after graduation than it is now. I believe that this self-evaluation does not necessarily mean that teachers’ knowledge of grammar is faulty when they graduate; on the contrary, I believe that their KAG is excellent, only that it is not the kind of KAG they need in the language-learning classroom and

therefore they feel that their KAG is low or insufficient. In my opinion the trend shown in these graphs is to some extent a representation of a student teacher's opinion that was shared with me in the open-ended question section of the survey (see above, quote from January 7th). The respondent argued that all the explicit knowledge about grammar that she studied during her course, she could not use in the EFL classroom. Studies have reported similar experiences, where teachers' KAL was not useful for their teaching (cf. Bartels 2009, Svalberg 2015). Thus, it may be beneficial to include specific applied linguistics courses for English students in the teaching program to prepare them better for their future teaching.

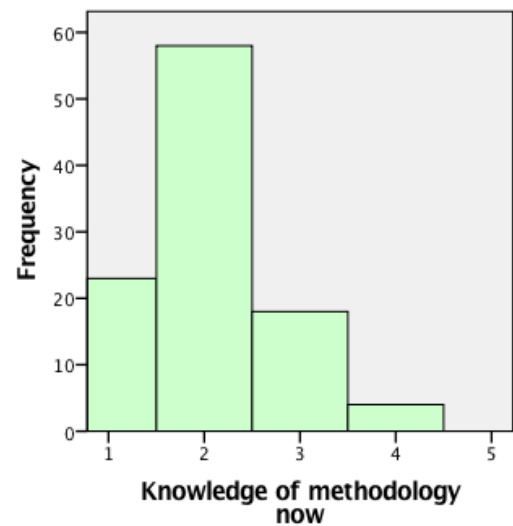
Nevertheless, respondents were also asked to list the tools which helped them to enhance their KAG. Surprisingly, school books rank highest with 23,9 percent, followed by material exchange with colleagues (18,8%), the Internet (16,8%) and external further training with 14,2 %. Twenty-six respondents are of the opinion that their KAG did not change, making up a total of 13,2%⁷. Teaching experience has not been part of the multiple-choice answer options for this question, however, the Spearman rho correlation test revealed that the more experienced teachers are, the better they perceive their KAG.

The development of participants' perception of their methodological knowledge with regard to grammar teaching shows a similar, if slightly different, trend than participants' perception of their KAG. Graph 14 and 15 present the changes of teachers' methodological knowledge; however, what ought to be taken note of here is that there is a statistically significant correlation between participants' age and how they rated their methodological knowledge. The older participants are, the poorer they judge their methodological knowledge about grammar teaching after their graduation. This trend indicates that there have been changes in teacher education, leading to more awareness for methodological knowledge as part of the SLTE knowledge base.

⁷ find a table with the frequencies of all answers in the appendix section 8.3



Graph 14: Teachers' self-evaluation of methodological knowledge after graduation



Graph 15: Teachers' self-evaluation of methodological knowledge now

As in the survey item before, participants have also been asked to indicate the sources of their knowledge, if it improved in the time between their graduation and now. Material exchange with colleagues ranked highest with 18,4%, closely followed by teacher's handbooks (17,6%) and external further training courses (14,4%)⁸. Approximately eleven percent of all responses (27 participants) claimed that their methodological knowledge did not change. The relationship between teachers' years of experience and their perception of their methodological knowledge shows a similar pattern as the correlation between their KAG and their years of experience – a statistically significant correlation reveals that the more experience teachers have, the better they rate their methodological knowledge regardless of any other factors. Apart from that, the intention of those questions about teachers' KAG/methodological knowledge has been to see whether statistically significant differences between institutions, especially the University of Vienna and the University of Graz, were given. Unfortunately, due to the non-normally distributed sample, where only 11 participants graduated from the University of Graz, such claims cannot be made.

Nonetheless, another interesting significant correlation in this respect is the tendency towards form-focused instruction of participants who rated their methodological knowledge 'very good' or 'good' at the end of their studies. It may be deduced that this relationship merely affirms the respondents' positive attitude towards form-focused instruction, since they perceive their methodological

⁸ find a table with the frequencies of all answers in the appendix section 8.3

knowledge as ‘very good’ and strongly favor this approach. Moreover, respondents who rated their current explicit grammar knowledge as ‘very good’ or ‘good’ also favored form-focused instruction (see the illustration of both correlations in the appendix 8.3). Although this relationship is not congruent with what Andrews (2003) found, namely that teachers with a high level of knowledge of language tend to favor meaning-focused approaches; it may indicate that teachers who have a sound knowledge of the English grammar simply value its importance and thus potentially tend to practice it with their students in a more form-focused and detailed way.

Finally, the aim of this subchapter’s research question was also to find out whether differences between the curricula and institutions are observable. Fortunately, changes can be seen in the data, however no statistically relevant correlation with the participants’ beliefs could be found. Nevertheless, table 17 shows that methodological courses have changed, since respondents who graduated in the last 17 years reported of more practical experience with grammar teaching methods than their older colleagues.

Cross tabulation “Experiencing grammar teaching methods * year of graduation”

	year of graduation					Gesamt [total]
	1970- 1980	1981- 1990	1991- 2000	2001- 2010	2011- 2020	
Ich weiß es nicht (mehr) [I do not know (anymore)]	1	3	4	6	7	21
Mit SuS ausprobiert [tested with pupils]	4	3	6	12	12	37
Mit StudienkollegInnen in der Rolle der SuS ausprobiert [tested with study colleagues in the role of pupils]	1	0	0	4	11	16
Selbst in der Rolle der SuS ausprobiert [tested in the role of a pupil myself]	2	2	3	4	12	23
Keines [nothing]	2	9	5	6	7	29
Andere [other]	1	0	2	0	1	4
Gesamt [total]	9	17	17	26	34	103

Prozentsätze und Gesamtwerte beruhen auf den Befragten.

a. Dichotomie-Gruppe tabellarisch dargestellt bei Wert 1.

Table 17: Cross tabulation “Experiencing grammar teaching methods * year of graduation”

Furthermore a statistically significant correlation has been found between the kinds of methodological lectures or courses participants attended or were offered and the respective age groups. Table 18 shows that the older participants are, the less methodological training they received. However, overall, it can be observed that the

majority of participants merely attended a general course in methodology rather than a specific course focusing on grammar teaching.

Cross tabulation “Methodology courses * age”

	AGE					Gesamt [total]
	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	> 60	
Spezifischer Grammatikkurs [course focusing on grammar teaching]	3	3	3	0	1	10
Allgemeiner Fachdidaktikkurs [general methodology course]	18	8	13	8	4	51
Beides [both]	7	5	3	5	3	23
Keines [nothing]	1	4	4	4	6	19
Gesamt [total]	29	20	23	17	14	103

Prozentsätze und Gesamtwerte beruhen auf den Befragten.

Table 18: Cross tabulation “Methodology courses * age”

After discussing various findings that reported disparate connections and correlations, I would like to briefly summarize the data that has been at the center of the analysis in this subchapter. First and foremost, two statistically significant correlations between teachers’ beliefs and their training programs or work settings have been discussed. It is important to note that there is no clear indication for either the SLTE training programs or the teachers’ work setting being the influential factor of teachers’ beliefs. However, the data slightly suggests that the teachers’ work environment might have an effect on their beliefs on grammar teaching. Because the teachers’ means of tendencies towards either instructional option change when teachers educated at a public university are split up into AHS and BHS teachers, for example. To illustrate this further: NMS teachers tend to favor deductive instruction in contrast to AHS and BHS teachers, who prefer inductive teaching methods. However, when looking at the construct pair ‘meaning vs form-focused’ instruction, AHS teachers strongly support form-focused instruction, whereas BHS teachers show less support and NMS teachers remain rather undecided, showing the least support to either of the concepts.

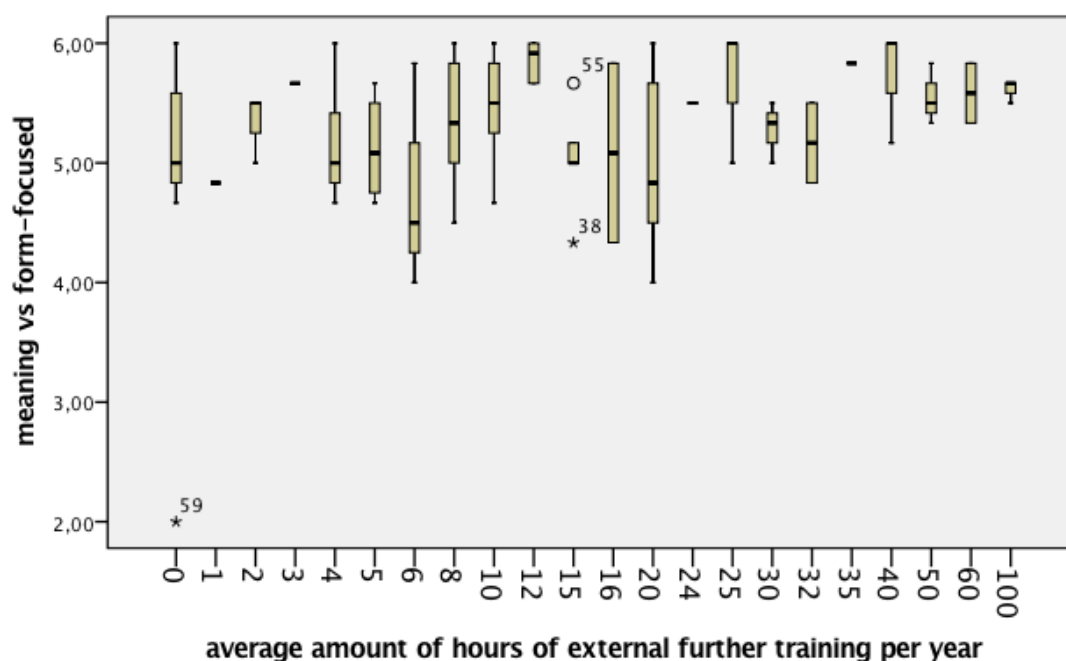
Furthermore, teachers have been asked about their knowledge about grammar and their perception of it. The data tends to suggest that teachers’ study courses lack sufficient preparation in terms of classroom-related KAG and methodological knowledge in grammar teaching. In both self-evaluation tests teachers’ grading significantly improved in the time period between their graduation and now. The most

common sources of knowledge for their improvement were in case of KAG: school books (!), material exchange with colleagues and the Internet; and in case of methodological knowledge: material exchange with colleagues, teacher's handbooks and external further training courses. Lastly, a very positive trend has also been observed, namely that SLTE programs appear to have changed in terms of appreciating and implementing methodological courses, as well as enabling practice lessons for student teachers. However, the extent or effect of these courses has not been established in the present research.

5.3. Austrian teachers' research engagement

One of the original claims when I started my research for this project, was that SLA research does not make its way into the Austrian EFL classroom. While this was the assumption of a student teacher who has not been in a real classroom very often, the literature supported my claim to some extent (cf. Larsen-Freeman 2015, Newby 2012, Ur 2012). By looking at studies reporting on the current situation in grammar teaching research paired with studies concerned with innovations in SLTE, I found that this area is certainly worth looking into. Thus, my third and last research question is: Are these beliefs correlated with teachers' research engagement and/or professional development experiences?

First and foremost, the data of the present study does not indicate any strong relations between teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction and their professional development experiences (further training, research engagement, etc.). Nevertheless, the data has shown a statistically significant correlation between teachers' tendency towards form-focused instruction and the amount of hours spent on further training. Graph 16 represents the trend that can be observed in that case; it is however rather difficult to accurately interpret this result without having any other correlations to compare it to.



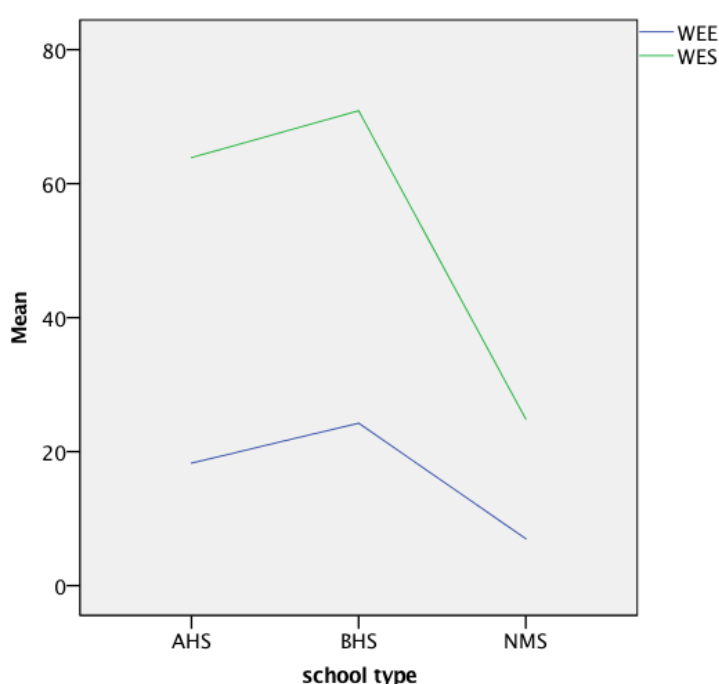
Graph 16: Correlation between the construct 'MFI vs FFI' and teachers' time spent on further training

When looking at this graph, what comes to mind is the argument from Ur (2012: 94-5) that further training courses often overstress the importance of CLT and its concepts when it comes to teaching English. In this respect, grammar instruction is often entirely neglected and teachers subsequently fail to implement their new knowledge in the classroom or refuse to try it out. A similar pattern may be the reason for the tendency shown in Graph 16 that most teachers with a high amount of hours spent on further training courses for the subject English are in favor of form-focused instruction. Another factor could be that those teachers are extremely fond of the language and its functional system, meaning that because they enjoy it they tend to work with it with more precision and details on form. It is however also quite possible that this correlation is not as meaningful as hoped since it is the only correlation between teachers' beliefs and further training courses.

Nevertheless, when talking about teachers' time spent on self-study concerned with grammar teaching, the results showed a statistically significant relationship between participants' age and their time spent on self-study. The younger participants, up until 30 years old, spent significantly more time studying by themselves in this respect than their older colleagues. Since the question asked participants to state their average amount of self-study time spent on grammar teaching per year [WGS], it might be the case that older participants simply feel that they do not need any further training in this area. I would like to mention that the follow-up questions in the survey concerned with the kind of further training teachers prefer [WJ] and their reasons for refraining from further training [WN] were ambiguous since they asked for kinds of further training without referring to the respective item before. In other words, participants did not know which kind of further training I was asking about (general further training for the subject English or specific courses for teaching grammar). Secondly, a statement of a participant arguing that after studying a language he/she would not need further training in English grammar, brought my attention to the fact that the items asking for hours spent on further training concerned with *grammar teaching* [WGE, WGS] might also have been not as clear for some participants as I wished them to be. Because my intention was to ask for further training concerned with grammar teaching methodology and apparently this was easily mistaken with knowledge about grammar. Therefore, I have decided to exclude the questions asking for more details about teachers' further training

courses or the reasons why they did not complete any.

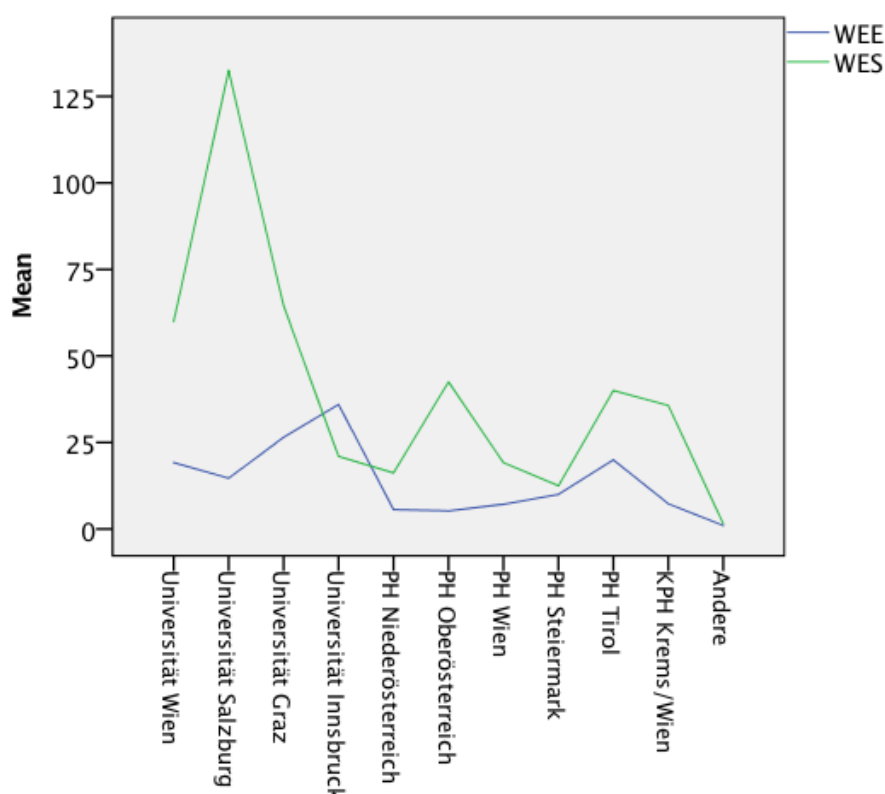
Nonetheless, other statistically significant data has been found, namely a correlation between the type of school and teachers' average amount of hours spent on external further training for the subject English per year [WEE], as well as teachers' average amount of hours of self-study for the subject English spent per year [WES]. The graph 17 shows the distribution of hours of further training in connection with the teachers' school types.



Graph 17: Correlation between school type and hours of further training

A similar correlation has been found between the different kinds of institutions. What is surprising in this respect is that graduates from the public universities show by far more hours spent on self-study for the subject English than graduates from tertiary colleges of education. The reason for this tendency is of course of interest for further research and cannot be determined by the analysis of the present data.

In addition to that, the disparate means of hours spent on self-study for the subject English in relation to the different institutions, shown in graph 18, is also worth noting. I believe that this, paired with results presented before, offers the possibility to further investigate the different curricula among teacher training institutions.



Graph 18: Correlation between training institutions and means of hours of further training

By means of establishing teachers' interest in research and their engagement with it, five questions of the survey instrument focused on teachers' use of professional journals, their knowledge of teacher handbooks and the respective use in teaching. The data collected in the present study shows that none of these factors has a significant influence on teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching. However, it can be observed that 37,9% of all participants regularly read an English Language Teaching journal (Language Teaching 26,3%, English Teaching Forum 22,8%, TESOL journal 15,8%, ET 14%, Essential Teaching Journal 12,3%). Of these 37,9% teachers who continuously read professional journals 79,5% reported that they were sometimes able to use the knowledge gained from reading journals in their classroom and the remaining 20,5% stated that they could only rarely use the content. Borg (2013: 94) found "a range of factors which influence that impact reading research has on their [teachers'] teaching". The factors he lists are (Borg: 2013: 94):

- Teachers' experience
- Teachers' 'common sense'
- Relevance of research to current needs
- Practicability of research

- Curricular influences
- Applicability of research
- Testability of research in practice
- Congruence with current practices
- Feasibility of research

Thus, a wide range of reasons for teachers' use and implementation of research findings ought to be considered when discussing their intention of implementing research findings in their teaching. Furthermore, participants who neglected reading journals at a regular basis have been asked to indicate why they did not. In accordance with results from Borg (2013), teachers' main obstacles are lack of time (30,6%), no interest (22,4%), no access (17,3%), lack of practice-related content (17,3%), no financial support (6,1%) and other reasons. Additionally, the teachers' knowledge of handbooks by the following authors⁹: 'Ur, Thornbury, Scrivener, Nassaji & Fotos, Swan, Keck & Kim or Newby' was queried in the survey as well. For this question item 78,6% of all teachers affirmed that they were familiar with one of these books. Again, participants were asked whether they were able to use these handbooks for their teaching and 48,5% of the responses affirmed that they were using them.

So overall, the analysis of teachers' research engagement and professional development did not reveal any statistically significant correlations with their stated beliefs. It would however be wrong to conclude from the data provided in this study that in-service teacher training has no effect on teachers. Although former research has shown tendencies that would suggest such a conclusion, it is my opinion that more research in this respect is necessary, before opting against the effectiveness of in-service teacher training. Moreover, it is noteworthy to state that very few hours of further training have been spent on grammar teaching per se, thus a broader range of possibilities and offers may be beneficial. Thus, further research is certainly necessary before drawing any preliminary conclusions with regard to the third research question of the present study.

⁹ For example:

Keck, Casey; Kim, YouJin. 2014. *Pedagogical Grammar*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
 Ur, Penny. 1988. *Grammar practice activities: a practical guide for teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
 Thornbury, Scott. 1999. *How to teach grammar*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
 Newby, David. 2001. *Grammar for communication*. Wien: Österreichischer Bundesverlag.
 Nassaji, Hossein; Fotos, Sandra. 2011. *Teaching grammar in second language classrooms: integrating form-focused instruction in communicative context*. New York: Routledge.
 Scrivener, Jim. 2010. *Teaching English grammar: what to teach and how to teach it*. London: Macmillan Education.

6. Conclusion

The present thesis had as its goal to investigate Austrian EFL teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching and their correlations with external factors, such as training programs and professional development. At the beginning of the process of researching those correlations, a quantitative instrument, namely an online questionnaire for Austrian NMS, AHS and BHS teachers was chosen. To provide a sound theoretical basis for the development of that instrument two theoretical chapters at the beginning of the thesis describe relevant and recent literature of the field of SLA and SLTE. First and foremost, theories on grammar instruction have been reviewed, specifically those that are represented in the study by Graus and Coppen (2016), which was replicated in the first part of the survey. The following concepts are juxtaposed: meaning-focused and form-focused instruction, Focus on Form (FonF) and Focus on Forms (FonFs), implicit and explicit instruction, and inductive and deductive instruction.

Secondly, the development of grammar teaching methodology in Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) is reviewed, as well as several subareas that are relevant to the study's research questions. For instance, knowledge about language and its effect on language teaching was treated as well as beliefs of teachers on grammar instruction or language instruction, studies on teachers' engagement with and in research. After reviewing literature of studies mostly concerned with and located in foreign countries, the need for gathering empirical data within the Austrian context had been created.

The study was conducted in January 2018 and had 112 participating English teachers from NMS, AHS and BHS contexts. For the purpose of efficient data gathering an online questionnaire was chosen as the preferred instrument, which consisted of three main parts: The first part evaluated participants' beliefs on grammar instruction, the second part was concerned with the circumstances of their teacher training programs and their interest in research, and the third and last part asked for demographic information. The results from this quantitative study have shown that the respondents show a tendency towards form-focused, explicit instruction with a trend towards Focus on Forms (FonFs). As sources of those beliefs, the participants listed, in accordance with Graus and Coppen's (2016)

findings, 'work experience', 'students' expectations' and 'study course' as the most influential. Furthermore, in order to correlate the teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction with potential influential factors, the Spearman rho test has been conducted since the data is non-parametric. A statistically significant correlation has been found between the construct pair 'MFI vs FFI' and work place, namely teachers in AHS and BHS show a stronger tendency towards form-focused instruction than their colleagues working in NMS school types. Furthermore, teachers have been asked to evaluate their knowledge about grammar and methodological options in grammar teaching at the time of their graduation and now. It is important to note that both evaluations have significantly improved between teachers' graduation and now. Statistically significant has been the connection between teachers' age and their ranking in the category 'knowledge about methodological options', namely the older the participants were the poorer they graded their knowledge after graduation. This and several other results from different survey items indicate that second language teacher education (SLTE) has evolved and changed. However, the lack of teachers' knowledge about grammar and their way of dealing with those deficiencies certainly provides a basis for improvement in SLTE. Teachers' stated that the sources for improving their knowledge about language (KAL) are primarily schoolbooks, material exchange with colleagues and the Internet. While these sources are certainly not always flawed or qualitatively inferior, teacher-training programs could certainly improve students' preparation in their KAL, especially that kind of KAL that is needed in the classroom. This is linked to the fact that another survey item revealed that the kind of KAL learnt during teachers' education is for most participants only partially or rarely useful for teaching. A different correlation concerned with teachers' KAL was found when looking at teachers' experience and their perception of their KAL – the more experience, the better they perceived their KAL.

Lastly, teachers have been queried about the number of hours spent on further training, either through external courses or self-study. What has been interesting here is that graduates from public universities have spent significantly more time studying by themselves for the subject English after their graduation than graduates from tertiary colleges. While the means of hours spent on in-service teacher training courses is higher for BHS and AHS teachers, NMS teachers ranked lowest in this category.

Overall, the data found several correlations between teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction and presumed influential external factors. While the participants' research engagement does not reveal any statistically significant influence on their beliefs, the demographic data as well as their place of education or work have been found to influence their beliefs to some extent.

6.1. Suggestions

One substantial, and in my opinion a key finding is, that while teaching grammar appears to be of high importance to many teachers and students (tendency towards FFI, FonFs, explicit instruction), participants reported of insufficient amount of both knowledge about language and knowledge about methodological options in grammar teaching during their teacher education. Hence, a plea for acquiring applicable KAL during teacher education, as voiced by, for instance, Borg (2005) and Bartels (2009) can be supported on the basis of the present findings. Moreover, to educate teachers in terms of methodological choices in grammar instruction has also been a request expressed by Ur (2012: 95-96), who is of the opinion that teachers need to be aware of the variety of existing methods and approaches, as well as their effects, meaning that personally experiencing methods and approaches is of high importance to teachers. Despite the enhancement of teacher education, the consideration of improving and facilitating in-service teachers' options to educate themselves further is similarly relevant. Conceivably, teachers' engagement with research, the access to and the applicability of research findings offer potential for improvement, as would increasing the number and quality of further courses for teachers. As a means of understanding what is needed in further training for enabling teachers to actually implement their newly gained knowledge in their practices, research in innovation would be helpful as well. Hence, improvements for both second language teacher education and in-service training courses for practicing teachers are suggested as a result of the findings in this study.

6.2. Limitations of the study

First of all, I would like to stress the fact that participants in this study were self-selected, thus they show already a certain interest towards the topic. Secondly, it is necessary to highlight that several participants have stressed, in the open-end question of the questionnaire, that the differences among learners as well as the context of teaching grammar are an obstacle towards a generalization of the statements or beliefs on grammar instruction. For example, it has been mentioned that some learners need clear and explicit structure in order to learn a language, while others may profit from more inductive and implicit methods. Furthermore, the context in which teachers are teaching, whether in a lower or upper secondary classroom, also makes a significant difference in how they think about grammar instruction. These statements are congruent with the findings of Graus and Coppen's study (2016), who did not only investigate teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction, but also the correlation between teachers' beliefs and learner levels as well as difficulty of grammatical items.

6.3. Further research

The study at hand provides a variety of bases for further research investigations. Without considering the data found in the present study yet, a follow-up study would be highly interesting since the circumstances and teacher training curricula and institutions are currently experiencing an enormous change in structure and organization; hence, it would be extremely interesting to see how these changes affect student teachers and, later, in-service teachers educated in these new programs. When looking at the data at hand, several instances that urge for a mixed-method or qualitative study have been voiced throughout the discussion of the findings. For instance, it would be interesting to further investigate differences among the teaching practices of female and male teachers, since the data indicated that there may be a difference observable. Moreover, the correlation between teachers' work place and their respective beliefs on grammar instruction would also invite for further research of a qualitative nature in order to find out more about teachers' reasoning. The fact that teachers from public universities revealed to spend a substantially larger amount of hours on self-study for the subject English similarly

raises interest in a more qualitative investigation, allowing to find out about the reasons for this phenomenon. Lastly, the effect and influence of further training, as well as the implementation of innovation in second language teaching in general proves to be worth considering further, as Waters (2014: 105) has already stressed that more research in this context is necessary.

7. References

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Links to further training program offers for in-service teachers:

- BMBWF – Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft und Forschung. 2017. "AHS Bundesseminare", 21 Nov.
https://bildung.bmbwf.gv.at/schulen/lehr/lfb/ahs_bundesseminare.html (23 Jan. 2018).
- die pädagogische hochschule oberösterreich. n.d. "Unser Fortbildungsangebot 2017/18".
<https://ph-ooe.at/seminaranmeldung.html> (23 Jan. 2018).
- Pädagogische Hochschule Niederösterreich. n.d. "Bildungskatalog".
<https://www.ph-noe.ac.at/de/fortbildung/service/bildungskatalog.html> (23 Jan. 2018)
- Pädagogische Hochschule Wien. n.d. "Fortbildungsangebot".
<https://www.phwien.ac.at/hochschullehrgaenge-fortbildungsangebot/fortbildungsangebot> (23 Jan. 2018)

8. Appendix

8.1. Abstract (English)

The complexity of effective methods in ELT grammar teaching has concerned researchers for several decades now. Despite SLA research being highly invested in this topic area in order to improve and facilitate SLA, the transfer and practical use of those findings remains challenging. Research has shown that there are substantial differences between what is known to be effective in EFL teaching contexts and what is in fact happening in classrooms around the world. In order to generate evidence regarding the practices of Austrian EFL teachers, their beliefs on grammar teaching have been investigated. This online questionnaire study is partially a replication of a study by Graus and Coppen (2016). Their construct used four dichotomous pairs prominent in EFL grammar instruction: meaning-focused versus form-focused instruction, Focus on Form (FonF) versus Focus on Forms (FonFs), implicit versus explicit and inductive versus deductive instruction; additional questions contextualized the topic in Austrian ELT. A total of 103 teachers from NMS, AHS and BHS responded to the questionnaire. The study aimed at confirming the hypothesis that institutional differences of teachers' training programs, as well as their professional development have a statistically significant influence on their beliefs on grammar teaching. While this hypothesis could only be confirmed in part, the data suggests a correlation between teachers' beliefs on grammar instruction and their place of education or rather their working environment. Thus, AHS or BHS teachers reveal a stronger preference of form-focused instruction than NMS teachers, for instance. While the extent of further training does not significantly correlate with participants' beliefs, a statistically significant correlation between graduates from public universities and tertiary colleges and their time spent on self-study can be detected, namely that graduates from public university spend by far more time on self-study than graduates from tertiary colleges. The data suggests that Austrian EFL teachers show a strong tendency towards form-focused, explicit teaching with a leaning towards FonFs. Overall, the study has raised several issues that would require further research, especially research of a qualitative nature.

8.2. Zusammenfassung (Deutsch)

Die Komplexität effektive Methoden für den Grammatikunterricht in Englisch als Fremdsprache zu finden, hat ForscherInnen über die letzten Jahrzehnte hinweg durchwegs beschäftigt. Trotz der intensiven Forschungen und Untersuchungen in diesem Bereich, die sich mit Möglichkeiten der Verbesserung des Zweitsprachenerwerbs, fällt der Transfer und die praktische Anwendung dieser Forschungsergebnisse sehr schwer. Die wissenschaftlichen Untersuchungen haben gezeigt, dass es substantielle Unterschiede zwischen dem nachweislich qualitativ gutem und dem tatsächlich stattfindendem Unterricht gibt. Um eine Impression der Tätigkeiten österreichischer Englischlehrkräfte zu erlangen, wurden deren Überzeugungen und Einstellungen gegenüber dem englischen Grammatikunterricht erforscht. AHS-, BHS- und NMS-Lehrkräfte wurden mittels einem quantitativen Instrument, eines Onlinefragebogens, befragt, welcher zum Teil auf einer bereits existierenden Studie basierte, welche von Graus und Coppen (2016) durchgeführt wurde. Studienteilnehmer/innen sollten ihre Meinung betreffend folgender gegensätzlicher Methodenpaare des Fremdsprachenunterrichts kundtun: meaning-focused versus form-focused instruction, Focus on Form (FonF) versus Focus on Forms (FonFs), impliziter versus expliziter und induktiver versus deduktiver Instruktion. Das Ziel der vorliegenden Studie war es, die Hypothese zu bestätigen, dass eine Korrelation zwischen diesen Tendenzen und institutionellen Unterschieden der Ausbildungsstätten, sowie der professionellen Entwicklung der Lehrpersonen und deren Einstellungen zu Grammatikunterricht besteht. Diese Hypothese konnte nur teilweise bestätigt werden, jedoch findet sich eine statistisch relevante Korrelation zwischen den Einstellungen der Lehrkräfte und deren Arbeitsplatz beziehungsweise deren Ausbildungsstätten. Das Ausmaß an Weiterbildung hatte keinen statistisch relevanten Einfluss auf die Einstellungen der Lehrpersonen, aber es hat sich herausgestellt, dass AbsolventInnenen öffentlicher Universitäten wesentlich mehr Zeit im Selbststudium für das Fach Englisch aufbringen, als AbsolventInnenen Pädagogischer Hochschulen. Im Allgemeinen kann festgehalten werden, dass die Daten darauf hindeuten, dass eine Tendenz zu form-focused und expliziter Instruktion vorherrscht, sowie eine Vorliebe für Focus on Forms. Die vorliegende Studie hat mehrere Fragen aufgeworfen, welche weiterer Forschung, idealerweise qualitativer Natur, bedürfen.

8.3. Further illustrations

Frequency of sources of teachers' knowledge about grammar (if it improved)

	Antworten		Prozent der Fälle
	N	Prozent	
Schulbücher [school books]	47	23,9%	45,6%
Materialaustausch im Kollegium [material exchange with colleagues]	37	18,8%	35,9%
Internet	33	16,8%	32,0%
externe Fort- und Weiterbildungen [external further training]	28	14,2%	27,2%
Es hat sich nicht verändert [it did not change]	26	13,2%	25,2%
Andere [other]	20	10,2%	19,4%
Tagungen [conferences]	5	2,5%	4,9%
Mein grammatikalisches Wissen hat sich verschlechtert [my grammatical knowledge got worse]	1	0,5%	1,0%
Gesamt	197	100,0%	191,3%

a. Dichotomie-Gruppe tabellarisch dargestellt bei Wert 1.

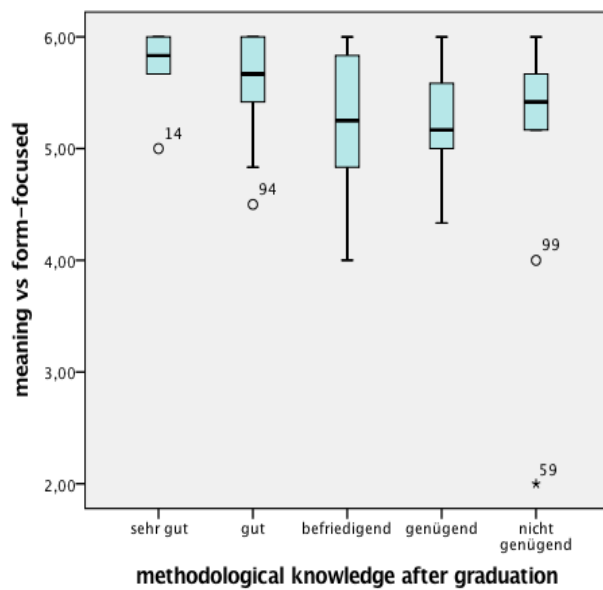
Table 19: Frequency of sources of teachers' knowledge about grammar

Frequency of sources of teachers' methodological knowledge in grammar teaching (if it improved)

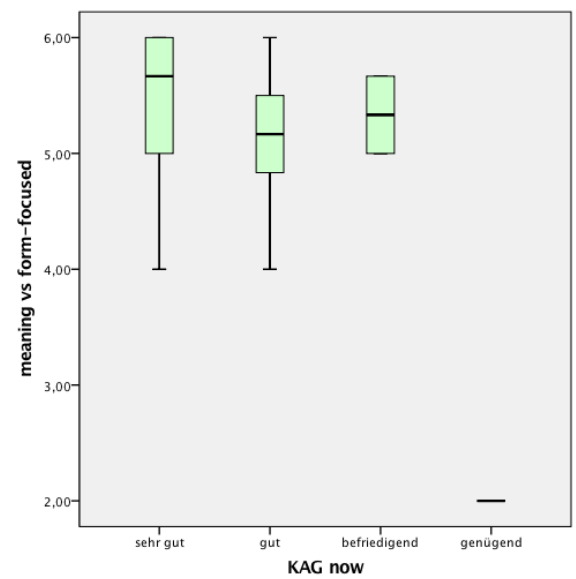
	Antworten		Prozent der Fälle
	N	Prozent	
Materialaustausch im Kollegium [material exchange with colleagues]	46	18,4%	44,7%
Lehrerhandbücher [teacher handbooks]	44	17,6%	42,7%
externe Fort- und Weiterbildungen [external further training]	36	14,4%	35,0%
Schulbücher [school books]	35	14,0%	34,0%
Internet	33	13,2%	32,0%
Es hat sich nicht verändert [it did not change]	27	10,8%	26,2%
Andere [other]	17	6,8%	16,5%
Tagungen [conferences]	11	4,4%	10,7%
Mein Wissen über Methoden des Grammatikunterrichts hat sich verschlechtert [my knowledge about grammar teaching methodology got worse]	1	0,4%	1,0%
Gesamt	250	100,0%	242,7%

a. Dichotomie-Gruppe tabellarisch dargestellt bei Wert 1.

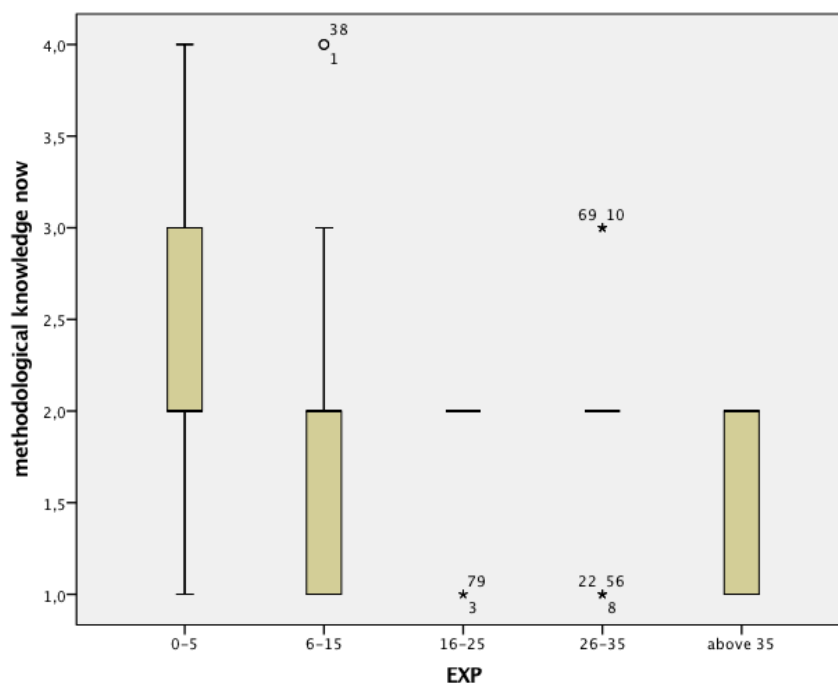
Table 20: Frequency of sources of teachers' methodological knowledge in grammar teaching



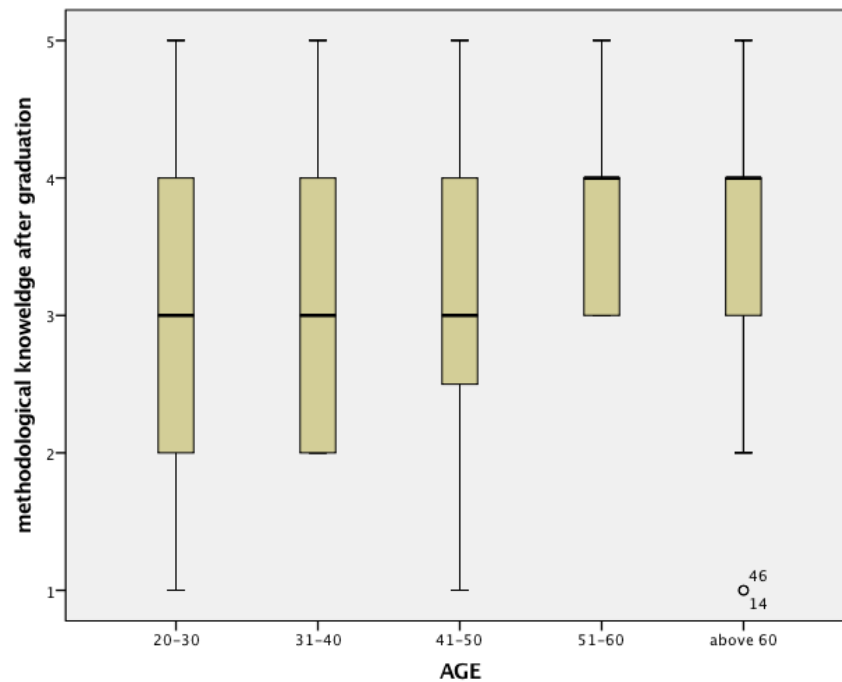
Graph 19: Teachers' self-evaluation of methodological knowledge after graduation in correlation with the construct pair 'MFI vs FFI'



Graph 20: Teachers' self-evaluation of knowledge about grammar now in correlation with the construct pair 'MFI vs FFI'



Graph 21: Teachers' years of teaching experience [EXP] in correlation with their methodological knowledge in grammar teaching now



Graph 22: Teachers' age in correlation with their methodological knowledge in grammar teaching after their graduation

Personal experience of grammar teaching methods during the studies

	Antworten		Prozent der Fälle
	N	Prozent	
Mit SuS ausprobiert [experienced with pupils]	37	28,5%	35,9%
Keines [none]	29	22,3%	28,2%
Selbst in der Rolle der SuS ausprobiert [experienced in the role of a pupil]	23	17,7%	22,3%
Ich weiß es nicht (mehr) [I don't know (anymore)]	21	16,2%	20,4%
Mit StudienkollegInnen in der Rolle der SuS ausprobiert [experienced with fellow students acting in the role of pupils]	16	12,3%	15,5%
Andere	4	3,1%	3,9%
Gesamt	130	100,0%	126,2%

a. Dichotomie-Gruppe tabellarisch dargestellt bei Wert 1.

Table 21: Personal experience of grammar teaching methods during teachers' studies

8.4. Questionnaire

8.4.1. Replication study – Part 1 of the questionnaire

This is the original order, for the purpose of the study statements have been mixed, meaning that the participants had 3 pages with each 8 statements. The first page had all statements number 1 and 4, the second page had statements number 2 and 5, and the third page had statements number 3 and 6.

	Meiner Meinung nach...
MF1	sollte Grammatik Teil des Englischunterrichts sein
MF2	sollte die englische Grammatik in Schulbüchern behandelt werden
MF3	sollten Lehrpersonen im Englischunterricht Grammatik Aufmerksamkeit schenken
MF4	ist es nicht notwendig im Englischunterricht Grammatik zu besprechen; der Fokus sollte lediglich auf das Erlernen von Kommunikation gerichtet sein
MF5	sollte der Fokus des Englischunterrichts lediglich am Erlangen von Kommunikationsfähigkeiten liegen (ohne dabei jegliche Grammatik zu unterrichten)
MF6	sollte die englische Grammatik nicht in den Schulbüchern besprochen werden
FS1	sollte Grammatik eine zentrale Rolle im Englischunterricht einnehmen
FS2	sollten Schulbücher systematisch alle grammatikalischen Komponenten abhandeln
FS3	sollten Lehrpersonen Grammatik als ein eigenes Thema innerhalb der Stunde besprechen
FS4	sollten Lehrpersonen grammatikalische Inhalte nur dann besprechen, wenn die Schülerinnen und Schüler damit auf Schwierigkeiten stoßen
FS5	sollten Lehrpersonen die grammatikalischen Regeln nicht erklären, wenn die Schülerinnen und Schüler keine Fehler in der Anwendung der jeweiligen grammatikalischen Struktur machen
FS6	ist das Lehren einer grammatikalischen Struktur nur dann nützlich, wenn die Schülerinnen und Schüler Fehler in ihrer Anwendung machen
IE1	sollte die Lehrperson, wenn sie Grammatik unterrichtet, die Grammatikregeln explizit erklären
IE2	sind klar definierte Grammatikregeln notwendig um Grammatik zu meistern
IE3	haben explizite Grammatikregeln eine entscheidende Bedeutung im Prozess des Erlernens von Grammatik

IE4	ist die beste Art Grammatik zu unterrichten, die neue grammatikalische Form den Schülerinnen und Schüler mit vielen Beispielen zu präsentieren, ohne dabei die Regel hinter diesen Beispielen zu erklären
IE5	ist der beste Weg für Schülerinnen und Schüler Grammatik zu erwerben, sich mit Beispielsätzen auseinander zu setzen (ohne die Regel)
IE6	lernen Schülerinnen und Schüler Grammatik automatisch, wenn sie viele Beispiele einer grammatikalischen Form verarbeiten (ohne die Regel)
ID1	sollte die Lehrperson die Grammatikregel formulieren anstatt sie den Schülerinnen und Schülern selbst herausfinden zu lassen
ID2	ist es besser, wenn die Lehrpersonen Grammatikregeln erklären, anstatt sie den Schülerinnen und Schülern selbst herleiten zu lassen
ID3	ist es effektiver den Schülerinnen und Schülern Grammatikregeln zu vermitteln, als sie sie selbst entdecken zu lassen
ID4	ist es besser, Schülerinnen und Schüler anhand einer Auswahl an Beispielen die Grammatikregel herleiten zu lassen, anstatt sie sofort preiszugeben
ID5	ist es eine bessere Art Grammatik zu unterrichten, wenn man Schülerinnen und Schüler Grammatikregeln entdecken lässt, anstatt sie ihnen zu präsentieren
ID6	ist es besser, die Schülerinnen und Schüler Grammatikregeln herausfinden zu lassen, als wenn die Lehrperson diese selbst präsentiert

8.4.1.1. English translation of replication study

	In my opinion...
MF1	grammar should be part of English class
MF2	English grammar should be addressed in course books
MF3	teachers should pay attention to grammar in English class
MF4	in English class, it is not necessary to discuss grammar; the focus should only be on learning how to communicate
MF5	the focus of English lessons should lie solely on learning how to communicate (without grammar teaching)
MF6	English grammar should not be discussed in course books
FS1	grammar should occupy a central position in English class
FS2	coursebooks should systematically deal with all grammar features
FS3	teachers should deal with grammar as a separate topic of the lesson

FS4	teachers should only pay attention to a grammar feature if pupils experience difficulties with it
FS5	if pupils do not make any mistakes in a particular grammar feature, teachers should not explain the underlying rule
FS6	teaching a grammatical item is only useful if learners make mistakes in it
IE1	when teaching grammar, a teacher must discuss explicit grammar rules
IE2	clearly defined grammar rules are a necessity for mastering grammar
IE3	explicit grammar rules are of crucial importance for pupils to learn grammar
IE4	the best type of grammar instruction is presenting learners with many examples of the structure in question without discussing the underlying rule
IE5	the best way for pupils to master grammar is by studying sample sentences (without the rule)
IE6	pupils acquire grammar automatically by processing many examples of a grammatical structure (without the rule)
ID1	a teacher should present a grammar rule instead of having pupils discover it for themselves
ID2	it is better for teachers to explain a grammar rule than to let pupils derive it from examples
ID3	it is more effective to give students a rule than to have them discover it from examples
ID4	it is better to let pupils derive a rule from a set of examples than to give them the rule up front
ID5	having pupils discover a rule from examples is a better way of teaching grammar than presenting a rule
ID6	asking learners to discover a rule is a better way of teaching grammar than when teachers present rules themselves

8.4.2. Part 2 and 3 of the questionnaire

FA	Welche Faktoren haben Ihrer Meinung nach am stärksten zu Ihren Überzeugungen im Hinblick auf Grammatikunterricht beigetragen? Bitte wählen Sie die 3 wichtigsten Faktoren (weniger als 3 zu wählen ist ebenfalls erlaubt) ☐ meine eigenen Lehrpersonen in meiner Schulzeit ☐ mein Studium ☐ meine StudienkollegInnen ☐ Erwartungen meiner SchülerInnen ☐ professionelle Journals ☐ Tagungen ☐ Fort- und Weiterbildungen ☐ Arbeitserfahrung ☐ KollegInnen (Englisch-Lehrpersonen) ☐ Andere:
----	--

MK	Hatten Sie während Ihres Studiums Kurse, die sich auf die Methodik im Grammatikunterricht spezialisierten? (Bitte unterscheiden Sie zwischen Fachdidaktikkursen, welche Aspekte des Grammatikunterrichts vereinzelt aufgreifen, und spezifischen Kursen, welche sich auf das Unterrichten von Grammatik spezialisieren.) ☐ spezifischer Kurs für Grammatikunterricht ☐ allgemeiner Fachdidaktikkurs ☐ Beides ☐ Keines
AU	Hatten Sie während Ihres Studiums die Möglichkeit verschiedene Methoden des Grammatikunterrichts mit Schülerinnen und Schülern (SuS) zu testen oder konnten Sie verschiedene Methoden selbst erleben in der Rolle des Lernalers? ☐ Mit SuS ausprobiert ☐ Mit Kommilitonen in der Rolle der SuS ausprobiert ☐ selbst in der Rolle der SuS ausprobiert ☐ Keines ☐ Ich weiß es nicht (mehr) ☐ Andere:
EX	Hatten Sie während Ihres Studiums Kurse oder Vorlesungen, in denen Sie sich explizit mit der englischen Grammatik und ihren Funktionen auseinandergesetzt haben? ☐ Ja ☐ Nein ☐ Ich weiß es nicht (mehr)
AN	Konnten Sie dieses Wissen in späterer Folge im Unterricht anwenden? ☐ Einen kleinen Teil davon ☐ Ja, alles ☐ Nein, gar nichts ☐ Einen großen Teil davon
EGS	Als Sie Ihr Studium abgeschlossen haben, hatten Sie ausreichend Wissen über die englische Grammatik um sie Ihren SuS spontan zu erklären (z.B.: Funktionen, Regeln, Verwendungen)? Bitte bewerten Sie Ihr Wissen über englische Grammatik, zum Zeitpunkt Ihres Studienabschlusses, mit dem Schulnotensystem: ☐ 1 (sehr gut) ☐ 2 (gut) ☐ 3 (befriedigend) ☐ 4 (genügend) ☐ 5 (nicht genügend)
EGJ	Wie bewerten Sie Ihr grammatikalisches Wissen zum jetzigen Zeitpunkt? ☐ 1 (sehr gut) ☐ 2 (gut)

	☐ 3 (befriedigend) ☐ 4 (genügend) ☐ 5 (nicht genügend)
ING	Wenn Sie bei den vorhergehenden zwei Fragen unterschiedliche Bewertungen angegeben haben, so erläutern Sie bitte woher Sie Informationen bezogen haben um Ihr Wissen zu verbessern. ☐ Mein Wissen hat sich verschlechtert. ☐ Es hat sich nicht verändert ☐ externe Weiterbildungen und Fortbildungen ☐ Schulbücher ☐ Materialaustausch im Kollegium ☐ Internet ☐ Tagungen ☐ Andere:
WMS	Als Sie Ihr Studium abgeschlossen haben, hatten Sie ausreichend Wissen über die verschiedenen Methoden, wie man Grammatik unterrichten kann? Bitte bewerten Sie Ihr Wissen über die verschiedenen Methoden des Grammatikunterrichts, zum Zeitpunkt Ihres Studienabschlusses, mit dem Schulnotensystem: ☐ 1 (sehr gut) ☐ 2 (gut) ☐ 3 (befriedigend) ☐ 4 (genügend) ☐ 5 (nicht genügend)
WMJ	Wie bewerten Sie Ihr Wissen über die Methoden im Grammatikunterricht zum jetzigen Zeitpunkt? ☐ 1 (sehr gut) ☐ 2 (gut) ☐ 3 (befriedigend) ☐ 4 (genügend) ☐ 5 (nicht genügend)
INM	Wenn Sie bei den vorhergehenden zwei Fragen unterschiedliche Bewertungen angegeben haben, so erläutern Sie bitte, woher Sie Informationen bezogen haben um Ihr Wissen zu verbessern. ☐ Es hat sich nicht verändert ☐ Mein Wissen hat sich verschlechtert. ☐ externe Weiterbildungen und Fortbildungen ☐ Schulbücher ☐ Lehrerhandbücher zum Grammatikunterricht ☐ Materialaustausch im Kollegium ☐ Internet ☐ Tagungen ☐ Andere:
FG	Haben Sie Freude am Grammatikunterricht in Englisch?

	☐ Ja, ich finde es spannend ☐ Manchmal ☐ Kaum ☐ Nein, es langweilt mich
UG	Fühlen Sie sich oder haben Sie sich bereits einmal unsicher gefühlt im Grammatikunterricht (plötzliche Fragen der SuS, Erklärungsnot, etc.)? ☐ immer ☐ nur am Anfang meiner Karriere ☐ ja im Moment fühle ich mich unsicher, wenn SuS mir Fragen stellen zu Grammatik ☐ nie
WEE WES	Die folgenden 2 Fragen beschäftigen sich nun mit Fortbildungen, welche nach Ihrem Studienabschluss stattgefunden haben. Sollten Sie keine absolviert haben, so schreiben Sie bitte 0 in die Kästchen. Der Fragebogen ist anonym und Ihre Antworten dienen ausschließlich wissenschaftlichen Zwecken, deshalb bitte ich Sie diese Fragen ehrlich zu beantworten. Wie viele Stunden bringen Sie durchschnittlich pro Jahr für Weiterbildungen, für das Fach Englisch auf? Teilen Sie diese Stunden bitte in externe Seminare (PH, Kurse, Tagungen, etc.) und Eigenstudium (Journals, Lehrerhandbücher, etc.). _____h - externe Seminare _____h - Eigenstudium
WGE WGS	Wie viele Stunden bringen Sie durchschnittlich pro Jahr für Weiterbildungen, mit dem Fokus auf den englischen Grammatikunterricht, auf? Teilen Sie diese Stunden bitte in externe Seminare (PH, Kurse, Tagungen, etc.) und Eigenstudium (Journals, Lehrerhandbücher, etc.). _____h - externe Seminare _____h - Eigenstudium
WJ	Wenn ja, nennen Sie bitte, welche Art der Weiterbildung Sie in Anspruch genommen haben: ☐ Ich habe "nein" gesagt und keine Weiterbildung in Anspruch genommen ☐ PH Kurse ☐ Tagungen ☐ Kurse in Englisch-sprachigen Ländern ☐ Journals ☐ Lehrerhandbücher ☐ Andere:
WN	Wenn nein, bitte wählen Sie einen Grund, weshalb Sie keine Fortbildungen zum Thema Grammatikunterricht in Anspruch genommen haben: ☐ Ich habe "ja" gesagt und eine Weiterbildung in Anspruch genommen ☐ Kein Interesse ☐ Kein Angebot ☐ Keine Zeit

	☐ Keine Finanzierung möglich ☐ Andere:
JO	Lesen Sie oder haben Sie regelmäßig ein ELT (English Language Teaching) Journal gelesen? ☐ Ja ☐ Nein
WJA	Wenn ja, nennen Sie bitte, welche Journals Sie lesen: ☐ TESOL Journal ☐ ET professional ☐ English Teaching Forum ☐ Essential Teaching Journal ☐ Language Teaching ☐ Andere:
ANW	Wenn Sie wissenschaftliche Artikel in diesen Journals lesen, können Sie die Ergebnisse der Forschung im Unterricht anwenden? ☐ immer ☐ manchmal ☐ kaum ☐ nie
WNE	Wenn Sie angegeben haben, dass Sie keine ELT Journals lesen, wählen Sie bitte einen Grund dafür: ☐ Kein Interesse ☐ Zu praxisferner Inhalt ☐ Keine Zeit ☐ Keine Finanzierung möglich ☐ Keine Zugriffsmöglichkeiten ☐ Andere:
LB	Kennens Sie eines oder mehrere der Lehrerhandbücher für Grammatik von Ur, Thornbury, Scrivener, Nassaji & Fotos, Swan, Keck & Kim or Newby? ☐ Ja ☐ Nein
VLB	Verwenden Sie eines oder mehrere dieser unterstützenden Lehrerhandbücher im Englischunterricht? ☐ Ja ☐ Nein

Demographic information

UNI	Wo haben Sie Ihre Ausbildung zur Englischlehrkraft absolviert: ☐ Universität Wien ☐ Universität Salzburg
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	☐ Universität Graz ☐ Universität Innsbruck ☐ Universität Klagenfurt ☐ PH Niederösterreich ☐ PH Oberösterreich ☐ PH Wien ☐ PH Steiermark ☐ PH Burgenland ☐ PH Kärnten ☐ PH Salzburg ☐ PH Vorarlberg ☐ PH Tirol ☐ KPH Graz ☐ KPH Tirol ☐ KPH Salzburg ☐ KPH Linz ☐ KPH Wien/Krems ☐ KPH Kärnten ☐ Andere:
AB	Wann haben Sie Ihre Ausbildung abgeschlossen? Bitte nennen Sie lediglich das Jahr Ihres Abschlusses: _____
EXP	Wie viele Jahre unterrichten Sie bereits in einer österreichischen NMS/AHS/BHS? Bitte schreiben Sie lediglich ganze Zahlen: _____ Jahre
SF	In welcher Schulform unterrichten Sie jetzt? ☐ NMS ☐ AHS ☐ BHS
AGE	Wie alt sind Sie? _____ Jahre
SEX	Bitte wählen Sie Ihr Geschlecht aus: ☐ weiblich ☐ männlich ☐ ich möchte diese Frage nicht beantworten
SAB	Bitte nennen Sie ihren höchsten Schulabschluss: ☐ BEd ☐ MEd ☐ Magister/Magistra ☐ PhD

	☐ Dipl.-Päd. ☐ Allgemeine Reifeprüfung ☐ Andere:
AF	Liebe/r Studienteilnehmer/in, Das Thema „Grammatikunterricht im Englischunterricht“ liegt mir sehr am Herzen und daher würde ich mich sehr freuen, wenn Sie mir Ihre Meinung dazu in ein paar Sätzen mitteilen. Wie erleben Sie den Grammatikunterricht? Bitte schreiben Sie einfach Ihre Gedanken in das untenstehende Kästchen, ich freue mich über Ihre persönlich Meinung, sofern Sie diese kundtun möchten.

Herzlichen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme!

8.5. Correlations

	IDM			IEM			FSM			MFM			SAB		
	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
IDM				,410**	,000	103	,211*	,032	103	-,084	,400	103	,181	,073	99
IEM	,410**	,000	103				,452**	,000	103	,441**	,000	103	,073	,474	99
FSM	,211*	,032	103	,452**	,000	103				,451**	,000	103	-,003	,979	99
MFM	-,084	,400	103	,441**	,000	103	,451**	,000	103				-,050	,622	99
SAB	,181	,073	99	,073	,474	99	-,003	,979	99	-,050	,622	99			
SEX	,205*	,038	103	-,061	,540	103	-,014	,888	103	-,103	,301	103	,087	,393	99
AGE	,245*	,013	103	,160	,107	103	-,148	,136	103	-,158	,110	103	,069	,496	99
SF	,350**	,000	103	-,064	,523	103	-,010	,921	103	-,368**	,000	103	,023	,820	99
EXP	,251*	,010	103	,225*	,022	103	-,094	,345	103	-,081	,414	103	,157	,122	99
AB	-,232*	,018	103	-,185	,061	103	,113	,257	103	,150	,131	103	-,123	,227	99
UNIPH	,262**	,008	103	-,028	,777	103	-,019	,851	103	-,385**	,000	103	-,032	,755	99
UNI	,262**	,007	103	-,071	,477	103	,024	,812	103	-,339**	,000	103	-,039	,702	99
Verwendung von Lehrerhandbüchern	,163	,099	103	,156	,115	103	,070	,481	103	,049	,621	103	-,075	,463	99
Kenntnisse über Lehrerhandbüchern	,063	,527	103	-,024	,813	103	-,132	,183	103	-,146	,140	103	-,120	,238	99
ANW	,164	,318	39	,102	,537	39	-,085	,605	39	,000	1,000	39	,029	,860	38

	IDM			IEM			FSM			MFM			SAB		
	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
JO	,029	,769	103	,068	,496	103	-,072	,468	103	,011	,913	103	,070	,490	99
WGS	,024	,807	103	,053	,594	103	,105	,292	103	,130	,189	103	-,014	,892	99
WGE	-,013	,895	103	-,034	,732	103	,048	,631	103	-,023	,814	103	-,026	,796	99
WES	-,014	,887	103	,006	,952	103	-,041	,683	103	,165	,097	103	,034	,737	99
WEE	-,062	,531	103	,050	,614	103	,085	,394	103	,207*	,036	103	-,148	,145	99
UG	,048	,627	103	,124	,212	103	,047	,637	103	,108	,279	103	-,081	,423	99
FG	,091	,361	103	-,312**	,001	103	-,272**	,005	103	-,298**	,002	103	-,050	,624	99
WMIJ	-,002	,985	103	,009	,930	103	-,111	,265	103	-,065	,513	103	-,116	,252	99
WMS	-,080	,422	103	-,072	,469	103	-,055	,584	103	-,236*	,017	103	-,012	,908	99
EGJ	,114	,253	103	-,071	,478	103	-,127	,199	103	-,340**	,000	103	,043	,671	99
EGS	,089	,370	103	,040	,690	103	-,078	,433	103	-,173	,080	103	,142	,162	99
AN	,131	,188	103	,055	,583	103	-,008	,939	103	,006	,953	103	,076	,452	99
EX	-,192	,052	103	,009	,930	103	-,166	,094	103	,002	,982	103	-,076	,455	99
MK	-,037	,710	103	,054	,589	103	-,072	,472	103	-,050	,614	103	,061	,549	99

	SEX			AGE			SF			EXP			AB		
	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
IDM	,205*	,038	103	,245*	,013	103	,350**	,000	103	,251*	,010	103	-,232*	,018	103
IEM	-,061	,540	103	,160	,107	103	-,064	,523	103	,225*	,022	103	-,185	,061	103
FSM	-,014	,888	103	-,148	,136	103	-,010	,921	103	-,094	,345	103	,113	,257	103
MFm	-,103	,301	103	-,158	,110	103	-,368**	,000	103	-,081	,414	103	,150	,131	103
SAB	,087	,393	99	,069	,496	99	,023	,820	99	,157	,122	99	-,123	,227	99
SEX				,030	,764	103	,072	,473	103	,019	,848	103	-,063	,527	103
AGE	,030	,764	103				,057	,570	103	,905**	,000	103	-,895**	,000	103
SF	,072	,473	103	,057	,570	103				,008	,934	103	-,035	,726	103
EXP	,019	,848	103	,905**	,000	103	,008	,934	103				-,936**	,000	103
AB	-,063	,527	103	-,895**	,000	103	-,035	,726	103	-,936**	,000	103			
UNIPH	,055	,584	103	,104	,297	103	,765**	,000	103	,018	,856	103	-,076	,448	103
UNI	,072	,467	103	,027	,788	103	,718**	,000	103	-,054	,585	103	-,020	,844	103
Verwendung von Lehrerhandbüchern	,007	,945	103	-,007	,944	103	,151	,129	103	-,050	,614	103	,057	,570	103
Kenntnisse über Lehrerhandbüchern	,048	,629	103	,055	,583	103	,182	,066	103	,072	,473	103	-,067	,501	103
ANW	,032	,846	39	,333*	,038	39	-,109	,510	39	,282	,082	39	-,280	,084	39

	SEX			AGE			SF			EXP			AB		
	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
JO	,091	,359	103	-,147	,138	103	-,012	,908	103	-,197*	,047	103	,164	,097	103
WGS	-,078	,436	103	-,224*	,023	103	-,128	,198	103	-,212*	,032	103	,221*	,025	103
WGE	,042	,673	103	,038	,703	103	-,112	,260	103	,062	,534	103	-,083	,404	103
WES	-,105	,290	103	,051	,611	103	-,198*	,045	103	,053	,594	103	-,064	,520	103
WEE	-,098	,326	103	,000	,998	103	-,278**	,004	103	,036	,719	103	-,038	,705	103
UG	,264**	,007	103	,099	,320	103	,063	,526	103	,069	,490	103	-,063	,530	103
FG	,138	,163	103	-,118	,236	103	,064	,524	103	-,169	,089	103	,138	,165	103
WMLJ	-,038	,701	103	-,205*	,038	103	,074	,455	103	-,286**	,003	103	,240*	,015	103
WMS	-,138	,165	103	,244*	,013	103	,004	,967	103	,181	,067	103	-,221*	,025	103
EGJ	,161	,103	103	-,173	,080	103	,059	,554	103	-,212*	,032	103	,100	,314	103
EGS	-,021	,832	103	-,075	,452	103	-,136	,172	103	-,084	,399	103	,069	,491	103
AN	,051	,606	103	,079	,426	103	,157	,114	103	,033	,743	103	-,035	,725	103
EX	-,104	,294	103	,119	,231	103	-,094	,343	103	,100	,315	103	-,125	,210	103
MK	-,003	,979	103	,255**	,009	103	-,172	,082	103	,272**	,005	103	-,278**	,004	103

	UNIPH			UNI			Verwendung von Lehrerhandbüchern			Kenntnisse über Lehrerhandbüchern			ANW		
	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
IDM	,262**	,008	103	,262**	,007	103	,163	,099	103	,063	,527	103	,164	,318	39
IEM	-,028	,777	103	-,071	,477	103	,156	,115	103	-,024	,813	103	,102	,537	39
FSM	-,019	,851	103	,024	,812	103	,070	,481	103	-,132	,183	103	-,085	,605	39
MEM	-,385**	,000	103	-,339**	,000	103	,049	,621	103	-,146	,140	103	,000	1,000	39
SAB	-,032	,755	99	-,039	,702	99	-,075	,463	99	-,120	,238	99	,029	,860	38
SEX	,055	,584	103	,072	,467	103	,007	,945	103	,048	,629	103	,032	,846	39
AGE	,104	,297	103	,027	,788	103	-,007	,944	103	,055	,583	103	,333*	,038	39
SF	,765**	,000	103	,718**	,000	103	,151	,129	103	,182	,066	103	-,109	,510	39
EXP	,018	,856	103	-,054	,585	103	-,050	,614	103	,072	,473	103	,282	,082	39
AB	-,076	,448	103	-,020	,844	103	,057	,570	103	-,067	,501	103	-,280	,084	39
UNIPH				,844**	,000	103	,134	,178	103	,231*	,019	103	-,298	,065	39
UNI	,844**	,000	103				,052	,602	103	,189	,056	103	-,286	,078	39
Verwendung von Lehrerhandbüchern	,134	,178	103	,052	,602	103				,411**	,000	103	,251	,123	39
Kenntnisse über Lehrerhandbüchern	,231*	,019	103	,189	,056	103	,411**	,000	103				-,072	,663	39
ANW	-,298	,065	39	-,286	,078	39	,251	,123	39	-,072	,663	39			

	UNIPH			UNI			Verwendung von Lehrerhandbüchern			Kenntnisse über Lehrerhandbüchern			ANW		
	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
JO	,019	,849	103	-,058	,563	103	,203*	,040	103	,065	,514	103	.	.	39
WGS	-,087	,384	103	-,005	,962	103	-,002	,984	103	-,131	,187	103	-,326*	,043	39
WGE	-,053	,592	103	-,038	,704	103	,073	,464	103	-,040	,686	103	-,223	,172	39
WES	-,245*	,013	103	-,226*	,022	103	,010	,916	103	-,048	,630	103	-,131	,427	39
WEE	-,397**	,000	103	-,317**	,001	103	,062	,536	103	-,021	,835	103	-,034	,837	39
UG	,039	,699	103	-,021	,834	103	,018	,853	103	,055	,580	103	,117	,477	39
FG	-,053	,595	103	-,137	,169	103	,115	,249	103	,079	,425	103	,340*	,034	39
WMJ	,023	,818	103	,082	,408	103	,077	,441	103	,052	,602	103	-,132	,422	39
WMS	,013	,895	103	,047	,637	103	,038	,704	103	,032	,748	103	-,018	,915	39
EGJ	,081	,416	103	,128	,198	103	,094	,347	103	-,084	,396	103	-,141	,393	39
EGS	-,122	,218	103	-,078	,434	103	,015	,880	103	-,120	,227	103	,117	,476	39
AN	,140	,157	103	,158	,110	103	-,055	,581	103	,150	,131	103	-,113	,492	39
EX	-,061	,541	103	-,093	,350	103	-,185	,062	103	,030	,766	103	,097	,556	39
MK	-,061	,543	103	-,062	,531	103	-,010	,924	103	,185	,062	103	,018	,914	39

	JO			WGS			WGE			WES			WEE		
	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
IDM	,029	,769	103	,024	,807	103	-,013	,895	103	-,014	,887	103	-,062	,531	103
ITEM	,068	,496	103	,053	,594	103	-,034	,732	103	,006	,952	103	,050	,614	103
FSM	-,072	,468	103	,105	,292	103	,048	,631	103	-,041	,683	103	,085	,394	103
MFM	,011	,913	103	,130	,189	103	-,023	,814	103	,165	,097	103	,207*	,036	103
SAB	,070	,490	99	-,014	,892	99	-,026	,796	99	,034	,737	99	-,148	,145	99
SEX	,091	,359	103	-,078	,436	103	,042	,673	103	-,105	,290	103	-,098	,326	103
AGE	-,147	,138	103	-,224*	,023	103	,038	,703	103	,051	,611	103	,000	,998	103
SF	-,012	,908	103	-,128	,198	103	-,112	,260	103	-,198*	,045	103	-,278**	,004	103
EXP	-,197*	,047	103	-,212*	,032	103	,062	,534	103	,053	,594	103	,036	,719	103
AB	,164	,097	103	,221*	,025	103	-,083	,404	103	-,064	,520	103	-,038	,705	103
UNIPH	,019	,849	103	-,087	,384	103	-,053	,592	103	-,245*	,013	103	-,397**	,000	103
UNI	-,058	,563	103	-,005	,962	103	-,038	,704	103	-,226*	,022	103	-,317**	,001	103
Verwendung von Lehrerhandbüchern	,203*	,040	103	-,002	,984	103	,073	,464	103	,010	,916	103	,062	,536	103
Kenntnisse über Lehrerhandbüchern	,065	,514	103	-,131	,187	103	-,040	,686	103	-,048	,630	103	-,021	,835	103
ANW	.	.	39	-,326*	,043	39	-,223	,172	39	-,131	,427	39	-,034	,837	39

	JO			WGS			WGE			WES			WEE		
	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
JO				-,079	,429	103	-,099	,322	103	,056	,576	103	,014	,887	103
WGS	-,079	,429	103				,549**	,000	103	,549**	,000	103	,292**	,003	103
WGE	-,099	,322	103	,549**	,000	103				,356**	,000	103	,356**	,000	103
WES	,056	,576	103	,590**	,000	103	,356**	,000	103				,382**	,000	103
WEE	,014	,887	103	,292**	,003	103	,499**	,000	103	,382**	,000	103			
UG	,076	,448	103	-,110	,268	103	-,016	,875	103	-,014	,885	103	-,029	,771	103
FG	,196*	,047	103	-,128	,196	103	-,108	,277	103	-,012	,901	103	,010	,921	103
WMLJ	,228*	,021	103	,020	,840	103	-,111	,264	103	,077	,440	103	,043	,663	103
WMS	,145	,145	103	,021	,831	103	,027	,788	103	,039	,695	103	,064	,521	103
EGJ	,128	,196	103	,065	,514	103	-,028	,781	103	-,035	,728	103	-,074	,456	103
EGS	-,005	,960	103	,208*	,035	103	,013	,898	103	,105	,290	103	,016	,875	103
AN	-,239*	,015	103	-,045	,649	103	,029	,769	103	,032	,751	103	-,190	,054	103
EX	-,035	,726	103	-,096	,335	103	,006	,953	103	-,069	,492	103	,045	,655	103
MK	-,091	,362	103	-,136	,170	103	,050	,619	103	-,010	,921	103	-,082	,412	103

	UG			FG			WMJ			WMS			EGJ		
	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
IDM	,048	,627	103	,091	,361	103	-,002	,985	103	-,080	,422	103	,114	,253	103
IEM	,124	,212	103	-,312**	,001	103	,009	,930	103	-,072	,469	103	-,071	,478	103
FSM	,047	,637	103	-,272**	,005	103	-,111	,265	103	-,055	,584	103	-,127	,199	103
MFM	,108	,279	103	-,298**	,002	103	-,065	,513	103	-,236*	,017	103	-,340**	,000	103
SAB	-,081	,423	99	-,050	,624	99	-,116	,252	99	-,012	,908	99	,043	,671	99
SEX	,264**	,007	103	,138	,163	103	-,038	,701	103	-,138	,165	103	,161	,103	103
AGE	,099	,320	103	-,118	,236	103	-,205*	,038	103	,244*	,013	103	-,173	,080	103
SF	,063	,526	103	,064	,524	103	,074	,455	103	,004	,967	103	,059	,554	103
EXP	,069	,490	103	-,169	,089	103	-,286**	,003	103	,181	,067	103	-,212*	,032	103
AB	-,063	,530	103	,138	,165	103	,240*	,015	103	-,221*	,025	103	,100	,314	103
UNIPH	,039	,699	103	-,053	,595	103	,023	,818	103	,013	,895	103	,081	,416	103
UNI	-,021	,834	103	-,137	,169	103	,082	,408	103	,047	,637	103	,128	,198	103
Verwendung von Lehrerhandbüchern	,018	,853	103	,115	,249	103	,077	,441	103	,038	,704	103	,094	,347	103
Kenntnisse über Lehrerhandbüchern	,055	,580	103	,079	,425	103	,052	,602	103	,032	,748	103	-,084	,396	103
ANW	,117	,477	39	,340*	,034	39	-,132	,422	39	-,018	,915	39	-,141	,393	39

	UG			FG			WMJ			WMS			EGJ		
	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
JO	,076	,448	103	,196*	,047	103	,228*	,021	103	,145	,145	103	,128	,196	103
WGS	-,110	,268	103	-,128	,196	103	,020	,840	103	,021	,831	103	,065	,514	103
WGE	-,016	,875	103	-,108	,277	103	-,111	,264	103	,027	,788	103	-,028	,781	103
WES	-,014	,885	103	-,012	,901	103	,077	,440	103	,039	,695	103	-,035	,728	103
WEE	-,029	,771	103	,010	,921	103	,043	,663	103	,064	,521	103	-,074	,456	103
UG				-,006	,953	103	-,024	,808	103	-,238*	,016	103	-,201*	,041	103
FG	-,006	,953	103				,095	,340	103	,050	,614	103			
WMJ	-,024	,808	103	,095	,340	103				,305**	,002	103			
WMS	-,238*	,016	103	,050	,614	103	,305**	,002	103				,170	,086	103
EGJ	-,201*	,041	103	,278**	,004	103	,401**	,000	103	,170	,086	103			
EGS	-,426**	,000	103	,156	,116	103	,257**	,009	103	,403**	,000	103	,424**	,000	103
AN	,150	,132	103	-,127	,202	103	-,119	,233	103	-,215*	,030	103	-,081	,416	103
EX	-,127	,200	103	,052	,603	103	,110	,267	103	,351**	,000	103	,025	,801	103
MK	-,067	,502	103	-,156	,115	103	-,005	,963	103	,183	,064	103	-,110	,267	103

	EGS			AN			EX			MK		
	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
IDM	,089	,370	103	,131	,188	103	-,192	,052	103	-,037	,710	103
ITEM	,040	,690	103	,055	,583	103	,009	,930	103	,054	,589	103
FSM	-,078	,433	103	-,008	,939	103	-,166	,094	103	-,072	,472	103
MEM	-,173	,080	103	,006	,953	103	,002	,982	103	-,050	,614	103
SAB	,142	,162	99	,076	,452	99	-,076	,455	99	,061	,549	99
SEX	-,021	,832	103	,051	,606	103	-,104	,294	103	-,003	,979	103
AGE	-,075	,452	103	,079	,426	103	,119	,231	103	,255**	,009	103
SF	-,136	,172	103	,157	,114	103	-,094	,343	103	-,172	,082	103
EXP	-,084	,399	103	,033	,743	103	,100	,315	103	,272**	,005	103
AB	,069	,491	103	-,035	,725	103	-,125	,210	103	-,278**	,004	103
UNIPH	-,122	,218	103	,140	,157	103	-,061	,541	103	-,061	,543	103
UNI	-,078	,434	103	,158	,110	103	-,093	,350	103	-,062	,531	103
Verwendung von Lehrhandbüchern	,015	,880	103	-,055	,581	103	-,185	,062	103	-,010	,924	103
Kenntnisse über Lehrhandbüchern	-,120	,227	103	,150	,131	103	,030	,766	103	,185	,062	103
ANW	,117	,476	39	-,113	,492	39	,097	,556	39	,018	,914	39

	EGS			AN			EX			MK		
	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N	correlation coefficient	Sig. (2- tailed)	N
JO	-,005	,960	103	-,239*	,015	103	-,035	,726	103	-,091	,362	103
WGS	,208*	,035	103	-,045	,649	103	-,096	,335	103	-,136	,170	103
WGE	,013	,898	103	,029	,769	103	,006	,953	103	,050	,619	103
WES	,105	,290	103	,032	,751	103	-,069	,492	103	-,010	,921	103
WEE	,016	,875	103	-,190	,054	103	,045	,655	103	-,082	,412	103
UG	-,426**	,000	103	,150	,132	103	-,127	,200	103	-,067	,502	103
FG	,156	,116	103	-,127	,202	103	,052	,603	103	-,156	,115	103
WMIJ	,257**	,009	103	-,119	,233	103	,110	,267	103	-,005	,963	103
WMS	,403**	,000	103	-,215*	,030	103	,351**	,000	103	,183	,064	103
EGJ	,424**	,000	103	-,081	,416	103	,025	,801	103	-,110	,267	103
EGS				-,126	,205	103	,168	,090	103	,035	,728	103
AN	-,126	,205	103				,036	,721	103	,039	,693	103
EX	,168	,090	103	,036	,721	103				,235*	,017	103
MK	,035	,728	103	,039	,693	103	,235*	,017	103			

8.6. List of Facebook groups

1. Anglistik Wien
2. Diplomand/Diplomandin an der Uni Wien
3. Englisch Lehramt Uni Graz
4. Lehrer/innen Österreich
5. Lehrerin und Lehrer – Traumjob oder Horror?
6. Anglistik/Amerikanistik Graz
7. Pädagogische Hochschule Wien – PH Wien
8. Junge Unterrichtstalente
9. Anglistik/Amerikanistik & Englisch Lehramt IBK
10. Pädagogik Uni Salzburg 2014/2015
11. abenteuer:lehramt
12. Lehrerinnenbildung Uni Wien/2. Abschnitt