CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Overview

As stated by Carson (2007) in The Star Online, English is the international language of diplomacy, business, science, technology, banking, computing, medicine, aviation, engineering and tourism, thus a value added in determining the success of one's career if one could master the language well. Therefore, it is of utmost importance for students to have good command of English to enable them to venture and compete in these challenging fields.

In Malaysia, the scenario is worrying due to the deteriorating standard of English among Malaysian students, especially those from suburban and rural areas. Though English is learnt as a second language after Bahasa Malaysia, other languages of different ethnic groups in the country are also widely used by respective communities. Hence, formal instruction in the classroom becomes the main means of learning English as opportunities for natural interaction and conversation of English is limited to these students (Arshad Abd. Samad & Hawanum Hussein, 2010).

Despite learning English in a formal environment for eleven years in the primary and secondary levels, many students fail to achieve satisfactory level of English language competency (Nor Hashimah Jalaluddin, Norsimah Mat Awal, & Kesumawati Abu Bakar, 2008). This is especially true when it comes to writing (Saadiyah Darus & Kaladevi Subramaniam, 2009) as grammatical inaccuracy in students' written work has been an alarming problem that needs to be addressed (Maskanah Mohammad Lotfie & Arshad Abd. Samad, 2007).

From the students' written work, it is found that tenses is among the most common errors (H. P. Lim, 1976; Saadiyah Darus & Khor, 2009; Vahdatinejad,

2008) and is difficult to remedy (Saadiyah Darus & Kaladevi Subramaniam, 2009; Vijaya & Viswanath, 2010). The problem is even more taxing for Form Five students as they need to sit for their Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM) which determines their acceptance into higher learning institutions.

Hence, teachers have to identify the reasons behind students' inability to use tenses effectively so that it is possible to find an alternative teaching method to overcome the problem. With that, it is hoped that the students could score better grades in their SPM 1119 English paper and are able to communicate effectively in English.

1.2   Statement of the Problem

Due to the different English language learning experience among students, it is unfair for teachers to expect all students to perform equally well in English. While applying the conceptual knowledge of tenses in English into real world communication such as writing and speaking might seem effortless to some, it is a challenging task to those who lack exposure, guidance and practice as they struggle to put their explicit knowledge into use. There are even some students who might not even be aware of the need to change the verb forms when stating actions done in different time frames (Saadiyah Darus & Kaladevi Subramaniam, 2009).

In Malaysian schools, students are taught the concepts of tenses in their grammar lessons every year and they are able to tell that past tense forms are used to state actions done in the past. Yet, when it comes to writing, they just fail to maintain their consistency in using the correct verb form throughout their writing, e.g., using past tense forms in narrative writing. They often use past tense and present tense interchangeably in the essay. Somehow, there seems to be a gap

between the explicit knowledge that these students have on past tense forms and the application of the knowledge into real communication tasks which in this case, their essay.

Furthermore, as English is learnt as a second language in Malaysia, the first language (L1) could have its' influence on the learning of the second language. This situation might be due to the absence of verb conjugation in the L1, i.e., Bahasa Malaysia and Mandarin (Saadiyah Darus & Khor, 2009). Apart from that, the problem may also arise when these students are not given enough guidance and opportunity to practice their explicit knowledge of the past tense forms taught in writing activities. As a result, these students fail to utilise the conceptual knowledge available to them when carrying out the complex task of writing.

1.3   Significance of the Study

This study is significant as tenses, which is related to time reference, is an important part of English grammar. The students should be consciously aware of the different verb forms used in different time to allow them to use tenses effectively and able to edit their work at the end of their writing.

In Malaysia, English is accorded as a second language as stated in Article 152 in the Federal Constitution of Malaysia (Nor Hashimah Jalaluddin et al., 2008) and to be a part of globalisation, it is important that one is equipped with a good command of English in order to make it well in the global market. Besides, the ability to write in English is also considered one of the crucial skills required to insure one's employment in the current job market (Siti Hamin Stapa, Tg Nor Rizan Tg Maastum, Rosniah Mustaffa, & Saadiyah Darus, 2008).

This study hopes to contribute towards the unraveling of ways which may assist SPM students who struggle with tenses. The finding of an alternative teaching method would help them master the skill that will enable them to get through their SPM examination which is heavily dependent on accuracy, especially in the writing sections. Doing well in the examination would be an added advantage for the students in furthering their studies in higher learning institutions.

In SPM 1119 English paper, sections related to the skill of writing take up 100 out of the total of 160 marks. Within the 100 marks, narrative writing, which is a popular choice in continuous writing section, contributes as much as 50 marks. With so much weightage on one essay, it is important to find a solution to help students master the use of past tense forms to score better in their narrative essay. Ultimately, this will help in increasing students' proficiency in English.

With that in mind, this study hopes to seek an alternative teaching method which can effectively help students develop and master the skill in maintaining their consistency in using the correct tenses in their narrative writing. It is hoped that the students could overcome this problem in time to enable them to score better grades in their SPM examination.

1.4   Purpose of the Study

This study intends to investigate the use of a teaching method which has been utilised in the education arena in various fields including writing (Beck, 1999; Collins, Brown, & Newman, 1987, 1989; Duncan, 1996; Kolikant et al., 2006), reading (Collins et al., 1987, 1989; Kolikant et al., 2006), listening (Shan, 2008), mathematics (Collins et al., 1987, 1989) and other technical and vocational subjects (Cash, Stadt, Behrmann, & Daniels, 1997). Though cognitive

apprenticeship has been used widely in the teaching of different subjects, it still lacks empirical data support when it comes to the teaching of grammar.

To establish the effectiveness of cognitive apprenticeship in the teaching of grammar, this study seeks to investigate whether the integration of grammar teaching instructions in the mentor-supported cognitive apprenticeship could help the students incorporate their explicit knowledge in tenses into their communication task, specifically on the use of past tense forms in their narrative writing.

1.5 Terminology

Here are a few concepts and terms on the two fields related to this study: grammar teaching and cognitive apprenticeship. These terms will be referred to throughout the dissertation.

For grammar teaching, there has always been a debate between the use of explicit and implicit instructions. *Explicit instruction*, according to Doughty (2003), takes place when the rules are either explained to the learners or elicited by the learners by looking at the linguistic examples given (Cowan, 2008). This explanation is similar to the definition given by Dekeyser (1994) where he claimed that explicit instruction involves rules formulation, whether it is by the teacher or the student, either before or after the examples or practice. However, *Implicit instruction*, as defined by Doughty (2003), does not overtly refer to rules and forms (Cowan, 2008) and according to DeKeyser (1994), the rules are not formulated in implicit instruction. The detailed categorisation of explicit instruction will be further elaborated in Section 2.3.1 (Pg 17).

Having defined the two main terminologies in grammar teaching, the next definition is from the field of *cognitive apprenticeship*. The term itself refers

to an integration of traditional apprenticeship with formal schooling. It focuses on exemplifying conceptual knowledge in situated contexts. It stresses on the learning of cognitive processes through guided experience where the cognitive processes are externalised so that the processes are observable to the learners. It also encourages the development of self-correction and monitoring skills (Collins et al., 1987, 1989).

The three main teaching methods in cognitive apprenticeship are modelling, coaching and scaffolding (Figure 1.1). *Modelling* refers to the process where the mentor carries out a cognitive task to allow the students to observe and build conceptual knowledge on that particular task. This process also involves the mentor verbally expresses the cognitive processes that were going on in his or her mind to enable the students to follow his or her thoughts and the reasons behind each decision taken.

The next process is *coaching*. It takes place when the mentor monitors the students carrying out a task while offering hints, verbal scaffolding, feedback, reminders with the aim of bringing the students' performance closer to the experts. *Scaffolding* is the support given by the mentor to help the students improve their performance. It can either be in the form of suggestions and help or in physical supports such as cue cards and task sheets. This also includes fading which refers to the gradual removal of supports as the students start to improve in their performance.

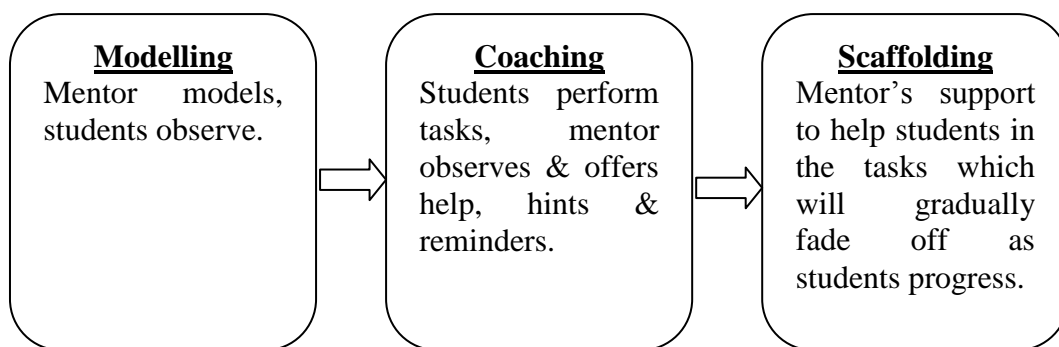| **Modelling**	**Coaching**	**Scaffolding**
Mentor models, students observe.	Students perform tasks, mentor observes & offers help, hints & reminders.	Mentor's support to help students in the tasks which will gradually fade off as students progress.

Figure 1.1: Three Main Teaching Methods in Cognitive Apprenticeship

The following section will look at the research questions constructed for the study.

1.6 Research Questions

To determine if this method will enhance the students' mastery of the use of past tense forms in narrative writing, the focus of the study will be on finding out the students' performance before and after the treatment and the students' perceptions of the method used.

Two research questions are constructed to investigate the effectiveness of the treatment in reducing tenses errors in students' narrative writing and the students' perception of the treatment given. The research questions that this study intends to answer are:

(i) How has cognitive apprenticeship help reduce the tense errors in narrative writing based on the scores obtained?

(ii) What are the learners' perceptions of cognitive apprenticeship in the learning of past tense forms in narrative writing?

1.7   Scope and Limitations

In the context of this study, there are certain scope and limitations in terms of time, resources and the focus of research. Due to the limited time available before the end of the school term, the treatment of this study was limited to only six sessions, 90 minutes per session. The treatment covered the explicit teaching of the active form of simple past, past continuous and past perfect tense and the exercises were also limited to only two paragraph-writing exercises, a note expansion and a directed writing.

In terms of resources, this study involved only one instructor to help ensure uniformity in the instructions given and the respondents were chosen from only one school, Sekolah Menengah Vokasional Pengkalan Chepa in Kota Bharu, Kelantan. This was to ease the arrangements of the schedule. Besides that, to make sure every respondent was given attention by the instructor, only 23 male and 28 female volunteers from Form Five were recruited as respondents for the study. The treatment sessions were held at night during preparation class as the respondents were from different classes and it was impossible to have the sessions during school hours.

Lastly, it should be noted that this study only focused on the use of past tense forms in narrative writing and therefore the error identification also focused solely on the use of verb tenses. The assessments for the pre-post tests also examined the use of verb tenses only and not the content of the essay.

1.8   Conclusion

In conclusion, it is hoped that with guidance and ample exercises in context, the students should be able to effectively utilise their conceptual knowledge of past tense forms in their writing. With that, this study sets out to

collect empirical data to find out the effectiveness of the use of cognitive apprenticeship in the instruction of past tense forms in narrative writing.

In Chapter 2, theories and previous studies on grammar teaching instructions and cognitive apprenticeship will be looked into while Chapter 3 will state the research methodology used in carrying out this study. Chapter 4 will report the results obtained from the data and the interpretations of the results and lastly, the overview of the findings and conclusion will be summarised in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Overview

As was stated by Maskanah Mohammad Lotfie and Arshad Abd. Samad (2007), ensuring that students are equipped with good writing skills is particularly important as it ascertains their survival in facing academic challenges and one of perpetual problems that concerns ESL writing is grammatical inaccuracy in students' written work. Therefore, it is the task of language teachers to make sure that the learners are taught the knowledge of grammar so that they are well-prepared in pursuing academic excellence. With some knowledge on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) related theories and grammar instructions, teachers could tailor their lessons to suit their learners' different learning preferences and language proficiencies to make learning more effective.

This chapter outlines the issues relevant to the teaching of grammar and it is divided into four main sections. The first section discusses various SLA theories in general and the cognitive processes involved in the learning of a second language. The second section looks into grammar teaching instructions and the two types of second language (L2) grammar knowledge, the third section focuses on the theory of cognitive apprenticeship and its' relevance in academic teaching and the final section reviews past studies conducted on grammar teaching instructions and cognitive apprenticeship in language teaching.

2.2   SLA Theories and Cognitive Processes

This section reviews the different stages involved in language learning which includes input, intake and output. These three stages are given different

emphasis by different theories and each of this theory is further discussed in the following sub-sections.

2.2.1 Input

According to Corder (1967), the first stage in learning a language takes place when the learners are exposed to language input. Input refers to any stretch of the target language available to the learners. It is also a consensus among second language researchers that input is an essential component in SLA (VanPatten, 1996) and there has been an array of theories concerning what should be taught and how things should be taught at this initial stage of language learning.

As cited in Brown (2000), Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1980, 1981, 1982, 1985), under the innatist model, claims that it is important for language input to be slightly beyond learners' current level of competence, $i + 1$, so that they could understand most of it and is still a challenge to make progress. It should be noted that the input given should not be too low, $i + 0$, as to not pose any challenge to learners or too high, $i + 2$, as to overwhelm the learners. This is termed as comprehensible input (Krashen, 1981).

Long (1985, 1986), who also highlights comprehensible input, places a slightly different emphasis on the term. Instead of focusing on what should be taught, Long places his focus on how the input is made comprehensible to the learners. Long's Interaction Hypothesis, under the social constructivist perspectives, argues that comprehensible input is the result of how the input is modified through interaction and negotiation of meaning between the native speakers with the learners (Brown, 2000). Modified interaction is concerned with

the various modifications that the native speakers and other interlocutors make in order to make their input comprehensible to the learners (Brown, 2000).

Though learners are exposed to input in this first stage of language learning, there are researchers who think that not all input are taken and absorbed by learners. With the input that they have, learners have to go through another stage of language learning - intake.

2.2.2 Intake

This second stage in language learning is when the learners process the input they are exposed to and internalise them. Learners' intake, according to Corder (1967), is the subset of input that actually goes in and is utilised in some way by the learners. The crucial criteria in turning input into intake would be whether the input is noticed by the learners.

In the Noticing Hypothesis, proposed by Schmidt (1990), the features of language cannot be learned unless they have been noticed in the input.   He also posited that this conscious 'noticing of the gap' in the ways between one's language production and the target form is a necessary and sufficient condition for SLA (Richard Schmidt, 1990). Besides mentioning that what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning, Schmidt (1995) also stresses that noticing is a necessary condition for L2 acquisition, regardless of whether it is deliberately or unintentionally attended to (Cross, 2002). Figure 2.1 below would better clarify Schmidt' hypothesis and the place of noticing in L2 acquisition.
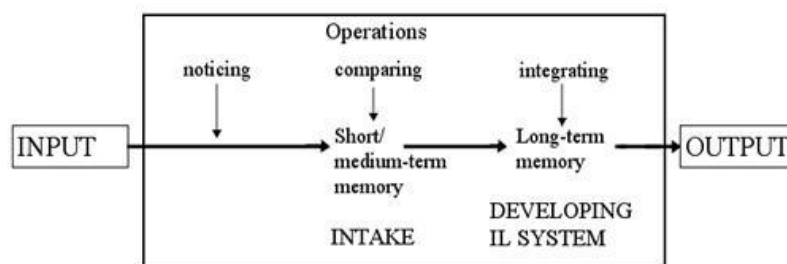
Figure 2.1: The Process of Learning Implicit Knowledge (p. 119)

According to Ellis, language input is turned into intake when the learners notice the language feature in the input given and store them in the short-term memory (Cross, 2002). This intake is then processed, integrated into the learners' interlanguage (IL) system and becomes part of the long-term memory. According to Kihlstrom (1984), if the item is not encoded into the long term memory, it will later be lost (Cross, 2002). Hence, it is vital for language teachers to help learners integrate their learnt knowledge into their long term memory.

Schmidth's version of the Noticing Hypothesis was later commented by Truscott (1998) who stated that the foundation of this hypothesis is weak. He criticised that Schmidths' hypothesis has conceptual problems which make evaluation and interpretation problematic. Besides that, the claim that conscious awareness of the information to be acquired is necessary is also not supported by cognitive research. Hence, Truscott suggested another weaker version of the hypothesis which proposed that noticing is only necessary for the acquisition of metalinguistic knowledge and he regards noticing as being helpful instead of a necessary condition for learning (Truscott, 1998).

Once the learners' have internalised the information, they will have to go through the final stage of language learning, the output stage.

2.2.3 Output

The output stage is also known as the production stage. As cited by Swain (1985), Krashen believes that "output is too scarce to make any important impact on language development" but Swain, on the other hand, disagrees with such claim and argues that perhaps learners' language production does play a role in second language learning (Swain, 1985). She doubts the validity of the Input Hypothesis which states that comprehensible input is the actual cause in learning a second language (Swain, 2005). Swain and Lapkin (1995) even offer convincing evidence that their Output Hypothesis is as significant as input.

Referring 'output' as a process rather than an outcome or product, the Output Hypothesis claims that language production, written or spoken, is considered part of the process of learning a second language (Swain, 2005). It stresses on negotiation of meaning when the learners are "pushed" towards delivery of a message that is not only conveyed but that is conveyed precisely and coherently. It is sometimes known as 'Comprehensible Output Hypothesis".

According to Swain, output in this hypothesis is believed to have four functions that are (i) to help learners notice their inability to produce grammatical output (noticing the gaps) and therefore direct their attention to relevant input, (ii) to allow learners to test their hypothesis during their 'trial run' production and reflect on them, (iii) to allow learners to reflect on the language produced by others and themselves, internalise their mental activities and mediate their second language learning and lastly (iv) to enhance fluency through practice (Swain, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Through these four functions, learners should be able to reflect on their own performance, acknowledge the problem and make necessary improvement to produce output that is both fluent and accurate.

Gass (1988) agrees with Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985) as Gass's Integrated Model proposes five overlapping stages of how learners convert input to output. Gass claims that 'apperceived' input, that is potentially comprehensible input, is initially selected for processing to derive some form of meaning representation which is referred to as 'comprehended input'. She stresses that one important factor that determines whether input is converted to intake is the level of analysis of the input learners achieve whereby analysis at the level of meaning is not as useful for intake as an analysis made at the level of syntax. This enables learners to be aware of the structure which helps them in producing accurate output.

The analysed input which the learners keep in the intake component is then used for the formation of new interlanguage hypotheses. The hypotheses that are formed are then tested upon further exposure to input and will only be integrated as new knowledge into the developing system once these existing hypotheses are confirmed to be true.

The output component, in Gass's (1988) point of view, plays an active role in the dynamic, interrelated acquisition processes. It creates a feedback loop from output into the intake component where hypothesis formation and testing is considered to take place. Through the hypothesis forming, testing, modification, confirmation and rejection processes, the intake may then be integrated into the developing system which could be selectively used by the learners during their output production. As was mentioned earlier, the output process in this model is also seen as an active process of the language acquisition rather than a product (Gass, 1988) where it helps the learners to redirect their attention to necessary input which aids the formulation and confirmation of their hypothesis.

De Bot (1996), on the other hand, reviews Output Hypothesis from a psycholinguistics perspective. He concludes that output is crucial in second language learning as it produces very specific input that the cognitive system needs to build a coherent set of knowledge. He also states that Output Hypothesis is important in promoting fluency by changing declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge and it also plays an indirect role in the acquisition of declarative knowledge by triggering input that learners can use in generating new declarative knowledge.

After reviewing the stages of language learning and the cognitive processes involved from the processing of input to output production, there is another SLA approach that is also relevant to this study - cognitive code-learning.

2.2.4 Cognitive Code-Learning

Cognitive code-learning, according to Carroll (1965), was derived from audiolingual method but instead of focusing on speaking, this theory's focus is on writing. It emphasises on the conscious awareness of rules and its' application to second language learning.

There are a few psychological theories which serve as the basics of cognitive code-learning. It is stressed that (i) the frequency an item is contrasted with other item is more important than the frequency of the item being repeated. In terms of materials, (ii) the more meaningful the materials are to the learners, the greater the facility of retention is and (iii) materials that are presented visually are more easily learned than those presented aurally and lastly, it states that (iv) learners' conscious attention to critical features and their understanding of them facilitates learning (Carroll, 1965).

Though cognitive code-learning received some attention in the early 1970s, there was neither a clear-cut methodological guidelines nor any particular method that incorporate its' view in learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Nevertheless, it does serve as a reference in the choosing of grammar teaching instructions.

After reviewing various SLA theories and the cognitive processes in language learning, the second section will examine areas that are specifically related to grammar teaching.

2.3   Grammar Teaching

In terms of grammar teaching, there are two issues that are essential: the types of instruction used and the types of knowledge involved in performing language tasks, i.e., writing (George, 2008; Macaro & Masterman, 2006). The types of grammar instruction and its' different definitions will be looked into in the first part of this section while the second part examines the types of L2 grammatical knowledge and also the different tasks used to evaluate them.

2.3.1 Instructions

In the discussion of grammar instruction, the first term, which is also the main category, that needs to be clearly defined is Form-Focused Instruction (FFI). In the context of grammar, FFI in SLA is defined as "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form, where 'form' stands for grammatical structures, lexical items, phonological features and sociolinguistics pragmatic features of language" (Ellis, 2001). Apart from drawing learners' attention to language form, Rahimpour &

Salimi (2010) also stated that FFI could be carried out either implicitly or explicitly.

However, different names were given to the two categories of FFI. Long (1991) named these two categories Focus-on-Form (FonF) and Focus-on-Forms (FonFs). In Long's definition, FonF is the drawing of learners' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication while FonFs is equated with the traditional teaching of discrete points of grammar lessons.

Housen and Pierrard (2006), as cited by Ellis R. (2010), on the other hand defined the two categories of FFI based on whether the instruction 'directs' or 'attracts' learners' attention to its' form. According to them, explicit instruction directs learners' attention to the grammatical forms to develop conscious mental representations of them while implicit instruction attracts learners' attention to exemplars of linguistic forms in a communicative input without seeking to develop any awareness to the 'rules' of the forms. They also identified a few other characteristics that differentiate the two instructions, as shown in Figure 2.2 below.

Implicit FFI	Explicit FFI
* *attracts* attention to target form	* directs attention to target form
* is delivered *spontaneously* (e.g. in an otherwise communication-oriented activity)	* is *predetermined* and *planned* (e.g. as the main focus and goal of a teaching activity)
* is unobtrusive (minimal interruption of communication of meaning)	* is obtrusive (interruption of communicative meaning)
* presents target forms in context	* presents target forms in isolation
* makes no use of metalanguage	* uses metalinguistic terminology (e.g. rule explanation)
* encourages free use of the target form	* involves controlled practice of target form

Figure 2.2: Implicit and Explicit Forms of Form-Focused Instruction (Housen and Pierrard, 2006)

Lally (1998) also cited another definition of explicit and implicit instructions whereby Harris Winitz referred to implicit instruction as an instruction which exposes learners to grammatical and lexical principles through natural experience while explicit instruction refers to the teaching instruction where L2 grammar rules are learned as a formal statement in the beginning stage of instruction through translation of words and phrases in L1.

As this study looks at the use of explicit instruction, Ellis (2008)'s sub-categorisation of explicit instruction is further looked into. According to Ellis (2008), he further distinguished the types of explicit instruction according to two dimensions: the deductive/inductive and proactive/reactive dimensions. A deductive explicit instruction is one which provides learners with explicit information to grammatical feature while inductive explicit instruction provides learners with data and guidance needed to enable them to derive their own understanding of the grammatical feature which could also be referred to as 'consciousness-raising tasks'. The second dimension, however, looks at whether the explicit instruction is carried out proactively or reactively. A proactive explicit instruction is carried out based on a structural syllabus, a graded list of grammatical structures to be taught, while a reactive explicit instruction can occur in lessons based on structural syllabus or on lessons based on focused tasks which have been designed to elicit the use of specific target feature in a communicative context. The juxtaposing of these four types of explicit instruction is shown in Figure 2.3 below.

	Deductive	Inductive
Proactive	Metalinguistic explanation	Consciousness-raising tasks; Production-based and comprehension-based practice exercises
Reactive	Explicit correction; Metalinguistic feedback	Repetition; Corrective recasts

Figure 2.3: Types of Explicit Instruction (Ellis, 2008)

For the purpose of this study, the terms and definitions for explicit and implicit instructions are adopted and the term explicit instruction used throughout this dissertation will specifically refer to the deductive explicit instruction which include instructions which are conducted proactively (during the first three sessions of the treatment) and reactively (throughout the treatment whenever errors are made). Between these two instructions of explicit and implicit grammar, a vast publications since the 1990s showed support that some kind of explicit instruction is beneficial for second language development (Andrews, 2007; Corbeil, 2005; Feng & Powers, 2005; López, 2004; Rahimpour & Salimi, 2010; Scott, 1989; Tan, 2005; Wee, Sim & Kamaruzaman, 2009). Besides that, Fotos (2002) also stated that recent studies are in favour of the advantage of explicit instruction approach to SLA of L2 grammar due to the features and merits of the approach while Klapper and Rees (2003) pointed out that much research has reported that L2 learners' rate of using accurate forms increases tremendously when given explicit explanation of grammar rules. To provide evidence of the effectiveness of explicit instruction, past studies relevant to its benefits will be looked into later in Section 2.5 (Pg 25).

Apart from looking into the different types of instruction used in the language classroom, the different types of learning knowledge these instructions

contributed to will also be examined as it gives an idea of the different forms language knowledge is stored in our brain.

2.3.2 Knowledge

In terms of grammatical knowledge in second and foreign language learning, it is agreed that grammatical knowledge is basically stored both implicitly and explicitly (Bialystok, 1981; Ellis, 1993). Explicit knowledge, which is also known as declarative knowledge, is related to effortful processing (Hulstijn, 2005) and according to Bialystok (1981) and Ellis (1993), is conscious in nature and analysable. This type of knowledge could also be operationalised as the learners' explanation of specific linguistics features (Ellis, 2005a).

Implicit knowledge, on the contrary, is also known as procedural knowledge (Andringa, 2005). It is intuitive and automatic in nature and this type of L2 grammar knowledge is easily accessed for unplanned language use (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). Implicit knowledge also refers to information that could be spontaneously used in carrying out language tasks (Brown, 2000).

Different tasks are used in testing these two types of knowledge. Corbeil (2005) cited that explicit knowledge tests should call on the learners' knowledge about the rules of the second language and the tests use discrete-point exercises such as fill-in-the-blanks as it draws students' attention to the target structure (Ellis, 2002 2004, 2005). Tests on implicit knowledge, conversely, have to be unfocused and serving a common purpose which use free-production tasks such as composition writings as it elicits the target structure from the tasks performed (Ellis, 2002 2004, 2005).

To evaluate whether explicit instruction does facilitate the learning of implicit knowledge, this study adopted a written task in measuring the

effectiveness of the explicit instruction used in promoting respondents' correct use of tenses in their narrative essay. This decision is made as R. Ellis (2005a) has stated that implicit knowledge could be evaluated by examining the learners' use of grammar features in their oral and written language (cited by Seyed Jalal Abdulmanafi Rokni, 2009).

Another issue on the types of grammatical knowledge that is often debated is the 'Interface Hypothesis'. George (2008) stated that there are basically three theoretical positions related to this hypothesis which are the no interface, weak interface and strong interface hypotheses. The non-interface hypothesis views explicit and implicit knowledge as two separate entities and that explicit knowledge cannot be converted into implicit knowledge while the weak interface acknowledges that explicit knowledge could be made implicit if the language learner is developmentally ready (Andringa, 2005). The strong interface, however, sees these two types of linguistic knowledge as a linked system whereby explicit knowledge can turn into implicit knowledge through practice and automisation. Andringa (2005) also stated that explicit types of instructions are more efficient in promoting implicit grammatical knowledge compared to implicit types. Thus, the strong interface hypothesis is acknowledged in this study as it supports the use of explicit instruction in grammar teaching.

Although there has been concrete evidence of the benefits of explicit grammatical instruction, its implementation, on the other hand, has not been a popular topic (Dele Ashade, 2010). To further investigate how explicit grammar instruction is implemented in this study, the third section below will look into cognitive apprenticeship, in which explicit instruction is noted as one of its main features.

2.4   Cognitive Apprenticeship

The term cognitive apprenticeship is coined by Brown, Collins & Newman (1987). It is a learning model under social constructivist paradigm and is based on situated cognition. Cognitive apprenticeship acknowledges the effectiveness of traditional apprenticeship and combines it into formal schooling as it retools apprenticeship methods for the teaching and learning of cognitive skills (Collins et al., 1987).

It is initially widely used in technical and skilled-based field but has now been gradually used in academic teaching which includes the teaching of mathematical problem solving (Schoenfeld, 1983, 1985), reading (Kolikant et al., 2006; Palinscar & Brown, 1984) , writing (Kimball, 1995; Kolikant et al., 2006; Scardamalia, Bereiter, & Steinbach, 1984), listening (Shan, 2008) among others.

In the teaching of mathematical problem solving, Schoenfeld (1983, 1985), in his teaching method, provides students with explicit teaching of heuristics, control strategies and productive beliefs. He starts off by formulating a set of heuristic strategies. In the class, he introduces the new heuristics to the students through modelling and gives the class problems to solve using the heuristic that he has introduced earlier. The exercises are sequenced from easier ones to the more challenging ones. Schoenfeld then acts as a moderator, facilitating and giving support to the students while they try solving the problem by themselves.

The students are also asked to find difficult problems and Schoenfeld will offer to solve them, showing them the use of heuristics, control strategies and also the fact that experts do stumble and flounder when it comes to solving challenging problems. Students later participate in small group problem-solving where Schoenfeld goes around facilitating them by asking what they are doing, why they

are doing so and how it will help them in finding a solution with the purpose of encouraging them to reflect on the activities done and promoting self-monitoring skills. Gradually, the students will start asking the questions themselves and thus gaining control over the reflective and metacognitive processes in their problem solving (Collins et al., 1987).

As for Scardamalia and Berelter's procedural facilitation of writing (1984), the approach offers explicit procedural supports known as *procedural facilitation* which comes in the form of prompts. These prompts are meant to help students take on more advanced writing strategies which involve planning, writing and revising. The teacher starts off by modelling how these prompts, which are written on cue cards, are used. This is to help the students generate ideas on the topic. The teacher then models a technique, *coinvestigation,* to help students reflect on their work. While coinvestigate her work, the teacher speaks out her thought to allow students to observe the teacher's reflection when writing on a topic. After observing the teacher at work, a process known as *soloing* takes place whereby the students work individually, planning an essay on a new topic using the cue cards. During the practice of soloing, the teacher and other students assume the role of evaluating the soloist's performance, helping to solve the problems that the soloist could not solve. This is done to motivate students to reflect on their work. The scaffolding, in the form of cue cards will later be taken away gradually when students monitoring and problem-solving skills improve (Collins et al., 1987).

Similar to these two teaching methods, the teaching of other subjects which are based on cognitive apprenticeship basically shares these main features: the use of explicit instructions, collaborative social interaction between peers and instructor, lessons are situated in context using authentic materials and learners

are trained to do self-correction and eventually monitor their own work (Collins et al., 1987). Apart from these features, cognitive apprenticeship also has six teaching methods which include modelling, coaching, scaffolding, articulate, reflection and exploration but only the first three are commonly used in studies as these are the three that are relevant to mentor-supported teaching. (Refer to Section 1.5 at page 5 for detailed explanation)

From the various success of cognitive apprenticeship in the teaching of academic subjects, this study intends to explore the possibility of merging grammar teaching with this model in the teaching of past tense forms in narrative writing.

2.5   Past Studies on Grammar Teaching Instructions and Cognitive Apprenticeship in Language Teaching

A few relevant studies relating to grammar teaching instructions and cognitive apprenticeship in language teaching are referred to in planning the present study. The first study on grammar teaching instruction was carried out by Feng & Powers (2005) on short and long term effect of explicit grammar instruction on fifth graders' writing and it was demonstrated that accuracy on learners' grammatical items did improve in general. The participants for this study were a group of fifth graders in a public elementary school in the United States. The participants' writing samples were collected at three different points in the school year and the results showed that the students did improve in their writings in the three areas identified namely mechanical, sentence structure and usage on both short and long-term measurements. In the light of the teaching of grammar in writing, this study supported the claim that error-based instruction is an effective approach to grammar teaching and they also mentioned that teachers

may incorporate grammar in writing, specifically in the revising and editing stage (Feng & Powers, 2005) .

Andrews (2007), who looked at the effects of implicit and explicit instructions on simple and complex grammar structures on respondents of three different levels of proficiency, further supported the use of explicit instruction. She conducted a study with 70 college-prep students and they were categorised into two main groups: explicitly instructed and implicitly instructed groups. In both groups, the participants were sub-categorised into three smaller groups according to their language proficiency. All the participants were taught one simple grammar structure (subject-verb agreement) and one complex grammar structure (relative clauses). At the end of the study, Andrews reported that though both explicit and implicit groups did show significant increase in the learning of grammar forms between the pre-test and both, post and delayed-post tests, the explicit group was the one which demonstrated significant higher scores compared to the implicit group when examining the total items correct as a whole (Andrews, 2007).

There were also studies conducted in Malaysia on the teaching of grammar. One of them was a qualitative study carried out by Tan (2005) on the use of drill exercises in helping students reduce subject-verb agreement errors in academic writing. This study involved three B. Ed. (TESL) Year 1 students in a teacher training institution, Institute Perguruan Bahasa Antarabangsa (IPBA), and they were given pre-post tests and pre-post interviews. They also underwent seven 40-minute treatment sessions which include oral drills, written exercises and explicit teaching which involved the explanation of rules during the discussion, when errors were made. The result from the pre-post tests showed that there was a significant reduction of Subject-Verb Agreement (SVA) errors in the

respondents' essay after the treatment, indicating the effectiveness of drill exercises and the respondents' perception of the effectiveness of the drill exercises also changed from being uncertain before the treatment to positive and encouraging responses after the treatment (Tan, 2005).

Another local study, which was conducted by Wee, Sim & Kamaruzaman (2009), looked at the use of overt teaching of SVA forms in enhancing the quality of writing in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course. This study involved 39 second year students from a public university in Malaysia aged between 21 to 25 years old and they were given six hours of treatment which also included explicit teaching of the SVA forms, written exercises and error correction exercises. The pre-post tests results revealed that there was a drastic decrease in the frequency of errors in the targeted SVA forms after the treatment, which also led to the improvement in the quality of their essay (Wee, Sim & Kamaruzaman, 2009).

Apart from past studies related to grammar teaching instructions, another two studies on cognitive apprenticeship in language teaching, i.e., the teaching of reading, writing and listening were also studied. The first study on the use of cognitive apprenticeship in teaching writing and reading was conducted by Kolikant, Gatchell, Hirsh & Linsenmeier (2006). This study was carried out on 22 science course undergraduate respondents on their scientific writing and reading ability. The treatment given was carried out in two stages whereby the first stage was on the reading of scientific articles which was considered the literature review of the write-up while the second stage was on the writing of their paper.

Throughout the treatment, carefully scaffold tasks were designed and discussion sessions were provided for both tasks. Peer review was also provided

during the treatment. The survey questionnaire which looked at respondents' opinion on the treatment showed that most respondents who participated in the discussion found it useful while the analysis of respondents' papers by the instructor revealed that students' performance on their assignment was satisfactory. With the limited experience that the respondents had as compared to the high performance in the assignment implied the usefulness of this approach. Most respondents found scaffolding useful in accomplishing their assignment although many of them thought that they might not need the skill in the future. Through this cognitive-apprenticeship-instruction-model (CAIM) inspired approach, knowledge was made accessible to students within a relevant context through instructions including modelling of the instructor's thinking processes, coaching from the instructor while providing feedback and clear instructions to the students (Kolikant et al., 2006).

Another study on the teaching of listening through cognitive apprenticeship was conducted in China by Shan (2008). This study involved 140 non-English major respondents and they were divided into two classes. Throughout the one year of experiment, respondents in Class A were taught traditionally whereby the teacher played the recorder repeatedly in class to practice students' listening skill. The whole process was carried out in a classroom and in a passive way. Class B, on the other hand, was carried out in a computer room where respondents were each given individual computer. Respondents in Class B were allowed to watch, listen and know how the language is used in a special situation and the class was carried out in an active way. By the end of the treatment, it was noticeable that respondents in Class B out-performed respondents in Class A. Respondents in Class B were found more interested in English learning and their academic result improved. Apart from having native-

like pronunciation, the respondents also made great progress in their oral, writing and reading skills. This proved that learning knowledge from a situation is more powerful and useful than learning it in a general case and the memory lasts longer. Apart from that, these true activities are also of great importance as students get to act as apprentice in learning something meaningfully. It was also reported that the use of all senses could make learning more rewarding to the students (Shan, 2008).

2.6   Conclusion

From these recent studies that were conducted, there are strong evidences that explicit instruction in grammar teaching and the use of cognitive apprenticeship in language teaching are beneficial to learners. With that in mind, this study intends to investigate the implementation of explicit instruction in the teaching models of cognitive apprenticeship to determine if it could help the respondents reduce their tenses errors in narrative writing.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview

After reviewing the literature related to the study, this chapter outlines the research methodology designed for the study which includes the types of research method applied, the respondents involved, instruments used and treatment given. This chapter also outlines the data collection procedures which consist of the types of data collected as well as how they are analysed and triangulated.

3.2 Research Design and Method

As having a more comprehensive analysis of the research problem and obtaining detailed exploration to expand the findings was of concern to this study, both quantitative and qualitative methods were incorporated (Creswell, 2009). Pre and post tests were carried out in this quasi-experimental method to distinguish whether there was a reduction of tenses errors in the respondents' narrative essays. These tests were used to measure respondents' performance before and after the treatment to determine if the treatment given had an effect on respondents' performance (Creswell, 2008). Besides that, interviews and a teacher's journal were also used to provide insights of the test results gathered.

It should be highlighted that this study did not have a control group since the purpose of study was to investigate if cognitive apprenticeship in the instruction of past tense forms was effective in reducing tenses errors in students' narrative writing. This study did not seek to prove a better approach among different teaching methods available.

3.2.1 Incorporation of Mixed-Method Research

The study was carried out in two phases. In the first phase, a pre-post test was carried out to collect quantitative data. The treatment given focused on the explicit teaching of the active form of three past tense forms and its' application of the knowledge into production tasks, i.e., narrative writing. There were two variables involved. The independent variable was the treatment given while the dependent variable was the reduction of tenses errors between the pre-test and post-test in terms of number. During the treatment, qualitative data, in the form of a teacher's journal, was also recorded to keep track of students' performance during the sessions. The instructor's observation served as a triangulation to determine whether both data collected support or contradict each other (Creswell, 2008).

From the results gathered, the second phase was carried out by interviewing 12 respondents, four most improved, four least improved and four whose scores deteriorated. The interview served to elaborate the quantitative results by explaining the general findings in detail (Creswell, 2008). This was done through the collection of respondents' perceptions on the activities carried out during the treatment sessions.

3.3 Respondents

Before carrying out the research, 51 volunteers, 23 males and 28 females, were recruited using the purposive recruitment strategy. As cited by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), Maxwell (1997) defined this technique as a type of sampling in which a particular setting, persons or events are intentionally chosen as the important information that they can provide cannot be gotten from other choices. In this case, the respondents were required to sign an informed consent form prior

to the treatment as a proof of their agreement to take part in the research and were informed of their rights. The background of the respondents is stated briefly below.

3.3.1 Background of Respondents

The respondents were recruited from a suburban area - Kota Bharu, Kelantan and all 51 respondents were students with English language proficiency ranging from low to intermediate level. They studied in Sekolah Menengah Teknik Pengkalan Chepa and scored between G1 to B that was between 25 marks to 71 marks in the recent trial examination preceding their standardised government examination.

Though the results used were the total scores in the examination instead of only the essay marks, the writing sections did, however, contributed 62.5% of the overall scores which, to a certain extent, reflected the respondents' writing ability. Table 3.1 below shows the allocation of marks for the writing sections for the 1119 English paper in the Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM) examination.

Table 3.1: Allocation of Marks for Writing in 1119 Paper

Paper 1	Section A - Directed writing	35 marks
	Section B - Continuous writing	50 marks
Paper 2	Section D - Novel	15 marks
	TOTAL	100 / 160 marks = 62.6%

The students who scored above 71 marks and below 25 marks were not recruited in this study as the treatment was expected to benefit those who are capable of constructing grammatical sentences but fail to determine the correct tenses used in their essay.

These respondents were among Form Five students who were studying vocational and technical courses such as electrical and electronic engineering, mechanical engineering, civil engineering, entrepreneurship education, business management, building, automotive, electrical and electronics as well as welding and fabrication.

Majority of these respondents had their formal English education around the age of five to six and were only exposed to English outside the classroom mainly through entertainment such as songs and television programmes. Unlike urban areas like Kuala Lumpur, English is not used by local community in Kelantan. Therefore, the students lacked one of the most important exposures necessary for language acquisition that is the opportunity for real-life communication. To them, English is merely learnt as a subject in school rather than a skill needed for survival in the world of globalisation.

3.4   Instrumentation

To carry out the study, five instruments were designed to collect the data needed. A respondents' information form was distributed once the respondents were recruited. For the quantitative design, a pre-post test, two raters and a set of marking criteria were used while the qualitative design consisted of a teacher's journal and a list of interview questions.

Besides that, a few types of software were also used in this study to process both the quantitative and qualitative data that were collected throughout the study.

3.4.1 Respondents' Information Form

Prior to the treatment, a respondents' information form (Appendix A) was distributed to the volunteers involved in the treatment. The form was divided into three sections. The first section aimed to collect respondents' demographic information, the second section was on respondents' previous English examination results, i.e. PMR, Form Four final examination, Form Five mid-year and trial examination. The last section looked at respondents' exposure outside the classroom.

3.4.2 Pre-Post Tests

The instrument that was used to gather scores for the quantitative data was a set of pre-post test (Appendix B). As the respondents were mostly weak in English, a pictorial note-expansion was adapted from a Form Three reference book (Chang & Yong, 2007). The picture series and notes in the test papers were included to ensure that the respondents were given adequate content to write on so that they were able to focus on the grammar instead of the content. The task was not taken from a Form Five textbook to avoid learning effects in case the topic was just covered by the teacher in class. 22 verbs related to the narrative (Appendix C), in their correct forms, were adapted from the text and respondents were expected to vary their sentence structures to accommodate to the verbs provided. The tests were later marked based on a set of marking criteria. The test paper was set after consulting five experienced English teachers to determine the suitability of the test items and the testing scope. It was recommended that the only 22 verbs that covered the active form of simple past tense, past continuous tense and past perfect tense be used while the use of narrative writing was chosen as it is one of the genres covered in the SPM examination.

3.4.3 Raters and Marking Criteria

For the evaluation of the essays, two different raters, Rater 1 and Rater 2, were involved in the marking. This was to ensure inter-rater reliability by negating any bias that one rater might bring to scoring (Creswell, 2008). The essays were marked based on two marking criteria (Appendix C). The first score, Score A, examined the overall verb tenses used throughout the essay and this was taken into account in the evaluation to distinguish respondents' effort and ability in writing longer essays and using their own verbs. Score B, on the other hand, examined the correct use and sentence structures of the verb tenses provided in the test paper. It was used to distinguish respondents' ability to use different sentence structures to accommodate to the verbs given in its different forms.

Score A involved two rounds of calculation. The first round of calculation ($\chi1$) added up all the verb tenses used in the whole essay while the second round ($\chi2$) only counted the verb tenses that were used correctly in terms of meaning and sentence structure. Then, $\chi2$ was divided by $\chi1$ and multiplied by 100 to convert the score into the basis of 100 marks for comparison purposes (Score A = $\chi2$ / $\chi1$ * 100). For example, Respondent 1 (R1) used 48 verbs throughout the essay but only 37 of them were used correctly. So, the calculation of mark is Score A = (37 / 48) *100 = 77 marks.

The second score (Score B), however, looked at the correct use of the 22 verbs provided. Each correct use of verb tense in terms of meaning and sentence structure was awarded 1 mark, which made up the total of 22 marks. The marks awarded were then divided by 22, which was the number of verbs provided and multiplied by 100 to convert the score into the basis of 100 marks for comparison purposes. So, for R1 who was awarded 15 marks, Score B = (15 / 22) * 100 = 68 marks.

For the next phase of the research, the qualitative part, a teacher's journal and a set of interview questions were used to gather data pertaining to the respondents' performance throughout the treatment and their perceptions regarding it.

3.4.4 Teacher's Journal

The first qualitative instrument, the teacher's journal (Appendix D), was a journal entry used to record the activities done in each treatment session and the instructor's observation on the respondents' progress throughout the treatment sessions. The record was used in reporting Chapter 4 to examine whether the respondents' performances during treatment did reflect their final test scores or vice-versa.

3.4.5 Semi-Structured Interview Questions

The next instrument used to collect the qualitative data was a set of 21 interview questions which were generated according to an interview protocol. This research interview was used in the attempt to understand the issue discussed from the respondents' points of view and to unfold the meaning of their experiences (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). According to Cousin (2009), semi-structured interview is planned according to a framework of themes which guide an interview and the interviewer can adapt and modify the questions when the flow of the interview suggests it. Therefore, questions constructed for this interview were based on the key features of the underlying theory and the teaching methods involved.

Table 3.2 below shows the relevance of each of the questions to the key features and teaching methods of cognitive apprenticeship and this was carried out

via the interview protocol approach. For example, Question 3 in Table 3.2 has 2 'X's, one for explicit instructions and another for authentic context. This means that the answers obtained from this question could be used to answer these two features of cognitive apprenticeship.

Table 3.2: Relevance of the Interview Questions to the Criteria and Teaching Methods of the Theory

Theory-based Criteria & Teaching Methods / Questions	Explicit Instructions	Collaborative social interaction	Authentic context	Self-correction & monitoring activities	Modelling	Coaching	Scaffolding
1. Does the explanation of the usage of the 3 tenses help you understand when to use them in your essay? How and how not?	X						
2. Do you think making the basic structures (formulas) obvious help you construct grammatical sentences? How and how not?	X						
3. Are the examples helpful to you in constructing grammatical sentences? How and how not?	X		X				
4. How do you find working with your friends in the tasks given? Is it helpful? In what way?		X	X				
5. Can you tell me more about how you work with your friends?		X					
6. Before this, do you pay attention to the use of past tenses when you talked or write about events that happened in the past?			X				
7. Do you think writing about your own experience during the learning of past tenses help you relate tenses to your life? How and how not?			X				

Questions	Explicit Instructions	Collaborative social interaction	Authentic context	Self-correction & monitoring activities	Modelling	Coaching	Scaffolding
8. What is your reaction when asked to correct your own mistakes?				X			
9. What have you learnt from correcting your own mistakes in your writing?				X			
10. Does it help you to check your own work by the end of the program? How and how not?				X			
11. Did you understand what the teacher was doing when she demonstrated how to use the formulas on the board?	X				X		
12. Does that help you in using the formulas effectively? How and how not?	X				X		
13. What about when she demonstrated on how to check for tenses errors during the writing activities?				X	X		
14. Does that give you an idea on how to edit your tenses when writing an essay on events that happened in the past?			X		X		
15. Do you think the teacher should go around helping the students during the activities? Why yes / no?		X				X	
16. When your teacher gave you hints such as "Is your second sentence right?", does it help you in focusing on your mistakes?				X		X	
17. Does your teacher's constant reminder such as "Please check your tenses after you've finished a paragraph." help remind you to check your work?				X		X	

Questions	Explicit Instructions	Collaborative social interaction	Authentic context	Self-correction & monitoring activities	Modelling	Coaching	Scaffolding
18. What about when she guided you verbally such as "Which verb form do you use when constructing sentences in perfect tense? What is the perfect form for leave?" Is it helpful? How and how not?				X		X	
19. Is it helpful to start the writing activity with short paragraph writing which is related to your life? How and how not?			X				X
20. Do you find it helpful that some of the activities are designed in pairs? How and how not?		X					X
21. Do you think the writing tasks, starting from the easier paragraph writing to more challenging letter writing, help to lower students' anxiety level? How and how not?							X

Theory-based Criteria & Teaching Methods

When all the data had been collected, these data were analysed using data analysis software, i.e., ReCal, PASW and Weft QDA. The next section will delineate the use of the software.

3.4.6 Data Analysis Software

The data that were collected in this study was analysed with the help of some software. There were mainly two types of software, the first type was used to analyse quantitative data while the second type was used to analyse qualitative data.

For quantitative data, the first data analysis software that was used was ReCal OIR ("**Re**liability **Cal**culator for **O**rdinal, **I**nterval, and **R**atio data"). This software was used to check the inter-rater reliability between two raters who examined the test scripts and also the inter-coder reliability between two coders who coded the interview transcriptions. This software was used to calculate Krippendorff Alpha (α) which was formulated by Klaus Krippendorff in 1980. This feature of ReCal OIR was chosen as it fulfils most of the criteria of a good measure of reliability (Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007).

The second quantitative data analysis software that was used was PASW (Predictive Analytics Software) Statistic 18. PASW Statistic 18 was chosen to process the test scores to find out the significant level of improvement for the treatment given. PASW Statistic 18 is a later version of SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) and it was used to analyse the data collected from the pre-post tests. Since this study was interested in finding out the significant level of the treatment given within a group, a paired sample T-test was used where the mean scores between the pre-test and post-test were compared to evaluate the effectiveness of the treatment.

As for qualitative data, the software that was used was Weft QDA. Weft QDA was used to manage the interview transcriptions. Weft QDA is a tool to assist in the analysis of textual data such as interview transcripts, written texts and field notes. It is also a freeware and is available online for downloading. Though it is available for free, Weft QDA is useful as it makes coding and the retrieval of codes much easier and manageable.

After describing all the instruments used in this study, the next section looks at the treatment sessions that were tailor made for this study.

3.5   Treatment

The treatment was tailored according to the key features and three teaching methods found in cognitive apprenticeship. The key features highlighted were the use of explicit instructions, collaborative social interaction, authentic context, self-correction and monitoring activities. As for the six teaching methods in cognitive apprenticeship which are modelling, coaching, scaffolding, articulation, reflection and exploration, only the first three were chosen as they are more teacher-driven. The other three methods are more on students' own reflection and exploration.

The treatment was carried out in two different groups and the 51 respondents were divided according to their gender. The first group consisted of 23 male respondents while the second group consisted of 28 female respondents. The purpose of dividing the respondents into smaller groups was to enable the instructor to interact with the respondents so that the instructor could attend to the respondents individually during the coaching process.

3.5.1 Treatment Sessions

The treatment for this study was divided into six sessions, 90 minutes per session, as shown in Figure 3.1.

Session 1
- Sentence Construction I *(Individual work)*
  - Simple past tense (positive and negative forms)
  - Past continuous tense (positive and negative forms)

Session 2
- Sentence Construction II *(Individual work)*
  - Past perfect tense (positive and negative forms)

Session 3
- Paragraph Writing I *(Pair work)*
  - 'A recent school event'

Session 4
- Paragraph Writing II *(Individual work)*
  - 'How I spent my mid-year school holiday'

Session 5
- Note-expansion *(Individual work)*

Session 6
- Directed writing *(Individual work)*

Figure 3.1: Flow Chart on Treatment Sessions
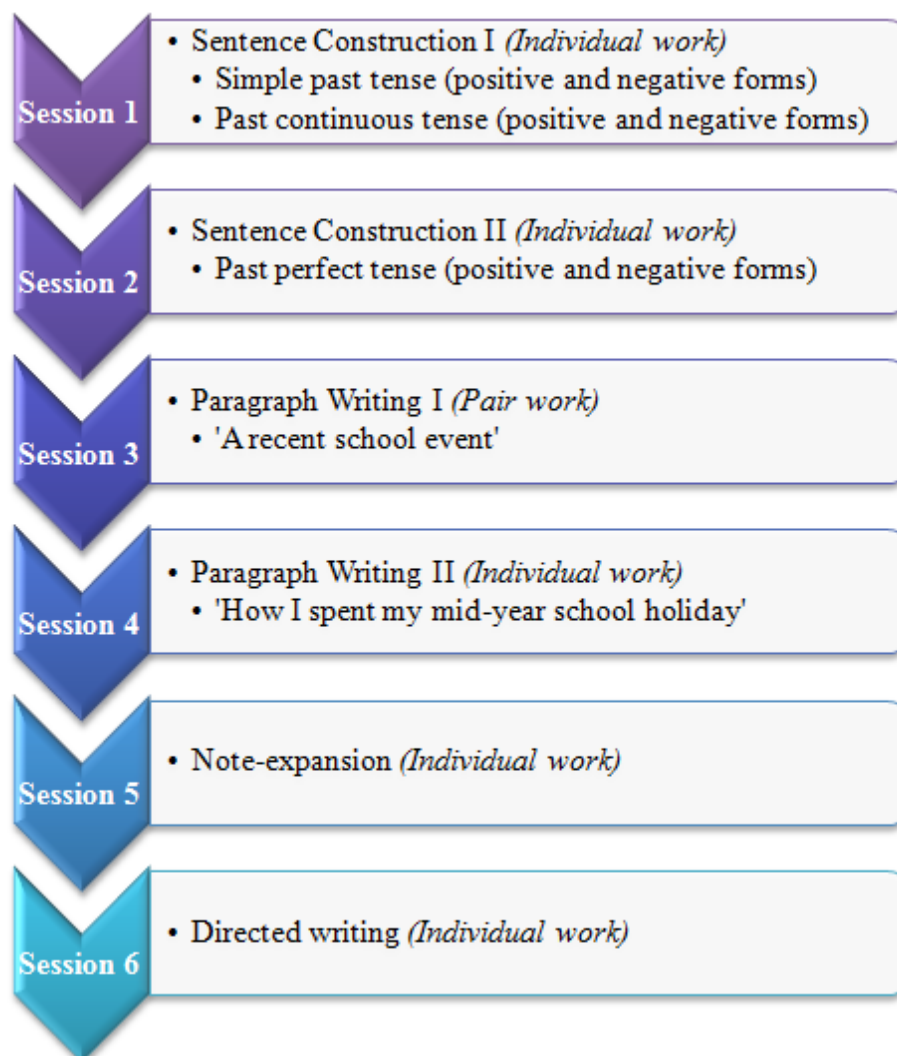
The first two sessions were on the explicit teaching of grammatical items which fulfill the key feature of explicit teaching in cognitive apprenticeship. The instructor explained the usage and basic structures of the past tense forms explicitly so that respondents were consciously aware of them. After the explanation, the instructor demonstrated the use of the basic structures (*formula*)

given by constructing examples on the board. This illustrated the modelling method.

The instructor's cognitive steps in modelling the use of the *formula* were made explicit to the respondents as they were verbalised during the process. This was to enable respondents to see first-hand the process of task completion rather than only the final product. Later, a few respondents were then asked to construct sentences on the board with the instructor providing guidance on how the *formula* was used. Finally, the respondents attempted the exercise assigned on their own while the instructor facilitated the process. This activity demonstrated the coaching process in the teaching methods.

The third and fourth sessions involved getting the respondents to start writing. To enable respondents to familiarise themselves with the *formula*, they were only asked to attempt a paragraph writing relevant to their life experience. This was to provide respondents with authentic context in their learning. For the first paragraph, the respondents were allowed to work in pairs to encourage collaborative social interaction among them and to lower their anxiety level.

To provide some scaffolding before the writing process, the respondents were required to list 15 verbs related to a recent school event. The instructor listed the present form on the board and volunteers were asked to state the past and perfect forms. With all the verb forms listed on the board, respondents attempted their task with their partner. The instructor facilitated the session by providing hints and reminders to coach the respondents in their writing process. Before the end of the session, the instructor asked a few respondents to write their paragraphs on the board using the verbs that were listed previously and the instructor modelled the editing process on the board to the respondents. Each pair was then required to edit their work before submitting it in.

In the fifth session, the respondents were given a pictorial note-expansion with verbs given in different verb forms. This was to provide scaffolding to the respondents so that they could focus their thought on the grammar structures rather than the content. They were required to manipulate their sentence structures to accommodate to the verbs given and this provided the respondents the opportunity to practice their sentence construction so that they were consciously aware of the usage of the explicit *formula* taught during the first two sessions. As usual, the instructor facilitated the session by coaching the respondents while they attempted their task.

For the last session, a directed writing was assigned where the respondents were asked to write an informal letter to a pen pal, sharing their experience on a recently celebrated festival. This was again another authentic task which is in line with the key feature of cognitive apprenticeship. A few questions were provided as guide in this activity to provide scaffolding for the respondents.

The instructor facilitated and coached the respondents during their attempt to complete the task in every session. Hints, prompts and reminders were given to respondents throughout the sessions as coaching. Self-correction and monitoring on their verb tenses and interaction among peers were also encouraged. Table 3.3 below provides the procedures for each of the session and its' relation to the teaching methods in cognitive apprenticeship.

Table 3.3: Procedures for the Treatment Sessions

Sessions	Activities	Steps	Methods of Cognitive Apprenticeship
	<u>Simple Past Tense</u>	i. Respondents are told the usage of the tense (positive form) and given the basic structure (*formula*).	
		ii. Teacher demonstrates the use of the basic structure on the board by giving a few examples.	Modelling
		iii. A few respondents are asked to construct the sentences on the board and teacher provides feedback through discussion with the class.	Coaching
		iv. Respondents attempt to construct 5 sentences in the tense taught.	
		v. Teacher acts as facilitator.	Coaching
		vi. Teacher corrects the respondents' errors and provides explanation.	Coaching
		vii. The same steps are repeated for the negative form.	
1	<u>Past Continuous Tense</u>	i. Respondents are told the usage of the tense (positive form) and given the basic structure (*formula*).	
		ii. Teacher demonstrates the use of the basic structure on the board by giving a few examples.	Modelling
		iii. A few respondents are asked to construct the sentences on the board and teacher provides feedback through discussion with the class.	Coaching
		iv. Respondents attempt to construct 5 sentences in the tense taught.	
		v. Teacher acts as facilitator.	Coaching
		vi. Teacher underlines the respondents' errors and gives hints on the correct answer.	Coaching
		vii. Respondents correct the errors.	
		viii. The same steps are repeated for the negative form.	

2	Past Perfect Tense	i. Respondents are told the usage of the tense (positive and negative forms).	
		ii. Teacher demonstrates the use of the basic structures on the board by giving a few examples.	Modelling
		iii. A few respondents are asked to construct the sentences on the board and teacher provides feedback through discussion with the class.	Coaching
		iv. Respondents attempt to construct 5 sentences in the tense taught.	
		v. Teacher acts as facilitator.	Coaching
		vi. Teacher underlines the respondents' errors and gives hints on the correct answer.	Coaching
		vii. Respondents correct the errors.	
3	Paragraph writing I Topic : Write on an event that was recently held in your school.	i. Respondents are given a topic relevant and common among them.	
		ii. As a class, respondents are asked to share what happened that day.	Scaffolding
		iii. Teacher lists the verbs on the board.	Scaffolding
		iv. Teacher goes through the list with the class and categorises the verbs into the correct tense forms (present, past and perfect).	Scaffolding
		v. Respondents are asked to work on their paragraph writing in pairs using the verbs on the board.	Scaffolding
		vi. Teacher acts as facilitator.	Coaching
		vii. Teacher underlines the respondents' errors and gives hints on the correct answer.	Coaching
		viii. Respondents correct the errors.	
		ix. A few respondents are asked to write their paragraphs on the board.	
		x. Teacher demonstrates the editing of verbs to the class.	Modelling
		xi. Respondents hand up their work at the end of the session for marking.	

		* *Respondents are given their marked-paragraphs back for correction. They are required to hand in the correction for making.*	
4	Paragraph writing II Topic: How I spent my mid-year school holiday.	i. Respondents are asked to write on a topic relevant to their personal experience. ii. Respondents are asked to list out the verbs related to their experience in present, past and perfect forms (15 verbs). iii. Teacher goes around facilitating the respondents. iv. Respondents who have completed their list of verbs are asked to write their paragraph individually. v. Teacher acts as facilitator. vi. Teacher underlines the respondents' errors and gives hints on the correct answer. vii. Respondents correct the errors. viii. A few respondents are asked to write their paragraphs on the board. ix. Teacher demonstrates the editing of verbs to the class. x. Respondents hand up their work at the end of the session for marking. * *Respondents are given their marked-paragraphs back for correction. They are required to hand in the correction for making.*	Scaffolding Coaching Coaching Coaching Modelling

5	<u>Note-expansion</u>	i. Respondents are given a note-expansion with a series of pictures to aid their understanding ii. Teacher goes through the notes with the class. iii. Respondents attempt the writing task individually. iv. Teacher acts as facilitator. v. Teacher underlines the respondents' errors and provides explanation. vi. Respondents correct the errors. vii. Respondents hand up their work at the end of the session for marking. *Respondents are given their marked-paragraphs back for correction. They are required to hand in the correction for making.*	Scaffolding Coaching Coaching
6	<u>Directed writing</u>	i. Respondents are given a question on letter writing. ii. Teacher goes through the question with the class. iii. Respondents attempt the writing task individually. iv. Teacher acts as facilitator. v. Teacher underlines the respondents' errors and provides explanation. vi. Respondents correct the errors. vii. Respondents hand up their work at the end of the session for marking. *Respondents are given their marked-paragraphs back for correction. They are required to hand in the correction for making.*	Scaffolding Coaching Coaching

3.6   Data Collection Procedures

The data collection procedures were divided into three main stages: The pre-treatment, treatment and post-treatment. The details of each of the stage were stated below.

3.6.1 Pre-Treament

The data collected in this stage was the respondents' information and pre-test scores. Prior to the treatment, the respondents were recruited and given a briefing regarding the study and those who agreed to take part were required to sign an informed consent form and complete the respondents' information form. The respondents were also required to sit for a pre-test to record their initial performance before undergoing the treatment. The scores gathered from the pre-test were used as a yardstick to measure respondents' performance before and after the treatment.

3.6.2 Treatment

In this second stage, the treatment was carried out as described in Section 3.5.1 (Pg 43). During the treatment, the teacher's journal was used to collect insights of the instructor's point-of-view and observation of the respondents' progress, responses and their work throughout the treatment sessions. The data was used in reporting Chapter 4 as a triangulation to see whether the respondents' performances during the treatment support or contradict their final test scores.

3.6.3 Post-Treatment

At the end of the treatment, the respondents were required to sit for a post-test which used the same test paper as the pre-test to detect the difference in

scores between both tests. The results collected from the tests were used to identify to what extent was this treatment effective in reducing tenses errors in students' narrative writing (RQ1). Once the data was gathered, among four of the most improved, four least improved and four respondents who deteriorated the most in scores were interviewed to share their experiences and thoughts on the treatment sessions to identify the strength and weaknesses of the treatment so that it could be refined. The interview sessions was carried out in the Malay Language so that the respondents were able to express their thoughts and opinions well. The interview sessions were then transcribed and the data was used to provide the learner' perceptions of the treatment given (RQ2).

The data collected was analysed to report the findings in Chapter 4. Table 3.4 below shows the relevance of the data collected to the research questions of the study while Figure 3.2 illustrates the data collection procedures.

Table 3.4: Relevance of the Data Collected to Research Questions

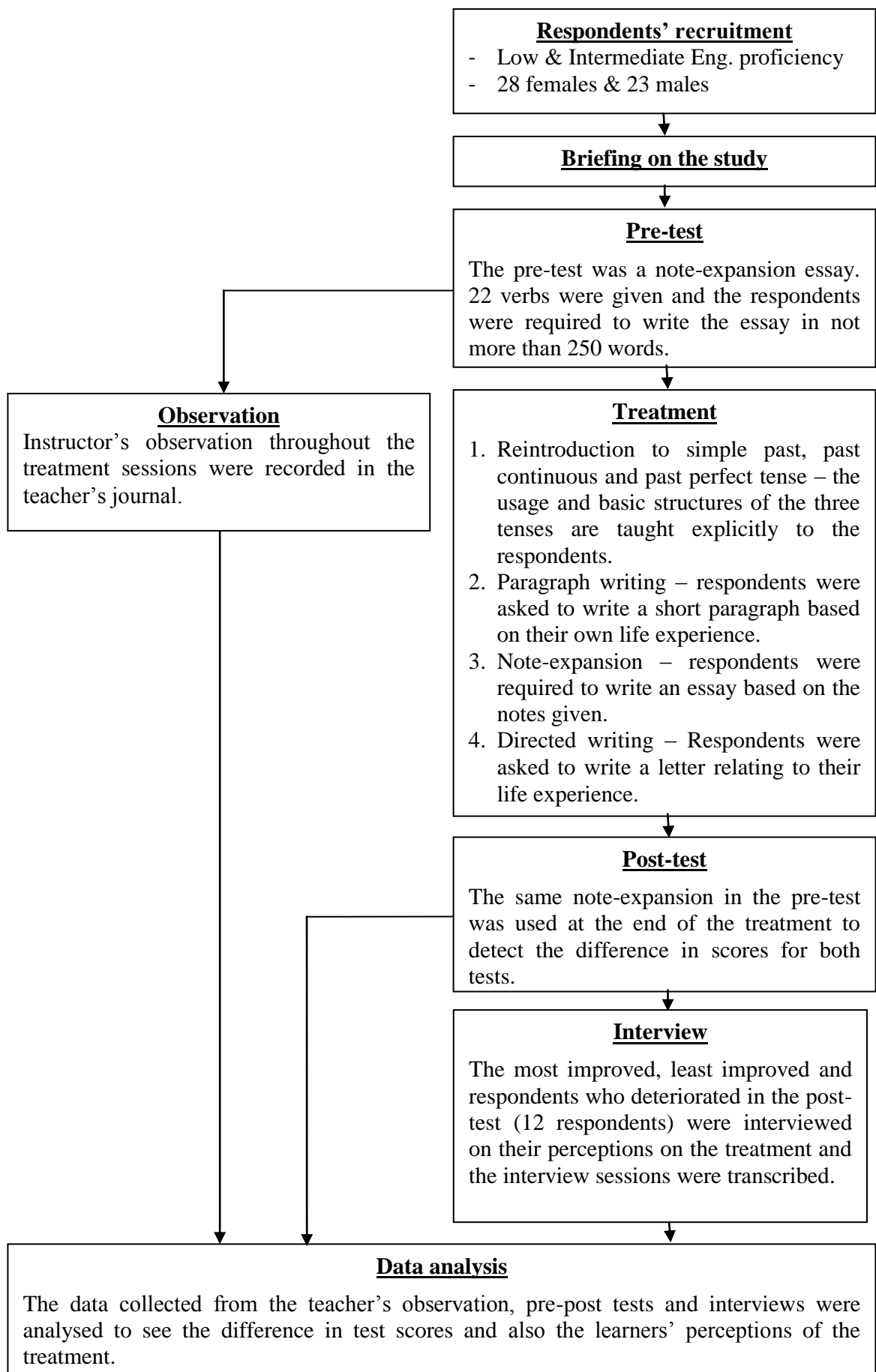| Research Questions (RQ)	Data collection
RQ1	Test Scores (pre-test and post-test scores) • compared to detect any reduction of tenses errors
RQ2	Learners' Perceptions • Four most improved, four least improved and four respondents who deteriorated the most in their post-test. • to find out respondents' experience and comments about the treatment given

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        Respondents' recruitment         │
│  -  Low & Intermediate Eng. proficiency │
│  -  28 females & 23 males               │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│           Briefing on the study         │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │
                    ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                Pre-test                 │
│                                         │
│  The pre-test was a note-expansion      │
│  essay. 22 verbs were given and the     │
│  respondents were required to write     │
│  the essay in not more than 250 words.  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Observation

Instructor's observation throughout the treatment sessions were recorded in the teacher's journal.

Treatment

1. Reintroduction to simple past, past continuous and past perfect tense – the usage and basic structures of the three tenses are taught explicitly to the respondents.
2. Paragraph writing – respondents were asked to write a short paragraph based on their own life experience.
3. Note-expansion – respondents were required to write an essay based on the notes given.
4. Directed writing – Respondents were asked to write a letter relating to their life experience.

Post-test

The same note-expansion in the pre-test was used at the end of the treatment to detect the difference in scores for both tests.

Interview

The most improved, least improved and respondents who deteriorated in the post-test (12 respondents) were interviewed on their perceptions on the treatment and the interview sessions were transcribed.

Data analysis

The data collected from the teacher's observation, pre-post tests and interviews were analysed to see the difference in test scores and also the learners' perceptions of the treatment.

Figure 3.2: Data Collection Procedures

3.7   Data Analysis Procedures

The data analysis was carried out in two phases. The first phase involved quantitative data which was the respondents' test scores and the second phase was the qualitative part, looking at the respondents' thoughts and opinions from the interview sessions.

3.7.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

In dealing with the quantitative data, a few steps were taken once the scripts from the pre-post tests were collected. These include the marking of the scripts, establishing the inter-rater reliability using Krippendorff alpha (α) and obtaining the p-value of the test scores using the paired sample t-test.

3.7.1.1 Test Scores

Once the test scripts were collected, they were marked using the marking criteria that was described previously in Section 3.4.3 (Pg 35). Then, the difference between the pre-test and post-test for both Score A and Score B were calculated to detect of any improvement in the respondents' writing in terms of the reduction of tenses errors made in their tests before and after the treatment. In addition, to ensure that the marking of the tests was valid, an inter-rater reliability check was carried out by comparing the scores awarded by the instructor and an external examiner.

3.7.1.2 Inter-Rater Reliability

When the four sets of test scripts were collected, an extra copy of the test scripts was made to be sent to an experienced Form Five teacher for external marking. After both the instructor (Rater 1) and the external examiner (Rater 2)

had marked the scripts, the inter-rater reliability was calculated using the Krippendorff alpha (α) for all four sets of test scripts. Krippendorff (2004), as cited by Taylor and Watkinson (2007), suggested the acceptance level for his *alpha* to be above 0.7 and it was found that the reliability between the two raters for all the four sets of data was $\alpha \geq 0.60$. The individual reliability test result for the four sets of test is shown in Table 3.5 below. This means that the first three sets of scores, pre-test for Score A and Score B and post-test for Score A, were above the acceptance level while the post-test scores for Score B was not as reliable as the other three.

Table 3.5: Individual Inter-Rater Reliability Test Results Using Krippendorff Alpha

	Pre-test		Post-test	
	Score A	Score B	Score A	Score B
Krippendorff alpha (α)	0.74	0.80	0.72	0.60

Once the marks were obtained and the inter-rater reliability was established, the test scores were later processed using PASW Statistic 18 to find out the significance level for Score A and Score B in determining the effectiveness of the treatment given.

3.7.1.3 Paired Sample T-Test

The function of PASW Statistic 18 that was used to process the test scores was the paired sample t-test. This function was used as the comparison of the two sets of scores was from the same group of respondents. After the variables were defined, the data were keyed into the system to find out the p value of the test scores. If $p < 0.5$, it means that the difference between the pre-test and

post-test is significant. Hence, this established the effectiveness of the treatment given.

Based on the results obtained from the marking of scripts for both Score A and Score B, a few respondents were chosen for interview to elicit their opinions, thoughts and suggestions on the treatment given. Four respondents from among the most improved group, four from among the least improved group and four respondents among those who deteriorated the most in their performance between the pre-test and post-test were identified and interview sessions were carried out.

3.7.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

For qualitative data analysis, two types of data were looked into: the respondents' interviews and the teacher's journal. When the chosen respondents were identified, they were called for individual interview sessions and the respondents who could not attend the interview were given the softcopy of the interview questions via e-mail so that they could also contribute their thoughts to the study. The interview sessions that were recorded were first transcribed and coded. Then, an inter-coder reliability check was carried out using Krippendorff alpha (α) to ensure of the validity of the codes identified. As for the teacher's journal, it was used to record observed behavior related to students' response during the sessions and all the journal entries were compiled to be used for triangulation during the discussion of the result.

3.7.2.1 Transcription

The interview sessions that were recorded were transcribed for content by the researcher and word processed using Microsoft Words. As the purpose of

the interview was on content rather than distinctive discourse, the translation that that was done only focused on the ideas and thoughts that the respondents tried to convey. It should also be noted that during the transcribing process, instances where names of respondents were mentioned were replaced with [you] to ensure anonymity. After the transcriptions were edited, they were saved as plain text format and transferred into the data analysis software, Weft QDA, for coding purposes.

3.7.2.2 Coding

After reading through the interview transcriptions, factors related to the features of cognitive apprenticeship, the three teaching methods promoted in cognitive apprenticeship and a few other relevant factors were identified. Using Weft QDA, the relevant responses related to these identified factors were coded and saved accordingly so that it could be easily managed and retrieved for reporting and discussion purposes.

In Weft QDA, the transcriptions for the interviewed respondents were first imported into the software. The section labeled as A in Figure 3.3 below is the list of transcriptions that were imported. After these transcriptions were imported, the features and teaching methods associated to cognitive apprenticeship and other relevant factors that had been identified were created as categories, labelled as B below. Later, the relevant parts of the transcription were highlighted in blue according to the suitable categories for easy retrieval of codes during the reporting process, labeled as C below.
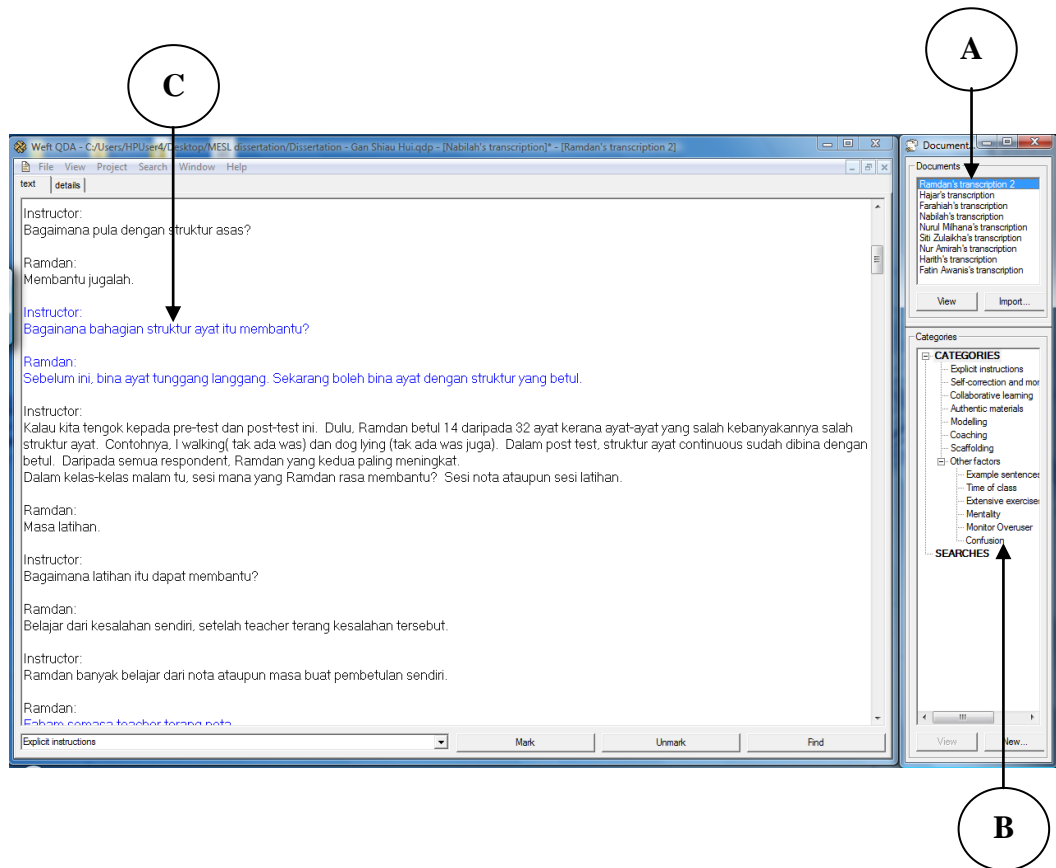
Figure 3.3: Weft QDA Main Screen

Data retrieval was also made easy by using Weft QDA as just by double-clicking the categories labeled as B in Figure 3.3, all the coded transcriptions from different respondents could be retrieved in a list as shown in Figure 3.4 below. The different respondents are highlighted in red print while the coded transcriptions are shown in blue.
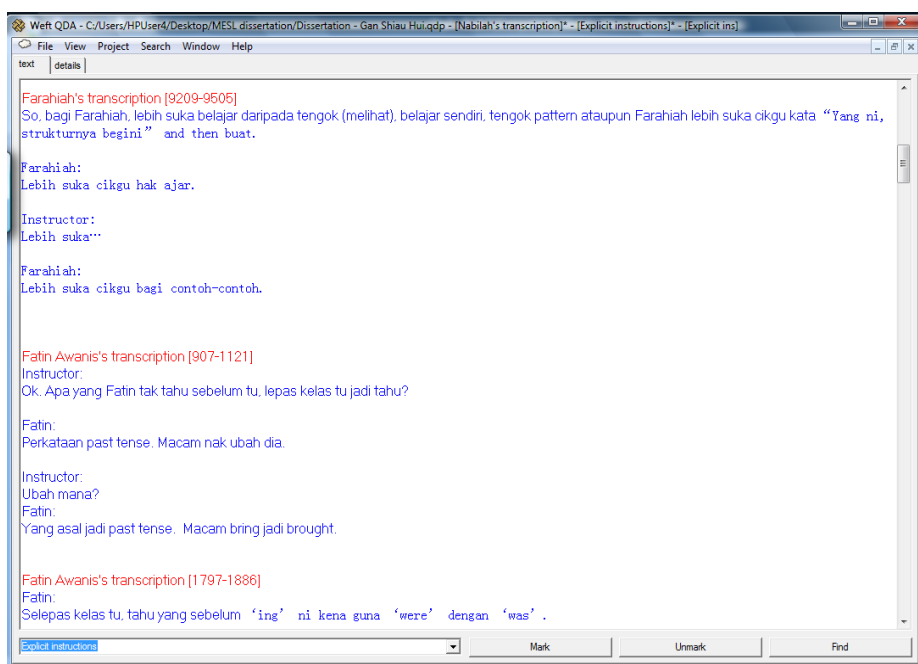
Figure 3.4: Weft QDA Data Retrieval Screen

Besides that, two sample scripts were also sent to an external coder for coding and processed for inter-coder reliability to ensure that the coding between the two coders were consistent.

3.7.2.3 Inter-Coder Reliability

Once the two scripts were coded by the external coder, the numbers of coding by both coders were counted according to the factors identified. The results of the coding from both coders were later processed using Krippendorff alpha (α) to evaluate the consistency of the coding for inter-coder reliability. As was mentioned in Section 3.7.1.2 (Pg 53), with the acceptable level for Krippendorff alpha above 0.70, the result for this inter-coder reliability between the two coders that was reported at $\alpha = 0.73$ was acceptable.

With that, the codes that were identified were proven to be valid for reporting and discussion. After the respondents' interviews were coded, the teacher's journal was also referred to for the purpose of triangulation.

3.7.2.4 Triangulation (Teacher's Journal)

Triangulation, in social science, attempts to explain more comprehensively the richness and complexity of human behavior by studying it from more than one source by merging both qualitative and quantitative data (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Creswell (2008) also mentioned that triangulation is useful as it corroborates evidence from different types of data to ensure the researcher could develop a report that is both accurate and credible.

In this study, the different form of data source used to triangulate the respondents' scores and interview responses was the teacher's journal. The instructor jotted down her observation of the respondents' performance during the treatment sessions to keep track of what happened during the sessions. This was to justify if the respondents' performance during the sessions did reflect their final results and their perceptions regarding the treatment given. The recorded observations of students' behaviour from the teacher's journal were used to check against the respondents' result and their opinions of their own performance during the treatment and test sessions. Figure 3.5 below showed the triangulation process of the data used in this study.
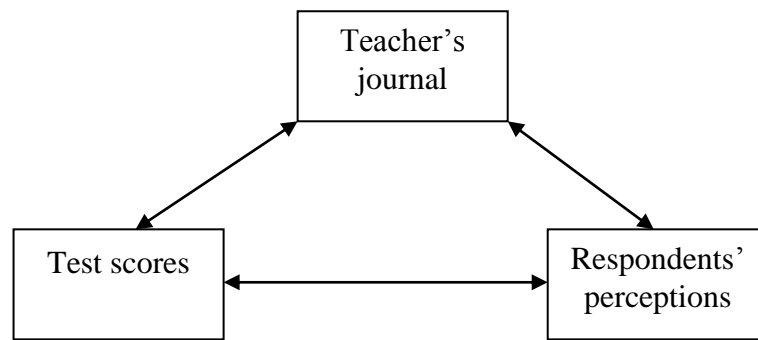
Figure 3.5: Triangulation Used in the Study

With all the research design, instruments, treatment, data collection and data analysis planned, it is crucial for every researcher to take into consideration the ethical issues related to the study.

3.8   Ethical Consideration

In accordance to the requirement set by the Ministry of Education in Malaysia, the researcher informed the Ministry of Education in Putrajaya and the school management to get their authorisation to carry out the study in the school involving the students. Consent forms were also given to the respondents so that they were aware of what they were involved in, their confidentiality and their rights in taking part in the study.

3.9   Conclusion

In order to obtain data which would reveal important findings about the study, suitable instruments for both quantitative and qualitative data collection were identified. With all the procedures and instruments finalised, the data collection procedures were later carried out as planned. The collected data were also analysed and the results and findings were reported in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS & INTERPRETATIONS

4.1   Overview

As this was a mixed-method research which included a pre-post test and an in-depth qualitative interview, two sets of data were collected. These data will be discussed in two sections based on the two research questions of this study. The first section looks at the test scores before and after the treatment sessions in determining whether there is a reduction of tenses errors in the students' narrative writing while the next section discusses the findings from the interview sessions by examining the learners' perceptions of cognitive apprenticeship in the learning of past tense forms in narrative writing.

4.2   Test Scores

This first section evaluates the impact of cognitive apprenticeship on the learning of past tense forms in narrative writing by comparing the results between the pre-test and post-test with the intention of answering the following question:

Research Question 1: How has cognitive apprenticeship help reduce the tense errors in narrative writing based on the scores obtained?

The tests scripts were marked and two scores were generated for each script. Score A examined all the verb tenses used in the whole script in determining the respondents' true ability in using the language while Score B only looked at the 22 verbs provided in the note-expansion to study the respondents' ability in using the notes given. The marks for both Score A and Score B for a few chosen respondents were also examined for comparison purpose.

4.2.1 Students' Performance in Using Past Tense Verbs (Score A)

Score A examined the respondents' progress before and after the treatment sessions by comparing their ability to construct sentences grammatically especially in the use of verb tenses. From the scripts that were collected, the results for Score A were generated by dividing all the verb tenses that were used correctly in comprehensible sentences ($\chi 2$) by all the verb tenses used in the whole essay ($\chi 1$). The scores were later converted into the basis of 100 marks for comparison purposes using the calculation below:

$$\text{Score A} = \chi 2 \, / \, \chi 1 * 100$$

After the scripts were marked and processed, an analysis of the distribution pattern and respondents' individual results were obtained as shown in Tables 4.1 & 4.2 below.

Table 4.1: Distribution Pattern for Score A

Score A Mark range	Pre-test No. of respondent	Post-test No. of respondent
80-100	6	7
60-79	14	21
40-59	20	16
20-39	10	5
0-19	1	2
TOTAL	51	51

From the distribution pattern for Score A as shown in Table 4.1, only one respondent scored within the category of 19 marks and below during the pre-test. With reference to the scores obtained by individual students in Table 4.2, R13* was the one who scored 19 marks, the lowest score for the pre-test. As for the majority of the respondents, 20 of them scored between the mark range of 40

marks to 59 marks. 14 other respondents did slightly better as they were grouped between the mark range of 60 marks to 79 marks while another 10 respondents scored between 20 marks to 39 marks. Among all the respondents, only six of them scored above 80 marks with the highest score being 90 marks, by R37*.

In the post-test, though the mark range of 19 marks and below still made up the smallest group, there was an increase from one respondent to two respondents. R44* was the one with the lowest marks and she only managed to obtain 7 marks for her post-test. The highest populated group, however, had shifted from the mark range of 40 marks to 59 marks to a higher range of 60 marks to 79 marks with 21 respondents in the group. A total of 16 respondents were grouped between 40 marks to 59 marks and five respondents were categorised between 20 marks to 39 marks. Finally, a slight increase of one respondent was recorded for the group of respondents who scored 80 marks and above which brought the total number of respondents to seven respondents. R17* was the respondents who scored the highest 97 marks during the post-test.

In general, there was a positive shift in the respondents' result where respondents who scored above 60 marks increased from 20 respondents in the pre-test to 28 respondents in the post-test.

Table 4.2: Respondents' Individual Scores for Score A

Respondent	SCORE A			
	Pre-test	Post-test	Improvement	Improvement in %
R2*	44	90	46	105
R1*	27	68	41	152
R13*	19	54	35	184
R18	36	67	31	86
R31	48	79	31	65
R34	38	68	30	79
R24	45	73	28	62
R43	54	82	28	52
R27	43	69	26	60
R42	46	68	22	48
R15	55	77	22	40
R14	23	44	21	91
R10	48	69	21	44
R5	74	92	18	24
R7	27	42	15	56
R9	30	45	15	50
R29	55	70	15	27
R19	65	79	14	22
R22	61	73	12	20
R23	83	95	12	14
R12	57	68	11	19
R3	64	75	11	17
R26	46	55	9	20
R39	54	63	9	17
R40	63	72	9	14
R8	68	77	9	13
R30	81	90	9	11
R17*	88	97	9	10
R6	56	55	-1	-2
R48	36	35	-1	-3
R49	66	64	-2	-3
R21	57	55	-2	-4
R11	84	80	-4	-5
R35	76	71	-5	-7
R28	47	41	-6	-13
R41	55	48	-7	-13
R38	54	47	-7	-13
R25	38	31	-7	-18
R46	65	57	-8	-12
R16	82	73	-9	-11

R4	61	52	-9	-15
R32	71	59	-12	-17
R47	27	15	-12	-44
R36	70	56	-14	-20
R45	75	58	-17	-23
R50	53	36	-17	-32
R20	51	30	-21	-41
R51	65	43	-22	-34
R37*	90	67	-23	-26
R33	52	29	-23	-44
R44*	31	7	-24	-77

Looking at respondents' individual performance in Table 4.2, it was found that 28 respondents out of the total of 51 improved in their Score A while 23 respondents showed a decline in performance during their post-test. Among the 28 respondents who improved, three respondents demonstrated the most improvement by improving more than 100% from their pre-test results. Among these three respondents, R13*, who scored the lowest during his pre-test, improved the most that was by 184%. This was followed by R1* who improved by 152% and R2* by 105%. Though the improvement demonstrated by R13 was not as much as R1 and R2 in terms of score, his improvement in terms of percentage was the highest among them as it was compared to his low pre-test score.

When examining their Score A performance in detail with reference to Table 4.3 below, R13 used 21 verb tenses altogether in his pre-test but only managed to use 4 correctly. For his post-test, R13 demonstrated great improvement as he not only improved in terms of the length of his essay by using 24 verb tenses but he also managed to drastically improve his performance when he used 13 verb tenses from the total 24 verb tenses used correctly.

However, a different trend was demonstrated by R1, instead of writing long essay and making many mistakes, he placed his focus on the quality of his essay by writing shorter essay but with lesser errors in terms of verb tenses. From the total of 30 verb tenses used in his pre-test, there was a decrease to only 19 verb tenses used in his post-test. Nevertheless, he managed to increase the number of correct tenses used from 8 in his pre-test to 13 in his post-test.

As for R2, with 105% of improvement, he was the respondent with the highest improvement in scores that was by 46 marks. From scoring 44 marks during his pre-test as shown in Table 4.2 (Pg 64), R2 managed to score as high as 90 marks for his post-test. There was not much difference in terms of length of the essays from 32 verb tenses used in the pre-test to 31 verb tenses used in the post-test but the use of correct verb tenses did increase by 100%, that was from 14 verb tenses to 28 verb tenses.

Table 4.3: Detailed Analysis on Score A for Respondents who Improved the Most
(in Percentage)

No	Resp.	Score A					
		$\chi2$ (correct ones)			$\chi1$ (total verb tenses used)		
		Pre-test	Post-test	Difference	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
1	R13	4	13	9	21	24	3
2	R1	8	13	5	30	19	-11
3	R2	14	28	14	32	31	-1

Whilst in terms of respondents whose result deteriorated the most for Score A, R44's result plunged drastically both in terms of scores and percentage. As shown in Table 4.2 (Pg 64), She only scored 7 marks in her post-test as compared to 31 marks in her pre-test, a decrease of 24 marks. In terms of percentage, her post-test deteriorated by 77% when it was compared to her pre-test. When examining her performance in detail as shown in Table 4.4, it was

found that there was a decrease in the total use of verb tenses from 35 during the pre-test to 28 during the post-test. Nonetheless, the reason R44 was the respondent whose result deteriorated the most, in terms of scores and percentage, was due to the decline in her correct use of verb tenses in her essay. From 11 verb tenses that were used correctly in her pre-test, R44's performance for her Score A dropped when she only used 2 correctly during the post-test.

Table 4.4: Detailed Analysis on Score A for Respondents whose Result Deteriorated the Most (Both in Terms of Scores and Percentage)

No.	Resp.	Score A					
		$\chi2$ (correct ones)			$\chi1$ (total verb tenses used)		
		Pre-test	Post-test	Difference	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
1	R44	11	2	-9	35	28	-7

A paired sample t-test was conducted to compare the mean for Score A between pre-test and post-test. With the significant level set at $p < 0.5$, it was found that there was a significant difference between the scores for pre-test (M=54.98, SD=17.74) and post-test (M=60.98, SD=19.95), t(50)=-2.36, p=.022. The data obtained from the test is shown in Tables 4.5 and 4.6 below.

Table 4.5: Paired Sample Statistics for Score A

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	54.98	51	17.74	2.484
Post-test	60.98	51	19.95	2.794

Table 4.6: Comparison of Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores for Score A

	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-test – Post-test	-2.366	50	.022

Hence, the result suggested that the respondents did improve significantly in their Score A from pre-test to post-test and the treatment given did result in the reduction of tenses errors in the respondents' narrative writing in terms of their use of verb tenses. Specifically, the results indicated that if students undergo the treatment, they will likely improve in using verb tenses correctly in their narrative writing.

After examining the respondents' overall use of verb tenses in their writing, the next section will look into the respondents' performance in using the 22 verbs provided in the note-expansion before and after the treatment.

4.2.2 Students' Performance in Using Provided Past Tense Verbs (Score B)

Score B focused on the use of the 22 verbs given as the total mark. From the scripts that were marked, Score B was generated by dividing the number of correct verb tenses used (n) by the total of 22 verbs given and the score was later converted into the basis of 100 marks for comparison purposes. The calculation was as shown below:

$$\text{Score B} = n / 22 * 100$$

Later, an analysis of the distribution pattern for Score B and the respondents' individual result were obtained and is shown in Table 4.7 and Table 4.8 below.

Table 4.7: Distribution Pattern for Score B

Score A Mark range	Pre-test No. of respondent	Post-test No. of respondent
80-100	3	7
60-79	15	16
40-59	19	18
20-39	9	8
0-19	5	2
TOTAL	51	51

From Table 4.7, the mark range with the least respondents for the pre-test was between 80 marks to 100 marks. There were only three respondents who scored above 80 marks and the respondent who scored the highest mark was R17* (Refer to Table 4.8), with 91 marks in his pre-test. The mark range with the most respondents, on the other hand, was between 40 marks to 59 marks with 19 respondents in the group. As for those who were categorised in the lowest mark range, which was 0 to 19 marks, R27* scored the lowest among the five respondents by only obtaining 9 marks in her pre-test. There were nine respondents within the mark range of 20 marks and 39 marks and 15 respondents scored between 60 marks to 79 marks.

In the post-test, the mark range with the least respondents shifted from the group with 80 marks and above to those with 19 marks and below. Between the two respondents in the group, R44* scored the lowest by getting only 9 marks for the test. The group with the most respondents remained the same as the pre-test, that was between 40 marks to 59 marks, but there was a decrease of one respondent from 19 in the pre-test to 18 in the post-test. For the mark range of 80 marks and above, there was an increase in number from three to seven respondents and the one who gained the highest score of 95 marks was R23*.

Another 16 respondents scored between the mark range of 60 to 79 marks and finally eight respondents scored between 20 to 39 marks.

This demonstrated an increase of performance between the two tests as the respondents who scored above 60 marks did increase from 18 respondents during the pre-test to 23 respondents during the post-test.

Table 4.8: Respondents' Individual Scores for Score B

Respondent	SCORE B			
	Pre-test	Post-test	Improvement	Imp in %
R27*	9	68	59	656
R3	32	82	50	156
R34	18	64	46	256
R31	41	77	36	88
R2	45	77	32	71
R13	14	45	31	221
R29	45	73	28	62
R23*	68	95	27	40
R7	27	50	23	85
R18	27	50	23	85
R42	36	59	23	64
R15	59	82	23	39
R43	64	86	22	34
R14	14	32	18	129
R10	55	73	18	33
R9	27	41	14	52
R21	36	50	14	39
R5	73	86	13	18
R30	82	95	13	16
R12	59	68	9	15
R19	59	68	9	15
R24	68	77	9	13
R35	68	77	9	13
R39	59	64	5	8
R40	59	64	5	8
R47	14	18	4	29
R1	23	27	4	17
R37	73	77	4	5
R17*	91	95	4	4
R16	59	59	0	0

R22	77	77	0	0
R26	50	50	0	0
R28	32	32	0	0
R4	59	55	-4	-7
R36	59	55	-4	-7
R38	45	41	-4	-9
R45	73	68	-5	-7
R11	64	59	-5	-8
R32	64	59	-5	-8
R49	64	59	-5	-8
R8	68	59	-9	-13
R6	64	55	-9	-14
R41	82	68	-14	-17
R46	68	45	-23	-34
R51	64	41	-23	-36
R33	59	32	-27	-46
R48	59	32	-27	-46
R50	50	23	-27	-54
R44*	36	9	-27	-75
R25	55	27	-28	-51
R20	59	27	-32	-54

As for the respondents' individual performance as shown in Table 4.8 above, 29 respondents showed improvement in their Score B from the pre-test to the post-test, 18 respondents deteriorated while 4 maintained the same score between both tests.

Amongst these respondents, the respondent who scored the lowest score of 9 marks during the pre-test, R27, improved the most. She improved by 59 marks to score a total of 68 marks during the post-test. As she scored poorly during her pre-test, her 59 marks increment in terms of marks was equivalent to 656% improvement rate. Another two who also had high improvement in terms of percentage that was above 200% were R34 and R13. The trend for both these respondents were similar to R27 as all three of them only scored below 20 marks for their pre-test. So, R34's 46 marks improvement in terms of score was

equivalent to 256% improvement as compared to the initial 18 marks during her

pre-test and R13's 31 marks improvement in terms of score was equivalent to

221% improvement as compared to his initial 14 marks during the pre-test.

Table 4.9: Detailed Analysis on Score B for Respondents who Improved the Most (in Percentage)

| No. | Resp. | Score B | | |
| | | N | | |
		Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
1	27	2	15	13
2	34	4	14	10
3	13	3	10	7

When examining their Score B performance in detail, with reference to

Table 4.9 above, it was shown that R27 demonstrated the highest improvement

between the tests as her pre-test result was the lowest. With only 2 out of the 22

verbs given used correctly during her pre-test, R27 managed to improve her result

by getting 15 out of 22 verbs correct during her post-test. As for R34, the second

respondent among the top three respondents who improved the most for Score B,

she used 4 out of the 22 verbs given correctly during her pre-test and managed to

improve it by 10 to get 14 out of 22 verbs correct during the post-test. Then, R13

who used 3 out of the 22 verbs given correctly during the pre-test managed to

improve his result when he got 10 out of the 22 verbs given correctly.

For respondents who deteriorated in their Score B between the two tests,

R44 was the only respondents who deteriorated more than 50% which made her

the respondent who deteriorated the most in terms of percentage. As shown in

Table 4.8 (Pg 70), R44 managed to score 36 marks for her pre-test but dropped

tremendously to score only 9 marks for her post-test. By deteriorating 75% from

her pre-test and scoring 9 marks for her post-test, she was the respondent who

deteriorated the most both in terms of percentage and score. When examining her performance in detail as shown in Table 4.10 below, it was found that R44 did not score very well for her pre-test as she only used 8 out of 22 verbs given correctly but did much worse for her post-test as she only used 2 out of 22 verbs given correctly and that gave her the lowest score among the respondents for the post-test.

Table 4.10: Detailed Analysis on Score B for Respondents whose Result Deteriorated the Most (Both in Terms of Scores and Percentage)

| No. | Resp. | Score B | | |
| | | N | | |
		Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
1	R44	8	2	-6

Another paired sample t-test was also conducted to compare the mean for Score B between pre-test and post-test. With the significant level set at $p < 0.5$, it was found that the difference between the scores for pre-test (M=52.06, SD=19.93) and post-test (M=57.88, SD=21.15) was not significant, $t(50)=-1.99$, p=.052 as shown in Table 4.11 and Table 4.12 below. These results indicated that though there was improvement in the respondents' overall performance for Score B, the marking which only took into consideration the use of verbs provided was not as encouraging as their performance in Score A. This might be due to the vocabulary barrier whereby the respondents did not understand the meaning of some of the verbs provided and were unable to use them correctly.

Table 4.11: Paired Sample Statistics for Score B

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	52.06	51	19.93	2.791
Post-test	57.88	51	21.15	2.961

Table 4.12: Comparison of Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores for Score B

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-test – Post-test	-1.989	50	.052

After examining both Score A and Score B individually, the next section will look at the comparison of the students' performance between both scores.

4.2.3 Comparison of Students' Performance Between Score A & B

After both the scores were obtained, four respondents from three different groups were chosen for comparison and interview purposes. They were chosen amongst the most improved respondents, the least improved respondents and respondents whose performance deteriorated from their pre-test to post-test for both Score A & B. The respondents' improvement was compared in terms of scores and the four respondents representing each category were grouped as listed in Table 4.13 below.

Table 4.13: Categories for the Chosen Respondents Representing Each Group

Group Categories	Description of Groups	Chosen Respondents
Group I	Respondents chosen among the most improved group.	R2, R27, R31, R34
Group II	Respondents chosen among the least improved group.	R8, R22, R26 R35
Group III	Respondents chosen among those who declined in performance between the tests.	R33, R44, R50 R51

Group I was made up of the four chosen respondents representing the most improved respondents and they were R2, R31, R34 and R47. Group II were represented by R8, R22, R26 and R35 and they were the representatives of respondents who improved the least in the treatment. The third group, Group III, which consisted of R33, R44, R50 and R51 were the group which represented respondents who deteriorated in performance from their pre-test to post-test.

The ranking for Group I members among the most improved respondents and their performance in Score A and B were listed in Table 4.14 and Table 4.15 below. From the tables, it was found that there was a reversal trend between their performance in Score A and Score B. For instance, R2, who improved the most in Score A, did not perform as well as the other three group members for his Score B and R27 who improved the most in Score B was ranked the last in Group I for Score A.

Table 4.14: Respondents' Ranking and Performance in Score A for Group I

No.	Respondent	Ranking among the most improved respondents	Test scores		Improvement	
		SCORE A				
			Pre-test	Post-test	(Score)	(%)
1	R2	1	44	90	46	105
2	R31	5	48	79	31	65
3	R34	6	38	68	30	79
4	R27	9	43	69	26	60

Table 4.15: Respondents' Ranking and Performance in Score B for Group I

No.	Respondent	Ranking among the most improved respondents	Test scores		Improvement	
		SCORE B				
			Pre-test	Post-test	(Score)	(%)
1	R27	1	9	68	59	656
2	R34	3	18	64	46	256
3	R31	4	41	77	36	88
4	R2	5	45	77	32	71

When analysing R2's performance for Score A in his pre and post tests as shown in Table 4.16 below, it was found that the total use of verbs was almost the same for both tests, that was a total of 32 verb tenses used in the pre-test and 31 verb tenses used during the post-test. However, R2 managed to improve his performance from using 14 verb tenses correctly in his pre-test to using 28 verb tenses correctly in his post test. This indicated that R2's focus was on the quality of his work rather than the length of his essay. His Score B which is shown in Table 4.17, however, did not improve as much as he used 10 out of 22 verbs provided correctly for his pre-test and improved his result by scoring 17 out of 22 for his post-test, an improvement of 7 verb tenses from his pre-test to post-test.

As for R27, she topped the group of the most improved respondents for Score B because she did poorly for her pre-test. By getting only 2 out of the 22 verbs correct as shown in Table 4.17, R27 managed to use 15 verbs correctly in her post-test and she had the highest improvement in terms of the number of correct verb tenses used. For her Score A, R27's focus was on the length of her essay. By using a total of 14 verb tenses and got 6 correct in her pre-test as illustrated in Table 4.16, R27 increased her essay length by using 32 verb tenses in total for her post-test and she used 22 of them correctly. Though she did much better than the others in terms of the total use of verb tenses and increment in the correct use of verb tenses, she was still the one who made the most mistakes among them. By writing longer essay, R27 also made more mistakes than her other group members in Group I. The detailed analysis on Group I's performance for Score A & B are shown in Table 4.16 & Table 4.17 below.

Table 4.16: Detailed Analysis on Score A for Group I

	Score A					
	$\chi2$ (correct ones)			$\chi1$ (total verb tenses used)		
Resp.	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
R2	14	28	14	32	31	-1
R31	16	23	7	33	29	-4
R34	12	19	7	32	28	-4
R27	6	22	16	14	32	18

Table 4.17: Detailed Analysis on Score B for Group I

	Score B		
	N		
Resp.	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
R2	10	17	7
R31	9	17	8
R34	4	14	10
R27	2	15	13

For Group II, the representatives of the least improved group, the data showed that three out of four of the members performed better than Group I for their pre-test both in Score A and Score B. Though their post-test results were at par with the respondents in Group I, they did not show much difference in terms of improvement. This might be due to the ceiling effect as the respondents might have reached the maximum of their ability in performing the task. Based on Table 4.18 and Table 4.19 below, the respondents who ranked the highest in Group II for Score A was R8. With 9 marks improvement, R8 was ranked the third among the least improved respondents. For his Score B, R8 did worse as not only did he fail to improve his result but he deteriorated in his performance between the pre and post tests. From scoring 68 marks for his pre-test, his result dropped 9 marks to 59 marks for his post-test.

The respondent who was ranked the second among the least improvement respondents for Score B was R26. When compared to R8, R26 showed a more stable performance. Though she did not show any improvement in her Score B, she managed to maintain her results. For her Score A, R26 took the sixth place among the least improved respondents.

Table 4.18: Respondents' Ranking and Performance in Score A for Group II

| No. | Respondent | Ranking among the least improved respondents | SCORE A | | | |
| | | | Test scores | | Improvement | |
			Pre-test	Post-test	(Score)	(%)
1	R8	3	68	77	9	13
2	R26	6	46	55	9	20
3	R22	10	61	73	12	20
4	R35	-6	76	71	-5	-7

Table 4.19: Respondents' Ranking and Performance in Score B for Group II

No.	Respondent	Ranking among the least improved respondents	Test scores		Improvement	
			Pre-test	Post-test	(Score)	(%)
1	R26	2	50	50	0	0
2	R22	3	77	77	0	0
3	R35	11	68	77	9	13
4	R8	-8	68	59	-9	-13

When analysing R8's performance in detail as shown in Table 4.20 & Table 4.21, it was found that though he reduced his essay length from his pre-test to his post-test but there was only a slight improvement in terms of the quality of his work. For his Score A, from using 40 verb tenses correctly out of the total 59 verb tenses used in his essay during the pre-test, R8 reduced the number of verb tenses used in his essay for his post-test. He only used 47 verb tenses in total and managed to use 36 of it correctly. His performance for Score B was worse. He not only failed to score better but deteriorated in his post-test. From using 15 verb tenses correctly in his pre-test, R8 only got 13 correct during his post-test.

As for R26's performance for Score B, she only managed to use half of the 22 given verb tenses correctly in her pre-test and merely maintained her result in the post test by using 11 out of the 22 verbs given correctly. For her Score A, R26 also reduced her use of verb tenses during the post-test but she improved in terms of the correct use of tenses. From using a total of 41 verb tenses and getting 19 correct in her pre-test, R26 reduced the number of total verb tenses used to 38 and getting 21 of it correct in her post-test. This showed that she too applied the same strategy of writing a shorter essay and focusing on her use of tenses.

Table 4.20: Detailed Analysis on Score A for Group II

Resp.	Score A					
	$\chi2$ (correct ones)			$\chi1$ (total verb tenses used)		
	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
R8	40	36	-4	59	47	-12
R26	19	21	2	41	38	-3
R22	19	24	5	31	33	2
R35	22	20	-2	29	28	-1

Table 4.21: Detailed Analysis on Score B for Group II

Resp.	Score B		
	N		
	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
R8	15	13	-2
R26	11	11	0
R22	17	17	0
R35	15	17	2

Lastly, referring to Table 4.22 and Table 4.23 for the ranking and performances of the four chosen respondents who represented those who deteriorated in performance between the pre-post tests, it could be concluded that R44 was the respondents with the worst performance among the members in the group for both Score A and Score B. For Score A, R44's performance dropped the most as her scores plunged drastically from 31 marks during her pre-test to only 7 marks for her post-test. The same scenario happened in her Score B when she was also the respondent whose performance declined the most when her result dropped from 36 marks during her pre-test to 9 marks during her post-test.

Table 4.22: Respondents' Ranking and Performance in Score A for Group III

No.	Respondent	SCORE A				
		Ranking among respondents who deteriorated in performance	Test scores		Improvement	
			Pre-test	Post-test	(Score)	(%)
1	R44	1	31	7	-24	-77
2	R33	2	52	29	-23	-44
3	R51	4	65	43	-22	-34
4	R50	6	53	36	-17	-32

Table 4.23: Respondents' Ranking and Performance in Score B for Group III

No.	Respondent	SCORE B				
		Ranking among respondents who deteriorated in performance	Test scores		Improvement	
			Pre-test	Post-test	(Score)	(%)
1	R44	3	36	9	-27	-75
2	R50	4	50	23	-27	-54
3	R33	6	59	32	-27	-46
4	R51	7	64	41	-23	-36

When the respondents' performances were looked into in detail, it was found that though there was an attempt to reduce the total use of verb tenses in general by focusing on the quality of her writing, R44's attempt failed when her correct use of verb tenses also reduced significantly. Referring to Table 4.24, it shows that from the total of 35 verb tenses used in her pre-test, R44 managed to score 11 of them correctly. However, in her post-test, R44 only scored 2 correct out of the 28 verb tenses used throughout her essay. Her performance for Score B, as shown in Table 4.25, was similar when the number of correct verb tenses used dropped from 8 during her pre-test to only 2 for her post-test. This might be due to the respondents' misunderstanding of a certain concept in past tenses which caused her to use it wrongly in her post-test.

Table 4.24: Detailed Analysis on Score A for Group III

Resp.	Score A					
	$\chi2$ (correct ones)			$\chi1$ (total verb tenses used)		
	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
R44	11	2	-9	35	28	-7
R33	13	8	-5	25	28	3
R51	22	19	-3	34	44	10
R50	16	13	-3	30	36	6

Table 4.25: Detailed Analysis on Score B for Group III

Resp.	Score B		
	N		
	Pre-test	Post-test	Difference
R44	8	2	-6
R33	13	7	-6
R51	14	9	-5
R50	11	5	-6

In a whole, the treatment did deliver what it was set out to do, that was to help respondents improve their writing especially in terms of accuracy i.e., writing comprehensible narrative essay in past tense.

After examining the performances of the respondents in Group I, II and III, the next section will look into the qualitative part of this study where these respondents were interviewed to reveal their perceptions and opinions on the treatment sessions.

4.3   Interview Sessions

After the respondents from the three groups, i.e. Group I, II and III were identified, they were asked to share their thoughts and opinions on the treatment sessions in answering the following question:

Research Question 2:   What are the learners' perceptions of cognitive apprenticeship in the learning of past tense forms in narrative writing?

The interview sessions were transcribed and the findings were later coded and analysed. From the analysis, factors on the use of explicit instructions, other features of cognitive apprenticeship, three of its teaching methods used and other contributing factors were identified and these findings were later compared to six previous studies which had been discussed in Section 2.5 (Pg 25).

Feng & Powers (2005), in examining the effect of explicit grammar instruction in fifth graders' writing, reported that error-based instruction was beneficial to students and the incorporation of grammar in writing helped students improve their writing ability, particularly in revising and editing. In addition, Andrews (2007) who compared between explicit and implicit instruction in grammar teaching found that the explicitly taught group demonstrated significantly higher scores compared to the implicitly taught group. As for local studies on grammar teaching, Tan (2005) who studied the use of drill exercises in helping students reduce SVA errors in academic writing reported that there was a significant reduction of errors in the students' work and their perception towards the method changed from being skeptical before the treatment to giving encouraging responses after the treatment and finally, Wee, Sim & Kamaruzaman (2009) also reported that overt teaching, which included the use of explicit instruction of grammar form, did decrease the frequency of grammar errors drastically after the treatment and induce improvement in the quality of students' essays. These findings concur with the present study whereby the respondents unanimously commented that the opportunity given for self-correction was effective in reducing tenses errors and the explicit instructions given on the usage

of the three tenses, the basic structures and example sentences helped them understand the use of past tense forms better.

In previous studies on cognitive apprenticeship in language learning, Kolikant, Gatchell, Hirsh & Linsenmeier (2006) found that the respondents in their study performed well in the scientific writing tasks though they only had limited experience in the assignment and many of them found the scaffolding helpful. Lastly, Shan (2008)'s study on the teaching of listening had also found that respondents who were allowed to watch, listen and know how the language is used did better in their English in general compared to the control group and that aroused their interest in learning the language. Similar results were also noted in the present study as the respondents also found scaffolding and modelling beneficial. Some of the respondents mentioned that the scaffolding allowed them to focus on one task at a time and thus reduced their anxiety level, which finally resulted in the decline in their tenses errors.

In designing the research method for the present study, various aspects of these six studies were considered and a research design that incorporated different aspects from these studies were later proposed. Instead of comparing between two teaching approaches, this study intended to investigate the effectiveness of one approach in grammar teaching, i.e., the use of explicit instruction in teaching past tense forms and how incorporating it with cognitive apprenticeship helped in reducing learners' tenses errors in narrative writing. The next section will discuss on factors related to the features of cognitive apprenticeship.

4.3.1 Factors Related to Features of Cognitive Apprenticeship

After examining the transcriptions from the interview sessions, a few factors related to the features of cognitive apprenticeship were identified. These

features include the use of explicit instructions, self-correction and monitoring activities, collaborative social interaction and authentic materials.

4.3.1.1 Explicit Instructions

When asked about the usefulness of the explicit instructions given, all the respondents agreed that they were very helpful in general. A respondent stated during her interview that the explicit explanations on the usage of the tenses given by the instructor are useful as she was ignorant of the importance of tenses in English prior to the treatment given. Having learnt English for almost ten years, R26 from Group II pointed out that she was unaware of the different verb forms available and that the verb form changes when stating actions done in different time frames. This was noted in the respondent's interview as transcribed below.

Instructor : "Apakah yang [awak] tak tahu sebelum tu, lepas kelas tu jadi tahu?"
["*What is it that [you] didn't know before this and are aware of after attending the class?"*]

R26 : "Perkataan past tense. Macam (seperti) nak ubah dia."
["*The verbs in past tense forms. That they need to be changed."*]

Instructor : "Ubah macam mana?"
["*How is it changed?"*]

R26 : "Yang asal jadi past tense. Macam bring jadi brought."
["*To change from the present form to the past form. For example, from bring to brought.*"]

This showed that explicit instruction and explanation provided by the instructor are important in helping learners understand the concepts of past tense forms as it would confuse them if they do not grasp the concepts well. Though helpful, it could also be confusing if the explanations were not given properly. A member from Group II, R8, mentioned in his interview that he was confused and

not certain of the use of past perfect tense as he could not focus during the session when past perfect tense was taught due to some distractions. Below is the transcription from his interview session.

Instructor : "In the whole kelas malam tu, was there any part that you don't like?."
["*In the whole night classes, was there any part that you don't like?*"]

R8 : "Past perfect tense tu. Saya tak berapa nak tangkap. Sebab masa tu, teacher sedang menunggu orang masuk kelas. Teacher terang sikit, lepas tu ada orang masuk. Lepas tu, teacher stop sekejap. Lepas tu bila teacher terang balik, ada orang masuk pula. So teacher stop sekejap. Macam terganggu lah fokus tu."
["*The past perfect tense. I don't really understand it. At that time, students were coming in late while you were explaining and you had to stop teaching. Then you had to explain everything again. I was distracted and could not focus.*"]

Instructor : "So for past perfect tense tu, you tak berapa…"
["*So, for the past perfect tense, you don't really…*"]

R8 : "Ya. Tak berapa nak tangkap."
["*Yes. I didn't really get it.*"]

Another respondent from Group III further supported R8's opinion. As transcribed in the interview below, R33 mentioned that she was also confused with past perfect tense especially with its' usage.

Instructor : "Yang perfect tu awak rasa keliru?"
["*You are confused with the past perfect tense?*"]

R33 : "Ya
["*Yes.*"]

Instructor : "Struktur itu keliru ke? Ataupun bila nak guna tu keliru?"
["*Is the structure confusing?Or when to use past perfect tense confuses you?*"]

R33 : "Bila nak guna tu keliru."
["*When to use it.*"]

Apart from the learners' perceptions and opinions collected from the interview sessions, the teacher's observation also substantiated the respondents' claim as many of the respondents either used the past perfect tense wrongly or chose to avoid using the past perfect tense in their exercises.

When asked of the teaching of the basic structures during the sessions, R27 from Group I stated that the explicit explanations on the basic structures are vital as it serves as a guide for learners so that they know how to arrange the sentences correctly.

Instructor   : "Adakah struktur ini [awak] rasa perlu?"
              ["*Do [you] think the structure is necessary?*"]

R27   : "Perlu."
              ["*Necessary.*"]

Instructor   : "Kenapa?"
              ["*Why?*"]

R27   : "Sebab nak tahu subjek mana, verb mana."
              ["*To know where to place the subject and the verb.*"]

Instructor   : "Kalau tidak diberi? Ada beza tak bagi student kalau tidak beri?"
              ["*If not given? Is there a difference to the students if the structures were not given?*"]

R27   : "Mungkin ayat itu akan tidak tersusun. Tidak ikut susunan."
              ["*Maybe the sentences will be ungrammatical.   Not in a grammatical order.*"]

From the teacher's observation, it was found that R27 could not construct proper sentences in her pre-test and most of the sentences she constructed were incomprehensible. After being exposed to the basic structures during the first three treatment sessions, her sentence patterns showed drastic improvement. Though they were short and simple, her sentences were grammatical. She was aware of the basic structures especially the simple past tense and she managed to

construct short but comprehensible sentences grammatically since then until the post-test.

R2 who was also from Group I further supported the importance of the teaching of the basic structures. He also brought to attention the importance of the example sentences, which was part of the explicit instructions given, especially the way the sentences were presented. R2 pointed out in his interview, as shown below, that the example sentences are especially helpful when they are visually presented in boxes according to the different parts of speech.

Instructor : "Bagaimana pula kalau ayat-ayat contoh ini tidak diletak dalam petak? Ada beza tak?"
["*What if the example sentences were not placed in boxes (according to the parts of speech)? Is there a difference?*"]

R2 : "Beza."
["*It's different.*"]

Instructor : "Jadi tadi yang [awak] kata contoh ayat itu membantu, sebenarnya kotak itu yang membantu?"
["*So when [you] mentioned that the example sentences were helpful, you were referring to the boxes?*"]

R2 : "Ya."
["*Yes.*"]

Instructor : "Kalau tak ada kotak dan ayat ditulis seperti biasa?
["*If there were no boxes and the sentences were written in plain layout?*"]

R2 : "Tak tahu mana subjek, mana verb."
["*I wouldn't know which is the subject, which is verb.*"]

R2's statement was further supported by many other respondents including R8 from Group II and R44 and R50 from Group III. They agreed that the visual presentation of the example sentences in boxes according to the parts of speech is very helpful and easy to refer to. The interview transcriptions are presented below.

Instructor : "Tadi, [awak] kata yang example sentences tu berguna kan? Yang [awak] maksudkan tu, ayat tu yang membantu ke? Ataupun kotak dia yang membantu?"
["*Just now, [you] mentioned that the example sentences were useful, right? Did [you] mean the sentences were helpful? Or the boxes (division of parts of speech) were helpful?*"]

R8 : "Kotak dan ayat."
["*Boxes and sentences.*"]

Instructor : "Pembahagian kotak?"
["*The division of parts of speech in the boxes?*"]

R8 : "Ya, pembahagian kotak."
["*Yes. The division of the boxes*"]

Instructor : "What about basic structures?
["*What about the basic structures?*"]

R8 : "Basic structures? Saya kadang-kadang tak berapa ingatlah group dia."
["*The basic structures? I sometimes don't really remember the groups (grouping of nouns).*"]

Instructor :"So, sebenarnya yang [awak] kata example sentences tu membantu, adalah kotak tu yang membantu?"
["*So, when [you] said that the example sentences are helpful, it's the boxes that are helpful?*"]

R44 : "Hmm… Dia ceraikan yang mana verb, yang mana negatif, yang verb kena tambah 'ing'."
["*Hmm… It breaks down the sentence according to the verb, the negative forms and the ones which the verbs needed to have 'ing' (continuous tense).*"]

R50 : "Pecah kotak, student lebih faham."
["*In boxes (according to the parts of speech). Students understand better*"]

Instructor : "Lebih faham dari segi rujuk struktur ke? Atau lebih faham dari segi apa?"
["*Understand better in terms of structure? What is it that is easier to understand?*"]

R50 : "Dari segi nak buat ayat."
["*In terms of sentence construction.*"]

The benefits of explicit instructions as stated by the interviewed respondents above were similar to previous studies conducted by Feng & Powers (2005), Andrews (2007), Tan (2005) and Wee, Sim & Kamaruzaman (2009). Feng & Powers (2005), in their study, stated that explicit grammar instructions are helpful to learners as their accuracy on the grammatical items improves in general while Andrews (2007) also proved that the respondents from the explicitly taught group in her study did improve from their pre-test to post-test and these respondents generally did better when compared to the implicitly taught and control group. Tan (2005) who also included the use of explicit teaching in her drill exercises also proved that the respondents' performance improved in their academic writing and Wee, Sim and Kamaruzaman (2009) further supported the benefit of explicit teaching when it was proven that the use of explicit instruction in their treatment significantly reduced respondents' errors in SVA and enhanced the quality of their writing.

Another identified factor related to the features of cognitive apprenticeship that will be discussed next is on self-correction and monitoring activities.

4.3.1.2 Self-Correction and Monitoring Activities

When asked about self-correction, all the respondents unanimously agreed that they prefer to do self-correction than having given direct answer by the teacher. R27, from Group I, believed that by doing her own corrections, she is not only aware of her own mistakes but also the reasons behind those mistakes. Below is the transcription of her interview session.

Instructor   : "[Awak] rasa student buat pembetulan sendiri lebih baik ataupun cikgu bagi semua pembetulan?"
["*Do [you] think it is better for students' to do their own correction or the teacher should provide the answers?"*]

R27   : "Student buat sendiri sebab dia tahu kesalahan dia tu apa dan lepas tu kenapa."
["*Students should do their own correction so that they will know what their mistakes are and why.*"]

Apart from that, as stated in the interview sessions below, R50 and R51 who were both from Group III also stated that they found self-correction helpful as it enables them to remember their mistakes better.

R50   : "Kalau kita baiki sendiri, kita akan mudah ingat apa kesalahan yang kita buat."
["*If we correct them (the mistakes) ourselves, we will remember our mistakes better.*"]

Instructor   : "[Awak] lebih suka kalau [awak] cari sendiri (pembetulan)?"
["*[You] prefer to look up for it (the corrections) yourself?*"]

R51   : "Ya."
["*Yes.*"]

Instructor   : "Kenapa?"
["*Why?*"]

R51   : "Ayat tu akan ingat sampai bila-bila."
["*The sentence will be remembered forever.*"]

R33, also a member of Group III, stated in her interview that self-correction helped her master the grammar items and not to repeat the same mistakes. Below is an excerpt from her interview transcription.

R33   : "Lebih boleh menguasai dengan lebih banyak lagi benda yang salah."
["*The mistakes could be mastered (when I do self-correction).*"]

R26 from Group II added that she prefers to do self-correction as she has a bad habit of not reading through the correct answers when they have been provided by the teacher.

Instructor : "Kenapa? Kalau teacher bagi terus? [Awak] tak suka?"
["*Why? What if the teacher gives it (the correct answer) directly? [You] don't like it?*"]

R26 : "Tak. Tak baca dah lah. Tak ingat dah lah."
["*No. (Since it has been corrected) I won't read it, and thus won't remember it.*"]

The teacher's observation in the case of R31 from Group I provided evidence where she used the verbs in the present form in her pre-test and she also had the tendency of putting 'was' and 'were' in front of the verbs, i.e., 'It was slipped' and 'My parents were thanked my neighbours'. After going through the treatment and correcting her own mistakes, she finally overcame her initial mistakes and was among those who improved the most (Appendix E).

Though self-correction is a little tedious but it proves to be beneficial in the long run. Learners would be more aware of their common errors and could improve on it. This will eventually help them monitor their own work as mentioned by R2, a member from Group I and also R8 from Group II. They stated during the interview that they used the skill obtained from the treatment to edit their essay when they sat for their actual public examination. Below are excerpts taken from their interview sessions.

Instructor : "Kalau sekarang awak kena tulis narrative writing, awak rasa awak akan ikut tak cara check tenses tu? Ataupun awak tak ingat dah?"
["*If you have to write a narrative essay now, do you think you will still check your tenses (editing and monitoring)? Or have you forgotten about it?*"]

R2 : "Ikut. Masa peperiksaan saya ada buat, dengan pensil."
["*I will follow. I even did it using pencil during the exam (SPM).*"]

Instructor   : "Awak ada edit tak masa SPM tu?"
               ["*Did you edit (your tenses) during SPM exam?"*]

R8   : "Ada. Saya ada edit."
               ["*Yes. I did."*]

These findings from the interview were in line with the studies conducted by Feng & Powers (2005) and Wee, Sim & Kamaruzaman (2009). In their studies, Feng & Powers concluded that learners' accuracy in writing could be improved through error identification and correction and they also suggested that teachers should embed revising and editing stages in the teaching of writing. Wee, Sim & Kamaruzaman (2009) who also included error correction in their treatment also proved that error identification and corrective feedback are beneficial in improving the students' language skills.

Apart from self-correction, when asked about working with a friend, some respondents said they enjoy working in pairs or groups but some think otherwise. From the interview sessions, there were mixed responses on the usefulness of collaborative learning, which is also one of the features promoted in cognitive apprenticeship.

4.3.1.3 Collaborative Social Interaction

During the interview, seven of the twelve respondents including R27 from Group I, R26 from Group II, R33, R44 and R50 from Group III stated that they enjoyed working with friends. R26 mentioned that she found it helpful to work with friends as her friends helped her when she could not understand what was taught and needed further clarification.

Instructor : "[Awak] lebih suka buat yang mana satu? Yang buat seorang ke? Atau yang buat dalam pasangan?"
["*Which one do [you] prefer to do? The individual work? Or the pair work?*"]

R26 : "Pasangan."
["*The pair work.*"]

Instructor : "Kenapa?"
["*Why?*"]

R26 : "Tahu mana yang salah. Ada sesetengah tak tahu, boleh minta tolong."
["*(I'll know) which one is wrong. For those that I don't know, (I) can ask for help.*"]

……

R26 : "Kadang-kadang lambat sikit. Sebab baru tahu kan. Macam lambat sikit nak tangkap."
["*Sometimes (I was) a little slow (in understanding what was taught) as it was something new. My understanding is slow.*"]

Instructor : "Yang masa teacher tunjuk atas papan?"
["*The one that I modelled on the board (editing)?*"]

R26 : "Ya."
["*Yes.*"]

Instructor : "Jadi [awak] boleh buat tak bahagian tu?"
["*So could [you] do that part (editing)?*"]

R26 : "Kena tanya kawan sekali lagi."
["*I have to ask my friends again.*"]

Apart from learning from each other, R27, a member from Group I, also found that working with friends enable her to exchange ideas amongst his peers and R2 who was also from the same group mentioned that working with friends allowed them to correct each others' work.

Instructor : "Apakah kelebihan kalau [awak] boleh tanya kawan dalam kumpulan?"
["*What is the benefit if [you] can ask your friend (when working) in a group?*"]

R27   : "Boleh tukar pendapat."
           ["*(We) can exchange ideas.*"]

Instructor : "[Awak] rasa apakah kelebihan perbincangan kepada pelajar?"
           ["*What do [you] think is the benefit of group discussion to students?*"]

R2   : "Banyak kesalahan dapat dikenalpasti dan orang lain dapat betulkan kesalahan kita."
           ["*(We could) identify many errors and others (our friends) can correct our mistakes.*"]

Having mentioned the benefits of collaborative learning, five out of the twelve respondents stated during their interview sessions that though helpful, working with friends could sometimes cause confusion. R8 from Group II and R34 from Group I found that working with their friends caused problems especially when they had different opinions and understanding on a particular matter and both mentioned that their friends often confused them during the treatment session and thus they preferred to work individually.

R8   : "Kerja berpasangan, banyak masalah. Kadang-kadang kita bercanggah pendapat. Seseorang tu bagi idea lain, yang lain bagi idea lain. Lepas tu nak susun balik tu. Memang kalau buat seorang tu bolehlah. Tapi saya rasa kalau mula-mula tu, lebih baik berpasangan."
           ["*Working in pairs brings many problems. Sometimes, we have opposing ideas. One gives an idea and the other has another idea. Then, we have to rearrange the ideas again. I think I could manage working alone. However, I think pair work may be good at the beginning stage.*"]

R34   : "Kalau saling bekerjasama, tak apa. Tapi kalau macam bercanggah pendapat tu, macam dia kata begitu, saya kata begini, saya akan rasa macam "Yang mana betul ni?". Kalau macam tu, baik saya rasa buat sendiri."
           ["*If (we could) work together, then that's fine. But if we have different opinions and ideas, it confuses me. If that's the case, then it is better I work alone.*"]

From the teacher's observation, most of the respondents in the treatment worked well with their friends. It was found that collaborative learning is especially beneficial to weaker learners whereby peer learning provides them with the confident and support they need. This finding was further supported by Kolikant, Gatchell, Hirsh & Linsenmeier (2006). In their survey, they reported that most of the students who participated in the discussion session in their study also found it to be useful. Though it was stated in Feng & Powers (2005) that peer learning is popular and encouraged in the classroom but the effectiveness of editing among learners depends highly on the ability of the learners in identifying the errors. Thus, teachers have to make sure that sufficient supervision is given to monitor students' progress in the class.

Apart from taking into account the opportunity for respondents to work in pairs, the treatment sessions also brought forth authentic conditions to enable respondents to relate the use of tenses in real life communication.

4.3.1.4 Authentic Materials

Having said that, the objective of designing the exercises to promote the link between the use of tenses with real life communication was not as effective as intended. Apart from six of the respondents who knew tenses are related to real life communication before attending the treatment, four of the respondents, who were unaware of it, remained ignorant.

When asked if she noticed that the purpose of having the exercises related to students' own experiences was to enable them to relate the use of tenses to real life communication implicitly, R27 from Group I, in her interview transcription below, mentioned that she was not aware of the relation. She

suggested that the teacher should point it out the students explicitly so that they will be aware of it.

Instructor : "So, walaupun teacher suruh [awak] buat latihan ni, latihan tentang Hari Raya yang kita lalui, [awak] tak nampak juga konsep tu?"
["*So, even though I asked [you] to do this exercise, the one on the recent Hari Raya (incorporating the use of past tense with personal experience), [you] are still unaware of the concept?*"]

R27 : "Tak."
["*No.*"]

Instructor : "So kalau teacher nak bagi student lain nampak, teacher kena buat macam mana?"
["*So if I want the students to see it (be aware of the concept), what do I have to do?*"]

R27 : "Bagi tahu."
["*Tell them (directly).*"]

Among the respondents who were interviewed, only two of them mentioned that they were able to relate tenses to real life communication through the exercises. This was noted from the interview transcriptions by R26 from Group II and R33 from Group III below.

Instructor : "Sejak bila faham? Teacher nak tahu bila masa yang [awak] sedar yang past tense tu sebenarnya berkaitan dengan kehidupan seharian kita. Sebelum ni [awak] ingatkan yang past tense tu guna dalam karangan saja, hari biasa tak guna. [Awak] rasa start bila [awak] start tahu? Masa buat nota? Ataupun masa buat latihan? Ataupun habis kelas dah baru [awak] tahu?"
["*Since when did you understand? I want to know when did [you] realise that past tense forms are related to our everyday life? Before this, [you] thought that past tense is only used in essay, not in our everyday use (communication). When do [you] think [you] started to know (realise)? During the note (explicit teaching)? Or during the exercise? Or [you] only realised it after the class (treatment sessions) ended?*"]

R26 : "Buat latihan."
["*During the exercises.*"]

Instructor : "Adakah membuat tugasan yang berkaitan dengan hidup awak tu memberi awak nampak yang past tense tu sebenarnya digunakan bukan dalam kelas sahaja? Yang sebenarnya ia berkaitan dengan hidup awak?"
["*Did the exercises which were related to your daily life (Hari Raya celebration) help you see (realise) that past tense forms are not only used in the class? That is actually related to our everyday life?*"]

R33 : "Ya."
["*Yes.*"]

Considering teaching the students in a relevant context as was applied in this study was similar to Feng & Powers (2005) as they also used essay topics that were related to the respondents' life which included 'My Friends', 'My Spare Time' and 'Fun Time With Friends'. Apart from that, Kolikant, Gatchell, Hirsh & Linsenmeier (2006) in their study also stated that making knowledge accessible to students within context is a strength in using cognitive apprenticeship in teaching scientific reading and writing though the students might not be consciously aware of it. Shan (2008) further supported the benefit of authentic materials as it was stated that knowledge from a situation is more powerful and useful than in general case and the memory last longer. Besides that, it was also reported that true activities are of great importance to students as they can act as apprentice in learning something meaningful (Shan, 2008).

After discussing the factors related to the features of cognitive apprenticeship, the next section will discuss the learners' perceptions that were related to the three teaching methods of cognitive apprenticeship.

4.3.2 Factors Related to the Three Teaching Methods of Cognitive Apprenticeship

Apart from the factors related to the features of cognitive apprenticeship, a few other factors which were identified from the interview sessions were related to the teaching methods found in cognitive apprenticeship. The teaching methods

that were identified were those that are related to mentor support, which include modelling, coaching and scaffolding. The first and most significant method is modelling.

4.3.2.1 Modelling

During the interview, all the respondents found modelling fascinating and helpful especially when the instructor asked some of the respondents to imitate her using the basic structures and edit the tenses on the whiteboard after each demonstration. From the observation, the instructor found that the respondents were very attentive during the modelling sessions. They were able to imitate what was demonstrated quickly. They could utilise the basic structures given and learnt the editing process promptly. Through the interview, most of the respondents such as R31 and R34 from Group I, R26 and R35 from Group II, and R50 from Group III admitted that they are visual learners and they learn better when they could see for themselves how a task is performed. Below is an example of the transcriptions taken from R26's interview session.

Instructor : "Contohnya, sesuatu yang cikgu nak ajar. Dengan teacher cakap dengan mulut dengan teacher tunjuk atas papan. [Awak] lebih suka yang mana satu?"

["*For example, when I want to teach something, would [you] prefer if I just talk (explain) or if I show it on the board (model)?"*]

R26 : "Tunjuk."
["*Demonstrate it (Modelling)."*]

Instructor : "Lebih suka tunjuk?"
["*You'd prefer it to be shown (modelled)?"*]

R26 : "Ya."
["*Yes."*]

Instructor : "So [awak] nak tengok juga macam mana pun? Kalau setakat teacher cakap saja? Bagi [awak]?"
["*So [you] need to see how it's done no matter what? What if the teacher only teaches verbally? What do [you] think?"*]

R26 : "Tak jadi."
["*It doesn't work?"*]

This is especially true for the modelling of the editing process as it was new to most of the respondents. Many of them, including R44, R50 and R51 from Group III, thought that it should be demonstrated. An interview transcription with R44 is shown below.

Instructor : "[Awak] kata yang [awak] paling suka ialah yang kita bincang atas papan tu. Kalau ditukarkan, teacher tak buat bahagian tu? Teacher cuma bagi kertas dan teacher bagi arahan yang you kena buat begini."
["*[You] mentioned that [you] liked the part when we did the exercises on the board (modelling). What if I did not do that part? I just distribute the papers (worksheets) and give instructions on what you have to do."*]

R44 : "Macam tak nampak lah, macam mana kita nak edit?"
["*I wouldn't be able to see how it is done. How would I know how to edit?"*]

R8 from Group II added that what was demonstrated was new to him and he has learnt to edit his essay before submitting it. He was glad that he could do it and he also admitted that he could learn faster when the skills are shown visually.

R8 : "Benda ni (editing), saya memang tak biasa. Saya tulis straight sampai noktah dan saya tinggalkan. Lepas teacher terang dalam kelas, "You must recheck, recheck, recheck", saya try buat. Lama-lama saya sudah biasa. Memang saya boleh buat."
["*I'm not used to it (editing). I normally write until the end and leave it (the essays). After you've stressed it in class that we have to recheck our work, I tried it. I'm used to it after some time and I could do it now."*]

The importance of modelling, as was admitted by all the interviewed respondents in this study, was also mentioned by Kolikant, Gatchell, Hirsh &

Linsenmeier (2006). It was reported that the modelling of the instructor's thinking processes in a similar situation is useful to learners as they get to realise the importance of the skill in the instructor's own professional life. Having the apprentice experiencing the journey taken by the master will enable them to have first-hand experience of how a task is done professionally.

While all the respondents in this study found modelling beneficial to them, they have different preference on how they should be coached.

4.3.2.2 Coaching

Coaching in cognitive apprenticeship takes place when the teacher goes around, facilitating, giving verbal scaffolding, hints and reminders while the students attempt their task. When asked about this, the respondents gave mixed responses whereby five respondents were not comfortable with it while the remaining seven found it helpful. A representative from Group I, R27, expressed during her interview that she felt uncomfortable when the teacher went around the class during the treatment sessions.

Instructor : "Kalau cikgu pergi meronda-ronda masa [awak] buat kerja tu, [awak] rasa…"
["*If I go around the class when [you] are doing your work, [you] feel…*"]

R27 : "Tak selesa."
["*Uncomfortable.*"]

Another respondent from Group III, R33, also agreed with R27 as she found that it made her overly conscious of her work and could not finish the task assigned on time. This might be due to her feeling of insecurity as she is weak in English.

Instructor : "So kalau cikgu ronda tu sepatutnya baik ataupun tak baik?"
["*So, is it a good thing for the teacher to go around the class (when the students are doing their exercises)?*"]

R33   : "Baik tapi mendatangkan masalah kepada student."
["*It's good but it'll cause problem to the students.*"]

Instructor   : "Macam mana?"
["*How so?*"]

R33   : "Macam bila cikgu tegur ayat tu, lepas tu dia focus pada ayat tu sahaja dan kerja dia tak siap."
["*When the teacher comments on a sentence, then the (student's) focus will be on that particular sentence. The work will not be completed in time.*"]

A member from Group II, R8, gave a mixed response regarding the coaching process. He mentioned that the teacher's interference was distracting and yet, he needed the hint and guide provided by the teacher. He also stated that it is important for the teacher to constantly provide reminders to students.

Instructor   : "Contohnya, macam kelas malam tu, apabila teacher pergi meronda untuk check student buat kerja tu, mengganggu awak?"
["*For example, during the night class, when the teacher went around the class checking students' work, did that bother you?*"]

R8   : "Oh, tak mengganggu. Cuma saya tak dapat fokuslah"
["*Oh, it didn't bother me. It's just that I could not focus.*"]

Instructor   : "And then, contohnya kalau awak buat salah, [awak] rasa cikgu perlu tak membantu? Contohnya, I underline your kesalahan, and then do you need like hints? Like cikgu kata kenapa this one salah?"
["*Then, when you make mistakes, do [you] think the teacher needs to help? For example, when I underlined your mistakes, did you need hints from the teacher on what was wrong?*"]

R8   : "I need hints."
["*Yes. I need hints.*"]

Despite having some negative feedbacks, there are still some positive ones. R51 from Group III expressed during her interview that she preferred the teacher to go around facilitating when she attempted the exercises and R26 from Group II believed that she could remember her mistakes better when she was corrected the time those errors were made.

Instructor : "[Awak] lebih suka cikgu tegur kesalahan semasa [awak] buat? Ataupun [awak] lebih suka masa [awak] buat kerja tu, cikgu biar [awak] habiskan dulu?"
["*[You] would prefer if I point out the errors when [you] were making them? Or do [you] prefer if I let [you] finish your work first (before checking)?"*]

R51 : "Tak suka begitu. Lebih suka kalau teacher round-round begitu. Lebih suka teacher check masa tu."
["*I don't like it. I'd prefer you go around (when I'm doing my task). I prefer you check (my work) there and then.*"]

Instructor : "Ada sesetengah student, dia kata dia rasa stress kalau teacher tunjuk masa dia tengah buat. Bagi [awak], [awak] rasa begitu tak?"
["*Some students said that they would feel stressful if I point it (their errors) out when they are doing their work. Do [you] feel that way?*"]

R26 : "Tak, sebab masa buat lah baik. Kalau teacher mari tengok, boleh baiki terus."
["*No, I think that it is the best time. If you point it out then, I could correct it immediately.*"]

Instructor : "[Awak] lebih suka begitu?"
["*[You] prefer it that way?*"]

R26 : "Ya. Lebih ingat."
["*Yes. I could remember better.*"]

From the observation, the instructor found that it was easier for the students' to notice their errors when it was highlighted at the time those errors were made. Furthermore, the benefit of coaching students while providing feedback was reported as one of the important criteria in the study carried out by Kolikant, Gatchell, Hirsh & Linsenmeier (2006). As for those students who were uncomfortable about it, maybe the teacher should use a more subtle approach in handling the situation as to make it less threatening to them.

Apart from the verbal scaffolding given during coaching, scaffolding in terms of task assigned was also one of the teaching methods that were commented during the interview sessions.

4.3.2.3 Scaffolding

All twelve of the respondents unanimously agreed to the benefits of scaffolding in general. In the treatment session, scaffolding was prepared differently for different exercises. For paragraph writing exercises, respondents were asked to list out the verbs they would use in their writing and identify the past and perfect forms before they started writing. R22 and R35 from Group II and R50 from Group III thought that this was important as it helped them to be aware of which verb form to use in their essay and they also identified the past tense forms of those verbs prior to writing. Below is the transcription for the interview session with R50.

Instructor : "Ada beza tak bagi [awak] kalau teacher tak buat step ni (Task 1)? Daripada nota ni, lepas kita buat ni (esei), lepas tu terus buat."
["*Is there a difference to [you] if I didn't have this step (Task 1 in paragraph writing)? After the notes, we do the paragraph writing (Task 2) directly.*"]

R50 : "Ada beza."
["*Yes, there is (a difference).*"]

Instructor : "Perbezaan bagi [awak] sendiri apa?"
["*What's the difference to [you] personally?*"]

R50 : "Kalau kita tak buat, kita akan tukar antara present ke, past ke, perfect (tense)."
["*If we don't do it(Task 1 in paragraph writing), then we would change (be confused) the verb forms used (be inconsistent).*"]

R34 from Group I also believed that by having Task 1 in the paragraph writing exercises, it helped her reduce her tenses errors and she stressed that this is especially true for weaker students.

R34 : "Saya rasa lebih baik kalau buat step by step. Senang daripada nak buat karangan terus dan banyak salah verb. Kalau kita buat macam ni, berdasarkan yang ni, kita boleh buat karangan."

["*I think it's better if we do it step by step (Task 1 for paragraph writing). It's easier compared to writing the essay immediately and getting the tenses wrong. If we follow the steps (referring to the list), we could do the essay (just by following the verbs listed).*"]

R26 from Group II added that apart from identifying the past forms for the verbs listed, the list also gave her a storyline for her essay. R33 from Group III agreed and said she could focus more on her grammar. She also added that writing shorter essays as compared to longer ones made the task less daunting.

Instructor : "So, kalau teacher minta buat yang ni dulu (list down the verbs and its' different forms), lepas tu baru buat yang ni (paragraph writing). Adakah ia membantu?"

["*So, if I ask you to do this (list down the verbs) first, then only write the paragraph. Is it helpful?*"]

R26 : "Ya, membantu."

["*Yes, it is helpful.*"]

Instructor : "Membantu? Membantu dari segi apa? Membantu sebab ada rangka cerita? Ataupun membantu sebab teacher dah bagi semua tenses?"

["*Helpful? In what way? It's helpful because there is a storyline? Or is it helpful because I have given you all the verb forms?*"]

R26 : "Sebab ada rangka dia."

["*(It is helpful) Because the storyline is there.*"]

R33 : "(Bermula dengan menulis karangan yang pendek sehingga ke yang panjang) lebih melegakan. Jika buat dari pendek hingga ke yang panjang, lebih senang."

["*It's less stressful (starting the treatment with shorter essays). If we start writing shorter essays and slowly progress to the longer ones, it makes it easier.*"]

R22 from Group II stated that he liked the paragraph writing on the school event with his friends. He said that he only needed to recall his experience and not have to create a plot from scratch.

R22   : "Saya rasa ia membantu. Saya hanya perlu cerita balik apa yang dah berlaku. Tak perlu fikir dah jalan cerita. Kita boleh buat dengan kawan lagi."
["*I think it (writing on personal experience) was helpful. I like it because we just needed to retell what had happened (the event in school). We did not need to think of the storyline. We could even do it with a friend (pair work)."*]

Scaffolding was also carried out in the next exercise, the note expansion. To enable the students to focus their attention on their sentence structures rather than the content of the essay, pictures and notes were given. Many respondents liked that exercise including R2 and R27 from Group I, R26 from Group II and R33 from Group III, among others. R26 liked it because the notes made the exercise doable for her and R27 in her interview stated that she found it less stressful.

Instructor : "[Awak] rasa yang mana [awak] paling boleh buat?"
["*Which do [you] think was the most doable for [you]?"*]

R26   : "Yang gambar tu (note-expansion)."
["*The one with the pictures (note-expansion)."*]

Instructor : "Kenapa [awak] rasa yang tu [awak] paling suka? Ataupun paling boleh buat?"
["*Why do [you] think [you] like it (the note-expansion) the most? Or is it the most doable?"*]

R26   : "Sebab masukkan saja."
["*Because I just needed to put them together (string the notes together to make sentences)."*]

Instructor : "Sebab dia dah bagi nota?"
["*It's because the notes were given?"*]

R26   : "Ya."
["*Yes."*]

Instructor	: "Kenapa kurang stress?"
	["*Why was it less stressful?*"]
R27	: "Ada gambar."
	["*There were pictures (guided).*"]
Instructor	: "Sebab isi tu dah ada, cuma kena fikir ayat saja?"
	["*It is because the notes were given and you only needed to think about the sentence structures?*"]
R27	: "Ya."
	["*Yes.*"]

This benefit of scaffolding as mentioned by these respondents were also reported by Kolikant, Gatchell, Hirsh & Linsenmeier (2006) where most of the respondents in their study also found the scaffolding useful to them especially, in achieving the short-term goals of accomplishing the paper assignments. However, that study also noted that many students were able to understand the scientific papers assigned to them but did not know how to communicate the knowledge through their writing. Thus, a suggestion on the modification of scaffolding instruction was proposed. Since many respondents in this study also gave positive responses to how the treatment was carried out, it would be hopeful that the treatment sessions could be further improved to benefit the students, especially the weaker ones.

Having identified all the factors that are related to cognitive apprenticeship, the interview sessions also revealed a few other factors that respondents believed had contributed to their results.

4.3.3 Other Factors

Through the interview sessions, a few respondents also pointed out three other factors that contributed to their performance. These factors include the

scheduling of class, learners' confidence and interest in learning English as well as overgeneralisation of grammar rules.

4.3.3.1 Scheduling of Class

The first factor that was brought to attention by R2 from Group I was the time the treatment sessions were held. As one of the respondents who improved the most, R2 believed that the time the sessions were held is a contributing factor in determining the success of the treatment. He believed that the time the treatment was held, which was at night, was suitable. As one of the treatment sessions was rescheduled to after school hours, R2 stated that students were tired after school and they could not focus during the session as they needed their rest before attending the treatment session.

> R2 : "Lepas sekolah (pelajar) dah letih, lepas itu nak sambung lagi. Memenatkan. Pelajar kena rehat dahulu, baru belajar lepas itu."
> ["*After school, the students were tired. Then they had to attend another class right after that. The students need to rest first before attending another class later.*"]

Another factor mentioned by the respondents, which was not related to cognitive apprenticeship, was the learners' confidence and interest in learning English.

4.3.3.2 Learners' Confidence and Interest in Learning English

Apart from the scheduling of class, the respondents' feedback showed that some of them, especially those who did not perform well had confidence issue as they doubted their own ability. R44 from Group III said that she could not perform in the post-test because she was too conscious of wanting to get the

tenses right. Besides that, she also added that when she had to do the test alone, she became uncertain.

> R44 : "Waktu teacher bagi test (post-test) kan, kena buat sendiri. Lepas tu kita tak boleh tanya kawan, tak boleh tanya teacher. Waktu nak edit tu, macam 'Eh, betul ke ni?'. Begitu lah."
> ["*When you gave the test (post-test), we had to do it on our own. We could neither ask our friends nor you. So when I needed to edit, I was doubtful if I got it right.*"]

> Instructor : "Jadi bagi [awak], kalau nak buat kerja tu, kena ada sokongan kawan juga?"
> ["*So, when [you] do your work, you have to have support from your friends?*"]

> R44 : "Bimbingan."
> ["*Guidance.*"]

> Instructor : "Kalau buat seorang, [awak] akan jadi…"
> ["*If you have to do it on your own, [you] will become…*"]

> R44 : "Was-was."
> ["*Doubtful.*"]

R51 who was also from Group III, on the other hand, did not perform well due to her lack of interest in learning English. During the interview, she expressed that she does not like English. When she was asked if she would participate in the treatment if it were to be extended, she gave a negative answer as learning English, to her, is boring. She also admitted that she does not like English because she is weak in the language.

> Instructor : "Kalau teacher tambah kelas untuk empat minggu lagi, [awak] akan rasa macam mana?"
> ["*If I were to extend the class for another 4 weeks, how would [you] feel?*"]

> R51 : "Malas. Sebab boring belajar Bahasa Inggeris."
> ["*Lazy. I'm bored learning English.*"]

> Instructor : "Sebab tak suka Bahasa Inggeris?"
> ["*It's because you don't like English?*"]

R51   : "Tak pandai."
     ["*I'm weak (in English)."*]

Learners' confidence and interest in learning language play an important role as it could determine the success and failure of a study and a similar situation was also reported by Kolikant, Gatchell, Hirsh & Linsenmeier (2006). In their study, a significant number of students believed scientific writing is only necessary for a career in research and this had diminished their engagement and interest in the assignments and caused the students to not perform in the tasks given.

    Finally, the last factor that was identified was overgeneralisation of grammar rules.

4.3.3.3 Overgeneralisation of Grammar Rules

    In the case of R26 from Group II and R33 from Group III, they admitted that they were confused with the use of simple past tense versus past perfect tense. They thought that since past perfect tense refers to actions that had been completed in the past, therefore all past actions must be in past perfect tense and so they added 'had' in most of their verbs.

Instructor : "Jadi setiap kali [awak] nak bina ayat past tense, [awak] akan nak letak 'had'?"
     ["*So every time [you] want to construct sentences in the past, [you] will tend to put 'had'?"*]

R26   : "Ya."
     ["*Yes."*]

Instructor : "Kenapa? Kenapa boleh rasa nak letak? Sebab kalau ada 'had' tu, maksud apa?"
     ["*Why? What makes you want to put it there? What's the purpose of putting 'had'?"*]

R26   : " 'Had' tu kan benda yang telah berlaku."
     ["*(I thought)'Had' refers to actions that happened in the past."*]

Instructor : "Di mana dalam program ni yang awak start rasa keliru?"
["*In which part of the programme did you start to feel confused?"*]

R33 : "Past perfect tense."
["*Past perfect tense."*]

Instructor : "Awak tak faham mana dalam past perfect tense?"
["*What is it that you do not understand about 'past perfect tense'?"*]

R33 : "Macam bila nak guna 'had'. Macam bila nak masukkan grammar tu. Macam tak faham bila nak gunakannya."
["*I'm confused with when to use 'had'. When to use past perfect tense ."*]

In addition, R50 from Group III, who was also confused with the use of past perfect tense, overused it during her editing process. She mentioned that she overgeneralised all past tense forms by adding 'had' to her verbs because she was too conscious of using the wrong tense. So, she performed worse in her post-test as compared to her pre-test because she added 'had' to all her simple past tense sentences.

Instructor : "Teacher nak cari kenapa [awak] boleh nak tambah? Kalau tak ada 'had', tak ada 'was' tu, jadi macam mana?"
["*I would like to find out what makes [you] add 'had' (to your sentence). What happen if there is no 'had' and 'was'?"*]

R50 : "Takut ayat jadi tak betul."
["*I'm worried that the sentences would be wrong."*]

The factors that were discussed above had contributed to the respondents' performance during the tests and they should be further explored to cater for different learners' learning styles in ensuring its' effectiveness in helping learners' reduce their tenses errors in narrative writing.

4.4   Conclusion

From the test scores, it was evident that most of the respondents did improve in their ability to use past tense forms in their narrative essay in terms of the reduction of tenses errors made. This was especially true in the case of mediocre and weak students as they were the ones who benefited and improved the most from the treatment sessions. Though the t-test significant level for Score B was not as ideal as expected (p = 0.52), respondents' Score A did show significant improvement (p = 0.22) between their pre-test and post-test. As for Score B, it was proven that the respondents who did not do well for their pre-test were the ones who improved the most during the post-test. A handful of respondents who deteriorated in result, however, did worse in their post-test due to factors such as the scheduling of class and other personal factors. The next chapter will look into the overview of the findings, implication of the study and suggestions for future study.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.1   Overview

The findings of this study found that the use of cognitive apprenticeship in the instruction of past tense forms did help the respondents in reducing tenses errors in their narrative writing and a few of the respondents who were interviewed also shared their opinions and thoughts regarding the treatment given. Apart from the overview of the findings, the implications of the study and recommendations for future study are also discussed in this chapter.

5.2   Overview of the Findings

The analysis of the test scores showed that there was improvement in the reduction of tenses errors made in the respondents' narrative writing before and after the treatment. Besides that, all the respondents who were interviewed also shared their feedback on the benefits of the features and teaching methods of cognitive apprenticeship, as shown in Figure 5.1 below.

The respondents mentioned that explicit instructions are important as the explanation of the usage allowed them to understand the use of each tenses better. They also admitted that the visual presentation of the example sentences in boxes, according to the different parts of speech, also allowed them to visualise the basic arrangement of the different types of sentence structures. Apart from that, they also unanimously found the self-correction and monitoring activities beneficial to them as it not only allowed them to be aware of their own mistakes and the reasons behind those mistakes but also to remember the mistakes better and not repeat them again. Eventually, this enabled them to monitor their own writing in their SPM examination.

The other feature of cognitive apprenticeship, collaborative social interaction, received mixed feedback from the respondents as some of them enjoyed working with friends as they could exchange ideas and correct each others' mistakes, while some prefered to work alone as they found working with friends confusing especially when they had different opinions on a particular matter. A few of the respondents from the least improved group and the group which deteriorated the most in the post-test also added that the use of authentic tasks in context enabled them to relate tenses to real life communication.
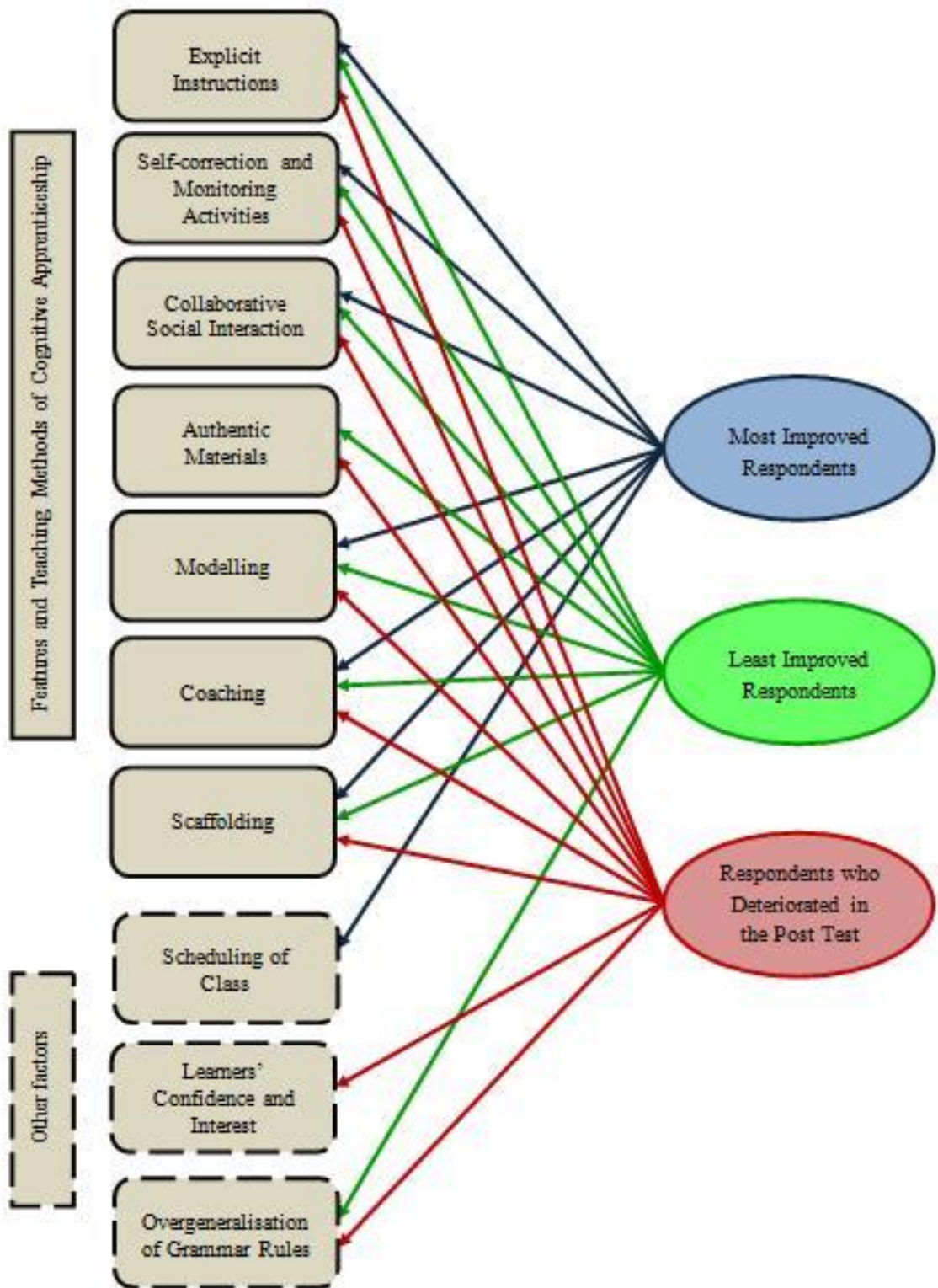
Figure 5.1: Overview of the Findings to the Most Improved Respondents, the Least Improved Respondents and Respondents who Deteriorated in the Post-Test

As for the three teaching methods of cognitive apprenticeship that were used in this study, all the respondents found modelling fascinating and as visual learners, they learn better when they could see how a task is completed. Coaching, on the other hand, was not favoured by some of the respondents but those who like being coached believed that correcting them at the time errors are made allow them to remember the mistakes better and some of them also prefer to be facilitated while attempting the task. Scaffolding in terms of exercises also received positive comment from the respondents as they mentioned that it made the tasks less daunting and doable to them.

Apart from these factors, the respondents also noticed other factors that contributed to their performances. When discussing on other factor that contributed to the improvement in the respondents' performance, the scheduling of class was mentioned. It was believed that the time the treatment sessions were scheduled played a role in the improvement of results as the learners managed to get their rest before the lesson and that enabled them to focus during the treatment.

As for factors that led to the decline in performance, two factors including learners' confidence and interest in learning English and overgeneralisation of grammar rules were identified. Some of the respondents performed worse during the post-test due to their lack of confidence in their own ability and their lack of interest in learning English while some were confused of the usage between simple past tense and past perfect tense and therefore overgeneralised the use of the two tenses and added 'had' in most of their verbs during the post-test.

Having analysed the results of the tests and identifying the factors that contributed to the respondents' performances, several theoretical implications

could be made of the use of cognitive apprenticeship in the instruction of past tense forms in narrative writing, which will be discussed in the next section.

5.3   Theoretical Implications

The features and teaching methods of cognitive apprenticeship that were used in this study have found to be encouraging in improving respondents' performances in the use of past tense forms in narrative writing.   However, measures could be taken in elevating students' performance based on the feedback given by the respondents.

5.3.1 Learners' Learning Preferences

According to Ur (2011), the practice of second language teaching does not only include the knowledge of second language acquisition process but also factors including learners' learning styles and preferences, personalities and motivation.   Moreover, having the knowledge of how language learners respond to different structures determines efficient learning of the particular structure (Arshad Abd. Samad & Hawanum Hussein, 2010) and if strategies are taught in ways that are not suited to the needs of the learners, it may be difficult to expect any desired result (J. M.-H. Lim, 2006).

From the findings, a few features and teaching methods including the use of authentic materials, collaborative social interaction and coaching were found to be not so helpful to the respondents in this study due to their varying learning preferences.   Therefore, proper planning in integrating these features and teaching methods with learners' learning preferences in the classroom should be made to enhance learners' performance.   Language teachers and instructors should be more observant and aware of different learners' responses towards the activities

that are carried out during the lesson by approaching learners who are positive towards the lesson more often to lend support and being more tactful in approaching learners who prefer to work on their own.

5.3.2 Scheduling of Classes

Besides harmonising learners' learning preferences to the teaching, several other learner factors are also crucial in determining the success of the treatment. With that, one factor that should also be considered when planning the treatment sessions is the scheduling of the classes. By having the sessions at a time when students are more alert and attentive is definitely helpful in ensuring a positive outcome. As was mentioned by one of the most improved respondents, one contributing factor that brought about the success of the study was the time the treatment sessions were held. According to the respondent, having the sessions at night was most suitable as the students have had their rest and were able to concentrate on the lessons better.

5.3.3 Learners' Confidence and Interest in Language Learning

The next factor that should also be taken into consideration is the learners' confidence and interest in learning the language. It could be claimed that no successful cognitive or affective activity can be carried out without some degree of self-confidence and believing in one's own capabilities for the activity (Brown, 2000) and a student who lacks confidence or is not interested in learning a subject will not perform as well as students who are. Hence, language teachers and instructors should play a role in boosting learners' motivation and self-confidence during the lesson, which would eventually spark their interest in learning the language.

With a better understanding of the implications in terms of theory, the next section will look into the pedagogical implications of the study.

5.4   Pedagogical Implications

The seven features and teaching methods in cognitive apprenticeship that were used in this study were found to be useful and effective to the respondents and therefore should be widely used in promoting the learning of English by language learners, teachers and instructors, curriculum designers and test designers alike.

5.4.1 English Language Learners

English language learners who are interested in applying this method in their learning should take the initiative in promoting collaborative social interaction among themselves by working with their friends and helping each other through peer learning. Apart from that, they should also learn to be independent through self-correction and monitoring activities in performing their tasks so that they could master what is taught more effectively.

5.4.2 Language Teachers and Instructors

Language teachers and instructors, on the other hand, should constantly bear in mind the features and teaching methods of cognitive apprenticeship when planning their lessons. Proper scaffolding in terms of teaching materials should be given emphasis and suitable guidance can also be provided especially at the early stage of learning so that the task assigned to the learners is on par with their ability. Besides that, teachers and instructors should also make sure that the task

is situated in context and relevant to the learners' life thus making the lesson meaningful to them.

As for the teaching process, teachers and instructors should ensure that suitable amount of explicit instructions are given to assist low proficiency learners understand the concepts needed to perform a particular task. Modelling and coaching are also two crucial factors in the teaching of grammar in writing. Through modelling, language learners could listen to the teachers' thoughts while observing the steps taken in completing a particular task and when the learners imitate the teachers in performing the task, proper coaching in terms of hints and reminders could also be given to keep learners alert.

As corrective feedback is found to be an important task and both teachers and students may benefit from it in the writing instruction (Afshin Soori & Arshad Abd. Samad, 2011), teachers should also provide students with feedback and allow students to self-correct when making mistakes as it enables them to know their own mistakes and at the same time trains them in monitoring their own writing. Language learners should also be allowed to have discussions among the peers through group work as it is also one important factor in cognitive apprenticeship.

5.4.3 Curriculum and Test Designers

Curriculum designers should also be aware of the features and teaching methods in cognitive apprenticeship when designing the curriculum by incorporating these features and teaching methods in the objectives and learning outcomes so that the learners will find language learning meaningful and fun instead of simply performing meaningless drills. As test should always be aligned with the teaching objectives, test designers should also take into consideration the

features of cognitive apprenticeship such as the use of authentic tasks and error correction in preparing the tests for the benefit of the learners.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Study

Thought the findings showed improvement in the respondents' results, several shortcomings related to the recruitment of respondents, duration of the study, number of instructors and their insights, interviewing technique and the items taught during the treatment could be overcome and improved for future studies.

5.5.1 Recruitment of Respondents

The first shortcoming is on the recruitment of respondents. In this study, only 52 respondents were chosen and their performance was not studied in terms of gender differences. It would be recommended if the number of respondents could be increased so that the results could be generalised to represent the population and students' performance can also be analysed according to gender differences as it would provide insights on the suitability of the treatment given according to the different learning styles between genders.

Apart from that, it would also be interesting for the treatment to be carried out with respondents of different age group especially those below the age of 12. As the Critical Period Hypothesis by Eric Lenneberg (1976) proposed that language acquisition is enhanced before puberty (Murad, 2006) and Singleton & Ryan (2004) also stated that given the right learning condition, early exposure to L2 instruction may be more advantages compared to later, it would be exciting to collect data from respondents of different age group to determine which group

benefits most from the use of cognitive apprenticeship in the instruction of past tense forms in narrative writing.

5.5.2 Duration of the Study

The second recommendation is on the duration of treatment. For this study, there were only six treatment sessions due to time constrain and therefore, the students were not given enough time to fully understand all the grammar items taught and internalise them. Every session had to be carried out within a limited timeframe and this led to the confusion of concepts among some of the respondents. It is believed that given enough time, the students would be able to understand the concepts better which would eventually led to the mastery of the grammar items taught. Besides that, a longitudinal study on the long-term effects of the treatment would also be interesting as it would provide useful information on the effectiveness of the treatment in mastering the use of past tense forms in narrative writing.

5.5.3 Number of Instructors and Their Insights

The number of instructor is also one important factor in determining the success of the study as student-teacher ratio is one of the important factors in determining the fairness of learning opportunities to students (Banks et al., 2010). As there were twenty over students in each session, one instructor was deemed to be insufficient especially during coaching. A teacher-student ratio of 1:10 is recommended to allow the students' optimum benefit as teachers could give sufficient attention to all the respondents in the class. Apart from that, the teachers' evaluation on the usefulness of cognitive apprenticeship should also be

included as it would provide valuable insights on the strength and weaknesses of the method used.

5.5.4 Interviewing Technique

When it comes to interviewing the respondents, the most important factor would be the interviewing technique. As it was the interviewer's first attempt in carrying out an interview, the interview sessions had to be carried out twice as the first attempt did not provide enough information for in-depth discussion. Thus, it would be recommended for an interviewer to have sufficient information and exposure in carrying out interview so that valuable insights could be elicited from the respondents for future references hence making the study more informative.

5.5.5 Teaching Items

The last recommendation is on the grammar items taught. As this study only looked at the use of simple past, past continuous and past perfect tense, it would be recommended for future studies to look into other grammar items or other language skills in determining the effectiveness of the method across different language items and skills.

5.6 Conclusion

This study has revealed that the features and teaching methods of cognitive apprenticeship that were incorporated in this study have helped learners reduce their tenses errors in narrative writing. It was found that providing step-by-step guidance and demonstrations during task fulfillment as recommended by cognitive apprenticeship are beneficial especially to low and

intermediate level of English proficiency learners as these make the tasks doable for them and in turn build their confidence and interest in learning the language. Language teachers and instructors should be aware that mere verbal instructions and overly challenging tasks are inappropriate to these learners as they are then left helpless and lost in completing the tasks.

With the theoretical implications, pedagogical implications and recommendations for future studies, it is hoped that this study could contribute some important information to the field of grammar teaching in writing and hence giving low and intermediate English language proficiency learners a second chance in mastering the use of tenses in writing.

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