BELIEF CONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT: TWO TALES OF NON-NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKING STUDENT TEACHERS IN A TESOL PROGRAMME

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Abstract: This article explores the construction and development of two non-native English speaking student teachers’ beliefs throughout a one-year teaching English to speakers of other languages programme in a university in the United Kingdom. The research used a qualitative case methodology to illuminate individuals’ understanding and perceptions. The study employed three data collection instruments: semi-structured interviews, observation of micro-teaching sessions and student teachers’ written reflections on their teaching. Data analysis focused on how beliefs developed within five dimensions of belief, namely, subject matter, learning, teaching, learners and the teacher. The study suggests that teacher education programmes shape and develop pre-service teachers’ beliefs. A major contribution of this study is to argue that the development of student teachers’ beliefs mirrored identity shifts of NNS student teachers in the programme; a finding which has the potential to inform the future design of language teacher education programmes.

Keywords: Pre-Service Teachers, Non-Native Teachers, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, Teachers’ Beliefs, Case Study


Anahtar sözcükler: Öğretmen Adayları, Anadilden Olmayan Öğretmenler, Diğer Dilleri Konuşanlara İngilizcenin Öğretilmesi, Öğretmen İnançları, Durum Çalışması

Introduction

Interest in teacher cognition has constituted a major area of research in general education (Freeman, 2002), as it has become clear that the insights into the ‘thinking process’ of teachers may be significant for teacher education and development, and for curriculum effectiveness. One element of cognition is beliefs, and since 1990s, the importance of teachers’ beliefs has been well-documented in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) research (see e.g., Breen, et al, 2001; Borg, 2006), showing that teachers’ pedagogical beliefs closely influence their instructional practices (Borg, 2003; Ng and Farrell, 2003; Farrell and Kun, 2008), and decision-making in class and classroom interaction (Li, 2008; Li and Walsh, 2011). Over the last 20 years, the development of pre-service teachers’ beliefs has attracted a lot of debate in TESOL research. The literature suggests that students enter TESOL programmes with relatively established pedagogical beliefs, which largely originate from their prior experiences of learning a second language, particularly in secondary schools or formal classrooms (Kern, 1995; Peacock, 1999). This is known as an

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‘apprenticeship of observation’ (Lortie, 1975). These prospective language teachers have many pre-conceived ideas about how languages are learned and how they should be taught, and tend to have their beliefs reinforced—rather than challenging or changing them—during TESOL courses. For example, Peacock (2001) in his longitudinal study showed that teachers’ beliefs changed little in training and teacher education had little effect on the development of teachers’ beliefs. Likewise, M. Borg (2005) concluded that little change in teacher’s beliefs was noted in the context of the CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English Language to Adults). These studies seem to confirm the pessimistic view that ‘preservice programmes are not very powerful interventions’ (Zeichner et al., 1987, p. 28). However, some research has questioned the stability of teachers’ beliefs over time, as Kern (1995) suggested teachers’ beliefs shifted in French instruction courses. Further, Mattheoudakis (2007) found, through a 3-year teacher education programme, that the majority of student teachers’ beliefs did change. These contradictory views might be due to different contexts in which these studies were situated or the validity of the instrument they employed. The studies mentioned above, apart from M. Borg (2005), rely on the questionnaire tool, Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1985), thus the observation is rather subjective in that it merely appeared to be true at face value—no real classroom data or in-depth interview is used to seek individual’s understanding or construction of their beliefs, given that beliefs are constructed or understood individually. Although a variety of methods can be used to study beliefs, current research tends to employ survey to conduct cross-sectional investigation rather than longitudinal research, and a very few qualitative studies exist in the literature. Among the limited qualitative studies, M. Borg (2005) adopted a case study approach with various data collection methods further confirmed that no changes on her trainees during the programme. However, this observation might be due to the limited length of the programme—4 weeks.

In a review of the literature, there are three observations to be made: 1) given the complex nature of beliefs, qualitative studies are needed to depict a fuller picture of individual’s understanding; 2) beliefs are individually constructed and whether we can ‘generalize’ beliefs of a certain group of people is highly questionable; 3) little is known regarding how student teachers’ beliefs develop in a teacher education course over time. These issues are theoretically and pedagogically important as such inquiry might not only contribute to the existing literature with a more comprehensive understanding of how pre-service teachers’ beliefs are developed through TESOL courses, but also improve or inform future teacher education. An issue of particular importance, given that the majority of students studying in Western Master’s TESOL programmes come from EFL contexts, is that there have been few studies focusing on the development of beliefs amongst non-native English speaking (NNS) student teachers (Liu, 1999; Llurda, 2005). Beliefs and perceptions are culturally bound, NNS teachers from different cultural and educational backgrounds cannot be expected to share the same understandings as native speaker teachers. Differences are also to be expected given that a large number of NNS language teachers around the world ‘face different challenges than those teachers whose subject matter is their own first language’ (Bailey et al., 2001, p.111). The lack of attention to this group may not only result in a failure to understand current practice in TESOL, but also to understand and educate overseas students in those countries (Zeng and Murphy, 2007).

With this in mind, the present study focuses on two Chinese student teachers attending a TESOL programme in a UK university, with the aim of gaining insights into the development of teachers’ beliefs in a training course. The two research questions are:

1. What were the student teachers’ beliefs regarding the subject, teaching and learning, teacher and learners roles in classroom at different stages of an MA TESOL
2. Did the student teachers’ beliefs develop during a one-year TESOL programme, if so, how did the ‘structure’ of beliefs change?

**Teachers’ Beliefs**

Beliefs are ‘psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true’ (Richardson, 1996, p. 103). A number of researchers have asserted the importance of studying beliefs, particularly in understanding and predicting behaviours (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Bandura, 1997; Ajzen, 2002). According to Williams and Burden (1997), teachers’ beliefs about language learning ‘affect everything that they do in the classroom’, guiding and prompting classroom actions much more strongly than the use of a particular methodology or course book (pp. 56–57). Breen et al. (2001, pp. 471–472) also outlined four main reasons why studying teachers’ beliefs are important:

1) Identifying the guiding principles that teachers articulate in relation to their classroom work can complement observational studies by enabling research to go beyond description towards an understanding and explanation of teacher actions.
2) Teachers’ beliefs provide a source of experientially based professional ‘know how’ that may serve as a focus both for initial teacher education and to promote reflective practices in ongoing teacher development.
3) Any educational innovation has to be accommodated within a teacher’s own frameworks of teaching principles. Increased awareness of such frameworks in specific contexts can inform curriculum policy and planning in relation to any innovation.
4) Conversely, beliefs may result in the emergence of new teaching principles which produce grounded alternatives to the ‘accepted wisdom’ passed on by methodologists who may be far removed from actual classrooms (Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Pennycook, 1994; Phillipson, 1992).

**Conceptions of Teachers’ Beliefs**

A review of the literature on teachers’ beliefs suggests there are various types of beliefs, consisting of cognitive, affective, subjective and objective dimensions (Richards and Lockhart, 1994), and influenced by various factors, such as schooling, teaching experience (Tsui, 2003), and workplace culture (Sato and Kleinsasser, 2004; Li, 2008). Calderhead (1996) has identified five foci for the study of teachers’ beliefs: subject matter, their beliefs about teaching, learning and learners, the teacher and professional development. Teachers’ beliefs therefore can be understood, investigated and observed as a process in which these components interact (e.g. Li, 2008).

English has different meanings to different people and, therefore, it is instructive to examine the underlying beliefs teachers hold about English and how this may influence attitudes towards English teaching and classroom practice. For example, Richards, Tung and Ng (1992) reveal that English language teachers in Hong Kong whose first language is Chinese believe English to have more grammar rules than Chinese, although they do not think English has a large vocabulary. Such a view is evidenced across international contexts, which results in learning English as the mastery of grammar and language form. For example, Brown (2009) compared 83 students and 49 teachers’ perceptions of effective foreign language teaching in the University of Arizona, suggesting learners value highly the grammar teaching. Li and Walsh (2011), through analysis of classroom discourse, suggest that teachers place a heavy emphasis on language form in Chinese secondary schools. This might also reflect Chinese
understanding of learning as a process which ‘involves mastering a body of knowledge, which is presented by a teacher in chunks small enough to be relatively easily digested’ (Brick, 1991, p. 154). These studies collectively suggest that teachers’ beliefs and practice about language teaching are influenced by what learning is believed to be. In the language classrooms, both teachers and learners are concerned with the end product of learning, that is, learners are expected at an appropriate time, to be able to reproduce knowledge in the same form as it was presented to them.

In a classroom, teachers’ beliefs can also be reflected through views about the role of teacher and learner and the qualities of ‘best’ students and how teachers define their work (Richards, Gallo and Renandya, 2001). Research in the UK and America suggests a perceived good foreign language teacher is the one who can create a good language environment, encourage students to practise and use the language, use appropriate materials and classroom activities (Riddell, 2001). In particular, they should take different roles in teaching, such as organizer, participant, resource, controller and assessor (Harmer, 1983). In a Chinese context, relevant studies suggest that Chinese teachers interpret their roles as providing useful learning experiences, offering a model of correct language use, answering learners’ queries, and correcting their errors (Li, 2008). Similarly, Zhang and Watkins (2007) found that Chinese teachers ‘placed much greater importance on their personal knowledge base and subject knowledge as EFL teachers’ which is consistent with the finding that ‘student still appreciate the traditional cultural values, expecting their teachers intellectually and morally unchallengeable’ (p.787). Undoubtedly, teachers’ understanding of who they are and what responsibility they bear influence what they could do in teaching.

**Sources of Influences on Student Teachers’ Beliefs**

Reviews of teacher cognition suggest that teachers’ beliefs are strongly affected by prior language learning experiences (e.g. Johnson, 1994; Warford and Reeves, 2003). In both general and language teacher education programmes, student teachers use their past experience to interpret the content of teacher education programme (Kagan, 1992; Johnson, 1994). Prior language learning experiences have been considered as the foundation of beginning teachers’ conception of teaching and might exert a considerable effect throughout teachers’ professional life (Peacock, 2001). This is particularly true for NNS student teachers because they are still in the language learning experience (Warford and Reeves, 2003). Apart from prior learning experience, the ongoing debated impact of teacher education on student teachers’ beliefs is well-evidenced in the literature (see, Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000; M. Borg, 2005; da Silva, 2005). For some researchers, TESOL preparation has less impact on trainees than we might expect (Peacock, 2001). Across international contexts, the weight of prior learning experiences and the culture of schooling into which novice teachers are socialized limits the effect of teacher preparation courses, though some argue that trainees can undergo significant changes in cognition (Richards, Ho and Giblin, 1996; Sendan and Roberts, 1998). These different results might be because of the social, cultural and educational contexts, or simply due to the research design as argued earlier. Similarly, practicum experience shaped students’ beliefs (e.g. Johnson, 1996; Farrell, 2001). For example, student teachers’ negative experience in practicum had a powerful influence on their conceptions of language teaching and what it means to be a language teacher (Farrell, 2001). This could be viewed as contextual factors, together with social, institutional, learner and curricular, which can affect the extent to which teachers are able to implement whatever they believe (Burns, 1996; Tsui, 1996; Borg, 2006). Figure 1 illustrates teachers’ beliefs and the different sources that influence their beliefs.
In summary, little is known about the changes trainees undergo during training and research in this area can help teacher educators gain valuable insights into the role of preparation course in shaping and developing pre-service teachers. The present study, by focusing on two NNS Chinese pre-service teachers, attempts to gain access to such insights.

**Context**
This study was carried out during an MA TESOL programme in a UK university. The cohort comprised 12 native speakers and 6 non-native speaker students from China and Taiwan. Some students have more than 20 years’ teaching experience while others have none. Students are learning and sharing in a culturally, linguistically and professionally diverse community.

In the first semester, students are provided with a body of specialized academic knowledge and theory, which typically contains lecture-based courses on language awareness, pedagogy and intercultural communication modules. These components are exclusively theoretical, but students are expected to apply theories in micro-teaching in a group of 4 or 5. The aim of micro-teaching is to develop a repertoire of teaching skills through observing, critically reflecting upon and analysing their and their peers’ teaching, guided by tutors. Student teachers are also expected to attend SLA seminars and workshops. Regarding the practicum in the second term, students are required to conduct teaching practice for 6 weeks in an EFL (English as a foreign language) context. Student teachers are placed in state primary or secondary schools in Hungary and are assigned a particular class. English is a compulsory subject in partner schools and the number of teaching hours varies between 2 and 3 hours per week. Student teachers are expected to follow the curricula but are free to use any textbooks or materials. During the practice, students are expected to critically explore theoretical approaches to language teaching supported by writing framework and adopt appropriate teaching methods. Local mentors might provide them with some critical and formative evaluation while tutors from the TESOL programme visit classes, in particular, to support...
students for improving teaching through reflective practice.

Six students who had no formal teaching experience prior to the course were invited to participate in this project. Liang and Fang volunteered themselves and consent was sought before data were collected. Both of them had just finished their BA degree in English language teaching in China (Table 1). To protect the confidentiality of the participants, their names are pseudonyms.

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<tr>
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<th>Liang</th>
<th>Fang</th>
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<td>Gender</td>
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<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>Six-month teaching in a local summer school to beginners</td>
<td>Four-week teaching practice in a local secondary school</td>
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<td>IELTS score</td>
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Table 1: Participants

**Methods**

This study adopted a qualitative case-study approach. Case study encourages exploration of a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context (Yin, 2009), and it is consistent with participative and socio-cultural views of learning, the current context; it encourages exploration of multiple perspectives using different researching tools, such as interview, observation and diary; it is exploratory, starting with a broad focus and then narrowing in light of data which this study intends to do to understand individual’s experience. Overall, case study suggests itself as the best method as it benefits from ‘providing a rich and vivid description of events with the analysis of them’ (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995, p. 317). The choice of method to study beliefs is further strengthened by the nature of beliefs. Pajares (1992) argues that ‘beliefs cannot be directly observed or measured but must be inferred from what people say, intend, and do--fundamental prerequisites that educational researchers have seldom followed’ (p. 314). He went on to say:

> It is also clear that, if reasonable inferences about beliefs require assessments of what individuals say, intend, and do, then _teachers’ verbal expressions, predispositions to action, and teaching behaviours must all be included_ in assessments of beliefs (my emphasis). Not to do so calls into question the validity of the findings and the value of the study. Traditional belief inventories provide limited information with which to make inferences, and it is at this step in the measurement process that understanding the context-specific nature of beliefs becomes critical. (p. 327)

Based on the above considerations, this study adopts various data sources to provide detailed insights into student teacher’s beliefs.

**Data collection**

This study employed three data collection instruments: semi-structured interviews, videotaped micro-teaching and student teachers’ written reflections on their teaching practice (see Table 2). Although maturing professional teachers are better able to make explicit their implicit theories and beliefs about learners, curriculum, subject matter, and the teachers’ role (Clark and Peterson, 1986), interview was chosen as an appropriate tool as the MA students are constantly required to articulate their theories of teaching in order to understand them, compare them with alternatives and make evaluations. Interview guidelines were specifically
designed for this study and piloted in another programme (see Appendix A for selected interview guidelines). Interviews were carried out 4 times during the one-year programme to track student teacher’ beliefs (Table 2). Each interview was audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim for analysis. Micro-teaching sessions were carried out weekly during the first term, organised as group work. The video-taped first and last two sessions were used to illustrate classroom activities. Micro teaching sessions rather than teaching practice data were used due to ethical issues of recording teaching practice in the partner schools. Development in student teachers’ beliefs was also observed through their written reflection upon their teaching practice. Student teachers were given writing framework for reflection but encouraged to reflect on any aspect of their practicum.

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<th>Timeline</th>
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<td>At the beginning of the</td>
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<td>Interview</td>
<td>Microteaching</td>
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<td>At the end of the first</td>
<td>December</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>Microteaching</td>
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<td>After teaching practice</td>
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<td>Interview</td>
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<td>At the end of the</td>
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Table 2: Data collection

**Data analysis**
To identify beliefs each participant held, why and how these beliefs were formed, qualitative content analysis was adopted to analyse the interview transcripts and student teachers’ written comments. Data analysis went through several stages: data were transcribed, coded, and reduced; themes were displayed; conclusions were drawn. Firstly, data were transcribed verbatim and the transcriptions were sent back to the student teachers to check. Secondly, the development of coding categories involved an iterative process by considering research focus, related literature and exploring the interview data. Informed by belief conceptual framework reviewed in the literature (Figure 1) and the research focus, data were coded with a tentatively predefined set of codes, such as teaching, learning, learners and the teacher, and subject matter. Transcripts were read through several times so that the ‘interesting’ or ‘relevant’ information to research questions was highlighted, selected and coded. The next step is to reduce data by grouping or categorizing coded items according to those aforementioned four concepts of the teachers’ beliefs. In the process of coding and categorizing, a colleague was invited to cross-check and consensus was achieved upon discussion of differences. Computer assisted qualitative data analysis (CAQDA) was employed by using MAXQDA 2. The main reasons for using MAXQDA in data analysis were: 1) it enabled me to interact with my data as much as I can through its easy and interactive design; 2) it supported the interrelationship among the data, code and memo and 3) it enabled me not to prescribe the pre-defined categories in data analysis and be flexible in interpreting data. Selected extracts illustrating findings were translated into English. In relation to microteaching data, classroom data was transcribed fully for analysis. The focus of classroom data was placed on teaching actions and activities rather than discourse features.

**Results**
Data from interviews, micro-teaching and written reflections upon their teaching practice yielded a description of each participant’s belief development. Findings suggest that various
factors including the teacher education programme heavily shape and develop student teachers’ beliefs. In the development of their beliefs, student teachers move through different views of themselves as teachers, negotiating a new identity.

**Liang**

The first interview was conducted in Week 2 of the first term, Liang described English as ‘a system of grammar and vocabulary’, both of which are ‘important yet burdensome’ (Interview 1, Extract 1). What he perceived English to be seemed to be affected by his learning experience, when ‘knowledge was overemphasized’ (Interview 1, Extract 2) by his EFL teachers throughout 12 years of study. Based on this idea, the premise was, teach the structure, and all else will fall into place. He reasoned,

‘As long as one has enough vocabulary and grammar, one will be able to produce the right form naturally when the time is right’. [Interview 1, Extract 3]

He believed knowledge transmission is necessary and rote learning is a good strategy. He demonstrated a successful example of this type of learner, for example, he enriched his vocabulary by memorizing some of the Oxford Advanced Learners’ English-Chinese Dictionary, which apparently helped him achieve a satisfactory result when he took the IELTS exam. He expressed the view that in a classroom a teacher should play a dominant role, as he/she should be responsible for what students can learn and be knowledgeable enough to answer learners’ queries. He explained,

‘A class is like a stage, where a teacher is the main character…so it is the teacher who should control the class, direct students and answer their questions.’ [Interview 1, Extract 4]

In the first videotaped lessons, he spent one third of the time explaining grammar rules and giving examples. This was then followed by many written exercises and checking answers that he viewed as good practice because ‘practice makes perfect’, which reflects a folk theory of implicit learning in his culture. Consider the following excerpt from lesson 2 at the beginning of the lesson:

(For transcription conventions, see Appendix B)

**Excerpt Liang 1**

1 T last week we learned simple past tense simple past future tense in speaking
2 English now let’s make a review you use past tense to describe something
3 happened in the past and simple past future tense to describe something WAS
4 going to happen ok?
5 SS =yes
6 T next we will do a warm up activity practising use the simple past tense now here
7 a report written by Jason and here what this man everyday what he does now and
8 what you need to do is rewrite this report what she what he did last Wednesday
9 ok?

Liang helped students revise grammar from the previous lesson by telling them when to use these two different tenses. It seemed that his practices were in alignment with his stated beliefs: he should be the knowledge provider. He recalled that when he was learning English, he preferred teachers’ explanations and error corrections in class, which helped him quickly remember the rules. From here we can see that his prior learning experience appears to have a strong influence on how he practices his own teaching. Liang made a strong case for ‘drilling’, judged very effective in terms of acquiring language knowledge. In terms of
learner participation, involvement or contribution, he argued that his teaching was very learner-centred, as students were allocated time to complete written exercises and speak. In the excerpt below, for example, Liang was checking answers: he read the passage and prompted students to give answers:

**Excerpt Liang 2**

After 5 minutes

1. T ok ok let’s check answers (.) so last Wednesday CP
2. SS got up=
3. T =at 8 am he: (.)
4. SS walked=
5. T =to a local store to (1.0)
6. SS buy
7. T yes? buy a newspaper?

What is striking here is the fact that students were invited to say the verb forms rather than whole sentences. This again shows what Liang values: that students are able to use the correct verb forms is key of the exercise and students’ involvement and contributions are realized through giving out answers. As a teacher, he also favoured written over oral exercises, as his philosophy was to ‘encourage students to learn ‘deep’ (linguistic) knowledge rather than surface (communicative and interactional) skills’ (Interview 1, Extract 5). Again, this view seemed to originate from his learning experience,

‘My learning experience shows as long as one can produce correct English in writing, one should have no problem with oral communication.’ [Interview 1, Extract 6]

**At the end of the first term**

After three months, Liang still clearly stated that the focus of teaching and learning should be on language systems, including grammar, lexis, pronunciation and discourse.

‘My knowledge of teaching English has expanded… grammar and pronunciation must be very important components in the language system, as the MA course offers separate modules of grammar and pronunciation.’ [Interview 2, Extract 1]

As he was familiar with his ‘learners’, he was convinced that ‘communicative tasks could be useful’ if learners were ‘sensible and self-regulated’ (Interview 2, Extract 2). Consider the following classroom excerpt from his teaching.

**Excerpt Liang 3**

1. T so anybody can give me a key words for valentine’s day?=
2. S1 =love=
3. T =yes love perfect Lucy?=
4. S2 =romance?=
5. T =no not romance love ok? So can anybody give me definition of love? (. ) Luke?
6. S3 (1.8) special feeling in your heart
7. T (0.3) or special feeling in your heart IS the love as the NOUN (2.7) there are
8. many type of [love?]
9. S3 [yeah
10. T like I like I love ice cream? is love for [food?
11. SS [en
12. T I love football you love music I love my family is the love for of as a verb yes?
13. (4.5) so love is a huge word here we (. ) we will go to the next activity it’s called
14. display these statements of love there are fifteen statements of love and I want
15. you to work in groups to decide whether you agree or disagree with these
It was evidenced that he had included student participation, as exemplified in group work activities. However, in his words, these ‘communicative tasks were designed to consolidate the linguistic forms, such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation’ or ‘lead to the next stage of the lesson plan’ (Interview 2, Extract 3). Note that in line 4, Lucy provided a word *romance* relating to Valentine’s Day, he rejected the answer as it was not closely related to the next activity he designed. Likewise, he emphasised the importance of the quantity of teacher talk in class,

‘Since the first day of schooling, teachers kept telling us that a good pupil speaks less and listens more…’ [Interview 2, Extract 4]

This sharply contrasts what he had been learning in the programme and he felt frustrated because of the ‘mixed messages’ from past and current learning experience. However, Liang’s strategies was to use his past experience to interpret current practice, which means, he was trying to connect both theories rather than seeing them conflicting with each other. In this way, he ‘accepted’ student participation as students’ responses and involvement is good indicator of what they have learnt. This was identified by him as a solid opportunity to ‘discover learners’ problems’ so that he could ‘give some corrective feedback in time before the fostering of erroneous concepts and production of wrong utterances’ (Interview 2, Extract 5). In the excerpt below, he showed his guidance to students (line 6).

**Excerpt Liang 4**

1. T ((overheard one group discussion and turned back to join in)) you haven’t followed the request
2. S1 ((to S2 and S3)) yeah
3. S2 love is envy no [it destroy
4. S3 [sometimes not always
5. T you need to say agree or disagree not yes or no=
6. S2 =yeah disagree=
7. S1 =yeah

In a word, he realized the importance of learner involvement, but only as a means to accelerate mastery of linguistic forms or to have some relevance to what he plans to teach. He maintained the same position that the teacher should dominate the class and win respect from students by being knowledgeable, strict and efficacious. He believed that teachers in China and the UK share generic characteristics – ‘to pass on knowledge (either linguistic or cultural), ‘to foster skills (either learning or social), and to respond to students’ questions (either academic or otherwise)’ (Interview 2, Extract 6). He suggested that teachers should take both ‘parental’ and ‘expert’ roles in teaching and learning and highly valued such responsibilities, quoting a well-known saying in China to support his idea: ‘He who teaches you for one day is your father for life’ (Interview 2, Extract 7).
he considered it the most useful and meaningful part of the programme as he felt he had really developed repertoires of teaching.

By observing local teachers’ classes, he concluded that focusing on linguistic aspects of language was more the norm than the exception in an EFL context. He wrote in his diary,

‘My understanding about English language as a system of grammar, pronunciation and lexis (sic) is not sole as teachers here hold the same view. They also focus on grammar and vocabulary, but maybe through more communicative practice…’ [Written comment 1]

He also realised that he should be more learner-centred so that he employed different activities and tasks to suit the local context, without sacrificing a focus on grammar and vocabulary acquisition. As he went along with teaching, he became more certain that this eclectic communicative approach was more effective and appropriate for EFL learners when the target was to foster learners’ linguistic knowledge. By the end of the teaching practice, he shared his new understanding of language teaching,

‘Although I think learning English is mainly learning grammar and vocabulary, I do think we, as teachers, can make the dull learning experience more fun by using different tasks and involving students more.’ [Interview 3, Extract 1]

However, he experienced some confusion in terms of his role, as he was unsure about his relationship with a group of foreign language learners who did not share his L1 and culture. He felt uncomfortable about being strict with students due to lack of mutual cultural values, for instance, he reflected upon correcting students’ errors,

‘In China, a strict teacher produces outstanding students. If I teach Chinese students, I will correct their errors immediately and ask them to practice it until I am sure they master it; but here, I don’t know whether it is appropriate to do that because I don’t want to embarrass them or create tension between us. If they don’t like me, they can be difficult in my classes’. [Written comment 2]

Bearing this thought in mind, he became less teacher-like, but ‘a professional guide in class and a friend after class’ (Interview 3, Extract 2). He came to the conclusion that ‘setting up trusty relationships with students was crucial’ (Written comment 3). In his view, this strategy of breaking down boundaries between teachers and students worked really well. He suggested that cultures play a very important role in determining roles in class. According to Chinese values and culture, a teacher must be strict, but ‘there was apparently no such need’ in the teaching practice context (Interview 3, Extract 3). He emphasised that the local context had shaped and changed his beliefs so that he could achieve the teaching objectives, which suggests social and cultural values continued to be played out through his behaviours.

At the end of the course
Liang expressed that he had gained massively, academically, culturally and socially. Upon reflection of his learning experience, he still believed that learning a language should focus on linguistic aspects, as those are the ‘solid foundation to communicative and pragmatic competence’ (Interview 4, Extract 1). However, his understanding about teaching English had shifted to a more learner-centred approach, as he reflected,
'…it is more theoretically informed by language learning theories (such as task-based learning)'. [Interview 4, Extract 2]

Likewise, he repositioned his understanding of being a teacher, as ‘there was no definite role the teacher should act’ (Interview 4, Extract 3) because it had to be based on local contexts (educational, social and cultural) as well as learners’ age.

There is thus evidence that some of his beliefs were retained and confirmed during the course – for example, beliefs about language and language learning – and some were challenged and adapted – for example, beliefs about teaching, the teacher and learners’ roles.

**Fang**

Starting from her experience of learning English, Fang clearly conveyed the message that English was a system with its own rules (grammar and vocabulary usage). Interestingly, she used a metaphor to describe language,

‘Language is a house, while vocabularies are bricks and grammar is a joist. A solid house must have enough strong bricks and joists. [Interview 1, Extract 1]’

This principle informed her learning and guided her learning strategies. She valued ‘deep learning’, which she described as a mastery of knowledge and systems, while believing in mechanical learning. Having strictly followed these principles and values, she became one of the top students in her class in English. She highlighted the importance of memorization and described ‘drilling as the most effective way to learn a foreign language’ (Interview 1, Extract 2). She believed that ‘the teacher was an absolute expert and students should follow the teacher’s guidance all the way through as they have been there, done that’ (Interview 1, Extract 3). Further, she argued, ‘in China, students will, in accordance with Chinese tradition, always turn to teachers for authority’ [Interview 1, Extract 4]. However, she also believed that students should be responsible for their own learning. Here, she interpreted ‘being responsible’ as ‘hard-working’ and ‘practicing with different workbooks’ (Interview 1, Extract 5). It is evident that her beliefs were largely influenced by her successful learning experience.

The first two video-taped micro-teaching sessions were also about the past tense, of which the first consisting of a PowerPoint presentation of definition and rules and different types of exercises. In Fang’s view, gaining rules and knowledge about the language seems especially important.

**Excerpt Fang 1**

```
1 T so there are two types of verbs regular and irregular (1.5) now we are
2 dealing with regular verbs today (2.0) look at these verbs on powerpoint
3 (2.0) to change to past tense you need to add ed after the verb so the rule
4 is v plus E D (2) you must remember to plus E D after the verb to change it to
5 past tense (.) now let’s look at some other verbs and I want you to give
6 me their past tense.
```

Fang’s extensive turns were evidenced throughout her teaching. She absolutely performed the expert role and student contribution was minimal. In the next session, Fang focused on irregular verbs and their past tense forms.
Excerpt Fang 2
1. T  ok here are some irregular verbs past tense you have to remember them (.)
2. you must learn them by heart as they are irregular and there is no other
3. way to remember them (.) so after class you need to spend some time to
4. learn them by heart

In the classroom data above, Fang attaches great importance to memorizing rules in language learning and rote learning. This was followed by different types of exercise for practice: rewriting a sentence, tense error correction and a quiz of regular and irregular verb tenses. Her inclination to mechanical learning was evidenced. The importance of memorization to learning was reflected in the interview again, ‘students must learn them by heart as there are no clear rules for these irregular verbs’ (Interview 1, Extract 6).

In the above two sessions, Fang’s preference for using grammar terminology in class was obvious and it was closely linked to her view of ‘language being a system of knowledge’ and the quality of ‘being a good and knowledgeable teacher’ (Interview 1, Extract 7). She considered those sessions successful as she could see learning happening, which was interpreted as students’ understanding of the rules of past tense. She interpreted this as ‘teaching students how to fish rather than giving them a fish’ (Interview 1, Extract 8). She elaborated,

‘Teachers’ responsibilities are to teach learners to conduct deep learning. Learning a language is the same as learning other subjects. Only by focusing on its structure and rules, can we learn how to produce grammatical utterances. I believe this will help students to become successful language learners’. [Interview 1, Extract 9]

At the end of the first term
Three months later, Fang proposed the same understanding about concepts of language as her pre-existing belief, although she slightly changed her position by claiming that ‘language represents a culture, identity and social values’ (Interview 2, Extract 1). Likewise, she shifted her understanding about learning and teaching by acknowledging the importance of integrating cultural aspects of the language and communicative skills. However, she still placed a heavy emphasis on linguistic aspects.

‘I still believe language is mainly about grammar and vocabulary, particularly when one learns a language at school.’ [Interview 2, Extract 2]

She highlighted that a focus should be placed on grammar and vocabulary when learning at school because ‘English is usually seen as a knowledge-oriented subject that is different from learning a language in other contexts’ (Interview 2, Extract 3) and unlike ESL learners, in the context where she learnt English, students do not have opportunities to practice interactional skills outside school. Thus it is difficult for a foreign language learner to communicate in the target language without explicit grammar knowledge. This view is also observed in the literature; for example, Savignon (1997) suggested teaching grammar could improve learners’ communication skills; therefore, grammar should be placed in first place in order to facilitate communication skills. Nevertheless, her belief about teaching had changed in two aspects: first of all, teaching should shift from lecturing to student participation. She advocated ‘employing different types of activities, such as pair work, group work, drama, games and using technology’ (Interview 2, Extract 4), which she believed could facilitate learning by engaging and motivating learners better; secondly, she believed that linguistic terms should be avoided in instruction, in contrast to her previous view that using jargon can demonstrate
being knowledgeable.

‘…grammar and vocabulary are so important and I need to focus on these to help my students to achieve higher language proficiency…I did make effort to avoid grammatical terms as my ‘students’ complained to me (laughing)’. [Interview 2, Extract 5]

In terms of teaching, consider the following excerpt from a writing class:

Excerpt Fang 3
1  T  so ((pointing to the PowerPoint Once upon a time...)) from this short sentence or
2  from these words (1.0) what can you think about it (1.3)
3  S1  [eh ()''story'']?
4  S2  [faireytale?]
5  T  I heard STORY and FAIRYtale? GOOD (.) so and what is er your err
6  favorite faireytale?
7  S1  “sleepy beauty”
8  T  sleepy beauty? sleeping beauty!
9  S3  Cinderella  ["Cinderella"  
10  S4  (three bears (1.0) three bears
11  T  three what?
12  S4  three bears
13  T  [oh (.)
14  SS  [oh
15  T  mine is the beauty and the (.) beast yeah and do you remember the ending of
16  those fairytales?
17  SS  yeah

Several changes were observed in this session about Fang’s teaching. First, instead of giving out explanations and structures using linguistic terms as she did at the beginning of the term, Fang presented a context (once upon a time) to elicit ideas from students. Establishing a context seems rather important here to the writing session. Secondly, Fang tried to develop a dialogue with students (line 5-6) after she heard students’ responses rather than giving out her ideas of what they should write. The information exchange evidenced in the above excerpt suggests that Fang valued different voices in her teaching and she developed awareness of learner involvement.

Excerpt Fang 4
((After the students had watched a movie, the teacher tried to organize students to do a writing task))

1  T  So now eh I have I want you work in two groups and eh so Ben can you
2  work with Lucy? ((students move into groups)) I have one worksheet and
3  you have to work in the group en and you have to choose one any
4  fairytale sleeping beauty or beauty and beast and any one you like and
5  you have to rewrite the end of the story (.) understand? But there are
6  many characters in one story you don’t have to write about everyone, you
7  just choose one and you write the ending of the character Karen do you
8  understand?
9  SS  Yeah
10  T  I will give you 3 or 5 minutes to work on this

In terms of her understanding about roles of the teacher and learners, her position shifted from one extreme to another, namely, from a very teacher-dominant position to a more learner-centred classroom. From the excerpt above, we can see Fang incorporated pair work into her teaching. Peer-writing to co-construct the story seems quite successful in her eyes as
she sees ‘knowledge sharing is more powerful than lecturing’ (Interview 2 Extract 6). It is clear that this transition is due to the influence of the present learning experience. Her explanation reflects such a view:

‘… when I learnt English in China, my teacher talked most of the time in class and the quantity of knowledge in each lesson is massive…However, tutors here involved students a lot. I was very frustrated at the beginning, but I gradually enjoyed it because both tutors and my classmates appreciate my voice and value my opinions. I believe this is a good model.’ [Interview 2, Extract 7]

**Teaching practice**

Similar to Liang, Fang thought highly of teaching practice in the second term and regarded it as the most useful but challenging part of the programme.

Her beliefs about language and language learning did not clash with what had been practised in the local schools, and the primacy of grammar and vocabulary was confirmed. She felt relieved about sharing the same beliefs as those experienced in-service EFL teachers and being able to ‘fit into’ the local context. Further, she explained her doubts about the possibility of improving students’ communicative competence in the classroom.

‘I think we (teachers) should focus on grammar in class because communication skills are not taught or learnt, they were acquired and developed through practice in real-life situations – that’s exactly why language teachers in EFL context overemphasize the structure of language.’ [Written comment 1]

Although in a way her practice has stayed the same but her reasons for that practice have changed. There is potentially huge scope for change. Nevertheless, she considered herself to be more learner-centred and critical with materials. She reflected on this point,

‘I am a learner-centred teacher now and more selective in terms of material and tasks while I used to follow the textbook blindly and strictly.’ [Interview 3, Extract 1]

This was because they did not have ‘fixed textbooks’, nor did they need to ‘use the same materials and tasks as other fellow students’ (Interview 3, Extract 2). Obviously, on the one hand, the freedom of selecting their own materials and tasks enabled students to employ material design and evaluation techniques they acquired during the course in real-life teaching. On the other hand, they were frustrated as they were not sure whether their tasks and materials would serve the teaching objectives. There was reliance on the judgement of hers and peers’. Therefore, to some extent, her beliefs were influenced by the informal learning and experimenting. Such experience might have a greater influence on shaping her decisions since the teaching practice was a ‘real-life’ situation and the only opportunity in which she can test theory in practice.

In terms of her roles, she reverted to her original thought – the teacher should take control of the class. She regarded ‘maintaining well-disciplined classroom as detrimental to student learning’ (Written comment 2), as the difficulties arising in classroom management made her nervous and doubt the newly established ideas of co-construction of meanings between students and the teacher, leading to an action of ‘discipline lecturing’ to re-establish her authority in class. She commented,
‘I feel frustrated because I couldn’t get their attention back from a game – so I wasted a lot of time then Tomorrow I am going to tell them some classroom rules. It seems that they don’t respect me and they obviously need regulated and if I cannot establish my teacher authoritative image, I might fail my teaching practice …’ [Written comment 3]

Then she maintained the belief of teacher as authoritative party throughout the teaching practice. Reflecting upon this, she reasoned that reinforcing a traditional hierarchical system in the classroom was definitely the most effective way to deal with a messy uncontrolled class.

**At the end of the course**

Fang summarized her experience of being a learner as well as a trainee teacher,

‘It was a great experience... I learnt a lot as we never treated culture issues as part of language before…and I like organising students to do all sorts of tasks, but I am not sure whether this works in China, where the point of learning English is to learn grammar and vocabulary… memorization is a good learning strategy’ [Interview 4, Extract 1]

She clearly expressed the view that her perspective of language and language learning has broadened from a linguistic to a sociocultural one. However, she believed that ‘the primary focus must be placed on grammatical competence’ (Interview 4, Extract 2). Although her understanding of learning shifted from teacher-centred to student-centred, she still believed that repetition and memorization are part and parcel of meaningful learning. In terms of teaching, she acknowledged and appreciated the influence from this course, she commented,

‘These changes on my teaching were mainly due to input of this course, both theories and the ‘model effect’ of tutors.’ [Interview 4, Extract 3]

With reference to the relationship between the teacher and learners, she suggested the teacher should and must dominate, manage and control the class as she has experienced ‘messiness’. She assumed that co-constructed learning could create a lot of tension, thus ‘as an inexperience teacher it was safe to follow the traditional classroom in practice’ (Interview 4, Extract 4).

To sum up, these two teachers started their learning journey almost in an identical way, they constructed different understanding of teaching and learning at the end of the course. Table 3 summarizes the key findings of this study.
Table 3. Teacher beliefs development in the TESOL programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Liang</th>
<th>Fang</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| At the beginning of first term  | • English is a system of grammar and vocabulary  
  (September)                   | • Knowledge transmission is necessary and rote learning is a good strategy  
  • A teacher should play dominant role; be responsible for what students can learn; knowledgeable  
  • Written exercise is associate with deep learning and communicative skills are surface knowledge                                                                                   | • English is a system with rules  
  • Deep learning is to master knowledge and system  
  • Drilling is the most effective way  
  • Teacher should be absolute expert and students should follow the teacher’s guidance  
  • Learners should take responsibility of the learning by practicing with different workbooks                                                                                     |
| Week 2                          | • Knowledge transmission is necessary and rote learning is a good strategy  
  • A teacher should play dominant role; be responsible for what students can learn; knowledgeable  
  • Written exercise is associate with deep learning and communicative skills are surface knowledge                                                                                   | • Knowledge transmission is necessary and rote learning is a good strategy  
  • A teacher should play dominant role; be responsible for what students can learn; knowledgeable  
  • Written exercise is associate with deep learning and communicative skills are surface knowledge                                                                                   |
| At the end of the first term   | • Grammar, lexis, pronunciation and discourse are important  
  (December)                     | • Communicative tasks could be used to foster the linguistic forms  
  • Teacher should talk most of the time  
  • Students’ responses are good indicators of what they have learnt  
  • Teachers should pass on knowledge, foster skills and respond to students’ questions; take both parental and expert roles                                                                                                           |
| (December)                      | • Grammar, lexis, pronunciation and discourse are important  
  • Communicative tasks could be used to foster the linguistic forms  
  • Teacher should talk most of the time  
  • Students’ responses are good indicators of what they have learnt  
  • Teachers should pass on knowledge, foster skills and respond to students’ questions; take both parental and expert roles                                                                                                           | • Language is a system but also represents a culture, identity and social values  
  • Learning in a school should focus on grammar and vocabulary  
  • Teaching should focus on student participation and avoid using linguistic terms  
  • The teacher should create knowledge sharing which is more powerful than lecturing                                                                                                 |
| After teaching practice        | • Linguistic aspects of language should be focus  
  (April)                         | • Eclectic communicative approach is more effective  
  • Uncomfortable about being strict; less teacher-like; professional guide and a friend after class; trusty relationships are important                                                                                       | • Language and language learning is about grammar and structures  
  • The teacher should take control of the class; teacher as authoritative party. This is acquired and developed through practice in real-life situation.                                                                                                         |
| The end of the programme       | • Linguistic knowledge is solid foundation to communicative and pragmatic competence  
  (July)                          | • Linguistic knowledge is solid foundation to communicative and pragmatic competence  
  • No definite role the teacher should take                                                                                                                                            | • Language learning should focus on grammatical competence  
  • Repetition and memorization are part of meaning learning  
  • The teacher should dominate, manage and control the class; co-constructed learning create a lot of tension                                                                           |
| (July)                         | • Linguistic knowledge is solid foundation to communicative and pragmatic competence  
  • No definite role the teacher should take                                                                                                                                               | • Language learning should focus on grammatical competence  
  • Repetition and memorization are part of meaning learning  
  • The teacher should dominate, manage and control the class; co-constructed learning create a lot of tension                                                                           |
Discussion
The findings from the present study do not support results from previous studies that pre-service teachers’ beliefs are deeply entrenched and remained unchanged during pre-service programmes (M. Borg, 2005; Nettle, 1998). On the contrary, student teachers’ beliefs are not stable, and were changed, shaped and developed at different stages of this teacher education programme.

Student teachers’ beliefs at different stages of an MA TESOL programme
As findings suggest, both students started the course with very much similar beliefs about teaching and learning and finished the course with different propositions. At the beginning of the course, they took the position that English is a knowledge-oriented subject with a focus on grammar and lexis. They both subscribed to a rote-learning style and advocated knowledge-transmission and drilling. The teacher was considered by both of them as absolute expert and the sole knowledge provider. There was a strong influence of cultural belief about learning and teaching in their pre-existing beliefs. After a few months’ study, both of them have expanded their understanding of English as a subject in different aspects. While Liang still focused on linguistic components of language, Fang shifted to social aspects. In terms of beliefs about teaching, both of them realized the importance of student participation and communicative approaches. However, Liang still believed in the dominance of the teacher while Fang shifted from a very teacher-dominant position to a more learner-centred classroom in understanding her role due to her experience in the course. So far, these two student teachers have developed different beliefs about the subject matter, teaching and learning, the teacher and learners from their pre-existing beliefs. These changes by and large are the results of the programme. Even within such a short period of time, there is evidence that student teachers experienced belief shifts, which can be viewed as concrete evidence of instability of beliefs.

After teaching practice in real-life situations, both teachers’ beliefs again shifted. It seemed that Liang completely changed his position of being a teacher because of the socio-cultural context and felt more comfortable with an eclectic communicative approach. Fang seemed to have completely reverted to her pre-existing beliefs due to negative experiences. It is striking here that student teachers are able to contextualise their beliefs to make decisions. While both of them were teaching in the same context, they chose totally different directions to develop themselves as teachers. The beliefs they developed through real-life situations seemed to stay with them. Again, there is evidence that student teachers’ beliefs are not stable and they shift all the time, in fact in both directions. What results suggest here is the importance of tracking student teachers’ learning journey. We can record detailed development of their beliefs, which is very important and useful for teacher education and understanding pedagogy.

Development of student teachers’ beliefs
In examining the changing beliefs of these two trainee teachers, it is apparent that some of their beliefs are more stable and less influenced by context or external forces than others. These are beliefs about language and language learning, which were largely developed through their early learning experiences and inherited from their previous teachers. There are also beliefs which are influenced by teacher education course and shaped by context (both local and global), including beliefs about teaching, beliefs about the relationship between teacher and learner. In challenging evidence that teacher education has little impact on teachers’ beliefs, this study suggests that together with context, teacher education (including course structure, tutors and teaching practicum) can have a powerful influence on pre-service teacher development.
However, the main question this study is addressing is not whether teacher education programmes have any effect on shaping teachers’ beliefs, but how, if at all, they influence the development of pre-service teachers’ beliefs? This case study illustrates the learning-to-teach journey of two Chinese teachers who experienced rote-learning in their home country in a Western-based teacher education programme. The two different learning philosophies, namely Chinese and Western way of learning and conceptions of learning, might contribute greatly to how these two teachers learn to become teachers in two ways. First, it seems that the students experienced changes (might be clashes as well) between cultural values and educational systems. Second, these changes or new understandings facilitate their thinking as both language learners and teachers. The negotiation between their pre-existing values, understanding, beliefs and theories and expected learning outcomes from teacher education programmes suggest that these pre-service teachers might undergo identity shifts when developing their beliefs about teaching and learning. These identity shifts and belief development include confirmation/consolidation of pre-existing beliefs, realization beyond pre-existing beliefs, expansion of pre-existing belief system, integration/addition of new ideas to pre-existing beliefs, and localization/re-construction of pre-existing and newly established beliefs.

Confirmation/consolidation of pre-existing beliefs:
The student teachers constantly confirm and consolidate their pre-existing beliefs during the course, for example, both participants support the notion of the primacy of vocabulary and grammar, which was largely derived from their previous learning experience, influenced by their English teachers, textbooks and test systems. These beliefs were further confirmed through the teacher education course and similar phenomena have been widely noted in the literature (e.g. Peacock, 2001; Mattheoudakis, 2007). Student teachers use pre-existing belief system as a filter to make judgement about the teacher education programme, and the confirmation of pre-existing beliefs acts as confirmation of them as ‘knowers’ of teaching and learning.

Realization beyond the existing beliefs
Both teachers also raised their awareness of different teaching approaches, complexity of (linguistic, communicative, intercultural) competencies and the importance of learners’ contribution to learning. Although realization does not necessarily lead to definite changes, such realization is an essential stage, for any changes to take place at a later stage.

Expansion of the pre-existing belief system
The student teachers’ beliefs about language were expanded due to the course structure. Accepting new ideas in their pre-existing belief system is not just a process of knowledge acquisition, but an attitude to be open and an opportunity to evaluate the pre-existing beliefs.

Integration/addition of new ideas to the pre-existing beliefs
The student teachers’ beliefs about language teaching, particularly teaching methods, changed dramatically. Such a change may be due to the fact that the structure and content of the course, the ‘role model effect’ from course tutors, or the teaching practicum. The literature indicates that the cumulative effect of studying language and learning theories may not necessarily translate into effective teaching practices (Johnson, 2003; Freeman and Johnson, 2004; Freeman, 2005). Interestingly, both student teachers highly valued the courses, which were believed to have guided and informed their teaching methodology, particularly from a perspective of learning theories to explain the strengths and weakness of teaching.
methods. In this learning process, student teachers constantly drew upon their experiences as learners to reflect and evaluate what they need to learn to become a teacher effectively. This finding partly answered calls for more research in what pre-service teachers need to learn to become a teacher (Tarone and Allwright, 2005).

Likewise, it is clear from the classroom interaction and written logs that micro-teaching and teaching practice made a great contribution to shaping student teachers’ beliefs about teaching methods. Research has suggested that the teaching practicum is often undervalued in MA courses, but it is the only opportunity for student teachers to reflect upon their teaching in a learning community, and try to make connections between theoretical coursework and practice. Critical reflection employed in the programme provide students with opportunities to evaluate their thinking process before and after teaching to facilitate the teacher-learning as ‘constructing knowledge and theory through participating in specific social contexts and engaging in particular types of activities and processes’ (Richards, 2008, p. 164).

**Localization/re-construction of pre-existing and newly established beliefs**

Macro context including social, educational and cultural values, and micro context including school culture, the classroom as an organisation and learners as participants, has a vital impact on teachers’ beliefs. The impacts of these contexts are played out through learning and teaching. Both student teachers adjusted the boundary between the teacher and learners in alignment with sociocultural contexts to carry out the teaching tasks suggesting that social values, relationships to students and the school culture made them reposition themselves. As shown in the data, they perceived that their own culture and values clashed with the local context, and as a result they tried to localize their beliefs, as novice teachers very often feel less secure about themselves as teachers and so were more attuned to establishing professional images by making extra efforts.

**Implications and Conclusion**

This longitudinal case study suggests that student teachers’ beliefs are not stable and they shift in the course. Student teachers might hold different beliefs at different stages of the course and various factors contribute to beliefs shifts. This study strongly suggests that teacher education programmes have traceable impact on the development of teachers’ beliefs. However, what happens when these teachers go back to their own contexts will be a true test in terms of whether the development here is permanent or temporary. As evidenced in the literature and this study, the culture of schooling into which novice teachers are socialized limits the effect of teacher preparation courses, it is therefore important to conduct more longitude research which follows students in their first teaching job to provide more insights into this issue.

International students engaging within a TESOL programme is a ‘complex, locally situated process that involves dynamic negotiation of expertise and identity (Morita 2000, p. 303). This study suggests that belief development of these two teachers reflected their identity shifts. They came from ‘knowledge-transmission’ tradition attending Western-based TESOL programmes during which they shifted their identities across cultures. These shifts, mirrored by their belief development, need to be given more considerations in future research not only to understand NNS teacher trainees, but to develop TESOL programmes which are more relevant for NNS student teachers who intend to return to their home countries to teach English. Therefore, the design of TESOL programmes should be expanded to focus on the processes of teaching and teacher learning and the relevance of the modules to international contexts. The over-emphasized linguistic components should not predominate and not be
employed, in the service of informing the nature of teaching, learning, and being a teacher, but not controlling the objectives of TESOL programmes. The traditional ‘knowledge transmission’ delivery approach should be replaced with ‘knowledge construction’ modes as language education is socially and culturally constituted (Miller, 2004). However, there is no fixed model to develop pre-service teachers’ beliefs; teacher education programmes need to realize the need to build a community where student teachers develop on their own initiatives.

This study also provides evidence of using various sources to offer insights of belief development. Precisely, this paper offers an approach to highlight the very important relationship between classroom data and verbal comments, and teachers’ beliefs. Further research in this area, particularly focusing on using ‘actions’ in classrooms together with participants’ views is much desired to fully understand the nature of teachers’ beliefs and their relationship to decision-making.

As a final word, developing teachers’ beliefs is not simply to create professional language teachers, but a process of understanding teaching, learning, and the identity co-construction of the teacher and learners in a specific social and cultural context. Further research is needed in understanding the relationship between belief development and professional identity construction for student teachers through reflective practice by encouraging trainee teachers to track their own ‘belief trajectories’ over a course.

References:


(Eds.), Teacher Learning in Language Teaching (pp. 97-119). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.


Appendix A: Selected interview guidelines

First interview:
1. Why were you interested in studying TESOL programme?
2. Reflecting your learning experience, do you have any strategies you used to learn English? What were they? How did you improve your English?
3. What was your favourite teacher? (in some cases, interviewees are encouraged to talk about bad teachers).
4. What do you expect to achieve through doing this course?
5. How do you feel about your teaching today? What do you think are particularly good? And what areas you would like to improve?
6. What strategies you learnt from the teaching methodology module did you use in today’s teaching? Did it work?
7. When you planned teaching, what factors did you think about?
8. When you taught, did you change your teaching plan? What made you change your plan? Why?
9. What kind of teacher do you think you are or would you like to become?

Second interview
1. Repeat questions 5-9 from the first interview
2. Compared to the lessons you taught at the beginning of the term, do you think you have made improvements? If yes, in what areas? In what way? Why made you improve the teaching?

Third interview
1. What’s your feeling about the teaching practice overall (academically, socially and culturally)?
2. Could you tell me something unforgettable during teaching practice?
3. What are the students like? What are the classes like?
4. What’s the role of the teaching practice mentor?
5. Repeat questions 6-9 from the first interview (follow-up questions from their written comments)

Last interview
1. General reflection upon the programme.
2. In what areas did you improve?
3. Views and ideas of teaching and learning English as a foreign language.
4. Do you think you will be able to use what you learn in your teaching context? If yes, how? If no, why?
5. What kind of teacher would you like to become?
6. What do you think you will take away from this programme? (ask social, educational, cultural values, experiences, etc)
7. Future plan as a teacher
Appendix B: Transcription conventions (adapted from Li & Walsh, 2011)
T - teacher
S1: S2: etc, - identified learner
SS - several learners at once or the whole class
: - the speaker has stretched the preceding sound
[do you understand? - overlap between teacher and learner
[I see - turn latching: one turn follows another without any pause
= - pause of one second or less
(4.0/0.4) - silence; length given in seconds or micro-seconds
? - rising intonation - question or other
WHAT - emphatic speech: falling intonation
Paul, Peter, Mary - capitals are only used for proper nouns
((T organises groups)) - researcher’s comments
°said quietly° - soft speech, said more quietly than usual.