"HOW ARE THEY DIFFERENT?" A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF NATIVE AND NONNATIVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING ASSISTANTS REGARDING SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS: TEACHER EFFICACY, APPROACH TO LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING, TEACHING STRATEGIES AND PERCEPTION OF NATIVESHIP.

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
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By

En-Chong Liaw, B.A., M.A.

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Dissertation Committee:

Professor Keiko K. Samimy, Advisor

Professor Anita Woolfolk Hoy

Professor Joseph Anthony Gliem

Approved by

_____

Advisor
College of Education

ABSTRACT

In the field of English language teaching, several studies have been conducted to examine the differences between native and non-native language teachers regarding pedagogical advantages and disadvantages (Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999; Medgyes, 1999; Arva & Medgyes, 2000). Unfortunately, similar study is scant in the field of foreign language teaching in the United States, and important factors, such as teacher efficacy, were neglected in those studies. Teacher efficacy, defined as "… the teachers' belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998), is a significant predictor of more effective teaching in many domains; nevertheless, no journal articles and only two dissertations (Shin, 2001; Chacon, 2002) were found directly relating to teacher efficacy in language teaching. Both studies revealed the effect of language proficiency on both teacher efficacy and teaching methodology; however, the efficacy beliefs of native teachers and the different efficacy beliefs between native and non-native teachers have been unexplored.

This study aimed to investigate the differences between native and non-native foreign language teachers teaching at a large midwestern university. Primary areas of investigation were "teacher efficacy" and "teacher perceptions of language teaching." Teaching assistants from six language departments i.e. Spanish, Chinese, Japanese,

German, French and Italian, were chosen in this study. Moreover, the researcher was interested in knowing how native and non-native language teachers were different in teaching less commonly taught languages, i.e. East Asian languages, versus in commonly taught languages, like Spanish.

The data shows a positive connection between teachers' self-perceived ability in teaching the target language and level of efficacy. The influence of teaching experience, such as years of teaching and level of students' language proficiency on teachers' sense of efficacy was observed in this study. Moreover, native and nonnative language teachers from different language departments were also found different in such areas as teaching methods in the classroom, levels of instructional strategic efficacy or nativeship issues. The results indicated the necessarily to consider the differences between teachers of different language departments in future studies.

Dedicate to God, to my family,
to my beloved friends Shiau-Jing Guo, and Sum-yu Ho

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of data analysis.

Finally, I want to extend my gratitude to the prayer and support from Shiau-Jing Guo and my parents who shared my emotional ups and downs during this process. Their unconditional love lightened the stresses from this study. This achievement will not be possible without their support.

VITA

December 25, 1974 ………………...born – Hualian, Taiwan

1997…………………………………B.A., English Literature, Shoochow University

2000…………………………………M.A., TESOL, The Ohio State University

2000 – 2003 …………………….. Graduate Teaching Assistant,
                                    The Ohio State University

2003 - present……………………….The Ohio State University

FIELD OF STUDY

Major Field: Education

Minor Field: Teacher Education

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Language teaching possesses a unique characteristic that differentiates itself from teaching other subjects. Teaching a language involves transmitting knowledge that is culturally and socially intertwined. Teachers of other subjects claim their authority by what they know, that is, proficiency in the subject matter, but not by who they are. However, language teachers seem to face a different situation. People tend to mistakenly believe that being able to speak a language naturally corresponds to the ability to teach a language. The hiring policy of English teachers in North America subtly echoes this assumption and clearly suggests, "nonnative speakers need not apply." This birthright mentality projects a negative image of nonnative speakers as less qualified language teachers and perpetuates the superiority of native speakers for teaching a language (Walelign, 1986).

The definition of native speakership is elusive. Some scholars argue that native speakers are defined by birth or infancy. People who are born in the community where

the language is spoken are native speakers of that language. They have the intuition and

communicative competence to vary their language according to different situations

(Chomsky, 1965; Medgyes, 1994/1999). Other scholars approach the construct of native

speakership from a different angle and define it as "competent users of the language."

The proponents of this definition argue that the intuition of native speakers comes from

training and experience, not from birth or infancy (Davies, 1991; Paikeday, 1985). These

scholars place native or nonnative speakers along a continuum that starts when the

speakers begin learning the language and ends any time when they discontinue the

learning process or are no longer exposed to the language. In this sense, the

differentiation in the language acquisition process, that is inherent or learned, becomes

the evaluation of language proficiency. That is to say, instead of the inherent

characteristics, the capability of the speaker determines his/her location in the continuum

and the right to claim the authority as a native speaker.

Regardless of the inconclusive definition of native and nonnative speakers in the

field of English Language Teaching (ELT), native-speaking teachers are preferred as

"authentic" linguistic and cultural representatives (Nayar, 1997). Many nonnative

English-speaking teachers, especially in English as a Second Language (ESL) contexts,

encounter discrimination in terms of hiring and promotion (Canagarajah, 1999). The

inequality between native and nonnative teachers observed in different teaching contexts

calls for raising awareness of language teachers, particularly nonnative speakers, to

discover their pedagogical uniqueness. Arva and Medgyes (2000), for example,

investigated the differences between native and nonnative English teachers regarding the

aspects of "knowledge of grammar," "language competence," "competence in local

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language," and "teaching behavior." They discovered that native teachers have advantages in language proficiency and tend to create more relaxing, friendship-oriented relationships with students, whereas nonnative teachers have advantages in knowledge of grammar, local language and culture, and they are more likely to follow the content of textbooks.

While the advantages and disadvantages of native and nonnative teachers in the field of ELT were thoroughly analyzed and documented in several studies (e.g., Medgyes, 1999 ; Samimy and Brutt-Griffler, 1999), similar attention had not been given to foreign language teaching in the United States. Among a few studies, Terashima (1996), for example, explored the differences between native and nonnative Japanese teachers in North America. Her study examined the differences between these two groups of teachers in areas like "advantage and disadvantage," "teacher training," and "attitude towards various aspects of students' guidance," and found that nonnative teachers in her study were less confident in teaching pronunciation and reading/writing classes. However, as teachers became more experienced, there was no significant difference between native and nonnative teachers in teaching different aspects of a language.

Teacher Efficacy

Despite the valuable insights Terashima (1996) contributed to the field of foreign language teaching, other differences between native and nonnative teachers, such as teacher efficacy or perception of language teaching, were not investigated in her study. Teacher efficacy has been addressed in relation to several fields such as math and science teaching, but it is scarce in the field of foreign language teaching.

Teacher efficacy, defined as "… the teacher's belief in his or her capability to

organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific task

in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 1998, p. 233), is a significant

predictor of more effective teaching in many domains, such as elementary teaching or

preservice teacher training. Studies show that teachers who have a stronger sense of

efficacy have greater ability to accept and apply new approaches than do their less

efficacious counterparts (Ghaith & Yaghi, 1997; Guskey, 1988). Efficacious teachers will

set more challenging goals for themselves and their students, accept responsibility for the

outcomes of instruction, and persist despite obstacles (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Ross,

1995).

Since the RAND corporation adapted Rotter's social learning theory and

conducted a study on the success of various reading programs, teacher efficacy has been

the subject of a fair amount of research, which has established its popularity and

importance in the field of teacher development. A teacher's sense of confidence was

initially explored in two dimensions: *General Teacher Efficacy (GTE)* and *Personal

Teacher Efficacy (PTE).* If teachers believe in the influence of external factors, such as

gender or social value, on their students' learning, the teachers' belief will be described as

GTE, whereas, if teachers believe in the influence of internal factors, such as their

experience or knowledge of students, on their students' learning, these teachers' beliefs

will be described as *PTE*. Later, Bandura (1977) proposed two other dimensions to

describe teacher efficacy: E*fficacy Beliefs* and *Outcome Expectancies.* Based on a

psychological foundation, Bandura's Self-efficacy Theory became the theoretical

foundation for studying this construct, and different teacher efficacy scales were built on

and used in different domains, such as science teaching and special education (Coladarci & Breton, 1997; Riggs & Enoch, 1990).

Results from those scales show the connection between teacher efficacy and such factors as classroom management, perception of students' ability or students learning. Nevertheless, research focusing on teacher efficacy in language teaching is scant. No journal articles and only two doctoral dissertations (Chacon, 2002; Shin, 2001) directly address teacher efficacy in language teaching. Both studies reveal the effect of language proficiency on both teacher efficacy and teaching methodology. Language teachers who reported a higher level of language proficiency would choose to have more interactive and communication-orientated activities in the classrooms. However, participants in both studies were nonnative English teachers in EFL (English as Foreign Language) contexts and native-speaking teachers were not included in either study.

This study aims to examine the differences between native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants in German, French, Italian, Spanish, Chinese and Japanese at a major midwestern university by employing qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. The primary areas of investigation are "teacher efficacy" and "teacher perceptions of language teaching." The area of teacher efficacy includes four factors: instructional strategic efficacy, language teaching efficacy, student engagement efficacy, and personal and environmental influence efficacy. "Teachers' perception of language teaching" will explore foreign language teaching assistants' perceptions of (1) advantages and disadvantages of native and nonnative teachers, (2) importance in language teaching, regarding goal of teaching, methods of motivating and helping students, as well as foci in teacher training programs, and (3) teaching strategies.

Research Questions

1. What are the educational characteristics of foreign language teaching assistants at this major midwestern university?

(a) Academic and professional experience: teacher-training, experience of traveling abroad.

(b) Pedagogical context: native and nonnative teachers, age, gender, years of teaching, language of teaching.

2. What is the level of teacher efficacy of foreign language teaching assistants at the major midwestern university?

(a) What is the relationship between instructional strategic efficacy and nativeship?

(b) What is the relationship between student engagement efficacy and nativeship?

(c) What is the relationship between language teaching efficacy with nativeship?

(d) What is the relationship between environmental and personal influence efficacy and nativeship?

3. How do foreign language teaching assistants at this major midwestern university perceive potential differences between native- and nonnative-speaking language teaching assistants in relation to nativeship? Do teaching assistants perceive pedagogical differences between these two groups?

4. What are the beliefs of language teaching assistants at this major midwestern university about the important elements of language teaching? Do native- and nonnative-speaking teachers perceive it differently?

5. What teaching methods do language teachers at this major midwestern university use in the classroom? Do native- and nonnative-speaking teachers use different teaching methods?

6. Do the following demographic differences among teachers relate to the differences in their efficacy level?

    (a) Years of teaching

    (b) Levels of students' language proficiency

    (c) Experience of teacher training courses/workshops

    (d) Nativeship

7. Are there demographic differences in perceptions about nativeship issues, important elements in language teaching and teaching methods?

8. How do native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants examined in this study who teach the less commonly taught East Asia languages, such as Chinese and Japanese, differ from those who teach French, Spanish and German in terms of teacher efficacy and teaching strategies?

Combined Methodology

The combination of both qualitative and quantitative methodology has appeared increasingly in many studies and became one choice of data collection and analysis. The notion of mixing two different research methodologies first appeared in Campbell and Fisk's (1974) study of measuring psychological traits to ensure that the variance was

reflected in a trait but not in the method. Later, in 1978, the concept, *triangulation*, was adopted from navigation and military strategies to describe the notion of neutralizing the prejudice observed in different investigators, data collections or methods by mixing two methodologies. Different models of combined designs were used by researchers as data collection and analysis in accordance with the purposes or goals of various studies.

Creswell (1994) surveyed various studies and concluded three different models appeared in literature. *Two-phase design* studies plan two distinct research phases, qualitative and quantitative, in collecting and analyzing data. In these studies, the same phenomenon is investigated inductively and deductively. D*ominant – less dominant* studies emphasize one type of method and use the alternative method to provide supportive information of the inquiry. For example, researchers use survey as the main tool to examine parents' attitude toward new school policies and conduct several interviews with parents pulled out from the same group from whom the quantitative data. The *mix-methodology* design studies extensively mix both qualitative and quantitative paradigms and methodologies and present fairly complicated interconnection of both methodologies in possibly each phase of research, such as introduction, literature review or data collection. The benefit of combined methods is to cross validate the findings if two different types of methods yield comparable and congruent data (Jick, 1979). Different methods reveal different facets of the studied phenomena. Data from different types of data collection are like different chapters of a book. Readers cannot understand the book completely unless they thoroughly read, correctly interpret and fairly compare each chapter in the book.

With the attempt to obtain more comprehensive understanding on differences between native and nonnative language teaching assistants at this midwestern university, the present study is designed as *dominant – less dominant* model of a combined design. The questionnaire is the primary tool to answer the research questions. The data from the interviews provide descriptive and supporting information of the research inquiry.

Definition of Terms

Teacher efficacy is defined as "… the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplishing a specific task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998). In this study, this construct will be measured by items relating to four areas: "instructional strategic efficacy", "language teaching efficacy", "student engagement efficacy", and "personal and environmental influence efficacy."

Target language refers to the language the teacher teaches, including both the classroom and individual instructional context.

Native speakership describes the characteristics of speakers in relation to the language they speak. An individual will be described as a native speaker of a language when he/she learned it in childhood and identifies him/herself with this language. This term is used interchangeably with nativeship in this study.

Native foreign language teacher refers to the teacher who is a native speaker of the language he/she is teaching at the period of the study.

Nonnative foreign language teacher refers to the teacher who is a nonnative speaker of the language he/she is teaching at the period of the study.

Importance in language teaching refers to teachers' beliefs on three areas of language teaching: goal of teaching, foci of teacher training program and methods in motivating and helping students.

Limitations of the Study

Due to the sampling process used in this study, generalization of results from this study is limited to the situation in college foreign language teaching at one major midwestern university. It is inappropriate to generalize the results to different institutional contexts. Moreover, this study focuses on teachers' responses in investigating the pedagogical differences between native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants in a major midwestern university. The results of this study only reveal language teaching assistants' perceptions of the influence of nativeship on their sense of efficacy and other aspects of their teaching. Language students' perspectives and opinions on the inquired issues are necessary. Students' perspectives on nativeship might provide another facet of teachers' efficacy and difference between teachers observed in this study. Finally, given the fact that the questionnaire generated and adopted in this study is researcher-made, more examination and testing for its reliability and validity needs to be considered.

Significance of this Study

The results of this study identify potential differences between native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants at a major midwestern university. This study aims to enhance the quality of teacher training programs by raising the awareness of unique contributions that language teachers make to students' learning. This study ignites the research demands that will lead to better serve language teachers with different needs and preferences.

Basic Assumptions

Questionnaires used in this study are self-reported. All subjects are assumed to be honest in answering all items in the questionnaire. Also, since all subjects in this study are pursuing either a Master's or a Ph.D. degree in the United States, it is presumed that their English reading proficiency is sufficient to understand, and to give appropriate responses to, the questionnaire.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter laid out the theoretical framework of this study. The review of teacher efficacy launched the construction of this framework and indicated the necessity of this study. Different teacher efficacy scales and studies revealed the flourishing development of this construct in many subject matters, such as science teaching or special education. Unfortunately, similar development did not appear in language education. Studies concerning language teachers' teacher efficacy were surprisingly scant and no study even investigated the differences among language teachers based on their status of nativeship. On the other hand, the definition of nativeship and debates on differences between native and nonnative language teachers emerged as part of the theoretical framework of this study. Issues relating to native and nonnative speakers in language teaching were presented in the second part of this chapter. The definition of native speakers is elusive and controversial. Nevertheless, differences between native and nonnative language teachers had been clearly suggested in many studies. Finally, the last part of this chapter explored the development of foreign language education in the United States. Crucial events and issues affecting foreign language teaching were discussed here.

Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory

Badura's social cognitive theory consists of three components: human agency, outcome expectancy and efficacy belief.

Human Agency

Human's behaviors are determined by many different factors, such as environmental influences and self-perceived interpretations of the event. People are not only determiners but contributors of their own behaviors as well. The concept of human agency involves intentional actions and power to originate actions for a given purpose under particular circumstances. Bandura believed that human behavior (B), external environment (E) and personal factor (P) interact with one another bidirectionally (Figure 2.1).
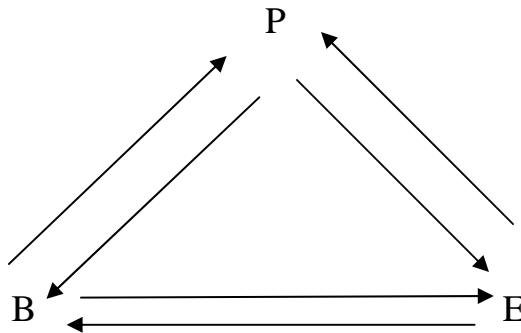
Figure 2.1: Human Agency in triadic reciprocal causation

These three dimensions of human agency influence each other in a causal, but not equal way. Under certain circumstances, the effect from personal factors could have a greater impact than those from environmental factors. Human behaviors connect to social

systems which most of the time impose constraints or provide advantages representing an

authorized social practice to each individual in that society. However, individuals have

different comprehensions of similar events thus originating different actions. Regardless

how these three elements intertwine with one another, the concept of human agency

displays the rights each human being has in making decisions while taking actions.

Outcome Expectancy

Attempting to provide another dimension in psychological treatment of

dysfunctional and defensive behavior, Bandura (1977) in his article, titled "Self-efficacy:

Toward a unifying theory of behavior change," proposed another explanation of

motivation in behavior changes: Self-efficacy Theory. Two components, *efficacy beliefs*

and *outcome expectancies,* constitute this theory with crucial differences illustrated in

Figure 2.2.

Person ⟶ Behavior ⟶ Outcome

Efficacy Beliefs
Level
Strength
Generality

Outcome Expectancies
Physical
Social
Self-evaluative
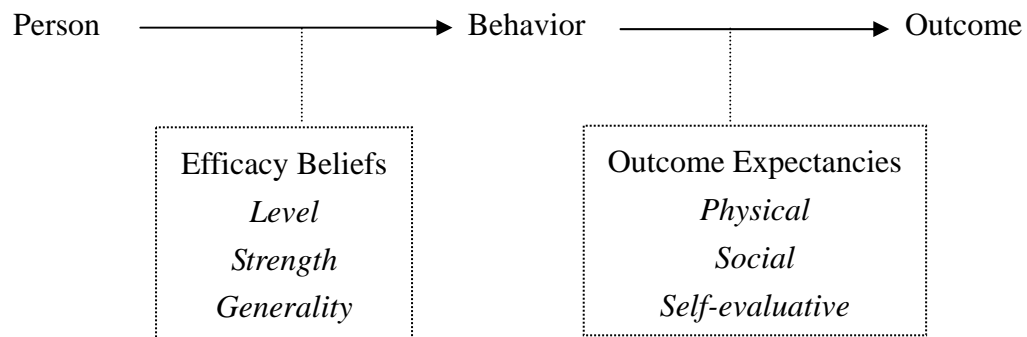
Figure 2.2: Diagrammatic representation of the difference between efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancies.

Outcome expectancy explains that the changes in behavior are based on an individual's estimation of effort required by the outcome, and they are the judgment of the consequence of the action (Bandura, 1977). For example, in order to change the habit of overeating, the individual will expect to eat less food and shift their attention to other activities. During the process of behavior changes, the individual estimates the possible outcome of this behavior and decides if the outcome is desirable. Outcome expectancies take three major forms: *Physical, Social* and *Self-evaluative*. No matter what form it takes, positive expectancies would serve as an incentive, whereas negative ones would be as dissuasion. One form of outcome expectancies is the physical effect of the behavior, including both happy and unpleasant sensation and physical experience. Some behaviors would educe relaxation to the individual and some other behaviors would lead to physical or social pain or discomfort.

The second form of outcome expectancies appears in a social context, such as approval or rejection from other members in the society or community where the individual resides. The third major form relates to one's self-evaluative reaction of the behavior. For example, in a competition, participants' expected reactions from the environment after winning or losing the competition accounts for this class of outcome expectancies. On the other hand, the belief about acquiring the ability to win the competition or attaining certain level of performance is, self-efficacy judgment, not outcome expectancy.

Efficacy Belief

Efficacy belief singles out the importance of the belief the individual has about his ability. Efficacy expectancy is defined as "…the conviction that one can successfully

execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes"(Bandura, 1977 p. 193). Bandura

pointed out the key to changing behavior is to trust in one's capability to execute this

behavior successfully. He argued that simply identifying the behavior required by the

desired outcome is not sufficient without the understanding and confidence of the ability

respond to this behavior. The self-efficacy expectancy can affect an individual in two

areas: (a) the amount of effort desired to spend and (b) the choice of activities or settings

desired to participate. One example of efficacy expectation is: after knowing what

behaviors are required in order to change the eating habit, the individual will estimate his

or her capability to execute this behavior.

In a given domain of functioning, expectancy beliefs vary in three dimensions:

level (magnitude), *strength*, and *generality*. "The issue is not whether one can perform

them occasionally, but whether one has the efficacy to motivate oneself regularly in the

face of varied dissuading conditions" (p.195). The sense of efficacy is not a

decontextualized trait but it interacts with the situational conditions. People have different

judgments on their sense of efficacy according to their ability to perform different levels

of challenge and impediment. Moreover, a sense of efficacy differs in generality. People

might judge themselves as being efficacious over a wide range of conditions or only in a

certain domains or activities. Lastly, efficacy varies in strength. Mismatching experiences

negates weak efficacy beliefs, whereas strong efficacy beliefs assist people persevere in

their effort in spite of difficulties and obstacles.

Sources of Self-efficacy

Bandura postulates four sources of self-efficacy: *performance accomplishments,*

vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and *emotional arousal*. *Performance*

accomplishments account for the most influential resources because they relate to personal mastery experiences. Successes raise the expectancy of mastering the behavior, whereas failures diminish the chance of changing the behavior. As long as the efficacy is strong and established, occasional failures do not make much of an impact. In fact, the enhanced efficacy sustains the effort in overcoming some obstacles. However, in reality, not many people solely depend on successful experiences to develop stronger self-efficacy. V*icarious experience* is the resource that people imitate models for stronger self-efficacy. If the model is successful, then the individual has a higher chance of success. This type of experience is similar to idol-worship that is popular among young people who attempt to assimilate their behavior with their models. *Verbal persuasion* is widely used by many people because of its availability and commonality. People usually give suggestions and share experiences to influence others belief that they are capable of accomplishing tasks. However, it is not as influential and powerful as performance accomplishments. In order to be confident in one's capability, one still needs to have some successful experiences. Finally, *emotional arousal* depicts the self-perceived psychological fear and anxiety that can determine one's capability emotionally. For example, learned-hopelessness makes the individual feel vulnerable and perceive certain circumstances as fear and anxiety producing. The desire to act is diminished by the emotion created by the individual who decides to avoid addressing the tasks or environment.

Teachers' Efficacy

"Teacher efficacy is the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a

particular context" (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998, p. 233)

Teachers' efficacy is a construct with a simple definition but significant impact. It is understood as the teachers' judgment of their capability to make differences in students' learning, especially with difficult and unmotivated cases (Bandura, 1997; Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Based on both Rotter's Locus of Control and Bandura's conceptualization of Self-efficacy, models were developed to measure different levels of teacher efficacy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Riggs & Enochs, 1990; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). More commonly adopted models were those based on Bandura's theory. These models analyzed teachers' efficacy from two dimensions: the extent to which teachers believe the environment can be controlled, and the evaluation teachers make of their ability to affect students' learning.

The Integrated Model

With the desire of clarifying conceptual confusion in teacher efficacy, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) proposed an integrated model (Figure 2.3) in which teacher efficacy was attributed to four resources described in Bandura (1977) self-efficacy expectation theory. However, teachers' sense of efficacy is context specific and change across different settings and tasks. For example, an efficacious English teacher in Taipei will feel inefficacious to teach English in New York City. In this case, while making an efficacy judgment, it is important to consider the efficacy in different teaching tasks and contexts.

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┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│ Source of Efficacy information  │
│                                 │
│ Verbal persuasion               │
│ Vicarious Experience            │
│ Physiological Arousal           │
│ Mastery Experience              │
│ --------------------------------│
│ New Source of Efficacy          │
│ Information                     │
│ --------------------------------│
│                                 │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
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Cognitive Processing

Analysis of Teaching Task
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Assessment of Personal Teaching Competence

Teacher Efficacy

Consequences of Teacher Efficacy
Goal, effort, persistence, etc.

Performance
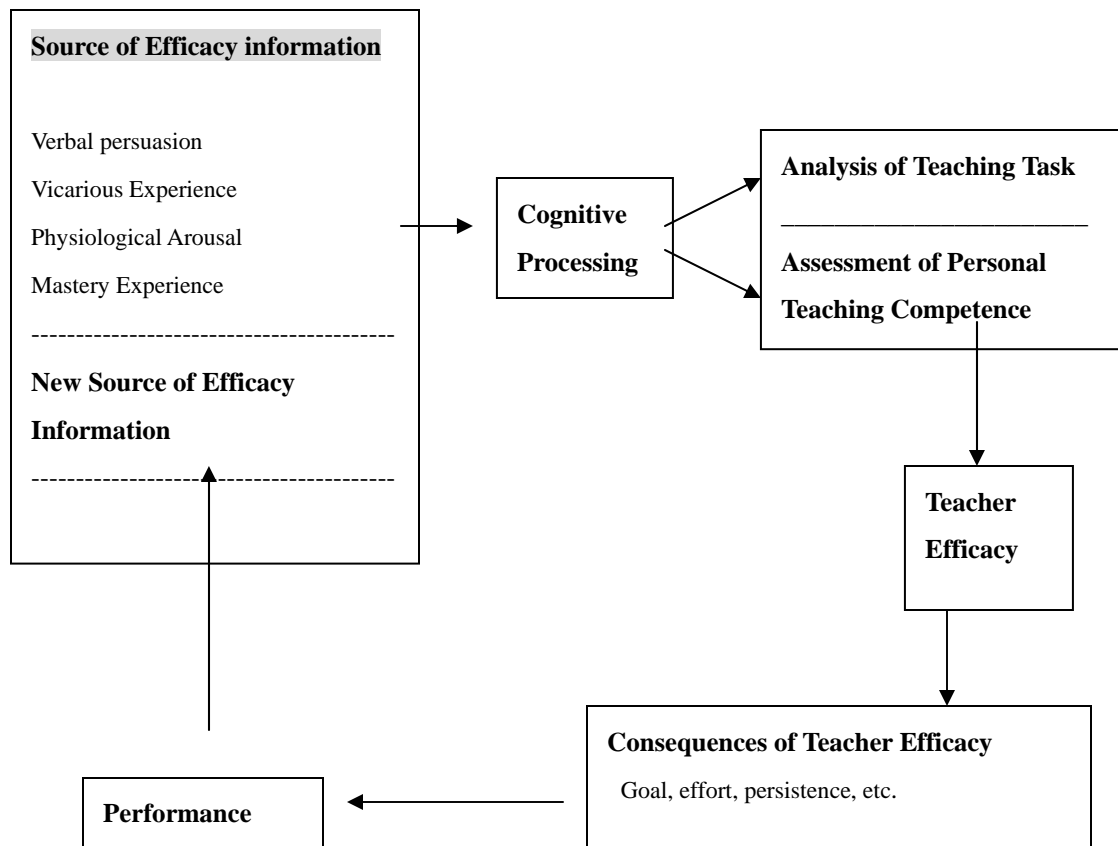
Figure 2.3: The cyclical model of teacher efficacy

In the dimension of *analysis of teaching task,* external recourses are evaluated according to the accessibility of resources to determine their relatively importance to

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fulfill the required teaching tasks. Meanwhile, personal judgments on abilities, such as skills, knowledge or personal traits are considered in another dimension referred to as *assessment of personal teaching competence*. Personal judgments made from both dimensions decide the level of teacher efficacy that controls consequences such as how much effort teachers are willing to teach and cope with students' difficulties, or how persistent teachers are in the teaching career. Teachers with a stronger sense of efficacy will set up more challenging goals for both themselves and students. Meanwhile, they will make an effort to achieve these goals, as well as assist difficult and unmotivated students. When facing the failures of students, these teachers are less critical toward students' performance but more positive about students' abilities in making progress. Efficacious teachers contribute to the improvement in students' achievement to their sense of efficacy and, in turn, the students' progress increases teachers' level of efficacy. This model pointed out a very important feature of teacher efficacy, its cyclical nature. Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) affirmed that, "Greater efficacy leads to greater effort and persistence, which leads to better performance, which in turn lead to greater efficacy" (p. 234). This cyclical nature also accounted for both the stabilization and reevaluation of efficacy beliefs in relation to successes and challenges the teacher encounter. The experience with successes and challenges confirms or questions teachers' confidence developed through previous tasks, at the same time this experience re-adjusts the level of teacher efficacy. The new level of efficacy becomes the point of reference to determine future actions and is subject to further modification based on experiences teachers encounter.

Measuring Teacher Efficacy

Rotter's social learning theories and the RAND measure. Grounded in Rotter's

social learning theory, RAND Corporation attempted to study the success of various

reading programs. Focusing on the effect of reward or reinforcement from preceding

behavior, Rotter (1966) explained the relationship between the expectancy and

individual's perception of the event. When the outcome of an event is perceived as luck,

fate, under the power of others, or independent of one's control, the expectation of a

similar behavior or event will not occur. In other words, when the individual senses the

external control over the cause of an event, he disconnects the relationship between his

ability and the event. In contrast, if the individual perceived the outcome as contingent

upon one's skills or effort and it is internally controlled, the expectancy of similar result

from the same event will be established. Adopting Rotter's theory, the RAND researchers

added two questions into the already extensive questionnaire and found positive

relationships among four factors: the teacher's sense of efficacy, the students'

performance, percentage of the goal achieved, and the continued use of the same

materials and methods after the end of the fund (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy,

1998).

RAND item 1. "*When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much

because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her home

environment.*" Teachers' agreement on this statement indicates their trust on external

factors, such as gender, social value placed in educational systems, violence and abuse

ensue at home or socioeconomic status control students' learning. Meanwhile, they

display the distrust on their own capability in changing the student's behavior. Teachers'

beliefs on these environmental factors in relation to the influence from teachers and schools have been labeled as general teaching efficacy (GTE).

RAND item 2. "*If I really try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated students.*" Contrary to RAND item 1, teachers reveal confidence in their own ability if they agree with this statement. They trust their experience, knowledge of students and their capability of coping with external factors. They are more willing to help difficult and unmotivated students because they visualize changing the situation. These teachers have positive experience in coping with students' learning difficulties and have a higher level of self-efficacy. This aspect of efficacy has been labeled as personal teaching efficacy (PTE).

Gibson and Dembo's teacher efficacy scale. With the purpose of examining teacher efficacy and the observable behavior relating to this construct, Gibson and Dembo (1984) developed the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) based on the formulation of RAND measure. They adopted Bandura's theory and identified teachers' efficacy as comprised of three main constructs: *academic focus*, *students grouping activities* and *feedback patterns*. They asserted, "teachers who believe in student learning can be influenced by effective teaching, and who also have confidence in their own teaching abilities, should persist longer, provide a greater academic focus in the classroom, and exhibit different types of feedback than teachers who have lower expectation concerning their ability to influence student learning" (p. 570). Based on the result of Factor Analysis, 30 items on a 6-point Likert scale were selected from the initial 53 items generated based on teacher interviews and literature. Two factors, that were *Personal Teaching Efficacy* and *Teaching Efficacy*, were extracted and assumed to correspond to Bandura's

Self-efficacy Expectancy and Outcome Expectancy respectively. Sample items from each

factor were listed below. For example, item 1 and 15 were loaded under the factor of

Personal Teaching Efficacy and item 4 and 6 were loaded under the factor of *Teaching*

Efficacy. Their study suggested that teachers with a higher level of efficacy chose larger

group activities to achieve a higher student participant rate. At the same time, they

communicated higher expectations with less criticism offering feedback and

demonstrated more persistence in offering assistance to students.

Item number	Item Description
1	*"When a student does better the usual, many times it is because I exerted a little extra effort."*
4	*"The amount that a student can learn is primary related to family background."*
6	*"If students are not disciplined at home, they are not likely to accept any discipline."*
15	*"When I really try hard, I can get through the most difficult students."*
26	*"School rules and policies hinder my doing the job I was hired to do. "*

Bandura's teacher self-efficacy scale. Bandura (1997) noticed the common

characteristic of global focus in most teacher efficacy scales, and argued, "…teacher

efficacy scales should be linked to various knowledge domains" (p. 243). Teachers'

efficacy is not standard across different contexts and knowledge domains. Scales to measure this construct need to signify the degree to which teachers' sense of confidence contributes to student learning. For example, a teacher who has high level of efficacy in teaching language will not necessarily have direct indication of higher level of efficacy in teaching social science. In other words, teachers who are efficacious in teaching one language are necessarily efficacious in teaching another language. In this sense, teacher efficacy scales need to be specific in contexts or subject matters. Bandura suggested providing tasks for teachers to evaluate their own capability of making changes while investigating their sense of efficacy. In his teacher self-efficacy scale, subjects were asked to evaluate themselves in performing different tasks in seven subscales, including *efficacy to influence decision making, efficacy to influence school resources, instructional self-efficacy, disciplinary self-efficacy, efficacy to enlist parental involvement, efficacy to enlist community involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate.* This scale measures teacher efficacy in a general perspective, which does not focus on particular subjects. Examples of this scale were following.

Efficacy to influence decision making: *How much can you influence the decisions that are made in the school?*
Instructional self-efficacy: *How much can you do to influence the class sizes in your school?*
Discipline Self-efficacy: *How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?*
Efficacy to enlist parental involvement: *How much can you do to get parents to become involve in school activities?*

Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). Based on Bandura's scale,

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) generated the *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)*

that assessed both, "… personal competence and analysis of tasks in terms of the

resources and constraints in particular teaching context" (p. 795). Originally, 52 items

were created from both the modification of Bandura's scale and the collaboration from

participants enrolled in a seminar on self-efficacy in the department of Teaching and

Learning in the College of Education at The Ohio State University. After testing the

validity and reliability of this scale in three consecutive studies involving more than 800

preservice and in-service teachers, Tschannen-Moran et al. designed the scale in two

forms with either 24 or 12 items in a 9-point Likert Scale: "nothing"(1-2), "very

little"(3-4), "some influence" (5-6), "quite a bit"(7-8) to "a great deal"(9). It was believed

to be superior then previous scales in its ability to capture a wider range of teaching tasks.

Previous measures, either RAND items or Dembo and Gibson's TES, mainly focused on

difficult and unmotivated students, but neglected the challenges in responding to

students' need and using a variety of instructional strategies. However, items in the TSES

were believed to reflect some of these challenges and could better portray the complexity

of teaching to show teachers' sense of confidence in a better-defined context. In Factor

Analysis, items were loaded into three factors: Efficacy for Instructional Strategies,

Efficacy for Classroom Management and Efficacy for Students' Engagement. For the

12-item scale, the reliability for the teacher efficacy subscales was 0.86 for efficacy for

instructional strategies, 0.81 for efficacy for classroom management and 0.81 for efficacy

for students' engagement. Both long and short forms of the TSES were correlated with

other existing measures of teacher efficacy for the purpose of assessing construct validity. The result showed the short form was positively related to both the RAND items, r= 0.18, r=0.52, p< .01, as well as to both the PTE factor, r= 0.61, p< 0.01, and GTE factor, r= 0.16, p< 0.01, of the Dembo and Gibson measure (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

Subjects/domains Specific Teacher efficacy Scales

Science teaching. Science teaching is among the few domains in which researchers try to evaluate the impact of teacher's sense of capability on enhancing students' learning. Riggs and Enochs (1990) developed the "Science Teaching Efficacy Beliefs Instrument" (STEBI) for measuring elementary teachers' efficacy beliefs in science teaching. Adopting Gibson and Dembo's TES and Bandura's self-efficacy theory, rather than combining both factors in one form, they altered items to reflect respectively outcome and efficacy expectancy. They claimed the purpose of STEBI would be "…a more accurate predictor of science teaching behavior and thus more beneficial to the change process necessary to improve students' science achievement" (p. 627). It had 25 questions in total in a 6-point Likert scale: *1=strongly agree, 2= moderately agree, 3= agree slightly more than disagree, 4=disagree slightly more than agree, 5= moderately disagree, 6= strongly disagree.* STEBI claimed to evaluate confidence in science teaching on two levels: Personal Science Teaching Efficacy and Science Teaching Outcome Expectancy. The Personal Science Teaching Efficacy measured personal level of teaching confidence and showed teachers' confidence on their own teaching, whereas the Science Teaching Outcome Expectancy measured the general level of teaching confidence and portrayed teachers' believe on environmental factors comparing to the influence of teachers and schools have. In their study, the reliability analysis of the

Personal Science Teaching Efficacy produced an alpha of 0.92 and the Science Teaching

Outcome Expectancy Scale produced 0.73.

Supervision. Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Efficacy Scale was modified to

investigate the relationship between teacher efficacy and the perceived supervision of

teachers in special education (Breton & Coladarci, 1997). The result showed that the

utility, not the frequency, of supervision, was the significant predictor of teacher efficacy.

That meant teachers who felt their supervision was helpful tended to report a higher level

of efficacy than those who reported a less-positive view on their supervision.

Implementation of innovative instruction. Studies on teachers' efficacy had shown

that teachers who had a stronger sense of efficacy had greater interests and tolerance in

accepting and applying new approaches than their less efficacious counterparts (Ghaith &

Yaghi, 1997; Guskey, 1988). Teachers with higher levels of efficacy rated those

innovations as less difficult to implement, more congruent, and more important to their

teaching. In contrast, teachers with less efficacies rated the innovative approaches as

costly to implement, difficult, and time-consuming. While investigating the effect of a

teacher-training program to teachers' sense of efficacy, Fritz et al. (1995) discovered that

teachers who were willing to try new activities were those who initially had a stronger

sense of teaching competence and were more capable in their role as teachers. When

designing and adopting innovative approaches, teachers attributed the successful outcome

to their personal teaching efficacy (PTE), and in turn this experience reinforces their level

of efficacy.

Classroom management. Novice teachers developed higher personal teacher

efficacy but lower general teacher efficacy after they had initial experience in student

teaching (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1990). Research findings suggested that teachers with high

personal teaching efficacy were more bureaucratic than those with low personal teaching

efficacy. The less efficacious teachers tended to distrust the effect of education on

improving students' learning difficulties, and they preferred more custodial approaches to

pupil control and had more conservative perspectives toward the function of school.

Those teachers had more confidence in their own capability and were more loyal to

schools. Another study of the impact of teaching experience upon teacher efficacy

showed that novice teachers rated external dimension of teacher efficacy, such as

students' environmental influence or parental supports, significantly lower than

experienced teachers (Hebert, Lee & Williamson, 1998). The results of this study

suggested that teachers' general efficacy did not decline as indicated in pervious research;

rather it increased when teachers had more teaching experience. Teachers were more

confident in facing situations relating to school contexts or administrative requirements.

Perception of students' ability. In terms of interaction in the classroom, more

efficacious teachers set more challenging goals for themselves and their students,

accepted responsibility for the outcomes of instruction, and persisted through obstacles

(Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Ross, 1992). Moreover, Fray (2002) discovered that teachers

who scored high on efficacy of classroom management/discipline in Gibson and Dembo's

TES demonstrated less restrictive placement recommendations concerning children with

behavioral or emotional disorders than colleagues who are not confident about their

classroom management skills. In a similar study on the effect of teachers' characteristics

on placement recommendations for students with visual impairments, Kim and Corn

(1998) reported no significant influence of teacher efficacy in placement recommendation.

Instead, types of educational setting where teachers worked were the most influential

predictor of teacher efficacy. Their teaching experience, but not their teaching ability,

helped the teachers to determine what would be better for the students.

Parental Involvement. In the study of teachers' sense of efficacy and its

relationship to parental involvement, Hoover-Dempsey et al. (1987/1992) discovered the

impact of the teacher efficacy in three areas: parental involvement, school activities and

teachers' perceptions of parent support. In their study, teachers who perceived themselves

as highly efficacious reported high level of parental participation. Their strong sense of

efficacy made them judge parents as more efficacious in students' learning. Teachers with

a stronger sense of efficacy encouraged participation of parents by discussing their

teaching programs and goals with parents. At the same time, the teachers listened to and

appreciated ideas and suggestions from parents. Beside the support from parents,

students' home environment also plays an important role in influencing teacher efficacy.

In the investigation of teacher efficacy beliefs of preservice teachers enrolled in a teacher

preparation program, Lin et al. (1998) investigated the importance of parental

involvement and support for novice teachers in a Taiwanese context, and concluded

"…preservice teachers feel they must count on support from home environments for their

success in teaching. Support from Chinese parents and children's families is the major

issue for young teachers…" (p. 24). Parental involvement and support accounted for how

novice Taiwanese teachers judged their performance and evaluated their success.

<center>Measurement Issues</center>

Issues on Specificity of Efficacy Scale

Teachers' sense of efficacy has been investigated in general sense and not in a

specific area. The global scope in the measurement raises the concern of the contextual

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specificity. Teachers' sense of efficacy varies across different contexts and it does not automatically transfer to other contexts. Variations happen not only within an individual teacher, but also between different teachers. Efficacy scales need to reflect the multifaceted characteristics of teachers' efficacy in various contexts. Henson (2002) suggested that assessment without appropriate context specificity might result in measuring general personality traits. In order to design scales that are domain or subject specific, researchers face the biggest challenge: to find the right level of specificity. Bandura (1997) contended that the transfer of teacher efficacy evaluation was possible to some degree depending on the situational resemblances and foreseeable task demands. Moreover, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) called attention to the precision and the specificity of efficacy scale and argued "developing measures so specific that they lose their predictive power for anything beyond the specific skills and contexts being measured"(p. 50). Relying on Gibson and Dembo's Teachers Efficacy Scale, some researchers attempted to develop efficacy scale focusing on particular domains. However, the level of specificity, and the precision of contexts and subjects measured in efficacy scales remained unsolved.

Interpretation of Two Factors in Teacher Efficacy Scales

The results attained from two studies using the Teachers' Efficacy Scale (TES) (Dembo & Gibsom, 1984; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990) showed items in teacher efficacy scales were loaded onto two factors relating to teachers' personal beliefs in their own ability to make differences, and their beliefs in teaching in general. Guskey and Passaro (1994) claimed that these two factors reflected different dimensions in teacher efficacy and they were "… an internal versus external distinction, similar to the locus-of-control distinction found in measures of causal attribution" (p. 637). Teachers in their study did not show differences in their beliefs either in their own ability to change students' learning or the potential influences from teaching in general. Instead, the distinction

happened in teachers' belief in the ability the teacher and all other teachers have to help students. In other words, whether "my ability" or "teachers' influence" do not make any differences.

In the same vein, Bandura (1986) argued that the GTE did not correspond to outcome expectancy as Dembo and Gibsom (1984) expected. Bandura pointed out that outcome expectancy referred to ones' assessment of his capability and expectation of performance, and it was different from the expectation and belief of others' ability. However, G TE was defined as the confidence of environmental influences, such as schools, or parental involvement. It was not about the expectation and the belief in others' ability. Some researchers suggested the "external influences" that were beyond teachers' control as second factor in TES measurement.

Moreover, factors in TES might be confounded because of the item orientation (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). The general teacher efficacy items tended to be negative orientation, that was "teachers can not…", and personal teacher efficacy items tended to be positive orientation, that was "I can…". Woolfolk and Hoy's (1990) speculated that it was the word orientation, rather than the two concepts proposed by Dembo and Gibson, clustered items in TES into two factors. In order to test Woolfolk and Hoy (1990) hypothesis, Deemer and Minke (1999) varied the orientation of items across both dimensions of efficacy and found that teacher efficacy became unidemensional with items clustering in internal dimension similar to PTE. They claimed, "…the two-factor structure that has been replicated throughout the literature appear to be … an artifact of item wording and not the result of underlying, distinct construct dimensions" (p. 8).

Teacher Efficacy and Language Teaching

Studies on teacher efficacy in language teaching are surprising scant. Among the reviews, only one study (Tracz & Gibson,1986) directly related to language learning after searching the publications in different types of journals. In their study, they discovered that teaching efficacy correlated significantly with students' language and mathematics achievement. Students engaged more in the activities and performed better in the class of teachers who reported stronger confidence in their own ability. Other supplementary findings suggest no significant relationship between teachers' sense of efficacy and their attitude to minority students' language background (Tasan, 2001; Kwiat, 1989). Kwiat (1989) concluded that the increases in teachers' sense of efficacy resulted in their positive attitude to other cultures as well as their desire to increase their knowledge in schooling this type of students.

Factors Influencing Language Teachers' Efficacy

Language teaching imposes more concerns other then instructional techniques, content designs or classroom interactions in comparison with other subject teachings. Since teacher efficacy is context specific, language teachers might have different level of efficacy in teaching the target language in different contexts, for example in EFL versus ESL. Moreover, teacher efficacy is also "*language*" specific in the case of language teaching. Which means, language teachers perceive their own capability differently in teaching language that they learned as a first versus as a foreign language. When teaching their native language, language teachers might have stronger confidence in answering students' questions and setting more challenging goals for both themselves and students. Whereas language teachers might feel less comfortable in trying certain types of activities

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and be less capable in facing challenges while teaching language learned as a second or foreign language. In other words, how language teachers acquire this language, that is as native /first versus foreign/second language, affects their level of efficacy in teaching this language. Therefore, language teachers' status of nativeship, that is native versus nonnative speakers, demands attentions while investigating their efficacy in teaching.

Nativeship permits a particular group of language teachers the right to be models in areas relating to use of this language. Native speaking language teachers are treated as the authority both linguistically and pedagogically (Nayar, 1997). Teachers in other subject matters are not given such privilege as native speaking teachers. On the other hand, nonnative speaking language teachers with different cultural background may not comprehend the connotation and culture behind the linguistic usage. Their capability of explaining and presenting cultural and ideological knowledge of the language to students might affect their belief in their own teaching. In conclusion, other than the effect of nativeship, as stated earlier, we also need to focus more on how language proficiency, cultural and linguistic background of language teachers will affect their sense of effectiveness, particularly how teachers' perception on themselves as native or nonnative speakers of the target language determines their confidence in helping students or setting goals for themselves and students.

The present study was designed to address the issue on whether and how native and nonnative speaking teachers were different in their sense of efficacy. Nonnative language teachers have stronger command in explicit linguistic knowledge of the target language that allows them to deliver grammar lessons more effectively than native language teachers. However, they are usually less capable in communicative perspectives

of language, especially oral skill. For example, Carmen (2002) discovered that the English speaking proficiency was the predictor of and barrier to teacher efficacy for English teachers in Venezuelan context. English teachers in Venezuela reported less confident in adopting communicative approaches than traditional grammar approach in their teaching. In contrast, native language teachers in other studies (e.g., Arva & Medgyes, 2000) were blamed for not being familiar with and could not identify with the culture and learning difficulties students have. They usually had some difficulties in fitting into the classroom and establish the level of interaction as their non-native counterparts can easily do. The disadvantages native speaking teacher encountered might cause some negative impacts on their sense of capability in teaching.

<div align="center">Conclusion</div>

Tschannen-Moran et al.'s (2001) Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) and Riggs and Enoch's (1990) Science Teaching Efficacy Belief Instrument (STEBI) reviewed here were adopted and modified as parts of the questionnaire in this study. Studies reviewed here established the theoretical framework of the present inquiry and urged the investigation on teacher efficacy of native and nonnative foreign language teachers. Next part of this chapter attempted to delineate the complex nature of nativeship and issues relating to this construct.

Issues on Nativeship in Language Teaching

"One thing that we do when we recruit is that we tell students that they will only be taught by NSs. After all these students do not come so far to be taught by someone who doesn't speak English" (Thomas, 1999, p. 6).

This statement cruelly but faithfully describes the hiring policy executed among numerous ESL and EFL institutions. This reflects the mentality that only native speakers are qualified as good language teachers. At the same time, two issues emerge from this statement: "definition of nativeship" and "existence of native speakers."

Definition of Nativeship

In the past decades, language educators and linguists have attempted to tackle the seemingly elusive and arbitrary definition of nativeship. In the early 20th century, Bloomfield (1933) studied the acquisition of language among American Indians and contended that "The first language a human being learns to speak is his *native language*; he is *native speaker* of this language" (p. 43). In this statement, native language was defined as the particular language an individual learned from his/her mother in childhood. This implies that only the language an individual was exposed to in childhood would be considered his/her native language. Every human being is the native speaker of one language but not any language learned at a later stage in life. However, Bloomfield did not consider the circumstances where children were exposed to more than one language simultaneously during childhood, as well as cases in which children moved to another environment where different languages were spoken. Therefore, this pioneering but narrow definition of native language eliminated the possibility for second language learners to claim nativeship over the target language.

Richards *et al.* (1992) in their *Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics* defined native language as the language that a person acquired in early childhood. This is usually the first language introduced to the child. However, the language learned after some knowledge of another language introduced by other older family members or babysitters can also be considered a "native language" according to their definition. Native language is not limited to the language learned in a strictly defined context and individuals can be native speakers of more than one language. Furthermore, Richard et al. (1992) described the intuition of a native speaker as "…one basis for establishing or confirming the rules of the grammar" (p. 241). They emphasized the importance of native speakers' intuition in constructing the rules of grammar. In this sense, native speakers were depicted as arbitrators of grammar and had the ultimate and unquestionable authority of what was right and wrong in using this language.

In the same vein, Phillipson (1992) noted native speakers as the model of "standard grammar and vocabulary…which teaching materials and sound recordings seek to reanimate." He also pointed out their capability of "demonstrating fluent, idiomatically appropriate language, in appreciating the cultural connotations of the language" (p. 194). Other than the linguistic superiority and the authority of native speakers already mentioned earlier, native speakers' extensively cultural knowledge and creative cultural application in communication according to different contexts also appeared in Phillipson's description. Phillipson (1992) acutely singled out the important connection between a language and the culture hidden behind it. Native speakers not only have the knowledge of language, but they also have sufficient knowledge of culture embedded

within the language that enables them to speak "natively." Their linguistic and cultural knowledge, as well as the "native" pronunciation play a significant role in language teaching materials.

Instead of directly defining the term "nativeship", Chomsky (1965) connected its relationship with generating linguistic theories and grammar. He believed that linguistic theories primarily explained the actual performance of an ideal native speaker who knew his language perfectly and was not affected by such irrelevant grammatical elements as distraction, a lot of interest or attention in a homogeneous speech community. In other words, native speakers are the primary subjects under investigation and are resources based on which linguistic theories are developed. Drawing upon a similar nature, he viewed grammar of a language as " … a description of the ideal speaker-hearer's intrinsic competence" (p. 4) that corresponded to the linguistic intuition of an ideal native speaker. At the same time, Chomsky (1965) attempted to distinguish between competence and performance. Competence is the speaker's knowledge of the language, whereas performance is the usage of language in real-life contexts. He believed that competence of a native speaker was perfect, and it operated as a latent system that could only be discovered through the observation of actual performances. Differing from competence, performance may show some errors or incomplete sentence structures. However, Chomsky believed that there is a perfect linguistic knowledge of the language exists in the head of native speakers.

Existence of Native Speakers

Ideas and theories discussed so far do not directly answer the question, "who is a native speaker?" Rather, they concurrently emphasized the intuition of native speakers

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and the role they play as models both linguistically and pedagogically. Besides, Chomsky pointed out the importance of the linguistic competence of a native speaker, and his discussion led to the question as to who owns this competence. In other words, what constitutes the qualifications of a native speaker?

Many scholars have identified native speakers' intuition as a crucial element that guarantees the pedagogically superior status of native speakers. Some other scholars were suspicious of its reliability and appropriateness in language teaching. While discussing the role of the intuition of native speakers in developing pragmatic competence in classrooms, Rose (1997) raised several concerns on the primary reliance on native speakers' intuition in creating language-teaching materials. For example in one study discussed in her article native speakers of Norwegian were found not to be aware of code switching from standard Norwegian to the local dialect in their conversation with another native Norwegian speaker. Another study revealed that the actual speech samples varied from the list of characteristics linguists believed to distinguish male and female speech in Dutch. Both studies indicated the inconsistency and uncertainty between native speakers' intuition and their actual performance. Native speakers' intuition, or their intrinsic linguistic knowledge, cannot really function as a model for linguistic theory or pedagogical materials as believed by other scholars. Rose finally concluded, "Perhaps the main problem with the use of NS intuitions concerning language use is that they do not seem to be very reliable" (p. 130). Her discussions called for the need to re-examine the pedagogical values given to native speakers by parents, language educators and students.

Following the same line of reasoning, Cook (1999) criticized the content of English teaching course books as "…implicitly native-based, reflecting the teaching

tradition's idealized normative view of English rather than actual description" (p. 189). These teaching materials inevitably portrayed the interaction only between native speakers and ignored the contexts where interaction between nonnative speakers or native speakers and nonnative speakers occurs. Besides, Cook (1999) pointed out the "comparative fallacy" observed in many Second Language Acquisition (SLA) studies that language learners were compared with native speakers' usage of the language as points of reference and "… success and fail are associated with the phrase native speaker…" (p. 189). Cook urged language educators to acknowledge the significance of language learners' first language. He suggested that "L2 users have to be looked at in their own right as genuine L2 users, not as imitation native speakers" (p. 195). The notion of native speakers as points of reference to determine the proficiency of language learners ignored the creative nature of communication and limited second language learners' linguistic input to the language usage of native speakers.

With the intention to clarify the typology of native speakers, Ballmer (1981) pointed out the path of developing the intrinsic knowledge (intuition) and the ability to produce appropriate expressions in communication. He believed that native speakers learned the knowledge and ability in the process of primary socialization that is monolingual. He emphasized the importance of living in a monolingual environment which, in his opinion, guaranteed the purist linguistic inputs that were not contaminated by other languages. The monolingual environment validated the reliability of native speakers' performance based on which linguists try to establish a grammatical system of the language. Ballmer's definition asserted that native speakers do exist in the monolingual context through the process of socialization in early childhood. However,

this monolithic perspective narrowed the definition of native speakers to monolingual speakers and denied the native speakership of bilingual speakers or speakers whose socialization involved more than one language.

In his well-cited book, "The Native Speaker: Myth and Reality," Davies (2003) carefully dissected the constitution of the native speaker from different aspects such as psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic or communicative competences. The results of his examination indicated native speakers' intuitive capacity to write "…literatures at all level from jokes to epics, metaphor to novels" (p210). They also had the ability to translate and interpret the native language into a foreign language or vice versa while they also spoken another language. However, not many scholars mentioned these abilities in Davis's definition. A possible reason may be the complicated nature of those abilities that requires more than the intrinsic linguistic knowledge and cultural background of a native speaker. The ability to write literature at different levels or translate the native language to another language demands training and sophisticated linguistic and cultural knowledge.

Regardless of scholars' extensive effort to delineate the native speaker entity, Davies (1995) concluded those definitions as circular and not abiding. He criticized the importance of socialization in early childhood in relation to the communicative competence of native speakers that commonly existed in those definitions. He proposed six characteristics of native speakers and claimed that through training and practice, "…the second language learner has a difficult but not an impossible task to become a native speaker of a target language…" (p. 212). The only characteristic that second language learners cannot have is childhood acquisition that is "bio-developmentally" defined.

Without the characteristic of acquiring this language in early childhood, second language learners could still be identified as native speakers of the target language through their level of language proficiency. Second language learners who have superior language proficiency can still communicate as effectively and appropriately as native speakers. In this sense, the "bio-developmental" characteristic seems not as critical as claimed by other scholars and makes the distinction between native and non-native "… at bottom one of confidence and identity" (p. 213). Being a native speaker means being a speaker who is accepted and identified as "us" by speakers of the target-speaking community. It all depends on the acceptance and the confidence from the native-speaking community toward whoever is under the judgment that constitutes a lot of personal preference and opinions. The subjective judgments from members of the speaking community make the native speaker "an emperor without any clothes" (p. 213). Even so, Davies admitted that the impact from early childhood acquisition was so great that it was unlikely for many second language learners to achieve the native speaker proficiency at the post-puberty period.

Differences Between Native and Nonnative Language Teachers

Perspectives in defining nativeship varied among scholars and no agreements were reached on this controversial issue. Even so, the differences between native and nonnative speaking language teachers were well examined and documented in the field of English language teaching. In the study of investigating different teaching behaviors between native and nonnative teachers, Arva and Medgyes (2000) discovered the differences that emerged in three aspects of teaching: own use of English, general attitude, and attitude of teaching the language. With superior command in English language,

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native English-speaking teachers in their study tended to give fewer tests and homework and preferred free activities, such as work in groups or pairs, and more flexible approaches that had a variety of materials. In contrast, their nonnative counterparts preferred more controlled activities, such as a translation exercise or drills, and adopted a more guided approach that required a textbook and more homework. Native teachers were believed to be less committed to the teaching and less empathic to students' learning, whereas nonnative teachers were more cautious and stricter in teaching and had more realistic expectations of students' learning. In terms of linguistic foci in teaching, native teachers tended to emphasize such elements as fluency, oral skills or colloquial registers, whereas nonnative teachers focused more on accuracy, grammar rules or formal registers.

In the study of documenting nonnative EFL professionals' perception of native and nonnative issues, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) reported similar differences in teaching behaviors found in Arva and Medgyes's study. Participants in Samimy and Brutt-Griffler's study reported that native-speaking teachers used authentic English in interacting with students, adopted different techniques and methods, and emphasized communication rather than exam preparation. Nonnative speaking teachers reported to be aware of psychological perspectives of learning, more efficient in teaching, but emphasizing exam preparation more.

Other differences between native and nonnative teachers were also found in an international survey on English-speaking EFL/ESL teachers' self-image (Reves & Medgyes, 1994). In their study, different teaching behaviors were reported in three areas: "use of English", "general teaching approach" and "specific language teaching approach." Nonnative English teachers reported the lack of fluency and accuracy in their

oral proficiency and to struggle with the appropriate use of English. Similar to studies discussed earlier, nonnative teachers in this study reported to have deeper insights into English language than native English teachers. However, nonnative English teachers had limited knowledge of context and tended to teach an unfamiliar language in context-poor environments or in isolation. In contrast, native teachers taught language in more creative and authentic contexts, whole using more effective and innovative teaching techniques.

Reves and Medgyes's (1994) study also revealed the self-image and attitude to teaching perceived by nonnative speaking teachers. The results showed that the level of English, especially oral, proficiency differentiated the self-image of those nonnative ESL/EFL teachers. Teachers who reported poor self-image were found teaching in an environment where the opportunities to use English was limited. In contrast, teachers with a stronger self-image appeared to have more experience living in English-speaking countries and to have higher teaching quality. The effect of English proficiency was also observed in other studies (Chacon, 2002; Shin, 2001). Both studies revealed the effect of language proficiency on both teacher efficacy and teaching methodology. Language teachers who reported a higher level of language proficiency would choose to have more interactive and communication-orientated activities in classrooms.

Different cultural and linguistic backgrounds between native- and nonnative-speaking teachers might differentiate teaching attitude and behaviors. At the same time, the background differences also influence pedagogical advantages and disadvantages of native- and nonnative-speaking teachers in their teaching. Native-speaking teachers are believed to be superior in both linguistic and cultural knowledge and they can provide students authentic and flawless linguistic samples.

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Meanwhile, nonnative-speaking teachers can provide a better learner model, teach language-learning strategies more effectively, supply more information about the English language, better anticipate and prevent language difficulties, be more sensitive to their students, or benefit from their ability to use the students' mother tongue (Auerbach, 1993; Phillipson, 1992, Medgyes, 1994).

Liu (1999) interviewed eight nonnative ESL professionals to examine their perceptions on issues of native speakership and discovered that not all participants agree with the advantages of nonnative-speaking teachers listed in other studies. He concluded that the effect of advantages "… depends on the teaching environment and the specific learners" (p. 99). For example, instead of perceiving this nonnative-speaking teacher as an achievable model, students of one participant felt intimidate and would rather choose to keep a distance. Liu's study indicated that how native- and nonnative-speaking teachers could contribute to language learning requires more research.

<center>Conclusion</center>

In spite of the inconclusive definition of nativeship, that is by birth or socialization, native speakers claimed the privilege as being linguistic and cultural models, particularly in language teaching materials. However, the inconsistent nature of linguistic output from native speakers shown in several studies raised concern and criticism on this over reliance on the intuition of native speakers. On the other hand, studies in English language teaching suggested differences between native and nonnative language teachers in teaching styles or attitudes to language learning. For example, nonnative English-speaking teachers seemed to better connect to students' learning as

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opposed to native teachers who could provide authentic linguistic and cultural input. The

findings of the present study hope to expand knowledge on how foreign language

teachers in the United Stated differ resulting from their status of nativeship.

Foreign Language Education in the United States

The brief review on the historical development of foreign language education, particularly in teacher preparation, constitutes the last part of the theoretical framework of this study. Issues such as teacher preparation at the college level and challenges in foreign language teacher training were also discussed here.

Historical Aspect of Foreign Language Teachers' Preparation

In the article, "Foreign Language Teacher Development: MLJ Perspectives – 1916-1999," Schulz (2000) reviewed writings from the Modern Language Journal (MLJ) concerning the discussion on teacher preparation and certification since the MLJ's inception in 1916. As the oldest continuously publishing journal in North America, MLJ is devoted extensively to developing and promoting foreign language education. In this historical overview, Schulz traced and synthesized pertinent issues related to foreign language teacher education that was chronologically discussed in three eras: (a) 1916-1941; (b) 1941-1966; (c) 1966-1991.

Foreign Language Teacher Education During 1916-1941

During the early 20th century, teaching was prevalently believed as an art and not as a profession that required formal training, and foreign language teachers were basically self-trained. Professional knowledge, such as methodology or language competence was neglected. Few articles acknowledged the qualification of foreign language teachers. The first formal statewide assessment of language teacher certification was initiated in 1915 in New York. Suggestions of teacher qualification reviewed during this period reflected the linguistic nature of the language. Ability to accurately articulate the language, knowledge in grammatical rules as well as competence in interpreting and

appreciating literature were required in teacher certification. Other knowledge, such as history and civilization of the target language or psychology was also recommended. However, communicative competence was unfortunately neglected, and linguistic competence was the primary qualification of foreign language teaching at this period of time. The same characteristic was also observed in the subject-specific test for foreign language teachers in the National Teacher Examination (NTE). This segment mainly tested linguistic perspectives of language such as reading, vocabulary, or literature.

In addition to the improvement on the qualification of foreign language teachers, the quality of teacher-training programs also attracted attention. The report on teacher training in the MLJ revealed the utterly unsatisfactory of training programs in teacher's colleges "…given the fact that 60% did not meet the recommended standard of offering 30 semester hours of coursework in the language (beyond 2 years of high school study) for their majors" (p. 497). With an attempt to enhance the quality of teacher preparation, Modern Foreign Language Study, formally started in 1924, took the role of investigating status and needs for teacher preparation, for example, the hiring policy of foreign language teachers or the availability of courses in training programs. Recommendations made from the Study included both practical and theoretical aspects of language teaching. Practice teaching was first proposed as part of teacher training along with study abroad and extracurricular activities offered by the language department. Language teachers reported practice teaching as the most valuable pre-professional experience. Moreover, the idea of supervisor emerged as the form of "special representatives" who were assigned to observe and advise in practice teaching. Regardless of the recommendations and efforts from the Study to improve the quality of foreign language teacher preparation,

the problems of teacher preparation still remained unsolved, and "concerns… regarding the development and qualifications of teaching remained the same as they had been during the previous 20 years" (p. 499).

Foreign Language Teacher Education During 1941-1966

World Wars II and the National Language Defense Education Act influenced teacher education in this era. The number of foreign language teachers, especially German teachers, declined dramatically, and foreign language teachers were in great demand after WWII. For example, in 1947 six teacher-training programs in the state of Illinois graduated only 25 foreign language majors to fill 240 vacancies. Many teachers were recruited without proper training and qualification. One remedy for the shortage of foreign language teachers was to recruit from graduate teaching assistants (TAs) who taught many elementary language courses in foreign language departments. Training and supervision in graduate TAs started to receive more attention and recommendations, such as observation, content courses, and supervision and demonstration of senior staff members.

After the war, many language educators decried the quality of teacher preparation programs with their lax recruitment, training and placement of teachers even more seriously. The need of standard criteria led to the creation of the MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests. This ambitious test consisted of seven parts that assessed teachers' competence in four language skills, linguistic, professional and civilization. It took two to three days to complete the exam. Teachers were required to take the exam both at the beginning and end of the institution. By 1966, this test was widely accepted as national norm by which the subject matter competence of language teachers was evaluated.

The passage of the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) reflected the U.S. competition for technology superiority since the Soviet Union's first launching of the space satellite. Teaching of foreign language along with mathematics and science was by then considered vital for U.S. national defense. Foreign language teaching received a large amount of federal funding for purposes such as teacher training, development of teaching materials and technology, or language student loans. Up until this time, the language institutes funded by NDEA were still believed to be the greatest mass form of teacher training in the history of the United States. The support from NDEA provided language institutions intensive attention to improve the quality of teacher preparation. The "Guideline for Education Programs in Modern Foreign Languages" proposed in the early 1960s reflected the impact of NDEA in teacher preparation in two perspectives. Firstly, the competence of a language teacher cannot only be measured by content credit hours, but also needs to be measured by other criteria, such as performance in real teaching contexts or capability in coping with students' learning. Secondly, as Freeman (1966) commented, "that close cooperation between language teachers' associations, the institutions that train teachers, and the state or national certifying agencies and commissions is absolutely essential for the solving of fundamental problems of teacher preparation and certification" (as cited in Schulz, 2000, p. 326). The NDEA was replaced by the Education Professions Development Act (EPDA) in 1968 and continued supporting to the development of elementary and secondary foreign language teachers.

Foreign Language Teacher Education During 1966-1991

The development of foreign language teacher preparation during this period of time showed a trend moving "from seat-time requirements in prescribed courses to the

requirements of measurable competence for teacher certification" (p. 507).

Recommendations of subject matter courses such as methodology, linguistics, psychology or classroom observation as part of teacher preparation were still prevalent. At the same time, more performance- or competence-based requirements, such as microteaching or internship, appeared more frequently. In addition to fulfilling content courses provided by colleges, foreign language teachers during this era were required to demonstrate their competence in teaching the target language through discussion with supervisors or peers in teacher preparation programs.

Training graduate TAs also received increasing attention during this period. Most training programs consisted of "…some form of methods instruction, coordination meetings, classroom observations and supervisory conferences" (p. 514). Some other programs involved training such as videotaped microteaching or the obligatory pre-teaching workshops. Moreover, TAs' language proficiency was evaluated before the teaching. Even so, the failure to achieve minimum language proficiency did not disqualify TAs from teaching. It is also interesting to note the emergence of interdisciplinary concepts in content courses provided in training programs. Training programs were not regarded as simply the introduction of department policies or pedagogical contexts. They also included issues like learning strategies, affective factors in language teaching and learning, or learners' aptitude.

ACTFL. In 1967, the Modern Language Association of America funded the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) which is the only national organization dedicated to the improvement and expansion of the teaching and learning of all languages at all levels of instruction. Governed by a fifteen-member

executive council, its mission was to promote and foster the study of languages and cultures as an integral component of American education and society. Since the inception of its first meeting, ACTFL had made an effort to improve foreign language education. With the ambition to improve the communicative competence and cultural understanding of foreign language learners, it established the Proficiency Guidelines in 1986 and the National Standard for Foreign Language Education in 1995.

ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines. In 1979, the President's Commission called for the need to study other nations and languages in order to broaden the limited worldview of American students. In response to this request, corroboration between U.S. government testing agencies, ACTFL and Educational Testing Service established the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines as a framework for understanding and measuring oral language ability. The Guidelines was first published in 1982. Then it was revised twice in 1986 and 1999. It represented performance in four skills and identified language learners' proficiency, but not achievement. The Guidelines did not measure students' knowledge of the language but their ability to use this language appropriately for real life purposes. Guidelines of speaking, listening, reading and writing deliberately described the linguistic characteristics of different proficiency levels.

Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI). Following the ambition to improve the communicative proficiency proposed in the Guidelines, OPI was designed and executed as a functional and meaningful evaluation that was believed to improve students' communicative competence. A proficiency test measured students' communicative competence to use the language appropriately and effectively in real-life tasks. It did not depend on any curriculum and would be implanted at any time and location. According to

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ACTFL, many government organizations, corporations or institutions currently use OPI worldwide for purposes such as academic placement, student assessment, program evaluation or professional certification and hiring.

In OPI, students' performance is compared with the criteria described in different proficiency levels. This criteria-reference test takes the format of either face-to-face or phone interview and consists of three steps: warm-up, level check and cool-down. Students are evaluated based on four main levels: novice, intermediate, advanced and superior. The criteria-reference nature of the test creates the problem of circularity, which means instead of proficiency level observed in real-life performance the proficiency level is defined by the linguistic description designed by the Guidelines that present what is measured in the test. Some other criticism comes from the validity of both the Guidelines and OPI. The construction of the Guidelines was based on "intuitive judgments" rather than any document analysis or empirical evidence (Liskin-Gasparro, 2003). The interrater reliability of OPI attracts considerable criticism in the trustworthiness of test results. Moreover, the validity of the rating scale also cast some concerns and it imposes "…positing the perception of the native speaker as a criterion against which the proficiency of non-native speakers would be measured" (p. 485). OPI is also blamed for its limited language resources in evaluating proficiency. Tasks used for evaluating proficiency are criticized for lacking interaction and only focusing on grammatical accuracy. Regardless of criticism and suspicion of the reliability and validity of test results, OPI has continued to play an important role in measuring oral proficiency and its impact led to the creation of National Standard decades afterward.

National Standards for Foreign Language Learning (SFLL). An eleven-member

committee that was composed of classroom teachers, administrators, and university faculty initially drafted the SFLL. This draft underwent several revisions based on the suggestions and feedback from different support groups (Davis, 1997). In 1996, the final draft of SFLL was published and it provided guidelines for foreign language education for grades k-12. The Standards are not guidelines for curriculum or classroom activities. Rather, it supports the learning experience that promotes a better understanding of other languages and cultures. Its five main goals (i.e., Five Cs), *Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities,* clearly embody its agenda: "Knowing how, when, and why to say what to whom." The SFLL supports elementary and secondary language education to establish a learning experience that enables students to (a) communicate in a language other than English, (b) gain knowledge and understanding of other cultures, (c) connect other disciplines and acquire information, (d) develop the insight to compare the nature of different languages and cultures, and (e) participate in multilingual communities at home and around the world (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1996). These five goals were not intended to be achieved separately, but were regarded as an interconnected whole. Students were involved in diverse but integrated language activities that broadened their perspectives of language learning which was conventionally regarded as repetition and drills on linguistic items.

Foreign Language Educator Preparation at the College-level

Brandl (2000) surveyed fifty-six language teaching assistants' (TAs') perceptions of which elements of training they perceived beneficial to their development as language instructors. The results showed that informal discussion with peers and the supervisor, end-of-course student evaluations and small-group in-class student interviews were most

favored by the participants. The value of feedback depended on two factors. The first factor related to the TAs' pre-existing interest in the subject matter or their needs for help. The second factor concerned the person they sought out for advice. The feedback seemed to be more effective when the TAs took initiative to seek help. Whom they consulted depended on such circumstances as immediate accessibility or the consultants' pre-existing experiences and expertise. Another form of feedback that was also helpful to these TAs was students' evaluation of the TAs' teaching, especially the end-of-course evaluation reports. The positive students' evaluations helped TAs build confidence that "….positively foster(s) their psychological and emotional development" (p. 365). Regarding methods course and pre-service training, TAs preferred the Fall orientation programs, which provide chances to teach in a real language classroom, over theoretical content classes. The result indicated, "… what seems to be most helpful to them are practical applications and concrete examples of teaching activities" (p. 366). Finally, the study revealed the influence from the TAs' cultural background upon their preference on how to be trained. The result suggested differences between native and nonnative speakers of English, especially in training elements of classroom observation and videotaping. Further research was recommended to investigate this difference.

As for pedagogical implication, Brandl continued to suggest components of successful consultation with TAs: (a) the substance of the instructional feedback, (b) the level of expertise, (c) authority of the feedback provider in language pedagogy and (c) the manner in which the feedback was conveyed. While planning a training program, the program coordinator needed to take personal factors such as developmental stage or personality into consideration.

Altman (1989) surveyed how college professors of foreign languages, literatures

and cultures would rank the importance of various faculty development opportunities that

consisted of three primary categories: instructional development, organizational

development and personal development. Instructional development assisted faculty

members with their teaching, such as test construction, syllabus design, or teaching style

analysis. Organization development sensitized incoming professors to the policy and

environment of the department where they worked. For example, it provided new

professors access to types and locations of resources or assistance available to them. This

type of development was most helpful for faculty leaders. Finally, personal development

focused on personal needs, such as computer literacy training, public speaking skills or

workshops in retirement planning, to name a few. The faculties who participated in this

study ranked "regular contact with the target language and culture" and "opportunities to

attend professional meetings outside my state" as top two. The finding suggested that the

experience of contacting the target speaking community as well as opportunities to

update and exchange academic information were crucial when the department planned

various activities for faculty development. However, Altman also pointed out the

financial resources as the "bottom-line" to support all three of the top-ranking activities.

Financial resources ultimately affected and decided the types and amount of support the

departments can provide to faculty members.

<center>The Challenge of Foreign Language Teacher Training</center>

Since the 1970s, the purpose of language learning shifted to performance- or

proficiency-competence, and the oral proficiency of foreign language teachers was

challenged more than ever before. Language educators or schools of education cannot

solely prepare their student teachers with subject matter knowledge, such as Second

Language Acquisition (SLA) or language assessment. The speaking proficiency of those

student teachers must be sufficient for them to communicate throughout the whole class

period in the target language. Moreover, language teachers' cultural understanding needs

to be broadened to levels beyond the music, art and literature of the target language. Lack

of knowledge on students with diverse cultural backgrounds as well as sufficient

communicative proficiency partially portray challenges faced by foreign language

teachers nowadays. Another challenge relates to coursework provided by the department

as preparation on subject matters for pre-service teachers. Subject matter knowledge still

focuses on knowledge generalized from observation of discrete teacher behaviors, despite

the movement from a behavioral to a more constructive view of learning (Schick &

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Nelson, 2001). The impact of teachers' prior language teaching and learning experience

upon their behavior and effectiveness in teaching needs to penetrate into courseworks

required by the department as part of certification. What teachers know about their

teaching relates to how they learned the language.

In spite of the endeavor to improve the quality of foreign language teachers,

research on teacher preparation did not show satisfactory progress since the early 20th

century. Schulz (2000) claimed, "FL teacher preparation is still long on rhetoric, opinions,

and traditional dogma, and short on empirical research that attempts to verify or test those

opinions or traditional practices" (p. 516). Foreign language departments still cannot find

ways to evaluate and guarantee the communicative proficiency to certify teachers;

meanwhile, certification still relies mainly on the number of credits hours instead of

performance or demonstrable competence. Lack of cooperation between the language

department and the school of education handicaps language teachers with professional

knowledge and pedagogical skills. The disciplinary knowledge and language skills

remain to be the focus in many teacher preparation programs. In many schools, foreign

language teachers are still underpaid and undervalued. They face large classes with

students of different learning styles, aptitude and language learning experiences. Finally,

solid research on language teacher perception, teaching effectiveness or the relationship

between teachers' behavior with students' achievement demand more attention. More

than ever before, foreign language teachers need more support and opportunities to adjust

to and keep up with changes in this profession such as SLA, technology, or learning

styles. In conclusion, the future for foreign language education is unpredictable; even so,

the path to improvement is promising.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

In this Ex Post Facto designed study, foreign language teaching assistants had naturally gathered themselves into two intact groups: native and nonnative speakers of the target language. Nativeship was the independent variable in this study and it had two levels: native speaker and nonnative speaker. The dependent variables were teacher efficacy and perceptions of language teaching. In this study, teaching efficacy was defined by four constructs: instructional strategic efficacy, language teaching efficacy, student engagement efficacy, and personal and environmental influence efficacy. The teachers perceptions of language teaching, was divided into three areas: (1) issues on nativeship, (2) important elements in language teaching, and (3) teaching methods used in the classroom. Both data from a questionnaire and interviews, particularly survey findings, answered research inquiries of this study.

Research Setting

This large midwestern university offered instruction on more than ten foreign languages every academic year. Every year, graduate students with diverse backgrounds were trained as language teaching assistants to comprise numbers of language teachers demanded in different language departments. In this study, language teaching assistants were chosen from four language departments: Spanish and Portuguese, East Asian Language and Literatures, French and Italian, and Germanic languages and literatures. Communicative teaching methods were commonly practiced across these foreign language departments and speaking proficiency was the pedagogical focus. Two types of instruction existed in these departments: classroom instruction and individualized instruction (I.I.) that took place in the Individual Instruction center. The Individual Instruction started in the early 1970's and became part of language instruction in five foreign language departments: Chinese, Japanese, Russian, German and French. Previously designed lesson plans and props, such as artifact or pictures, were organized and used as the primary teaching resources for teaching assistants in the I.I. center. Language teaching assistants in the Individual Instruction center were required to make lesson plans and props. Even so, they still needed to elicit students' performance through different techniques, such as role-play, as those teaching in classrooms. Language teaching assistants in regular classrooms prepared their own lesson plans and props prior to the lesson. In the classroom, they provided contextual drills and exercises in which students practiced the target language while performing in a simulated daily-life task, such as making reservations or giving directions. Those activities ranged from more conventional methods, such as grammatical exercises or translation, to more

communicative methods like role-plays or interviews. Language teaching assistants adopted different teaching methods based on which teaching context they were assigned. In terms of training, teaching assistants in both teaching contexts received the same content and requirements from the workshop for qualification. The pre-session workshop, hosted by the Foreign Language Center at this large midwestern university, familiarized teaching assistants with university policies and expectations from departments and students. Language departments chosen in this study offered both kinds of instruction and represented the major population of foreign language teaching assistants at this university.

<div align="center">Population and samples</div>

Population in this study was foreign language teaching assistants at the major midwestern university. In this study, language teaching assistants teaching six languages, Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, German, French and Italian, were sampled because of the accessibility and their representation of major population of language teaching assistants at the large midwestern university.

One hundred and ninety-six language teaching assistants, both native and non-native speakers of the target language, were sampled in this study. One hundred and four of them volunteered and contributed their opinions in this study. All of them were graduate students pursuing a Master's or Ph.D. degree in areas related to linguistics, culture or pedagogy at the time of the study. Most native speaking teaching assistants (90%) were international students from different countries where the target language was spoken as an official language. Nonnative speaking teaching assistants were mostly Americans who had similar background as most language students culturally and linguistically.

Quantitative Data Sampling Procedure

The sampling procedure adopted in this study was "convenient sampling" defined

as "a group of individuals who conveniently are available for the study" (Fraenkel &

Wallen, 2000, p. 112). An updated name list in 2003 of foreign language teaching

assistants from four language departments was obtained. This list provided contact

information of each TA as well as of the coordinator of each language department. Data

was collected during the autumn quarter (September through December) of 2003. The

researcher contacted the coordinator of each language department for permission and

assistance to conduct the study. After receiving permission, the researcher sent out the

first invitation letter (see Appendix B) during the second week of the quarter via e-mail to

all teaching assistants from each department. In order to provide more flexibility and

increase numbers of volunteer, the researcher suggested several time slots and places in

the invitation letters for participants to choose. Volunteers chose the time and place that

best suited their schedule. The researcher arranged and reserved rooms in advance.

Volunteers came during the agreed time period. When they came, a consent form and the

questionnaire were compiled. All participants were asked to sign the consent form before

responding to the questionnaire. Generally, the questionnaire took approximately thirty

minutes to be filled out. The researcher was in the same room with the participants to

answer their questions while the questionnaire was filled out. After finishing and

returning the questionnaire, the participants received five dollars as a token of

appreciation. Some volunteers requested the questionnaire to be mailed to a particular

address and returned it after it was completed. The preceding data collection took three

weeks to complete. Another invitation letter was sent out afterward during the sixth week

of the quarter to those who did not volunteer in the first invitation. Most participants at this time requested to leave the survey in their mailbox and promised to return it within a week. The procedure to collect data at the second time took another three weeks before it was completed.

<center>Qualitative Data Sampling Procedure</center>

Semi-structured and open-ended interviews were conducted after the questionnaire was administered. Due to the limited time and financial resources, two foreign language teaching assistants from each language department, twelve in total, were chosen. The participants were chosen based on three criteria: nativeship, years of teaching and levels of students. At the end of the questionnaire, the volunteers were invited to participate in the semi-structured, open-ended interview. Ten dollars were given to interviewees after the interview to compensate for their time. Each interview took about one hour and was audio-recorded under permission of the interviewee.

<center>Instrumentation (measurement)</center>

The process of generating this questionnaire was as following.

First of all, the researcher reviewed two previously validated instruments: the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) scale and the Science Teaching Efficacy Beliefs Instrument (STEBI) that were developed and adopted in the last decade for studying the concept of teacher efficacy. Items from "Efficacy in classroom management" in the TSES scale were not included in this study since "classroom management" was not the responsibility of teachers in the university teaching context. The format of the questionnaire was modified from question to statement (see Appendix D). The notion behind this modification was to correspond to the Likert scale that rates the levels of

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agreement from the respondents on different items. Thirteen items from STEBI were

adopted and modified in this study (Appendix E).

Secondly, the researcher generated items relating to "language teaching efficacy"

based on the literature review (Nunan, 1999) and previous Chinese language teaching

experience.

Thirdly, the researcher adopted six items from Chacon's (2002) study (see

Appendix F) and generated three other items from personal teaching experience to

complete Part IV of the questionnaire.

Lastly, the researcher conducted interviews with three foreign language teachers.

Information extracted from these interviews completed the process of creating the

questionnaire.

Prior Study Interviews

Open-ended and semi-structured interviews with three foreign language teachers

were conducted with the purpose to collect more information for generating items in the

questionnaire that answer research inquiries in this study. Interviews were audio-recorded

with permission from the interviewees and transcribed by the researcher. With respect to

collect a wider range of perspectives of foreign language teaching, interviewees from

different countries and with various teaching experiences were chosen. Interviewee A was

a native speaker of English and was teaching Chinese at the large midwestern university

at the time of the interview. He was also an ESL teacher for half a year in a non-profit

organization. Interviewee B was from India and was also teaching Japanese at the large

midwestern university at the time of the interview. Both interviewees had foreign

language teaching experience in the United States ranging from one and half years to four

years. Interviewee C was from Thailand and had more than ten years of teaching

experience in the EFL context. She was pursuing a Ph.D. degree in Foreign Language

Education at the time of the interview.

<center>Interviews</center>

Douglas (1996) described the quantitative research paradigm as a mean to

"…enable researchers to generate accounts that locate and explain events in terms of

space, time, number, and determinism…the strength of such accounts is more on the side

of precision than scope" (p. 246). In this study, the survey findings provided specific but

not in-depth information of the inquiry. Issues investigated in this study were

contextually and culturally situated, and statistical data were insufficient to explore the

complexity of the phenomena. The researcher wanted to examine deeper structures and

patterns of differences between native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants.

The qualitative research paradigm respects individuals' interpretations of the world

around them and presents multiple dimensions of the research interests. It focuses "…on

constructed versus *found* worlds in a way that increasingly focuses on the role of

language in the construction of knowledge" (Rorty, cited in Lather, 1994). The

interpretation of the targeted phenomena through the language of people experiencing it

widens the scope of the research inquiry and enriches the comprehension of questions. In

this study, the knowledge gained from semi-structured and open-ended interviews

provided additional insights into the potential differences between these two groups of

teaching assistants.

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Interview Questions

Interviews were conducted after the quantitative data was collected. No particular

questions but certain directions and concepts were followed to help the researcher better

understand the interviewees' perspectives regarding issues examined in this study. Every

interview took place in a casual and informal context, such as an empty classroom or

dormitory, and was audio-recorded with permission from the interviewees. The following

concepts and directions were adopted during each interview:

　　　　1. Demographic information: gender, age, native language(s), years of

language learning, levels of students and size of class.

　　　　2. Teaching experience: instructional style, materials, classroom activities

and self-perceived image as a teacher.

　　　　3. Experience of a multicultural environment.

　　　　4. Teacher training program: content of the program, pedagogical application,

needs in the program, and benefits of a training program.

　　　　5. Perspectives on contribution of native and nonnative language teachers.

<div align="center">Validity and Reliability of the Instrument</div>

Validity

Validity is defined as "the degree to which correct inferences can be made based

on results from an instrument; depends not only on the instrument itself, but also on the

instrumentation process and the characteristics of the groups studied" (Fraenkel & Wallen,

2000). The validity of the instrument tells if the content of the instrument measures what

it claims to measure. In this study, two methods were used to test the validity of the

instrument.

Panel of Experts

Dr. Keiko K. Samimy and Dr. Anita Woolfolk Hoy from The Ohio State University were invited as experts to review the content of this questionnaire to confirm its face validity. Besides, with the attempt to receive feedbacks also from real classroom teaching, the researcher invited three teaching assistants from the Department of East Asia Language and Literature to comment on the content and wording of the questionnaire. They were asked to go through all items in the questionnaire and evaluate the comprehensiveness, wording and concept of each item. Think-aloud protocol was used during the interview when the teaching assistants went through each item. The researcher asked questions when the teaching assistants paused or looked puzzled while going through each item. At the end of each interview, all interviewees were asked to make suggestions regarding improvement of the questionnaire. Based on the suggestions and comments received from the panel of experts and teaching assistants, the revised instrument was made, with modification on directions and wording. Finally, the revised version of the questionnaire was used for field-testing.

Pilot Study

The researcher distributed the questionnaire to graduate students (N=13) in the MA TESOL program at the Ohio State University in Columbus, Ohio. The participants were English teachers teaching in either ESL or EFL contexts. Ten participants were nonnative speakers of English and three were native speakers of English. Teachers were asked to complete the questionnaire and gave comment regarding content and format of it. Directions and items did not present any problems to them. Only the invitation for an interview was added at the end of the questionnaire used in the real study.

Reliability of the Questionnaire

Ary et al. (1996) defined reliability as "the extent to which a measuring device is consistent in measuring whatever it measures" (p. 262). Table 3.1 reports the reliability of each section in the questionnaire that consists of 64 items. It adopted a six-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly agree to 6= strongly disagree. This meant, if the teacher rated one for this item, he/she agreed or felt efficacious with the statement described in the item and vice versa. Teacher efficacy was the first section in the questionnaire and it contained four sub-categories: instructional strategies, language teaching, engaging students and environmental and personal influence. Cromba Alpha is the reliability coefficient that shows the possibility the same group of participants will have the same or similar results of the same questionnaire if they are given again in the future. The reliability coefficient ranges from 0, when the measure is completely unreliable, to 1.0, when it is perfectly reliable (Vogt, 1999). In this study, the overall reliability was 0.874, and 0.903 for the part of teacher efficacy, 0.571 for the teachers' perceptions of nativeship issues, and 0.635 for measuring teachers' perspectives on language teaching. The last section in the questionnaire measured teachers' perceptions of three different teaching methods: traditional, communicative and group-work. Since these three teaching methods were different from each other by its own nature, this section of questionnaire was divided into three sections to do the reliability analysis.

Name of Items	Alpha Level
Overall reliability	.874
Instructional Strategies	.704
Language Teaching	.887
Engaging Students	.789
Environmental and personal Influence	.614
Issues of nativeship (Part II)	.571
Perception on language teaching (Part III)	.635
Teaching Methods (Part IV)	.297
Traditional	.528
Communicative	.430
Group work	.429

Table 3.1:Reliability of the questionnaire

Data Analysis

Statistical Analysis

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether there were differences between native and nonnative language teachers regarding several different variables. Quantitative data were analyzed by multiple regressions and correlation matrix to see if native and nonnative language teachers were significantly different in variables, such as teacher efficacy, methods used in the classroom or perspectives in language teaching. The same statistic analysis was also used to examine whether demographic information, such

as years and levels of teaching, and the popularity of the target language affect teacher efficacy or teaching assistants' perception of language teaching.

Interview Data Analysis

The interview data were carefully transcribed and examined to identify themes that respond to the research interests. The findings extracted from the interview data were compared with the quantitative data in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter discusses both qualitative and quantitative data that are presented in four sections: educational characteristics of foreign language teaching assistants, survey findings, interview data and the conclusion. The first section provides information such as the percentage of native and nonnative language teaching assistants in this study, years of teaching or language taught at the time of the study. The survey findings in the second section are discussed in the order as research questions proposed earlier. The third section presents results from interviews with twelve foreign language teaching assistants regarding issues such as language teaching and differences between native and nonnative language teachers in general. Finally, the conclusion synthesizes both survey findings and interview data.

Educational Characteristics of Research Participants

Demographic information of foreign language teaching assistants presented here includes: language taught during the period of the study, the percentage of native and nonnative teachers, gender, age, professional training(s), years of teaching and chances of visiting the target language community.

Language Departments

One hundred and four foreign language teaching assistants from Department of East

Asia Language and Literature (DEALL), Department of French and Italian, Department of German and Department of Spanish and Portuguese participated in this study. Among these four language departments, the DEALL had the highest percentage of teaching assistants volunteered in this study (Table 4.1). As for language specific, Spanish language teaching assistants had the largest numbers of participants (32.7%) and Italian teaching assistants from the Department of Italian and French represented the smallest numbers of group (7.7%). The data showed that either close to 50% or above teaching assistants from each language department participated in this study.

Department	Frequency	Percent (%)	PTD (%)
Chinese	18	17.3	
Japanese	12	11.5	70
French	18	17.3	
Italian	8	7.7	58
German	14	13.5	50
Spanish	34	32.7	42.5
Total	104	100.0	

Note: PTD= Percentage of teaching assistants from each language department.

Table 4.1: Language departments selected in this study

Native and Nonnative Foreign Language Teaching Assistants

The proportion of native to nonnative teaching assistants was close to even (Table 4.2). Fifty-one native and fifty-three nonnative foreign language teaching assistants

volunteered in this study. The similar number of native and nonnative teaching assistants participated in this study avoided bias and equally presented opinions from each group.

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Native speaker	51	49.0
Nonnative speaker	53	51.0
Total	104	100.0

Table 4.2: Percentage of native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants

Gender

The data revealed uneven gender distribution among participants (Table 4.3). Only 28% of participants were male while 74% were female. The different numbers of male and female language teaching assistants in this study also reflected the gender distribution in each language department. Female language teaching assistants represented the major teacher population while male language teaching assistants were the minority.

	Frequency	Percent (%)	Cumulative Percent (%)
male	30	28.8	28.8
female	74	71.2	100.0
Total	104	100.0	

Table 4.3: Gender distribution of participants

Age

The majority of participants (68%) was under 30 years old and only 12% was above 40 years of age (Table 4.4). Most participants were graduate students at the large midwestern university and pursuing either a Master's or Ph.D. degree at the time of the study. The characteristic of being young suggested the possibility of being less experienced in this group of language teaching assistants.

	Frequency	Percent (%)
under 25 yrs	23	22.1
26-30 yrs	48	46.2
31-35 yrs	13	12.5
36-40 yrs	7	6.7
above 40yrs	13	12.5
Total	104	100.0

Table 4.4: Age distribution of participants

Years of Teaching

As for years of teaching, approximately 40% of the participants had less than two years and about 34% had three to five years of teaching (Table 4.5). Only 20% of language teaching assistants had more than nine years of teaching experience. As mentioned earlier, the tendency of having less teaching experience was expected because of the young age of most participants. Most language teaching assistants were in their twenties, and not able to accumulate extensive teaching experience.

	Frequency	Percent (%)
less than 2 yrs	40	38.5
3-5 yrs	35	33.7
6-8 yrs	9	8.7
more than 9 yrs	20	19.2
Total	104	100.0

Table 4.5: Participants' years of teaching experience

Professional Training Experience

Most teaching assistants (81.7%) had some types of professional training (Table 4.6). Prior to every academic year, Foreign Language Center hosts a Graduate Associate Teacher Training workshop for all language teaching assistants at this large midwestern university. This workshop lasts for approximately two weeks and it consists of both theoretical and practical elements relating to language teaching. This workshop

familiarizes both international and American teaching assistants with the instructional

environment of this university and provides different pedagogical resources for their

future teaching. During interviews, many interviewees appreciated the training received

from this workshop and acknowledged it as a model of teacher development in their

future teaching contexts.

	Frequency	Percent (%)
YES	85	81.7
NO	19	18.3
Total	104	100.0

Table 4.6: Participants' professional training experience

Visiting the Target Language Community

Table 4.7 shows that almost half of nonnative language teaching assistants had never

visited the target language countries or only visited for less than one year. At the same

time, 34% of them were there for one to three years before teaching this language.

Similar to years of teaching, the length of staying in the target language country might

also be affected by the age of language teaching assistants. Young age of most

participants limited their chances to visit the target language communities.

Years of Visiting	Frequency	Percent (%)
NO	2	3.8
less than 1 yr	24	45.3
1-3 yrs	18	34.0
more than 3 yrs	9	17.0
Total	53	100.0

Table 4.7: Participants' experience of visiting the target language country

Survey Findings

In this section of the chapter, the results from survey of language teaching assistants' attitude answer each research question. The first research question was about the demographic information of participants and had already been presented previously. Therefore, research question two undertakes the discussion in this section.

Question 2: What is the level of teacher efficacy of foreign language teaching assistants at the large midwestern university?

In this study, teacher efficacy was defined as teachers' level of efficacy in instructional strategies, language teaching, engaging students and handling environmental and personal influence (EPI) in teaching. The first section of the questionnaire, contained 35 items, was constructed based on different resources to measure the teacher efficacy of foreign language teaching assistants at this large midwestern university.

Instructional strategic efficacy examined teachers' self-perceived capability in using different instructional strategies in the classroom to enhance students' learning. Overall, this group of language teaching assistants felt capable in modifying or providing

different teaching methods to fit students' needs (Table 4.8). Both native and nonnative language teaching assistants had a high level of efficacy, for example, in speaking the target language only or using communicative instructions in the classroom. At the same time, they were also efficacious to create an environment where students could receive different methods or explanations when they were confused.

Description		Mode	
	Group	NA	NNA
1. In general, I can modify my teaching methods to fit with students' need.	1	2	1
3. I can provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused.	1	1	1
5. I can create an environment where students feel comfortable to speak the target language.	1	1	1
7. I can implement target-language-only instruction.	1	1	1
9. I can use communicative instruction in my class.	1	1	1

Note: Group Mode=Mode score of all participants,

     NA Mode = Mode score of native speaking teachers

     NNA Mode = Mode score of nonnative speaking teachers

Table 4.8: Instructional strategies efficacy

Student engagement efficacy investigated teachers' self-perceived capability to involve students with low interests in classroom activities. Overall, foreign language teaching assistants reported a high level of efficacy in engaging students in classroom

activities such as enabling students to value of speaking another language or encouraging

accesses to outside classroom activities (Table 4.9). However, comparing with the

efficacy level of giving various instructional strategies in the classroom, teaching

assistants felt relatively less capable in motivating students.

Description	Mode		
	Group	NA	NNA
13. I can get students interested in learning the target language.	1	1	1
17. I can motivate students who show low interest in learning the target language.	2	2	2
18. I can help my students value the ability to speak another language.	1	1	1
19. I can help my students learn the target language by encouraging them to access outside classroom activities, such as community of the target language or cultural events.	1	1	1

Table 4.9: Student engagement efficacy

Language teaching efficacy examined teaching assistants' self-perceived capability

in teaching the target language, such as learning strategies, cultural lessons or techniques

of teaching different levels of four skills. Most teaching assistants reported high level of

efficacy in teaching the target language, for example, analyzing the structure of the text

or teaching high-level writing classes (Table 4.10). The results reflected that most native

and nonnative language teaching assistants felt capable in utilizing different resources, such as authentic materials or students' own cultural backgrounds, in their teaching. However, in terms of teaching higher-level reading and writing classes, teaching colloquial expressions in conversation classes or predicting students' speaking proficiency, native language teaching assistants were found with higher level of efficacy.

Description	Mode		
	Group	NA	NNA
2. I can use authentic materials, such as articles from newspapers or magazines, in my reading/writing class.	1	1	1
4. I can teach reading strategies to my students.	1	1	1
6. I can analyze the sentence structures of the text.	1	1	1
8. I can teach writing strategies to my students.	1	1	1
10. I can relate the content in the reading to something students are familiar with.	1	1	1
12. In the writing class, I can explain different genres to students.	1	1	1
14. I can predict and understand students' typical mistakes in their writing.	1	1	1
15. I can teach high-level reading classes.	1	1	3
16. I can teach high-level writing classes.	1	1	3
20. I can predict students' proficiency level of spoken language in a given level.	1	1	2
22. I can explain how the implications (meanings) of an expression varies depending on the contexts.	1	1	1
24. I can correct students' pronunciation problems.	1	1	1
26. I can teach high-level speaking classes.	1	1	1
28. I can teach high-level listening classes.	1	1	1
30. In the conversation class, I can teach colloquial expressions to students.	1	1	2
31. I can help students understand kinds of communicative strategies, such as re-paraphrasing.	1	1	1
33. I can answer questions relating to the cultural, historical and social background of the target language.	1	1	1
34. I can use students' own cultural background to facilitate their understanding of culture, people and society of the target language.	1	1	1

Table 4.10: Efficacy in language teaching

Continuously, language teaching assistants were asked how they perceived the influence from environmental factors, such as parental support or students' prior language learning experience, and personal factors, such as their linguistic knowledge (Table 4.11). In general, participants believed that they could teach the target language effectively (Mode= 1). Meanwhile, they were aware of both environmental and personal influences in students' achievement. For example, most of them tended to be mutual (agreed slightly more than disagreed) in the effect of teaching methods on changing or improving students' performance. It meant that they did not consider teaching strategies or knowledge of target language as the single factor in determining effectiveness in learning outcome. Other factors such as parental supports or experience with the target culture prior to learning were equally influential to students' learning. When responding to students' under achievement in language learning, most language teaching assistants were inclined to disagree slightly more than agree on the ineffective language teaching as the reason (Mode= 4) and agreed slightly more than disagreed on students' achievement as directly related to teachers' effectiveness in teaching (Mode = 3). This implied that language teaching assistants' effectiveness in teaching was crucial to students' achievement; however, it was not the main factor when students' under achievement happened. As mentioned previously, the external factors also accounts for changes in students' achievement.

	Mode		
Description	Group	NA	NNA
11. I know the strategies necessary to teach the target language effectively.	1	1	1
21. When a student performs better than usual, it is often because the teacher finds better ways of teaching.	3	3	3
23. If students are underachieving in learning the target language, it is most likely due to ineffective language teaching.	4	4	4
25. Increased effort in language teaching produces little change in some students' language performance.	3	3	3
27. The inadequacy of a student's language learning background, such as less exposure to the target language and culture, can be overcome by good teaching.	2	2	2
29. Students' achievement in language learning is directly related to their teacher's effectiveness in language teaching.	2	2	3
32. When a student has difficulty understanding language usage or culturally related content, I know how to help the student understand it better.	1	1	1
35. I generally teach the target language effectively.	1	2	1

Table 4.11: Environmental and personal influence (EPI) on language teaching

In conclusion, language teaching assistants in this study were efficacious in modifying different instructional strategies to fit students' needs and to motivate students with low learning interest. At the same time, they were comfortable in using authentic materials, students' own cultural backgrounds and daily-life events in their teaching. In addition to the effectiveness of the language teaching, both native and nonnative

language teaching assistants perceived similar impact in their teaching from both environmental factors, such as students' family, school, or prior experience with the target language, and personal factors, like teachers' ability to manage classes, in their teaching.

In order to investigate the effect of nativeship on language teachers' instructional strategic efficacy, student engagement efficacy, language teaching efficacy and efficacy in handling environmental and personal influence (EPI), multiple regressions were calculated.

Question 2.1: What is the relationship between instructional strategic efficacy and nativeship?

The result shows no significant differences (sig. = .975) between responses from native and nonnative teaching assistants in this study regarding their efficacy level in modifying instructional strategies to fit students' needs (Table 4.12). In the data summary (Table 4.13), low correlation was observed (r = -.003). No relationships between instructional strategic efficacy and nativeship were discovered in the data obtained in this study. Language teaching assistants' levels of instructional strategic efficacy did not vary in accordance with being native or nonnative speakers of the target language.

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p
Nativeship	.00	.00	-.003	-.032	.975

Adjust R^2 = -.010

For model: F= .001 ; p=.975

Table 4.12: Regression of instructional strategic efficacy on nativeship (n=104)

Variable	Intercorrelations		Mean	St. Dev.
	Instructional Efficacy	Nativeship		
Instructional Efficacy	1.00	-.003	8.9712	2.9045
Nativeship	-.003	1.00	.51	.50

Table 4.13: Data summary: Regression of instructional strategic efficacy on nativeship

Question 2.2: What is the relationship between efficacy in student engagement and nativeship?

Table 4.14 shows no significant differences (sig. = .198) between native and nonnative language teaching assistants in rating their efficacy of engaging students with low interests to learn the target language. The data summary (Table 4.15) corresponded to the result of multiple regression and showed low relationship (r = .127) between these two factors. Language teaching assistants at the target midwestern university did not rate their level of efficacy in encouraging and motivating students differently in accordance with their status of nativeship.

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p
Nativeship	.016	.016	.127	1.295	.198

Adjust R^2 = .007

For model: F=1.676 ; p= .198

Table 4.14: Regression of students engagements efficacy on nativeship (n=104)

Variable	Intercorrelations		Mean	St. Dev.
	Nativeship	Students Engagement		
Students Engagement	.127	1.00	10.0769	4.0928
Nativeship	1.00	.127	.51	.50

Table 4.15: Data summary: Regression of students engagements efficacy on nativeship

Question 2.3: What is the relationship between efficacy in teaching this language with nativeship?

Significant differences (sig. = .004) between native and nonnative language teaching assistants in light of their efficacy in teaching the target language were observed (Table 4.16). The results indicated that native and nonnative teaching assistants did have different levels of efficacy in teaching different aspects and levels of the target language. The data summary also showed mild correlation (r = .277) between the confidence in teaching different levels or aspects of language and the status of nativeship (Table 4.17).

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A closer look at the data revealed that native and nonnative language teaching assistants perceived their capability differently in teaching a high-level of reading and writing class. Most native language teaching assistants felt capable in teaching those classes, whereas most nonnative teaching assistants felt less capable in doing so. Regarding teaching colloquial expressions in speaking classes, most native language teaching assistants reported high level of efficacy (Mode= 1) and most nonnative teachers showed slightly lower efficacy (Mode= 2). Similar results were found in their ability to predict students' proficiency level of spoken language in a given level (native assistant Mode= 1, nonnative assistant Mode= 2).

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p
Nativeship	.077	.077	.277	2.907	.004

Adjust R^2 = .067

For model: F= 8.459; p=.004

Table 4.16: Regression of language teaching efficacy on nativeship (n=104)

Variable	Intercorrelations		Mean	St. Dev.
	Language teaching	nativeship		
Language teaching	1.00	.277	30.8365	10.3877
nativeship	.277	1.00	.51	.50

Table 4.17: Data summary: Regression of language teaching efficacy on nativeship

Question 2.4: What is the relationship between efficacy in handling environmental and personal influence (EPI) and nativeship?

Table 4.18 shows the results of the comparison between native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants regarding their efficacy levels in handling the environmental influences, such as parental or administrative support, and personal influences, such as teachers' pedagogical or linguistic knowledge. The results showed no differences between these two groups of teaching assistants (sig. = .103). It also revealed a low relationship (r =.161) between teaching assistants' efficacy levels and their status of nativeship (Table 4.19). It implied that native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants did not reacted to the environmental and personal influence differently.

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p
Nativeship	.026	.026	.161	1.645	.103

Adjust R^2 = .016

For model: F=2.707 ; p= .103

Table 4.18: Regression of environmental and personal influence efficacy on nativeship (n=104)

Variable	Intercorrelations		Mean	St. Dev.
	Nativeship	EPI		
EPI	.161	1.00	19.307	4.530
Nativeship	.161	1.00	.51	.50

Note: EPI= Environmental and personal influence efficacy

Table 4. 19: Data summary: Regression of environmental and personal influence efficacy on nativeship

In summary, no significant differences between native and nonnative teaching assistants were found in rating their efficacy level of implementing instructional strategies, engaging students in classroom activities and managing environmental and personal influences in teaching. A low relationship between these three efficacy areas and nativeship was also observed. In contrast, native and nonnative teachers did show different levels of language teaching efficacy. A mild relationship ($r=.277$) between these two factors was also found. Native language teaching assistants in this study did feel more capable in teaching higher level of reading, speaking and writing classes. Moreover, higher level of efficacy also appeared in teaching students colloquial expressions in the conversation class and answering questions relating to the cultural, historical and social background of the target language (Table 4.10).

Question 3: How do foreign language teaching assistants at this major midwestern university perceive potential differences between native and nonnative-speaking language teaching assistants in relation to nativeship? Do teaching assistants perceive pedagogical differences between these two groups??

The second part of the questionnaire related to the potential differences between native and nonnative language teaching assistants on how they could affect students' learning. Issues such as motivating students, developing pedagogical materials or helping students with low performance constituted this part of the survey. The results showed that most language teaching assistants seemed not to believe that language teachers should be native speakers. At the same time, they believe that native speakers do not necessarily better motivate students (Table 4.20). When being asked about the important elements in helping students with poor performance, most teaching assistants reported that the

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knowledge of the target language should play a more significant role than the knowledge

of teaching strategies. This implied that participants in this study believed that native

language teachers in general seemed to be more effective in helping students with low

performance since they usually had more sufficient knowledge of the target language

than nonnative teachers. At the same time, most participants also agreed that nonnative

speaking teachers could become achievable role models for students.

Description	Mode
1. Native speaking teachers can usually better motivate students than non-native speaking teachers do.	6
2. Language teachers should be native speakers.	6
3. Pedagogical methodologies should be developed by non-native speaking teachers.	4
4. The low language performance of some students can generally be blamed on their teachers for not having sufficient knowledge of the target language.	6
5. The low language performance of some students can generally be blamed on their teachers for not having sufficient knowledge of teaching strategies.	2
6. I find it difficult to explain to students how and why certain expressions are used in certain contexts.	6
7. I find it sometimes difficult to answer to students' questions in simple and understandable language.	6
8. Non-native speaking teachers could become the achievable role model for students.	1
9. It is hard for me to anticipate students' learning problems.	5

Table 4.20: Potential differences in teaching

Table 4.21 did not reveal significant differences between native and nonnative language teaching assistants in their perception of pedagogical differences due to nativeship (sig. = .069). Low correlation (r = .179) was also observed between these two factors (Table 4.22). This indicated that native and nonnative language teaching assistants at this large midwestern university did not perceive these issues differently.

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p
Nativeship	.032	.032	.179	.1841	.069

Adjust R^2 = .023

For model: F=3.39 ; p= .069

Table 4. 21: Regression of nativeship issues on nativeship (n=104)

Variable	Intercorrelations		Mean	St. Dev.
	Nativeship issue	Nativeship		
Nativeship issue	1.00	.179	35.1346	6.6669
Nativeship	.179	1.00	.51	.50

Table 4. 22: Data summary: Regression of nativeship issues on nativeship

Question 4: What are the beliefs of language teaching assistants at this major midwestern university about the important elements of language teaching? Do native and nonnative teachers perceive it differently?

Issues such as teacher training, motivating students or goals of language teaching were presented to examine teaching assistants' beliefs on the importance of language teaching and learning (Table 4.23). When a less motivated student makes progress in learning a language, foreign language teaching assistants in this study seemed to contribute this progress to both teaching strategies and teachers' knowledge of target language. Both qualities were equally important for most participants to better teach students to learn the language. There was a consensus among most language teaching assistants that teaching strategies and methodologies were more important than linguistic and cultural knowledge of the target language in teacher training programs. They also rated the experience with the target culture and people as very important for language learning. Finally, regarding goals of language teaching, most teaching assistants seemed to believe that both teaching communicative language and increasing students' cultural understanding of the target language were more important than increasing students' grammatical competence. In summary, both language teaching strategies and knowledge of the target language were found important in participants' belief of motivating students, but not in their believes of teacher training programs. Meanwhile, most teaching assistants believed that communication and cultural appreciation were more desirable goals of their teaching than increasing grammatical competence.

Description	Mode
1 When a less motivated student progresses in learning language, it could be due to better <u>teaching strategies</u> teachers use.	2
2 When a less motivated student progresses in learning language, it could be due to the teacher's better <u>knowledge of the target language</u>.	2
3 Teachers with <u>good language teaching strategies</u> can teach some students to learn the language well.	1
4 Teachers with <u>knowledge of the target language</u> can help some students to learn the language well.	1
5 Teacher training should focus more on <u>the linguistic and cultural knowledge of the language</u>.	3
6 Teacher training should focus more on <u>teaching strategies and methodologies.</u>	1
7 It is important to have experience with the target culture and speakers in order to learn this language successfully.	1
8 Teacher training is a very important factor leading to effective teaching.	1
9 The goal of language teaching is to teach communicative language.	1
10 The goal of language teaching is to increase students' cultural understanding of the target language.	1
11 The goal of language teaching is to increase students' grammatical competence.	2

Table 4.23: Important elements of language teaching

Did native and nonnative language teaching assistants in this study consider crucial elements in language teaching differently? Did the data reveal meaningful differences between native and nonnative teaching assistants' regarding this issue? Table 4.24 does

not indicate any significant differences (sig. = .768) between these two groups of language teaching assistants and concludes that native and nonnative language teaching assistants did not have different opinions on what constitutes a successful teaching and learning experience. No comparison of differences between these two groups of teaching assistants could be made based on the factor of nativeship.

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p
Elements in teaching	.001	.001	-.029	-.296	.768

Adjust R^2 = -.009

For model: F=.087 ; p=.768

Table 4. 24: Regression of elements in teaching on nativeship (n=104) (Stepwise Entry)

Variable	Intercorrelations		Mean	St. Dev.
	Elements in teaching	Nativeship		
Elements in teaching	1.00	-.029	22.519	5.628
Nativeship	-.029	1.00	.51	.50

Table 4. 25: Data summary: Regression of elements in teaching on nativeship

Question 5: What teaching methods do foreign language teaching assistants at this large midwestern university use in the classroom? Do native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants use different teaching methods?

Table 4.26 shows results of different types of teaching methods preferred by most teaching assistants at this university. It seemed that communication-orientated and group work activities were often used in the classroom. Students of language teaching assistants in this study tended to learn the target language through simulated social situations or communicative activities in a group work setting. The tendency of adopting these teaching methods resulted from the popularity of the communicative approach at this large midwestern university. Later, in personal interviews, interviewees across different language departments shared the common practice on this teaching method. The least popular method was the traditional method in which students were called to the blackboard to write their responses to in-class drill exercises or coping grammar exercises from the blackboard after the teacher's explanation.

Description	Mode		
	Group	NA	NNA
1. Students translate English words and sentences into the target language and vice versa.	2	5	2
2. Students are called to the blackboard to write their responses to in-class drill exercises.	6	6	6
3. Students copy grammar exercises from the blackboard after the teacher's explanation.	6	6	6
4. Students share information through interviews or polls to express their opinions on different topics.	1	1	1
5. Students memorize and practice dialogues to role-play in class.	1	1	6
6. Students in groups/pairs make up dialogues to role-play in class.	1	1	1
7. Students in groups/pairs simulated social situations from everyday life as class activity.	1	1	1
8. Students learning the language from using it in the context teachers create in the classroom.	1	1	1
9. Students learn from studying textbooks and listening to tapes at home.	1	2	1

Table 4.26: Different teaching methods

Native and nonnative teaching assistants were found different in choosing activities in their teaching (Table 4.27). A mild correlation (r= .263) between the nativeship and choosing different teaching methods was detected (Table 4.28). A closer look at the data indicated that most nonnative teaching assistants seemed to integrate the activity of translating of English words into the target language in their teaching as opposed to

having students to memorize and practice dialogues to role-play in class that favored by

most native teaching assistants. Most native participants seemed not find translation

activities attractive in their teaching. At the same time, they seemed not appreciate letting

students learn from studying textbooks and listening to tapes at home as much as most

nonnative teaching assistants did.

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p
Teaching methods	.069	.069	.263	2.749	.007

Adjust R^2 = .060

For model: F=7.556 ; p= .007

Table 4.27: Regression of teaching methods on nativeship (n=104)

Variable	Intercorrelations		Mean	St. Dev.
	Teaching methods	Nativeship		
Teaching methods	1.00	.263	25.471	5.668
Nativeship	.263	1.00	.51	.50

Table 4.28: Data summary: Regression of teaching methods on nativeship

Up to this stage of analysis, the effect of nativeship on (a) language teaching

efficacy, and (b) teaching methods in the classroom was observed. The next stage of

analysis focused on the influence of teachers' overall level of efficacy in relation to different demographic characters.

Question 6: Do the demographic differences among teachers relate to the differences in efficacy level?

The data revealed the relationship between language teaching assistants' level of efficacy and several demographic characters: levels of students' language proficiency, years of teaching, nativeship and experience of professional training. Table 4.29 shows that neither the experiences of teaching the elementary level nor teacher training experience affect language teaching assistants' level of efficacy. Conversely, the experience of teaching the intermediate level or above, years of teaching and nativeship did make differences in their levels of efficacy.

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p
Nativeship (X_1)	.055	.055	.234	2.431	.017
Teachle(X_2)	.000	.000	.016	.157	.876
Teachlia(X_3)	.229	.229	.479	5.508	.000
Training(X_4)	.001	.001	-.031	-.311	.756
Yrs (X_5)	.163	.163	-.404	-4.456	.000

Adjust R^2 = .282

For model: F=9.077 ; p=.00

Note: Teachle= teach elementary level only

Teachlia = teach intermediate level or above

Training= experience of professional training

Yrs= years of teaching

Table 4.29: Regression of demographic characters on teacher efficacy (n=104)(Stepwise entry)

Variable	Intercorrelations						Mean	St. Dev.
	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	X_5	Y		
Nativeship (X_1)	1.00	-.049	.098	-.034	-.033	.234	.51	.50
Teachle(X_2)	-.049	1.00	-.031	.010	.085	.016	4.80	.215
Teachlia(X_3)	.098	-.031	1.00	-.110	-.438	.479	.259	.440
Training(X_4)	-.034	.010	-.110	1.00	.093	-.031	.18	.39
Yrs (X_5)	-.033	.085	-.438	.093	1.00	-.404	1.894	.811
Efficacy (Y)	.234	.016	.479	-.031	-.404	1.00	69.192	17.572

Note: Teachle= teach elementary level only

Teachlia = teach intermediate level or above

Training= experience of professional training

Yrs= years of teaching

Table 4.30: Data summary: Regression of demographic characters on teacher efficacy

Based on the result presented in Table 4.29, averaged summative scores of teacher efficacy was calculated and summarized in Table 4.31 in relation to different demographic characters. "Yes" in this category of "level of teaching" means the experience of teaching intermediate level or above existed and "No" means no such experience. Language teaching assistants who had taught intermediate and advance levels seemed to be more efficacious than those who did not. And fewer teaching experience were speculated to connect to a lower level of efficacy. In terms of nativeship, native language teaching assistants had a higher level of efficacy than their counterparts. In conclusion, the findings suggested that the higher the level of students' language proficiency was, more efficacious the teacher would become. In addition, when the teaching experiences increased, teachers' levels of efficacy correspondingly increased.

	Level of Teaching	Mean	Years of Teaching	Mean	Nativeship	Mean
EFFICACY	YES	64.23	Less than 2 yrs	78.27	Native speaker	65.01
	NO	83.33	3-5 yrs	65.37	Nonnative speaker	73.20
			More than 6 yrs	61.27		

Table 4.31: Averaged summit score of teacher efficacy

Question 7: Are there demographic differences in perceptions about native issues, important elements in language teaching, and teaching methods?

The following tables report the results of multiple regressions in examining the possible influences from demographic characters on teachers' believes in three areas: nativeship issues, elements in language teaching and teaching methods used in the classroom (Table 4.32, 4.33 & 4.34). The demographic characters chosen here were: levels of teaching (LEVELIA and LEVELE), years of teaching (YRS), and experiences of teacher training (TRAINING). Data revealed that years of teaching experience did have influence on teaching assistants' perception of important elements in teaching. At the same time, the experience of teaching intermediate levels or above was also found to have effect on participants' choices of classroom activities.

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p
LEVELIA	.017	.017	-.050	-.465	.643
LEVELE	.006	.006	-.098	-1.012	.314
YRS	.050	.050	.221	2.041	.044
TRAINING	.008	.008	-.117	-1.202	.232

Adjust R^2 = .037

For model: F=1.989 ; p=.102

Note: Dependent Variable: PARTII

     LEVELIA= teaching intermediate or higher levels

     LEVELE= teaching elementary level only

     YRS= teach more than two years

     TRAINING= teacher training experience

Table 4.32: Regression of demographic characters on nativeship issues (Part II) (n=104) (Stepwise Entry)

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p
LEVELIA	.003	.003	.105	.946	.346
LEVELE	.001	.001	-.036	-.360	.719
YRS	.005	.005	.126	1.134	.260
TRAINING	.001	.001	-.035	-.346	.730

Adjust R^2 = -.022

For model: F=.437 ; p=.782

Note: Dependent Variable: PARTIII

     LEVELIA= teaching intermediate or higher levels

     LEVELE= teaching elementary level only

     YRS= teach more than two years

     TRAINING= teacher training experience

Table 4.33: Regression of demographic characters on important elements in teaching

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p

LEVELIA	.053	.053	.304	2.829	.006
LEVELE	.001	.001	.025	.262	.794
YRS	.000	.000	.141	1.313	.192
TRAINING	.006	.006	.100	1.027	.307

Adjust R^2 = .081

For model: F=2.196 ; p=.075

Note: Dependent Variable: PARTIV

      LEVELIA= teaching intermediate or higher levels

      LEVELE= teaching elementary level only

      YRS= teach more than two years

      TRAINING= teacher training experience

Table 4.34: Regression of demographic characters on teaching methods (Part IV) (n=104) (Stepwise Entry)

Foreign language teaching assistants were categorized into two groups by teaching experience: teaching elementary level only versus teaching intermediate level or above. They were compared regarding their choices of teaching methods used in the classroom (Table 4.35). Language teaching assistants were different in the usage of translating English into another language as part of classroom activities. Most language teaching assistants who had only taught elementary levels seemed to use this methods more than those who taught intermediate levels or above.

| | Mode | |
Description	Elementary	Above
1. Students translate English words and sentences into the target language and vice versa.	1	2
2. Students are called to the blackboard to write their responses to in-class drill exercises.	6	6
3. Students copy grammar exercises from the blackboard after the teacher's explanation.	6	6
4. Students share information through interviews or polls to express their opinions on different topics.	1	1
5. Students memorize and practice dialogues to role-play in class.	1	1
6. Students in groups/pairs make up dialogues to role-play in class.	1	1
7. Students in groups/pairs simulated social situations from everyday life as class activity.	1	1
8. Students learning the language from using it in the context teachers create in the classroom.	1	1
9. Students learn from studying textbooks and listening to tapes at home.	1	1

Note: Elementary = teach elementary level only

      Above = teach both elementary and higher levels

Table 4.35: Levels of teaching and teaching methods used in the classroom (Part IV)

Question 8: How do native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants examined in this study who teach the less commonly taught East Asia languages, such as Chinese and Japanese, differ from those who teach French, Spanish and German in terms of teacher efficacy and teaching strategies?

Survey findings of Chinese and Japanese language teaching assistants' attitude were compared with those of Spanish, German, Italian and French language teaching assistants to examine the possible differences due to the popularity of the target language. The results (Table 4.36) revealed significant differences between these two groups of teaching assistants regarding their levels of teacher efficacy in (a) instructional strategies (sig. = .011), (2) engaging students (sig. = .001), (3) teaching this language (sig. = .003) as well as their (4) perception of nativeship issues (sig. = .024).

Variables	R^2	R^2 change	b	t	p
STRATEGI	.063	.063	-.252	-2.603	.011
ENGASTUD	.099	.099	-.315	-3.318	.001
TEACHLAN	.086	.086	-.293	-3.065	.003
EPI	.001	.001	-.035	-.346	.730
PART II	.050	.050	.224	2.298	.024
PARRT III	.000	.000	.003	.029	.977
PART IV	.032	.032	.180	1.832	.070

Note: STRATEGI = Instructional strategic efficacy

ENGASTUD = Students engagement efficacy

TEACHLAN = Efficacy in teaching the target language

EPI = Efficacy in handling environmental and personal influence

PART II = issues on nativeship

PARRT III = Important elements in language teaching

PART IV = teaching methods used in the classroom

Table 4.36: Regression of types of the target languages on teacher efficacy, perceptions of different issues relating to language teaching.

Most Chinese and Japanese language teaching assistants seemed to feel less capable of using different strategies in classroom, teaching the target language and engaging students into learning than those from other language departments (Table 4.37). This implied that Spanish, German, French and Italian language teaching assistants in this study seemed to feel more efficacious in modifying their teaching methods and providing alternative explanations when students were confused. They also reported higher level of efficacy in teaching four modalities in both elementary and advanced levels. Meanwhile, they can motivate students to access resources outside of classroom and helped them to value the ability of speaking another languages.

Level of efficacy	teaching assistants of East Asian language	teaching assistants of other languages
Instructional Strategies	10.1786	8.5405
Teaching the target language	35.8571	29.0676
Students engagement	12.1786	9.2973

Table 4.37: Averaged summit score of levels of efficacy of teaching assistants from different language departments

With the attempts to look closer to the differences between these two groups of teaching assistants, mode score of their responses were calculated and presented based on different types of efficacy. In general, both groups of teaching assistants perceived themselves capable in providing various instructions to fit students' needs. However, Chinese and Japanese teaching assistants seemed to feel less capable in modifying their teaching methods and create an environment where students feel comfortable in speaking this target language (Table 4.38).

Description	Mode

	Less Commonly taught	Commonly taught
1. In general, I can modify my teaching methods to fit with students' need.	2	1
3. I can provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused.	1	1
5. I can create an environment where students feel comfortable to speak the target language.	2	1
7. I can implement target-language-only instruction.	1	1
9. I can use communicative instruction in my class.	1	1

Note: Less Commonly taught = Mode score of Chinese and Japanese language teaching assistants

Commonly taught = Mode score of Spanish, German, Italian and French language teaching assistants

Table 4.38: The mode score of instructional strategic efficacy of two groups of teaching assistants

With aspect of motivating students and encouraging them involving in classroom activities (Table 4.39), Chinese and Japanese teaching assistants perceived themselves less capable, especially in encountering students with low learning interests. Spanish, German, Italian and French language teaching assistants reflected higher level of efficacy in doing the same tasks in different contexts.

Description	Mode	
	Less commonly taught	Commonly taught
13. I can get students interested in learning the target language.	2	1
17. I can motivate students who show low interest in learning the target language.	3	2
18. I can help my students value the ability to speak another language.	2	1
19. I can help my students learn the target language by encouraging them to access outside classroom activities, such as community of the target language or cultural events.	2	1

Note: Less commonly taught = Mode score of Chinese and Japanese language teaching assistants

Commonly taught = Mode score of Spanish, German, Italian and French language teaching assistants

Table 4.39: The mode score of students engagement efficacy of two groups of teaching assistants

In terms of self-perceived efficacy in teaching the target language in different perspectives (Table 4.40), high level of efficacy was found in the overall response from both groups. The closer look at the data suggested that Chinese and Japanese teaching assistants seemed to feel less efficacious in teaching high-level reading and writing classes, as well as utilizing students' own cultural background to understand people and society of the target language. Moreover, in conversation classes, the instruction on colloquial expressions and the ability to predict students' proficiency seemed to be slightly harder for the same group of teaching assistants.

Description	Mode	
	Less Commonly taught	Commonly taught
2. I can use authentic materials, such as articles from newspapers or magazines, in my reading/writing class.	1	1
4. I can teach reading strategies to my students.	1	1
6. I can analyze the sentence structures of the text.	1	1
8. I can teach writing strategies to my students.	2	1
10. I can relate the content in the reading to something students are familiar with.	1	1
12. In the writing class, I can explain different genres to students.	1	1
14. I can predict and understand students' typical mistakes in their writing.	2	1
15. I can teach high-level reading classes.	2	1
16. I can teach high-level writing classes.	2	1
20. I can predict students' proficiency level of spoken language in a given level.	2	1
22. I can explain how the implications (meanings) of an expression varies depending on the contexts.	1	1
24. I can correct students' pronunciation problems.	1	1
26. I can teach high-level speaking classes.	1	1
28. I can teach high-level listening classes.	1	1
30. In the conversation class, I can teach colloquial expressions to students.	2	1
31. I can help students understand kinds of communicative strategies, such as re-paraphrasing.	2	1
33. I can answer questions relating to the cultural, historical and social background of the target language.	2	1

Table 4.40: The mode score of language teaching efficacy of two groups of teaching assistants   (Continued)

Table 4.40: Continued

34. I can use students' own cultural background to facilitate their understanding of culture, people and society of the target language.	2	1

Note: Less commonly taught = Mode score of Chinese and Japanese language teaching assistants

Commonly taught = Mode score of Spanish, German, Italian and French language teaching assistants

Even though most participants believed that nonnative speaking teachers could become the achievable role models for students, teaching assistants from different language departments were found to have different attitudes toward advantages and disadvantages native and nonnative language teachers have (Table 4.41). Most of them would not attribute students' under achievement to the lack of knowledge of the target language. Instead, most teaching assistants of more commonly taught languages tended to attribute to insufficient knowledge of teaching strategies as opposed to other factors believed by teaching assistants of less commonly taught language. It is interesting to notice that most language assistants of those commonly taught language seemed strongly disagree on the statement, "language teachers should be native speakers" while the other group of teaching assistants seemed to keep mutual attitude toward it. In terms of answering students' questions and explaining the usages of expressions in certain contexts, majority of the same group of teaching assistants reported higher level of efficacy than the other group of teaching assistants.

Items	Less Commonly taught	Commonly taught
II1	4	6
II2	3	6
II3	4	6
II4	6	6
II5	4	2
II6	2	6
II7	2	6
II8	1	1
II9	5	6

Note: Less commonly taught = Mode score of Chinese and Japanese language teaching assistants

Commonly taught= Mode score of Spanish, German, Italian and French language teaching assistants

Table 4.41: Comparison of mode score of self-perceived important elements in language teaching from teaching assistants from different language departments

Qualitative Data

Semi-structured and open-ended interviews were conducted after the questionnaire was administrated. The content of interview was not pre-determined, instead, several topics, such as experience of language learning and teaching, components in teacher training programs or issues relating to nativeship, were designed and followed during interviews. Each, except one, interview was audio recorded under the permission of interviewees. After the interview, the researcher listened to the recorded interviews and documented themes commonly appeared among them.

More than 50% of participants volunteered in the interview. Due to the limited time and financial resources, two interviewees from each language department and twelve in total were chosen. The researcher wanted to take a closer look at the differences between native and nonnative language teaching assistants as discovered in the survey findings. For example, to what extend do years of teaching affect teaching assistants' choices on their teaching methods? In this sense, interviewees were chosen based on three criteria: nativeship, years of teaching and levels of students. Each interviewee was initially contacted via e-mail to arrange the time and place to meet with the researcher. Each interview lasted for about one hour and ten dollars was given as a token of appreciation.

The interview data presented here are based on following categories: (a) demographic information, (b) learning experience, (c) lesson plan development, (d) important elements in language learning, (e) important elements in language teaching, (f) goals of language teaching, (g) advantage/disadvantage in native and nonnative language teachers' teaching, (h) self-perceived image as teachers, (j) important elements in teacher training programs and (K) comparison of language learning in Western and East Asia contexts.

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Demographic Information of Interviewees

Twelve participants were chosen with teaching experiences ranging from teaching elementary levels only to well-established teaching experience (Table 4.42). Most interviewees were female and pursuing a Master's degree at the time of interview. Only two were Ph.D. students majoring in Foreign Language Education and French Literature respectively. One interviewee was an instructor but not a student of any department. Other than language teaching, two participants (Mr. J and Mr. L) had experience in teaching other subjects, such as literature, history, economics or religion of the target language community.

	Language taught	Nativeship	Years of teaching	Age	Degree	Level of teaching
Ms. A	Japanese	NNA	<2yrs	26-30 yrs	MA	Elementary and intermediate conversation
Ms. B	French	NNA	<2yrs	26-30 yrs	MA	Elementary conversation
Ms. C	Italian	NNA	< 2yrs	26-30 yrs	MA	Elementary level
Ms. D	Spanish	NNA	< 2yrs	26-30yrs	MA	Elementary level
Ms. E	Japanese	NA	> 9yrs	> 41yrs		All levels
Ms. F	Chinese	NNA	< 2yrs	26-30 yrs	MA	Elementary conversation
Ms. G	Spanish	NNA	> 9yrs	36-40 yrs	Ph.D.	All levels
Mr. H	Italian	NNA	> 9yrs	> 41 yrs	MA	All levels at high school
Ms. I	Chinese	NA	< 2yrs	< 25yrs	MA	Elementary conversation
Mr. J	German	NNA	> 9yrs	31-35 yrs	MA	All levels & others
Ms. K	German	NA	< 2yrs	26-30 yrs	MA	Elementary conversation
Mr. L	French	NA	> 9yrs	31-35 yrs	Ph.D.	All levels, and others

Note: NA = Native-speaking language teacher

, NNA = Nonnaitve-speaking language teacher

Table 4.42: Demographic information of interviewees

Language Learning Experience

Most interviewees talked about their language learning experience. There was a common theme in their response and it related to the experience living in the target language community.

Ms. B (French, NNA): "….Supporting context of the classroom is so much different from throwing out on the street or on the resident hall where I was living… I think that was really how I learn French just being immersed in it…"

Ms. K (German, NA): "… have nine weeks experience in Spain, without much formal training before going but have deeper memory of the language than French learned at school for two years…"

Mr. H (Italian, NNA): "… I understand when do you say certain thing and why to you say certain things. I mean so much background knowledge is there that I am aware of, having live with Italian people… I am emotional feel when to say certain thing…"

Immersing oneself in the target language community, where language learners can closely witness and experience how language is used in different contexts with different purposes, seemed to be the key of better language learning. Language becomes more than texts or symbols in textbooks. Language is alive and meaningful. Then how does this experience influence language teaching? For example, Ms. F (Chinese, NNA) shared how her experience of working in China as an assistant in an international office affected her perspectives while teaching Chinese,

" … one thing is realizing how important the culture element is, shows that I really need to bring to my students from the beginning. And the second thing is just being around American student and I can hear a lot mistakes. That gives me an idea what

mistakes a lot of American students make… help me understand what mistakes they make…"

The awareness of the important of cultural elements in language learning was shared among other interviewees. Along with communicative methodology, culture was also one of the teaching foci in all language departments involved in this study. The teaching method commonly used by teaching assistants in this study was to build up meaningful contexts in the classroom where students could practice knowledge learned prior to the class. At the same time, cultural lessons were given consistently in different kinds of format, such as artifacts or film clips.

<div align="center">Lesson Plan Development</div>

The concept of communicative language teaching was adopted by all six language departments as the standard and desirable teaching philosophy. Teachers were restricted to speak only the target language in the classroom and required to build up contexts where students can practice the language as if they were in real situation. "Target language only" policy was established and practiced by all six departments in order to increase students' listening and speaking ability. Even so, how the policy was reinforced varied. In the Department of East Asian Language and Literature (DEALL), language used in the classroom was only restricted to the target language. However, based on the interview, other language departments seemed not so strict about this policy. In terms of grammar teaching, all departments preferred deductive teaching and explicit grammar explanations in English were not encouraged in the classroom. Prior to the interview, the researcher had an impression of how native and nonnative teachers would handle policies adopted by the department was made. Native teachers were speculated to have fewer

troubles in creating simulated contexts, whereas nonnative teachers would choose to use more English and have more grammar explanation in their classroom.

The interviews showed some interesting results. For example, Ms. B (French, NNA), chose not to give explicit grammar explanations in the class but gave examples when students had questions. She was afraid that the explanation of the grammatical points would lead to the usage of English. Another interviewee, Ms. G (Spanish, NNA) observed native speaking teachers and found that they were inclined to use more English in the classroom for the fear of not being understood by students if they spoke the target language only. In addition, both native and nonnative teachers showed worries in creating simulated contexts.

Ms. A (Japanese, NNA): "…sometimes it is hard to think, "do we use it in Japanese?", like it does not make any sense…What I am trying to do is to put everything into large context, but it does not happen every time."

Ms. I (Chinese, NA): "The department expect teacher to illicit students to use the patterns they learn. I believes this is the worse part of mine teaching. Especially for Chinese 101, some grammatical points are hard to put into continuous or more meaningful context..."

In terms of preferred teaching methods, differences among interviewees were not observed due to nativeship, but nationality. Language teaching assistants from the United States showed more interests in using games in teaching, whereas teachers from other countries preferred to have structured instructions. For example, Ms. F (Chinese, NNA) who is from the United States stated,

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"I would prefer some building up from what students' expectation, students' expectation is teaching grammar, so you build up from that toward what do. And like when I am teaching high school level, I want to do more creative things, like games where students does not have to perfectly culturally appropriate…"

On the other hands, Ms. C (Italian, NNA), from Poland, stated, "Focus more on practicing grammatical…. And also vocabulary points because the problems my students have... are like everything mix up in their mind.. and also they do not have enough vocabulary."

Comparing traditional methods with communicative methods desired by each department, interviewees seemed to have various preferences. For example, Mr. J (German, NNA) preferred the combination of both methods and expressed his concerns on over-emphasizing the context-building activity,

"When students learn the language through context, they probably need the external stimulation from the context in order to produce required expression. However, for students who go under the traditional training that has more mechanical drills do not need any stimulation but can produce output."

<center>Important Elements in Language Learning</center>

At this point of the interview, basic issues such as learning experiences and teaching methods were discussed. The information extracted from those issues led to the discussion on teachers' ideas about important elements in learning and teaching a language. Usefulness of the language and motivation to use the language are two main impressions received from those interviewees.

Ms. E: "First thing is you should have a purpose why you want to learn the language.. the reason, why.. is important. Also, do you like what your are doing… it is not limited to language learning, but any learning…Learning is like a life-long thing. It would be very nice if you have a chance to use what you have been doing…"

Mr. H (Italian, NNA): "… realistic… it has to be real. If it is not real, it does not have any meaning…I think grammar translation is good as a foundation but you have to go beyond that to have real situation and learning for to click, for to make sense for that to remember…so information gap activities, communicative activities, real activities, I think have to be the essential points of their language learning experience…"

Mr. L (French, NA): "what is learning should be really useful. Like if you learn something that you never talk about and never speak that. Then why should you learn that? Something try to be authentic… the motivation is very important. If you don't want to learn, why do you go to the language class?"

Another element shared among interviewees was the chance to live in the target language community to observe and absorb linguistic and cultural knowledge belongs to the target language.

Ms. K (German, NA): "…whenever I would start a new language… I would go to the target country… where the language is spoken."

Ms. I (Chinese, NA): "I believe visiting the language community is very important in being able to acquire the subtleness in culture and language. The speaking community can provide the daily communication samples for students to learn how the language is used in real and daily life. "

Important Elements in Language Teaching

Teaching strategies, linguistic knowledge and knowledge of students' background were components most interviewees believed to be crucial in language teaching. However, more experienced language teachers seemed to recognize something else.

The methodology adopted in the Japanese department emphasized students' preparation prior to the class. Teaching was not defined as giving lectures on language usages, but as providing meaningful contexts where students could practice what they studied in textbooks. In this sense, the whole language learning depended heavily on students. Ms. E (Japanese, NA) was an instructor in the Japanese language department and had been working there for more than 10 years. She was acknowledged as a model teacher and had conducted several teacher-training sessions in the past few years. When she was asked about important elements in teaching, she said,

"The first thing is…. Learning strategies. You (student) do not depend on the outside factor… something we (teacher) can do in the classroom is to tune-up, make use of what they have prepare and also use human as part of human communication."

Another experienced teacher, Ms. G (Spanish, NNA), was talking about teaching should help students to realize the important of being able to speak this language. She said,

"Linguistic knowledge is important but not the complete focus. For Spanish, it focuses more on the opportunities for students to use the language and connect to their life, being meaningful for them."

Before coming to the United States for graduate study, Mr. J (German, NNA) had teaching experience in China in all levels of German language as well as related subjects,

such as history, economics or religion of Germany. Similar to many other interviewees, he agreed on the importance of teaching strategies and even ranked it higher than linguistic knowledge. Besides, he also believed that understanding students as a person was as important as knowing how to deliver the knowledge. He said,

"Having the knowledge in educational psychology is important in helping teachers understanding how to design the lesson that students will learn from any kind of activities."

Goal of Language Teaching

For some interviewees, helping students to be aware of the other culture was the goal in their teaching.

Ms. D (Spanish, NNA): " I want to raise students' consciousness of how language is shaped by culture that is shaped by so many other influences…wants to expand students' world-view… and open their eyes to the world beyond U.S…try to emphasize how American culture is influenced by other culture, to break the common mindset that American culture over spread the world to influence other culture."

Ms. K (German, NA): "The main goal is not to be liked… I want to make sure they can learn the skills that for future other things… I just want to open their mind that they are more sensitive to people from other culture…"

Another goal mentioned by most interviewees was helping students to feel comfortable in using the target language.

Ms. B (French, NNA): "… being able to produce their own language instead of reading a sentence… being able to apply into their own life… it is easier to make this lesson that connect to students' life."

Ms. F (Chinese, NNA): "The goal is to help students learn Chinese. My specific goal is …help them to develop concrete ability to use and confident about using it."

Mr. L (French, NA): "… my goal is to help students to figure out how they can use what they know more than trying to teach them because they learned it… but sometimes when you try to get them use that, they think I cannot do that…. What I do is to make them comfortable with the fact that you may not know everything but you just start somewhere… you can do it…"

Different from most of interviewee, Ms. E (Japanese, NA) had seemed have different vision in her teaching. She said,

"… the common goal is students can use the language in a cultural appropriate way, like a educated adult… make the listeners feel comfortable…the role of language teacher to correct and important thing is to let the students know why they are corrected and … being a self-corrector… but if you can not train (students) to be self-corrector, then correction is waist of time."

Language is for communication. And learning the language is a life-long task. It is important for learners to know how to blend into the target community and behave as normal local folks. It requires more than mastering the linguistic knowledge of the language, but also the ability to observe what happens in the communicative environment and modify existing knowledge in accordance with observations.

Advantage and Disadvantages in Native and Nonnative Language Teachers' Teaching

Studies in differences between native and nonnative English speaking teachers in the EFL context had shown that native speaking teachers had more advantages in language

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proficiency and nonnative speaking teachers could better explain grammar points to students (e.g., Medgyes, 1999; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999). In these studies, native speaking teachers did not share the same linguistic and cultural background with their students. Most of them did not speak the local language and were not familiar with the local culture. Nonnative speaking teachers are local teachers who are familiar with local community and students.

The teaching contexts in previous studies resembled that of the present one and that was in foreign language teaching environments. Regardless of similarity in teaching contexts, the diversity of participants' background in the present study answered research inquiries from aspects differed from those of other studies. Native language teaching assistants in present study did speak the local language (English) and had considerably more cultural exposures than those in other studies. Nonnative teaching assistants were not necessarily from the local community, that was the United States, and shared the same linguistic and cultural background with students. Some of them, like Mr. J (German, NNA), were not from the United States but from China where German language was not used in daily life. Nonnative language teaching assistants, who were not from the local community, encountered similar issue as faced by those native teaching assistants.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Native Speaking Teaching Assistants

Advantages of native language teaching assistants.

Ms. E (Japanese, NA): "… being a native speaker might be helpful in thinking about how I say…They (native speaker) can make the context base on Japanese culture through our experience, catching accent…"

Ms. I (Chinese, NA): "Native speaker has the native instinct in linguistic knowledge. Language for me is like a convention that sometimes rules cannot be explained. "

The advantages of native language teaching assistants were believed to be their linguistic and cultural authority. This explained why native speakers could attracted attentions in the language teaching industry by their superior position in understanding and using the target language.

Disadvantage of native speaking teachers .Interviewees specified several disadvantages of native speaking teachers. The most common disadvantage was the lack of the ability to provide explicit grammatical explanation. For example,

Mr. L (French, NA): "…the disadvantage of NA is they know how to say it but not knowing how to explain it."

Ms. E (Japanese, NA): "Uh, I had ever encountered the situation that I can not explain the grammatical points to students clearly. I did not really have training in Japanese linguistic before and I am not sure how to explain and I guess probably it is the reason…"

Another commonly observed disadvantage among interviewees was about their understanding of students culturally and linguistically.

Ms. I (Chinese, NA): "Native speaking teachers do not have enough background knowledge about students. We do not know what's going on in students' head and what they want from us…"

Ms. K (German, NA): "…but I have problems sometimes when they (students) are writing craps, I do not know what it means. I have to translate it into English, then I see the connection... if you're not native speakers of German, you see immediate what people are doing there."

Ms. C (Italian, NNA): 'I think sometimes native speakers they do not realize what kind of problems their students with different native language can have…I think they need more training on what kind of the structure the native language of the students."

Mr. J (German, NNA): "… first of all, you do not understand American students; you have no idea how they were educated before coming to university. You do not know the way how they process issues in their life…"

Another disadvantage of native speaking teachers related to their linguistic knowledge. Sometimes, native teachers were not sensitive to students' level and would include unfamiliar linguistic items in their lesson plans.

Ms. E (Japanese, NA): "…I am Japanese, and I don't have to think about structure or anything when I speak, so when I make lesson plan, I have to look it carefully if I am not using something they do not learn. Context should be very authentic so I go from the raw material and go back to check if it match students' level."

Advantage of nonnative speaking teachers. Many interviewees pointed out different ways nonnative teachers can relate to students' learning.

Ms. A (Japanese, NNA): "I think I have advantage because myself is a heritage learner and kind of understand why heritage learners in my class have problems. I know why they are frustrated because I did that before…"

Ms. B (French, NNA): "I think my advantage is more than the cultural one than anything. Understanding their (students) perspective on language learning, understanding their perspective on why I went to this university… maybe there is little more of sharing the common ground. I think that will be my only advantage."

Ms. C (Italian, NNA): "…I think it is easier to nonnative speaking teachers because they go through the same process... they know more or less what the process go."

Mr. L (French, NA): "... they go through what students go through, they are must easily to find the source of students' error because they went through… they could have much more empathy to the students... they could give much more clear help to students."

In conclusion, coming from similar background as students, nonnative language teaching assistants can understand how and why students want to learn a foreign language. Also, they can connect with students in a more personal level since they were learners before and went through the whole learning process themselves. Their learning experience helped them to be more sensitive of students' needs and mistakes.

Disadvantage of nonnative speaking teachers. The most common concern of nonnative language teaching assistants was lacking of confidence and having doubts in their teaching. They tended to have fears to present something not authentic to students and questioned their authority of the language in the classroom, especially when there was a native speaker in present.

Ms. A (Japanese, NNA): 'Lack of confidence. Because sometimes… there is always something in my mind that "should I say this because I am not really a Japanese? Do I have the right to say this?"… I mean do I have the right to make command on the language… Another disadvantage is that when I make a mistake in the class, but I did not notice at all…"

Ms. E (Japanese, NA): "Ya, I think making context might be a little bit difficult for nonnative speaker… I don't think that is an advantage, that is a learning opportunity"

In addition to being less confident in linguistic knowledge, nonnative teaching assistants sometimes present students the culture of the target language and confused with their own culture.

Ms. C (Italian, NNA): "English and Italian is not my native language. And I am here and teach Italian. Sometimes I am confused by the cultural and linguistic nuances…"

Ms. D (Spanish, NNA): "… sometimes I might present a concept or scenario that is not cultural relevant for example baby-sitting. Sometimes you will not have baby sitter, your ant or grandma will do it. So you won't call a baby-sitter and ask how much they charge and whatever…. If I am not really thinking, I may present an American situation and call it Spanish…. It still practice for them… but it is not cultural relevant, it is not authentic."

Self-perceived Image as Language Teachers

Most interviewees shared the image as a helper, or a facilitator in their teaching.

Ms. K (German, NA): "… I want to make sure that they don't need me to learn language; they can do it on their own. I'm just helping, which is one day no more available…"

Ms. C (Italian, NNA): "… I would like to be a facilitator, I want to give them all the technique so that they are able to teach the language themselves… learn by themselves…"

Ms. E (Japanese, NA): "… if the gas tank is empty, they need the gas, the gas of Japanese knowledge and I pump in Japanese knowledge…. Then they go… when they need another gas, then I go…. I do not think I am teaching, rather I am standing aside and

guiding. So they can use JSL (the textbook) appropriately and learn Japanese by themselves… you (the student) are the teacher for yourself, otherwise it's always outside factor that make you study or make you not to study…"

Similar to other interviewees, Ms. G (Spanish, NNA) preferred to be less like a teacher but more like a guide for her students. However, when the researcher asked her how much she can motivate students who show less interest in learning the language, she mentioned the mentality shared by many language students in the United States.

The researcher: "so, you mean if the students do not want to learn, it is hard for teacher to motivate them?"

Ms. G (Spanish, NNA): "Exactly, and there is no other support outside for students want to do it because it still very much the attitude that every body speak English, doesn't matter if we can speak German, Spanish or Japanese … because everybody speaks English… for me that is the biggest thing needs to be changed before anything … teaching methods can not affect the way we teach the way kids learn because there is still always in the background, oh… it is fun to learn a foreign language…"

Similar attitude was shared by another teacher, Ms. I (Chinese, NA),

"For motivating students, I believe it all depends on students. If the students do not want to learn, teachers cannot really force them to learn. I see helping students to have more interests in learning the language as interference... If students have interests, they will look for any opportunities or so more than what the teacher assigns. You can not make them to go beyond what they really want to."

Both interviewees respected students as individuals who have different interests in learning. They showed less confidence in the ability of teachers and depended more on students' own motives rather than teachers' ability to encourage students' learning.

Important Elements in Teacher Training Program

Interviewees were asked what knowledge they would include in a language teacher raining program if they had a chance to conduct a workshop for language teachers and if they would have different designs for native and nonnative teachers. Regarding the need of having different curricula designed for native and nonnative language teachers, every interviewee believed both groups of teachers should go through the same training. Linguistic knowledge should be as pre-requisite but not as a part of the training program. One interviewee did mention different curricula in teacher training programs. However, that was not due to nativeship but different levels and types of students.

Mr. J (German, NNA): "I do not believe there should be different designs for native and nonnative teachers. However, I do believe that teachers with different students will need different knowledge. I will focus come on who the audiences are, but not what types of teachers are…"

The knowledge included in teacher training program by these teachers was: second language acquisition, affective variables, teaching strategies and cultural/linguistic knowledge of students. Besides, two interviewees specified different issues encountered in language teaching: resources from native speaking teachers and educational psychology.

Ms. G (Spanish, NNA): "How the native teachers can be the resources in language teaching… more than just giving a talk or presentation in a class... it could be a team teaching or contact outside of the classroom."

Mr. J (German, NNA): "First of all is the teaching process… for example, when teaching grammar, instruction should be divided into several different steps in order to

make students discover the rules from examples, then ask them to explain the rule in their native language… secondly, I believe educational psychology is very important… regarding cultural knowledge, teachers should learn it from their experience of interacting with target community."

Native speakers have been regarded as more authentic representatives of the target language community linguistically and culturally. In the future, more studies are needed to better examine and emphasize on how their knowledge of the target language and community can benefit other teachers in teacher training programs.

Comparison of language teaching in the Western and East Asia contexts

Two interviewees were from China. During the interview, they mentioned the different language learning in the United States and China.

Ms. I (Chinese, NA): "After coming here, I notice the language teaching methods here is very different from what I used to have in China. The method used in the States is more efficient for allowing learners being able to communicate with native speakers in short period of time. And it focused more on communication and language using, but not grammatical training. When I was in China learning different language, I went through a lot of grammar training…I preferred the method used in the Stated because learning a language for me is able to communicate with others."

Mr. J (German, NNA): "… game seems not valuable in the Chinese educational systems as it does here… in china, it is not worthy to spend twenty minutes to play games and only learn one linguistic concept. Our mentality is like just tell me what I need to remember and be careful next time when I encounter the same context. Therefore, I can

not use this methods (focusing on game) in China, but it works here since they seem learn in this way. In some way, our educational system is more proficiency-oriented… focus more on effectiveness of learning…"

The opinions presented here only spoke for cases these two teachers encountered. However, an impression corresponds to the observation these two teachers made emerged during interviews. Language teaching in the United States tends to focus more communicative activities whose nature resemble to games, whereas in East Asian countries, such as China, language teaching tends to focus more on mechanical drills and structural instructions.

Conclusion

Qualitative data revealed many similarities among interviewees with different backgrounds. Interviewees with different learning experiences believed the important of visiting the target language community and immersing in the language speaking community with native speakers for successful language learning. Having real contexts and purposes to use the language was also considered as crucial elements in language learning. In light of teaching methods, language teaching assistants from different language departments were requested to establish a learning environment in the classroom where students can practice language in meaningful contexts. Both native and nonnative teachers mentioned occasional difficulties in creating such kind of environment. Moreover, interviewees perceived themselves as helpers or facilitators in students' learning and concluded that teaching strategies, linguistic knowledge and knowledge of students' background were crucial in language teaching. Most of them comprehended teaching as a process to expand students' world-view and raise conscious of the existence

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of other cultures. Regarding advantages and disadvantages of native speaking teachers, the linguistic and cultural authority of native speakers was the most frequently mentioned advantage by most interviewees. However, native speaking teachers' limited knowledge about students' and their less ability in implicit grammatical explanation became disadvantages in their teaching. In contrast, nonnative speaking teachers' cultural and linguistic bonding with students and their experience as being language learners were beneficial to students' learning. They could connect with students' learning easier. Nevertheless, they sometimes were not efficacious in their teaching and worried about their linguistic productions in the classroom. Some differences among language teaching assistants resulted from other factors were also discovered in the interview data. The results showed that more experienced teachers seemed to be more flexible and felt more capable in their teaching. Culture and learning experience were also found to have influences on language teaching. For example, assistants from the United States tended to prefer more communicative activities in their teaching, whereas teachers from other countries tended to prefer more structural instruction in their teaching.

The survey findings discovered language teaching assistants' level of teaching efficacy in four different areas: instructional strategies, engaging students, language teaching, and environmental and personal influences in teaching, as well as their perceptions of nativeship, of elements in language teaching and of methods used in the classroom. Nativeship did not contribute to the differences among teaching assistants, instead, it did to their efficacy in teaching different levels of classes and choosing different activities used in their teaching. In general, most native teaching assistants were more efficacious in teaching higher level of classes and they were inclined to use more

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structural and linguistic-oriented activities, whereas nonnative-teaching assistants preferred more communicative activities. Data also revealed the impact from levels of students' language proficiency and teaching experience in teaching assistants' self-perceived performance. For example, language teaching assistants with more teaching experience tended to have higher level of efficacy and used more structure-oriented activities, such as grammar drills or role-playing in their class.

Qualitative data in this study played a supporting role in the investigation of differences between native and nonnative language teaching assistants. Each interview followed the survey findings to provide descriptive and in-depth information of each research inquiry. Both survey findings and interview data showed the tendency of preference to the native speaking teachers for their linguistic and cultural authority in language teaching. Regarding important elements in language teaching, teaching strategies and the experience in the target speaking community appeared to be crucial. Nonnative language teaching assistants preferred to have more communicative activities, such as games or sharing information in the classroom, whereas native teaching assistants focus more on language structures and would have more instructions and activities relating to linguistic structures.

CHAPTER 5

IMPLICATIONS, DISCUSSIONS, LIMITATIONS
AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study aimed to discover the differences between native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants at a large midwestern university. Primary inquiries focused on four domains: teacher efficacy, issues related to nativeship, elements in language teaching and learning, and teaching methods. Language teaching assistants of six languages, French, German, Italian, Spanish, Chinese and Japanese, totaling 104 volunteered for this study. Forty-nine percent of the participants were native speakers of the target language and fifty-one percent were nonnative speakers. Of these participants, only 28% had taught for more than six years and about 38% had taught for less than two years. The majority of the participants (68%) was under 30 years old and only 12% was above 40 years old.

Data were collected from September to December of 2003. Both the survey and interviews were adopted to gain extensive understanding of the research questions. The quantitative findings came from the researcher-made, 6-point Likert scale questionnaire, containing five parts: teachers' level of efficacy, issues related to nativeship, elements in language learning and teaching, teaching methods, and demographic information. Two language teaching assistants of each of the six foreign languages were chosen to participate in semi-structured and open-ended interviews. Twelve interviews were

conducted after the questionnaire was administrated. Before the interviews, no particular

questions, but general directions, were pre-determined. The general directions

corresponded to the research foci presented in the questionnaire.

Summary of Findings

The following section synthesizes and discusses both survey findings and

interview data. Discussions are organized following the order of research questions

proposed earlier in this study. Research question one concerning the demographic

information of the participants in this study was presented earlier in this chapter.

Summary of findings will start from research question two.

Question 2: What is the level of teacher efficacy of foreign language teaching

assistants at the large midwestern university? How does nativeship affect the level of

teacher efficacy?

The level of teacher efficacy in this study was defined as teachers' self-perceived

capability in adopting and modifying instructional strategies, engaging students in

classroom activities, teaching the target language, and dealing with environmental and

personal influences in their teaching. Most of the participants were efficacious in using

different instructional strategies, such as implementing communicative instruction or

providing different explanations, to fit the students' needs. They also had a high level of

efficacy in engaging students with low learning interests in various classroom activities.

However, compared with the high level of efficacy in using instructional strategies, most

of the participants seemed to feel less capable in engaging students in classroom activities,

especially when the students had low interest in learning the language. Several

participants, later in interviews, shared their concerns with how motivating the students

with low interests might hinder the students' autonomy. Some of them believed that students would learn only when they were self-motivated instead of being manipulated by external influences. One participant articulated the difficulties in motivating American students in learning another foreign language and pointed out that English spoken as an international language attributed to these difficulties.

In terms of teaching the language in different levels and modalities, the participants felt more competent in analyzing structures of texts, and not in teaching high-level classes, especially writing classes. In addition, most of the participants were aware of influences from both their capability and the environment, such as parental support or students' prior experience with the target language, on their teaching efficacy. For example, the participants believed that teachers' effectiveness in teaching could be the crucial elements in enhancing students' achievement. However, they believed that teachers' effectiveness should not be blamed when students failed. Other factors, such as parental involvement or learning goals desired by the department, could also affect students' performance.

Hebert, Lee and Williamson (1998) investigated the impact of teaching experience on teacher efficacy and discovered a difference between novice and experienced teachers. Their results showed that novice teachers rated external influences on teacher efficacy, such as parental judgment of the teaching or students' prior learning experience, significantly lower than experienced teachers did. The results of the present study were consistent with their study.

Language teaching assistants in the present study reported a low level of efficacy in handling personal and environmental influences in their teaching. The demographic

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characteristic of this group of teaching assistants might contribute to this result. The majority of the participants (68%) was under 30 years old and only 28% of the participants had taught for more than six years. The nature of being young and having less teaching experience characterized this group of teachers. The sense of efficacy to manage external influences in teaching was acquired through teaching and life experiences. Since most of the participants in the present study were young and did not have a chance to develop such experience, their sense of efficacy to handle difficulties beyond their control was lower.

Native and nonnative language teaching assistants were found to be different in their language teaching efficacy. Native teaching assistants were more efficacious in teaching high-level reading, speaking and listening classes. At the same time, they were more capable in teaching more colloquial language or knowledge relating to the cultural background of the target language. The interview data revealed similar conclusions. Several native-speaking teaching assistants mentioned their willingness to teach higher-level language classes with some training and observations. However, language teaching assistants with more teaching experience also had similar confidence. Therefore, not only nativeship but also teaching experience appeared to affect teaching assistants' capability in teaching the language.

Native language teachers, in general, are identified as authorities on teaching the language and, consequently, are endowed with respect and trust by parents, schools and language learners. This respect and trust, in turn, influence how they evaluate their teaching. Compared with non native-speaking language teachers, native teachers are more efficacious and confident in what they teach. Their native intuition allows them a

sense of security when designing activities or delivering lessons in the classroom. Nonnative language teachers, on the other hand, feel relatively less capable in performing similar tasks. The linguistic instincts and cultural knowledge of native speakers result in the confidence and flexibility in teaching the target language. However, as the findings suggested, nativeship was not the only factor that led to a higher level of efficacy. The importance of teaching experience indicates the significant role of pedagogical knowledge in teaching higher-level classes. The experience in teaching different levels of students and in different contexts could possibly help the teachers develop knowledge in facing different problems and conflict. At the same time, repertoire of teaching strategies, classroom activities and understanding of environmental influence might also contribute to the efficacy in teaching higher-level classes. Nonnative language teaching assistants with more years and different levels of teaching experience might have a chance to expand their repertoire; furthermore, they might develop an equal or even higher level of efficacy in teaching different levels, especially a higher-level, of courses than native-speaking teaching assistants do.

Question 3: How do foreign language teaching assistants at this major midwestern university perceive potential differences between native- and nonnative-speaking language teaching assistants in relation to nativeship? Do teaching assistants perceive pedagogical differences between these two groups?

The second part of the questionnaire investigated the potential pedagogical differences, including advantages and disadvantages, between native and nonnative language teaching assistants. Similar questions were also addressed in the interviews. The results indicated that the differences among language teaching assistants were not due to

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their status of nativeship. Consistent with previous studies (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Auerbach, 1993; Phillipson, 1992), language teaching assistants in the present study believed that the linguistic knowledge of native speakers was more important than teaching strategies in motivating students. However, the advantage of native linguistic knowledge did not lead the teaching assistants to conclude that native speakers could better motivate students. Native-speaking teaching assistants reported to have more difficulties to answer students' questions in a simple and understandable language. Meanwhile, they seemed to lack sympathy and were less capable of anticipating students' learning problems. Nonnative-speaking teaching assistants' experience as a learner of the target language, on the other hand, may strengthen them in the areas where native-speaking teachers were perceived as less capable of, such as anticipating students' problems and expressing empathy. They were regarded as better role models for students and were seen to be more understanding because of their bonds with students culturally and linguistically.

Furthermore, this study drew attention to the commonly ignored quality of nonnative teachers. Many parents and language students prefer to have native speakers as their language teachers because of the authentic language input. Unfortunately, the hope for authentic language input sometimes is replaced by the frustration of not receiving desired instruction and assistance. Regardless of the fact that most native language teaching assistants in the present study had the knowledge of English language, their English proficiency and knowledge of local culture and learning environment might still not be sufficient to provide appropriate assistance that the students expected. At the same time, during the interaction, students could be intimidated by the superior language

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proficiency of native speakers and lose their motivation. In contrast, nonnative-speaking teachers could provide students access to relate their learning by being understanding and sympathetic. The advantages of nonnative-speaking teachers also explained why language teaching assistants in this study did not consider native-speaking teachers to be better candidates to motivate students even though they rated linguistic knowledge as more crucial in motivating students than teaching strategies.

Question 4: What are the beliefs of language teaching assistants at this major midwestern university regarding the important elements of language teaching? Do native- and nonnative-speaking teachers perceive it differently?

Both survey findings and the interview data revealed the importance of staying in the target language community as the key to learning the language successfully. Language learning requires opportunities and motivation to use this language in a meaningful and purposeful context. Many of the participants also regarded this concept as a goal in teaching. The beliefs of important elements of language teaching did not vary among the participants due to their status of nativeship. Most of the teaching assistants perceived teaching communicative language as more important than increasing students' grammatical competence. Many interviewees mentioned their goal of helping students to become self-motivated and autonomous learners. Many of them interpreted their role as a facilitator who did not "teach" but "stimulated" students' desires to learn. It seemed that linguistic knowledge was not believed to be the soul of language teaching. Teachers' ability to understand students and provide access to improve the learning environment seemed to be more important. The duty of being a language teacher was not solely teaching, but coaching as well.

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When a less motivated student progressed in learning the language, the participants in this study attributed this improvement more to teaching strategies than to linguistic knowledge of the teachers. This is consistent with the findings of research question three that native teachers were not necessarily perceived as more able to motivate students. Nonnative-speaking teachers can also contribute to this task with better teaching strategies. Consequently, linguistic and cultural knowledge of the target language were not rated as most important elements in training programs. Instead, the teaching strategies and methodologies were believed to be more important in programs. These two elements were also shared among the interviewees as important components in teaching.

Question 5: What teaching methods do foreign language teaching assistants at this large midwestern university use in the classroom? Do native- and nonnative-speaking teaching assistants use different teaching methods?

Chacon (2002) examined the routine pedagogical strategies EFL teachers in Venezuela used and claimed that grammar-oriented strategies predominated other types of strategies. In contrast to Chacon's study, most teachers in the present study used communication-oriented activities, such as simulated social activities or pair/group work, in the classroom. During the interviews, all of the participants mentioned using the "target language only" policy and communication-focused activities practiced among different language departments. Language teaching was designed to enable students to communicate with native speakers who, instead of switching to English, felt comfortable to continue the conversation in the target language. With this purpose, the teaching assistants were asked to create an environment where students had the chance to practice

and explore their linguistic and cultural knowledge of the target language.

The survey findings indicated that native- and nonnative-speaking teaching assistants in this study reacted to this issue differently. Most native-speaking language teaching assistants in this study chose to use traditional methods more frequently than nonnative teaching assistants did. They preferred to have students memorize and practice dialogues in the classroom. In contrast, nonnative-speaking teaching assistants chose to have students share information through interviews or polls to express their opinion on different topics. On the other hand, the interview data showed that there seemed to be differences in nationality but not in nativeship. American teaching assistants seemed to prefer more activity-oriented methods, such as games, whereas teaching assistants from other countries preferred more structure in their instruction. The differences in choosing teaching methods seemed to be cultural. Participants in this study were from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Most nonnative-speaking teaching assistants were American and native-speaking teaching assistants were from different foreign countries. As discussed earlier in the "Comparison of language teaching in the Western and East Asian contexts" in chapter four, different learning styles would later lead to different teaching styles when the learners became teachers themselves. This study helped to identify cultural elements commonly ignored in previous studies (e.g., Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999).

Question 6: Do the demographic differences among language teaching assistants relate to the differences in their level of efficacy?

Demographic characteristics, (a) levels of students' language proficiency, (b) years of teaching, (c) nativeship and (d) professional training experience, were chosen to

examine their effect on language teaching assistants' level of efficacy. The survey findings did not reveal any influences from experience of teaching elementary levels or professional training. However, the experience of teaching intermediate level or above, years of teaching and nativeship were found to affect language teaching assistants' capability in teaching. Chacon (2002) did not find any relationship between years of English teaching experience and teachers' belief of their own capability among EFL teachers in Venezuela. However, a low negative correlation was found between years of teaching and teachers' belief on environmental factors. In the present study, teaching assistants with more years of teaching experience reported a higher level of efficacy than those who did not have. Meanwhile, levels of students' language proficiency were found to determine teachers' levels of efficacy. Language teaching assistants who had taught intermediate levels or above demonstrated higher efficacy than those who did not have such teaching experience. Those who did not teach such levels had lower levels of efficacy. It seemed that this group of language teaching assistants developed a higher level of efficacy when they accumulated more years of teaching experience or acquired experience in teaching the intermediate or higher levels. Meanwhile, nativeship also contributed to the different levels of efficacy in language teaching only, but not in other aspects of teaching, such as motivating students or modifying different teaching strategies in classrooms.

The discrepancy discovered between the present study and Chacon's study shows the contextual contingency characteristic of teacher efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Teachers' efficacy is not necessarily the same across different contexts and knowledge domains. The level of teacher efficacy was subject to such factors as characteristic of students or

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content of teaching. The similarity between participants of the present and previous study was the foreign language teaching context. Whereas participants in Chacon's study were nonnative full-time high school English teachers, those in the present study were both full-time native and nonnative language teaching assistants at a university. While 74% of language teachers in Chacon's study had more than five years of teaching experience, only 28% in this study had a similar amount of experience. Language teaching assistants in the present study had less responsibility in teaching than those in Chacon's study. More importantly, the environmental factors, such as the age of students, or pedagogical goals demanded by schools or departments, were different in both studies. High school English teachers in Chacon's study encountered situations and problems intertwined with parents' involvement, school policies and adolescent issues. Language teaching assistants in the present study managed different tasks because the language students were adults who required more assistance than discipline.

Question 7: Are there demographic differences in perceptions about nativeship issues, language teaching, and teaching methods?

The researcher attempted to examine how teachers' opinions about nativeship, language teaching and choice of teaching methods in the classroom were influenced by the same demographic characteristics chosen in the previous research question. The survey findings indicated the impact of two characters, level of teaching and nativeship, on language teaching assistants' choices of teaching methods in the classroom. In general, most teaching assistants in this study preferred activities, such as translating English into the target language, sharing information through an interview, memorizing dialogues to role-play in the classroom, or pair/group work in simulated daily life situations. However,

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those who taught at the intermediate level or above indicated greater preference for grammatical drills and exercises in the classroom and for students working in pairs/groups to make up dialogues in role-play.

The possible explanation of the findings would be the performance-based characteristics of this particular teaching context. Communicative methods prevailed in most language departments at the midwestern university. Language teaching assistants teaching at elementary levels needed to create certain contexts and activities where students could practice linguistic patterns learned prior to the class. The most common activity used in the classroom was the simulated social settings where students performed daily life tasks with expressions and linguistic structure learned previously. Lessons in textbooks were designed for teachers to arrange such classroom activities. However, intermediate levels or above demanded more grammatical practice and training in reading and writing skills. Activities such as grammatical drills or exercises therefore might be suitable at higher levels.

During the interviews, the researcher asked questions about the pedagogical contributions of native and nonnative teachers, important elements in language teaching/learning, and teaching methods used in the classroom. Both native- and nonnative-speaking interviewees with different teaching experience and cultural background were consentaneous in most issues. However, with respect to elements in language teaching, teaching assistants with more teaching experience had different opinions. They emphasized their role as helping students to connect language learning with their life to become autonomous learners, whereas those with less teaching experience focused on the linguistic, cultural and pedagogical knowledge of teaching the

target language. Brandl (2000) studied different professional developmental stages that teaching assistants normally go through and claimed that the development, "… depart(ed) from concentrating on the 'self and survival' to 'teaching skills' then ended in 'student learning outcomes' when becoming experienced teachers (p. 368). In the case of the present study, experienced language teaching assistants looked beyond the content to emphasize how they could help students become self-motivated learners.

Question 8: How do native and nonnative foreign language teaching assistants examined in this study who teach the less commonly taught East Asian languages, such as Chinese and Japanese, differ from those who teach French, Spanish and German in terms of teacher efficacy and teaching strategies?

The data retrieved from Chinese and Japanese language teaching assistants were compared with those from Spanish, German, Italian and French language assistants to examine if there were any differences. The findings suggested that these two groups of teachers had different efficacy levels in applying different instructional strategies, engaging students and teaching the language. French, Italian, German and Spanish language teaching assistants seemed to be more efficacious in their ability to modify their teaching and create an environment where students felt comfortable to practice the target language. They reported to be capable of implementing the "target-language only" policy and offering communicative instruction in their classroom. When encountering students with low learning interest, they believed that they were capable of helping students by encouraging them to access activities outside of classrooms. Furthermore, opinions on issues of nativeship also varied in accordance with language departments. Spanish, German, French and Italian language teaching assistants tended to attribute students'

failure to knowledge of teaching strategies as opposed to other factors believed by Chinese and Japanese language teaching assistants. Most assistants of commonly taught languages did not agree that language teachers should be native speakers, in contrast to the mutual stand taken by most Chinese and Japanese language teaching assistants.

Differences between language teaching assistants from different language departments found in this study suggested a direction for future research. What could be the possible factors that lead to the differences between teachers of different languages? Factors such as teachers' cultural background, atmosphere in the department, or the interaction among teachers are speculated to be potential causes of this phenomenon. No explanation of the differences observed in the present study could be determined without further investigation. However, this study revealed that it is necessary to consider the potential role of the target language in determining the results of future studies.

Implications for Teacher-training Programs

The Graduate Associate Teacher Training Workshop is hosted by the Foreign Language Center at the major midwestern university approximately one month before the inception of each new academic year. This workshop functions as professional development for language teaching assistants, and participation in this workshop is mandatory. In this workshop, graduate teaching assistants are equipped with some cultural and pedagogical knowledge to teach university-level beginning culture and language courses. Divided as morning and afternoon sessions, the workshop emphasizes both theory and practice. Scholars and professional language educators give lectures about theories and issues relating to language and culture teaching during the morning

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session. At the same time, teaching assistants are assigned to apply three mock teaching to practice theories mentioned in those lectures. In the afternoon, each language department provides teachers training particularly with department agenda and policies.

Several implications for improving quality of workshops like the one mentioned above emerged from the results of this study.

Knowledge of Motivating Students

The results of this study revealed language teaching assistants' low self-perceived capability to motivate students with low learning interest. Bandura (1997) proposed four resources for self-efficacy: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. The youth and inexperience in most language teaching assistants mean that they have had limited opportunities for performance accomplishments that came from successes in motivating students. This resource of efficacy primarily comes from teaching experience that is accumulated naturally as teaching assistants continue their careers. Even so, the training workshop can still provide other resources to enhance teachers' efficacy in motivating students. For example, observations or analysis of real successful cases could be effective resources for these teachers besides lectures on motivation theories and techniques in different language teaching contexts. Language teaching assistants receive more information from this workshop about teaching strategies on how to motivate language learners in the context where the local language is spoken as an international language. For example, the belief of "My language (English) is spoken worldwide" possibly has a negative impact on students' desire to learn another language. As shared among several teaching assistants during follow-up interviews, students hardly recognized the benefit of learning another

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language and they believed that people everywhere in this world speak English. The workshop needs to address this misconception to help language teachers motivate their students, especially those who have less interest in learning any foreign language.

Knowledge of Students

"The culture of the classroom also provides tradition and recipe for both teachers and students in the sense that there is tacit understanding about what sort of behavior is acceptable" (Holiday, 1994, p. 24).

Native-speaking teaching assistants in the study were from countries that did not share similar linguistic and cultural backgrounds with their students. They had the tacit understanding of classroom culture in their own contexts, but not the context where they were teaching at the time of the study. The results of this study showed some concern about native-speaking teachers' understanding of students' background. Knowledge of students is believed to be crucial to be a successful teacher (Oda, 1999). Even with the ability to speak English, most native-speaking teaching assistants still found it difficult to understand students. The difficulties resulted from their unfamiliarity of classroom culture. The shared learning experiences that provide contexts to understand the classroom culture tied the American teaching assistants with their students. For most nonnative-speaking teaching assistants, lacking the connections sometimes led them to unintended conflict with students. It is certain that in order to establish the missing bonding, nonnative-speaking teaching assistants need to comprehend their students' educational environment and goals of learning a foreign language, especially the experience and difficulties of learning the target language. The advantages of native-speaking teaching assistants were documented and discussed in several studies

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(e.g., Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Auerbach, 1993; Phillipson, 1992). Even so, those advantages will not become truly beneficial unless the bonding between teachers and students is established. Trust between language teachers and students need to be established before students can appreciate teachers' effort to help.

Awareness of Differences Between Language Teachers

The inequity of hiring policy in many English language institutes and the unrealistic favor given to the native English-speaking teachers by parents and students alerted many language educators to the importance of nonnative English speaking teachers in the EFL teaching context (e.g., Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999). In spite of their limited understanding of the local language and community, native English speakers were believed to be better teachers for their linguistic authority and being cultural representatives. Those teachers were given better pay and more respect than local nonnative English-speaking teachers. The results of the present study did not reflect similar prejudice as observed in the EFL context. Instead, it showed the participants' initial awareness of differences between native and nonnative language teachers. Language teaching assistants in this study seemed to appreciate different roles and contributions that native and nonnative language teachers potentially have in their students' learning. Participants seemed to focus on teaching strategies and methods instead of on linguistic and cultural knowledge of the target language. Even so, the differences between native and nonnative language teachers were not clearly distinguished in participants' answers. The knowledge of different characteristics of native and nonnative language teachers is important in the workshop to raise language teaching assistants' awareness of unique contributions that each type of language teachers

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make to students' language acquisition. Moreover, it can help them better understand

their strength and weakness in their teaching.

Instructions on Environmental Issues

This study discovered the impact of teaching experiences, both length and content

of teaching, on teachers' sense of efficacy. Language teaching assistants who had few

years of teaching experience and who did not teach at intermediate or higher levels

reported feeling less competent when difficulties arose from external factors, such as

parental involvement or students' prior learning experience. This finding suggested the

needs to include more instruction and examples in a training program on how to handle

stress and conflict coming from the environment. Experienced classroom teachers can

co-conduct a seminar with information on possible causes of conflict between teachers

and parents or schools, as well as different scenarios happened in different contexts. They

can share their experience and tips on, for example, ways to communicate with parents

when students need to be replaced in different levels, strategies to negotiate with schools

to receive more support or teaching a class when most students do not intend to use this

language in the future. Successful language teaching depends on not only teachers'

pedagogical and linguistic knowledge, but also their ability to solve the conflict and

difficulties that do not directly relate to language teaching per se.

Implications for Foreign Language Teaching

Cooperation Between Native and Nonnative Language Teachers

The differences between native and nonnative language teachers should be

celebrated and emphasized in language teaching institutes. More importantly, how those

differences can benefit not only students' learning but also language teaching needs to be

well addressed. The concept and practice of team teaching is important based on the fact that language teachers from either group offer unique contributions. For example, native-speaking teachers can provide assistance on linguistic and cultural knowledge of the target language while nonnative teachers can provide information of students and the local environment. Effectiveness of language teaching depends on the level of cooperation between language teachers with different strengths. The design of a language program needs to consider how to embrace advantages from both groups of teacher, other than, for example, emphasizing the linguistic superiority of native-speaking teachers.

Meaningful Contexts

This study revealed the importance of purposefully using the language in meaningful contexts to learn a language successfully. Application of this finding resonates the communicative language teaching with new interpretation. As advocates of communicative language teaching would suggest, activities such as interviews or exchanging information are important for improving students' communicative competence. They contend that learning will happen as long as interaction takes place. However, many suggested activities could lack either real purposes or contexts. For example, the activity, information gap, simply requests students to retrieve information from other students without any context or even real purposes. This activity may end up repeating certain linguistic patterns for students. There is no ambiguity or negotiation that takes place in most conversations in real life. Therefore, in order to make this activity more meaningful and effective, language teachers can include purposes and context in it. The classroom might be transformed into a grocery store where students are required to purchase different items at a reasonable price. While performing this task in such a

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context, students need to negotiate and clarify meaning between them and interlocutors. In this sense, the students learn how to use the language in an interaction that could possibly take place in real life. Language learning happens spontaneously while students find reason to use the language in the environment they encounter in daily life.

The Role of English Language

As pointed out by some language teaching assistants during interviews, the fact that English spoken as an international language hinders students' aspiration to learn other foreign languages. American students might not feel convinced to learn another language to communicate with people in different cultures. Since English is the main medium to present the primary and latest information on any aspect of human development, particularly technology, native English speakers seem to effortlessly access different knowledge domains, including different cultures. The purpose of learning another language to communicate and understand different cultures seems not to be practical for many American students who hope to achieve this purpose in English. They trust the popularity of English in documenting information and communication worldwide. However, they do not understand the cultural richness and authenticity they will experience when immersing in the local speaking community and interact with local people in daily life. The ability to speak another language helps them to go beyond the superficial and into a deeper and personal appreciation of culture and people of the target language. Foreign language teachers need to convey the importance and benefits of speaking another language before attempting to find different strategies to improve students' learning.

Recommendations for Future Research

Culture Differences Among Teachers

  The results of this study indicated different levels of efficacy among language

teaching assistants from different language departments and led to more questions on the

influence of different languages on teachers' level of efficacy. Language teaching

assistants of commonly taught languages seemed to have a higher level of teacher

efficacy, whereas those of less commonly taught languages seemed to be more

conservative in their competent. Moreover, these two groups of assistants seemed to

perceive native and nonnative language teachers differently. Factors that account for the

differences observed in this study call for further research. Possible research inquiries

could include the following: how to characterize teachers of commonly and less

commonly taught languages? Are there characteristic differences in language teachers'

level of efficacy? What would be the factors attributed to these differences? Does culture

embedded in each language account for the differences? What do these differences mean

to teacher-training programs? The discoveries on differences between teachers of

different languages are crucial for both teacher training programs and language program

directors to better help language teaching assistants with particular needs.

Context Contingency of Language Teaching

  Based on the fact that the results of this study only presented language teaching

assistants in a particular period of time and in a specific teaching context, generalizations

cannot be made to other language teaching contexts. Teachers' level of efficacy and their

opinions of issues discussed in this study will change throughout years and contexts of

teaching. Longitudinal study is recommended as a follow-up to examine the shift of

teaching assistants' sense of teacher efficacy and their perceptions of the same issues after increases in teaching experiences and changes in teaching environment. Moreover, the effect of different institutes, levels of students' language proficiency, age of students, status of language teachers (e.g., full-time language teachers, part-time language assistants or novice teachers), or language teachers' cultural background could have a significant impact on language teachers' sense of efficacy or their perception of different issues.

Differences in Language Departments

Different language departments have different policies and atmospheres that presumably have an impact on language teachers' sense of efficacy or perceptions of native and nonnative issues. For example, language teaching assistants at a liberal arts college might have different level of efficacy from those in a community college. Factors such as location (e.g., East versus West coast), structure and size of the language department, department expectations (e.g., communicative activities or target language policy), support from the department (e.g., workshops or supplemental materials) or atmosphere of the department could affect the results of similar studies. More importantly, as indicated in the findings of this study, the popularity of the target language could also have an influence. For example, it would be very important to compare language teachers of English with those of other languages to see if the popularity of English language may differentiate English teachers from other language teachers in such issues as teacher's efficacy or perceptions of nativeship.

Response from Students

During follow-up interviews, several interviewees were asked if their interaction with students changed based on their status of nativeship. Some interviewees mentioned that students seemed to consult native-speaking teachers with linguistic questions, especially pronunciation issues, whereas some teachers reported no differences. This result called for future studies on how nativeship of language teachers affects students' interaction and responses to their language teachers. In particular, it would be good to study if students find differences in the contributions of native and nonnative teachers as observed and reported in several studies. In addition, researchers could look at whether students' age, level of language proficiency or purpose of learning the language have any impact on their attitude toward native and nonnative language teachers demands more investigation.

Limitations

Questionnaire

Items used in the questionnaire were adopted and modified from several resources: existing teacher efficacy scales, literature review and personal teaching experience. The content of the questionnaire was subject to more testing and adjustments for better accuracy in measuring the concept and issues it attempts to measure. More items and subjects are recommended to be included in the questionnaire. After expanding the content and increasing the number of respondents, Factor Analysis can help to determine the dimensions of the constructs this questionnaire attempted to measure. The results of the analysis can refine the content of the questionnaire that is further field tested for reliability.

Generalization

The data of this study were obtained during a particular period of time from a particular midwestern university. The voluntary nature of the participants in this study did not allow the generalization to other contexts. The results of this study were limited to implications of language teaching at this midwestern university. The results of similar studies may vary in accordance with such factors as research sites, teachers' background or popularity of the target language.

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SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Code number: _____

Research Title: A comparative study of native and non-native foreign language teachers.

This study explores the nature of foreign language teaching at a large midwestern university.

This questionnaire consists of five parts:

Part I refers to capability for teaching the language

Part II refers to the potential advantages and disadvantages that native or non-native language teachers would have in their teaching.

Part III refers to goals of teaching, foci of teacher training and methods of helping students.

Part IV refers to your teaching strategies.

Part V refers to your demographic background, such as length of time, level and classes you have taught.

Please give responses to ALL questions based on your own experience. There is no correct answer for any of the question.

The researcher is grateful for your participation. Your generous contribution to this research can definitely help improve understanding of the effect of native speakership upon language teaching.

Part I

Instruction: This part consists of typical teaching tasks teachers face in the classroom. Please indicate to what extent you would agree with these statements based on a 6-point scale. Please respond to the following statements based on your own opinion of your teaching.

* Target language: the language you are teaching now.

1=strongly agree,   *4=disagree slightly more than agree*

2= moderately agree,   *5= moderately disagree*

3= agree slightly more than disagree   *6= strongly disagree.*

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1. In general, I can modify my teaching methods to fit with students' need.

   1   2   3   4   5   6

2. I can use authentic materials, such as articles from newspapers or magazines, in my reading/writing class.

   1   2   3   4   5   6

3. I can provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused.

   1   2   3   4   5   6

4. I can teach reading strategies to my students.

   1   2   3   4   5   6

5. I can create an environment where students feel comfortable to speak the target language.

   1   2   3   4   5   6

6. I can analyze the sentence structures of the text.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

7. I can implement target-language-only instruction.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

8. I can teach writing strategies to my students.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

9. I can use communicative instruction in my class.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

10. I can relate the content in the reading to something students are familiar with.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

11. I know the strategies necessary to teach the target language effectively.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

12. In the writing class, I can explain different genres to students.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

13. I can get students interested in learning the target language.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

14. I can predict and understand students' typical mistakes in their writing.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

15. I can teach high-level reading classes.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

16. I can teach high-level writing classes.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

17. I can motivate students who show low interest in learning the target language.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

18. I can help my students value the ability to speak another language.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

19. I can help my students learn the target language by encouraging them to access outside classroom activities, such as community of the target language or cultural events.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

20. I can predict students' proficiency level of spoken language in a given level.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

21. When a student performs better than usual, it is often because the teacher finds better ways of teaching.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

22. I can explain how the implications (meanings) of an expression varies depending on the contexts.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

23. If students are underachieving in learning the target language, it is most likely due to ineffective language teaching.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

24. I can correct students' pronunciation problems.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

25. Increased effort in language teaching produces little change in some students' language performance.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

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26. I can teach high-level speaking classes.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

27. The inadequacy of a student's language learning background, such as less exposure to the target language and culture, can be overcome by good teaching.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

28. I can teach high-level listening classes.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

29. Students' achievement in language learning is directly related to their teacher's effectiveness in language teaching.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

30. In the conversation class, I can teach colloquial expressions to students.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

31. I can help students understand kinds of communicative strategies, such as re-paraphrasing.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

32. When a student has difficulty understanding language usage or culturally related content, I know how to help the student understand it better.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

33. I can answer questions relating to the cultural, historical and social background of the target language.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

34. I can use students' own cultural background to facilitate their understanding of culture, people and society of the target language.

    1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

35. I generally teach the target language effectively.

    1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

Part II

━ ━ ━ ━ ━ ━ ━ ━ ━ ━ ━ ━ ⋅

1. Native speaking teachers can usually better motivate students than non-native speaking teachers do.

  1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

2. Language teachers should be native speakers.

  1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

3. Pedagogical methodologies should be developed by non-native speaking teachers.

  1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

4. The low language performance of some students can generally be blamed on their teachers for not having sufficient knowledge <u>of the target language</u>.

  1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

5. The low language performance of some students can generally be blamed on their teachers for not having sufficient knowledge <u>of teaching strategies</u>.

  1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

6. I find it difficult to explain to students how and why certain expressions are used in certain contexts.

  1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

7.   I find it sometimes difficult to answer to students' questions in simple and
understandable language.

   1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

8.   Non-native speaking teachers could become the achievable role model for students.

   1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

9. It is hard for me to anticipate students' learning problems.

   1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

Part III

Instruction: This part consists of teachers' beliefs on important elements of language teaching. Please indicate to what extent you would agree with these statements based on a 6-point scale as following:

1=strongly agree,   *4=disagree slightly more than agree*

2= moderately agree,   *5= moderately disagree*

3= agree slightly more than disagree   *6= strongly disagree.*

▬ ▬ ▬ ▬ ▬ ▬ ▬ ▬ ▬ ▬ ▬ ▬ ▬ ▪

1. When a less motivated student progresses in learning language, it could be due to better <u>teaching strategies</u> teachers use.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

2. When a less motivated student progresses in learning language, it could be due to the teacher's better <u>knowledge of the target language</u>.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

3. Teachers with <u>good language teaching strategies</u> can teach some students to learn the language well.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

4. Teachers with <u>knowledge of the target language</u> can help some students to learn the language well.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

5. Teacher training should focus more on <u>the linguistic and cultural knowledge of the language</u>.

     1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

6. Teacher training should focus more on <u>teaching strategies and methodologies.</u>

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

7. It is important to have experience with the target culture and speakers in order to learn this language successfully.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

8. Teacher training is a very important factor leading to effective teaching.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

9. The goal of language teaching is to teach communicative language.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

10. The goal of language teaching is to increase students' cultural understanding of the target language.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

11. The goal of language teaching is to increase students' grammatical competence.

1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

Part IV

Instruction: This part relates to your teaching strategies or styles. Please give a response to each statement **based on what your students most often do in the classroom** not what you wish they would do. Please indicate to what extent you would agree with these statements based on a 6-point scale as following:

1=strongly agree,   *4=disagree slightly more than agree*

2= moderately agree,   *5= moderately disagree*

3= agree slightly more than disagree   *6= strongly disagree.*

— — — — — — — — — — — — — — — .

1. Students translate English words and sentences into the target language and vice versa.

   1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

2. Students are called to the blackboard to write their responses to in-class drill exercises.

   1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

3. Students copy grammar exercises from the blackboard after the teacher's explanation.

   1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

3. Students share information through interviews or polls to express their opinions on different topics.

   1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

4. Students memorize and practice dialogues to role-play in class.

   1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

5. Students in groups/pairs make up dialogues to role-play in class.

  1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

6. Students in groups/pairs simulated social situations from everyday life as class activity.

  1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

7. Students learning the language from using it in the context teachers create in the classroom.

  1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

8. Students learn from studying textbooks and listening to tapes at home.

  1   *2*   *3*   *4*   *5*   *6*

Part V: Professional and Academic Background

<u>Instruction:</u> please write down your information and put a V mark at the answer that suits your situation. Some questions will have multiple responses.

Name:

Gender: _____ Male, _____ Female

Age: _____ under 25 years old, _____ 26 – 30 years old, _____ 31-35 years old, _____ 36-40 years old, _____ above 41 years old.

Major and degree pursuing:

Native Language(s):

Language teaching now:

How many languages do you speak other than English? _____ 1langauge, _____2 languages, _____ more than 3 languages.

Years of teaching: _____ less than 2 years, _____ 3-5 years, _____ 6-8 years, _____ more than 9 years.

Average teaching hours per week? _____ 6 hours, _____ 12 hours, _____ more than 12 hours.

Average size of class(es) you are currently teaching now:

_____ Less than 10 students, _____ 11 – 15 students, _____ 16-21 students, _____ more than

22 students

Are you a certified language teacher (in or outside of the United States)? _____ YES. _____ NO

Do you participate in any form of in-service training? _____ YES. _____ NO.

Level(s)of language classes have taught so far:

_____ Elementary conversation class _____ Elementary reading class_____ Elementary composition class

_____ Intermediate conversation class _____ Intermediate reading class_____ Intermediate composition class

_____ Advanced conversation class _____ Advanced reading class_____ Advanced composition class

_____ Others:

What are <u>*strong points*</u> *in your teaching*? _____ Provide a good learner model for imitation, _____ anticipate and prevent

language learning difficulties, _____ teach language learning strategies, _____ use informal, fluent and conversational language,

_____ know subtleties of the language, _____use different techniques, methods and approaches. _____ Others (please

provide examples):

Have you ever visited country/countries of the target language?

_____ NO.

_____ YES. How long? _____ Less than 1 year. _____ 1-3 years, _____ more than 3 years.

What are teaching strategies you prefer? _____ students learn the language through memorizing and translating target language into English, _____ students learn the langue through pair or group work, _____ students learn the language through simulated social situations as class activities, _____ students learn the language through grammar exercise and in-class drills.

_____ Others (please provide examples):

Are you willing to participate the interview with the researcher for further information regarding this research topic?

(Interview will last for about <u>1 hour</u> and <u>$ 10</u> will be paid for your time)

_____ **YES**

_____ **NO**

-------------------------- **Thanks for your time and response!** ----------------------------

APPENDIX B

Invitation Letter

Dear

I am writing to request your participation in a study titled, ""How are they different?": A comparative study of native and nonnative foreign language teachers regarding teacher efficacy and other selected characteristics." This study is designed to provide us with better understanding of not only differences between native and nonnative language teachers, but also what a teacher training program can better fit the needs of these two groups of teachers.

This project will begin about September 1, 2003 and continue until the end of the Autumn quarter 2003. You will receive the questionnaire that contains items relating to teaching confidence, perception of language teaching and teaching strategies. It is estimated to take 15-20 minutes to finish the questionnaire. At the end of these questionnaires, you will be invited to participate in an interview. This interview will explore your experience as a foreign language teacher at Ohio State University. The content of the interview will be similar to those in these two questionnaires, but in a wider scale. Each interview will last about 1 hour.

You will not be identified by name in any reports of this study, and you will be allowed to withdraw, without penalty, at any time. Note that we are also requesting your permission to include (anonymously) quotes from interviews. No risks are involved, and participation in the project should prove beneficial.

If you have any concerns regarding to this study, please contact me at liaw.14@osu.edu .We appreciate your participation and contribution to this study.

Sincerely yours,

En-Chong Liaw

Ph.D. Candidate, Foreign Language Education

Department of Teaching and Learning, School of Education

APPENDIX C

Consent for Participation in Research

Protocol # _____

I consent in participating in research titled: *"How are they different?" A comparative study of native and non-native foreign language teachers regarding selected characteristics, i.e. teacher efficacy, perceived importance in language teaching, teaching strategies and perception of nativeness*.

Dr. Keiko Samimy, Principal Investigator, or her authorized representative, **En-Chong Liaw** has explained the purpose of the study, the procedures to be followed, and the duration of my participation. Possible benefits of the study have been described, as have alternative procedures, if such procedures are applicable and available.

I acknowledge that I have had the opportunity to obtain additional information regarding the study and that any questions I have raised have been answered to my full satisfaction. All data, including both survey and interview, will be destroyed at the end of study. No personal information, such as name, will be released at any stage of this study. Furthermore, I understand that I am free to withdraw consent at any time and to discontinue participation of the study without prejudice to me.

Finally, I acknowledge I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily.

_____

Participant's Signature   Date

Signed: _____   Signed: _____

(Principal Investigator or his/her   *(Person authorized to consent for*
authorized representative)   *participant, if required)*

Witness: _____

Participant's contact information:

Name: _____ (printed)

Address: _____

E-mail address: _____

Modification of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) scale

Component	Items
Instructional Strategies	**1. To what extent can you use a variety of assessment strategies?** => <u>I can modify my teaching methods to fit with students' need.</u>
	2. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused. => <u>I can provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused.</u>
	3. **To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?** => <u>I can create good environment for students to use the target language?</u>

	4. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom? => <u>I can implement the target-language-only instruction in my class.</u> And => <u>I can implement communicative-oriented type of instruction in my class.</u>
Efficacy of Student engagement	**9. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in schoolwork?** => <u>I can get students being interested in learning the target language.</u>
	10. How much can you do to help your students value learning? => <u>I can help my students value the ability of speaking another language.</u>
	11. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in schoolwork? => <u>I can motivate students who show low interest in learning the target language.</u>

	12. **How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?**
	=> <u>I can help my students learning the target language by encouraging them to access outside classroom activities, such as community of the target language or cultural events.</u>

APPENDIX E

Modifications of the Science Teaching Efficacy Beliefs Instrument (STEBI)

1. When a student does better than usual in science, it is often because the teacher exerted a little extra effort. => When a student performs better than usual, it is often because the teacher finds better ways of teaching it.
2. I am continually finding better ways to teach science. => Native speaking teachers can usually better motivate students than non-native speaking teachers do.
5.   I know the steps necessary to teach science concepts effectively. => I know the strategies necessary to teach the target language effectively
7.   If students are underachieving in science, it is most likely due to ineffective science teaching. => If students are underachieving in learning the target language, it is most likely due to ineffective language teaching.
8. I generally teach science ineffectively. => I generally teach the target language effectively.

9. The inadequacy of a student's science background can be overcome by good teaching.

=> The inadequacy of a student's language background, such as less exposure to the target language and culture, can be overcome by good teaching.

10. The low science achievement of some students cannot generally be blamed on their teachers.

=> The low language performance of some students can generally be blamed for their teachers not having sufficient knowledge of the target language.

=> The low language performance of some students can generally be blamed for their teachers not having sufficient knowledge of teaching strategies.

11. When a low achieving child progress in science, it is usually due to extra attention given by the teacher.

=> When a less motivated student progresses in learning language, it is could be due to better teaching strategies teachers use.

And

=> When a less motivated student progresses in learning language, it is could be due to the better knowledge of the teacher of the target language.

13. Increased effort in science teaching produced little change in some students' science achievement.

=> Increased effort in language teaching produced little change in some students' language performance.

15. Students' achievement in science is directly related to their teacher's effectiveness in science teaching. => Students' achievement in language learning is directly related to their teacher's effectiveness in language teaching.
17. I find it difficult to explain to students why science experiments work. => "I find it difficult to answer students' questions in simple and understandable language.
22. When a student has difficulty understanding a science concept, I am usually at a loss as to how to help the student understand it better. => When a student has difficulty understanding language usage or culturally related content, I know how to help the student understand it better.
25. Even teachers with good science teaching abilities cannot help some kids learn science. => "Even teachers with good language teaching strategies cannot help some students learn this language well.

APPENDIX F

Items Adopted from Chacon's (2002) Study

1. Students translate English words and sentences into the target language and vice versa.
2. Students are called to the blackboard to write their responses to in-class drill exercises.
3. Students copy grammar exercises from the blackboard after the teacher's explanation.
4. Students share information through interviews or polls to express their opinions on different topics.
5. Students memorize and practice dialogues to role-play in class.
6. Students in groups/pairs make up dialogues to role-play in class.