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ABSTRACT

Controversies on the native and non-native English teacher dichotomy have been historically a matter of concern according to many pioneering scholars of the field. Although a great deal of research in the field of teaching English as a foreign language has compared native and non-native speaking English teachers (henceforth N/NNSETs), to the best of the researcher's knowledge no attempt has been made so far to examine the outcome of the performance of these two teacher types in the Iranian EFL context. Be that as it may, this study focused on EFL learners, EFL teachers, and policy makers in Iran. The aim of the study was to explore the performance and the perceptions of EFL learners taught by N/NNSETs. The study also investigated self-perceptions of native and non-native EFL teachers about their strengths and weaknesses as well as the attitudes of administrators towards these two groups of teachers (N/ NNSETs). Qualitative and quantitative data were collected to test the following two main research hypotheses: 1) Teachers' nationality (N or NN) has no differential effect on the development of oral proficiency of Iranian EFL learners; 2) Learners, teachers, and private language institute administrators perceive no differences between N and NNSETs. A mixed method research design including an experimental phase and a survey phase was employed to examine a) oral performance of the learners taught by N/NNSETs, b) learners' perceptions of N/NNSETs, c) teachers' self-perceptions regarding their strengths and weaknesses, and d) perspectives of private language institutes administrators of N/NNSETs. In the experimental phase, 3 native and 3 non-native speaking English teachers taught 90 females aged 11-13 (all of whom were beginning EFL learners) in six groups of 15 in an Iranian provincial language institute. The treatment was carried out for three 100-minute sessions per week totaling 50 sessions. At the end of the treatment, a semi-direct oral test was administered to compare gains in learners' oral proficiency. Another measure of the fluency of the two

groups of the EFL learners taught by NSETs and NNSETs was also considered by enumerating the number of mid- clause pauses made by the participants when recounting a simple narrative based on a series of picture prompts. In the survey phase, three questionnaires for students (n=213), teachers (n=36) and administrators (n=21) were used to collect data on perceptions of N and NNSETs. The data from both phases were carefully recorded in SPSS files and analyzed using frequencies, descriptive statistics, inferential tests like ANOVAs and Student T-Tests, and qualitative techniques. The analyses indicated that despite the outperformance of those taught by NSETs in the oral proficiency test, the learners were not as concerned by the nationality of their teachers as much as their qualification. It was the perceived poor qualification of native Iranian EFL teachers that was a matter of concern to the learners. Surveys of teachers' self perceptions showed lack of self confidence and poor pedagogical and linguistic competence on the part of NNSETs. They perceived themselves as just grammar experts. Private language institutes' administrators laid emphasis on cooperation of the two groups of the teachers in the belief that the previous learning experience of Iranian English teachers can compensate for their weaknesses in linguistic and communicative performance. The findings imply that concrete steps need to be taken by the authorities for teaching, training, and hiring qualified English teachers irrespective of their native or nonnative origin.

ABSTRAK

Kontroversi terhadap dikotomi guru Bahasa Inggeris yang natif dan tidak natif sekian lama telah menjadi perhatian para sarjana dalam bidang yang berkenaan. Walaupun telah banyak penyelidikan yang membandingkan guru Bahasa Inggeris natif dan tidak natif dalam bidang pengajaran Bahasa Inggeris sebagai bahasa asing (selepas ini dikenali sebagai N/NNSETs), namun sehingga kini sepanjang yang diketahui oleh penyelidik tidak ada usaha untuk meneliti hasil pencapaian dua jenis guru ini dalam konteks EFL di Iran. Berdasarkan keadaan yang telah disebutkan, kajian ini memberikan fokus kepada pelajar EFL, guru EFL, dan pembuat polisi di Iran. Matlamat kajian ini adalah untuk melihat pencapaian dan persepsi pelajar EFL yang diajarkan oleh N/NNSETs. Kajian ini juga meneliti persepsi sendiri guru EFL yang natif dan tidak natif berkenaan dengan kekuatan dan kelemahan mereka di samping meninjau sikap para pentadbir terhadap dua kumpulan guru yang dimaksudkan (N/NNSETs). Data kualitatif dan kuantitatif dipungut untuk menguji dua hipotesis kajian yang utama iaitu: a) Kewarganegaraan guru (N atau NN) tidak memberikan kesan yang berbeza terhadap pembinaan profisiensi lisan pelajar EFL Iran; b) pelajar, guru, dan pengurusan institut bahasa persendirian melihat tidak ada perbezaan antara N dan NNSETs. Kerangka kaedah penyelidikan yang bercampur yang melibatkan fasa eksperimental dan fasa tinjauan digunakan untuk melihat a) pencapaian lisan bagi pelajar yang diajarkan oleh N/NNSETs, b) persepsi pelajar terhadap N/NNSETs, c) persepsi sendiri guru terhadap kekuatan dan kelemahan mereka, dan d) perspektif pengurusan institusi persendirian yang mendendalkan kursus bahasa terhadap N/NNSETs. Dalam fasa eksperimental, 3 orang guru bahasa Inggeris natif dan non-natif mengajarkan 90 pelajar perempuan EFL berumur antara 11-13 tahun yang baharu hendak memulakan pembelajaran bahasa Inggeris mereka. Kesemua pelajar yang belajar di institut bahasa daerah di Iran ini,

dibahagikan kepada enam kumpulan yang terdiri daripada 15 pelajar bagi setiap kumpulan. Rawatan dijalankan sebanyak tiga kali seminggu dan setiap sesi rawatan mengambil masa selama 100 minit. Jumlah kesemua rawatan yang dijalankan adalah sebanyak 50 sesi. Pada akhir rawatan, ujian lisan separuh bercapah (semi-direct) dilakukan untuk membandingkan profisiensi lisan antara pelajar. Pengukuran lain untuk melihat kefasihan antara dua kumpulan EFL yang diajarkan oleh NSETs dan NNSETs juga dilakukan dengan mengira jeda klausa pertengahan (mid-clause pauses) yang dilakukan oleh pelajar apabila menghuraikan naratif ringkas berdasarkan rangkaian gambar yang diberikan. Dalam fasa tinjauan, tiga soal-selidik untuk pelajar ($n=213$), guru ($N=36$) dan pentadbir ($n=21$) diberikan untuk mendapatkan data terhadap persepsi N dan NNSETs. Data yang dikutip daripada kedua-dua fasa direkodkan dengan menggunakan SPSS dan dianalisis dengan menggunakan frekuensi, statistik deskriptif, ujian inferensial seperti ANOVAs T-Tests Pelajar (Student T-Test), dan juga teknik kualitatif. Analisis menunjukkan bahawa pelajar yang diajarkan oleh NSETs dan mendapat pencapaian tidak baik dalam ujian lisan, tidak mementingkan kewarganegaraan guru mereka dan kelayakan yang guru mereka miliki. Yang menjadi perhatian kepada pelajar yang berkenaan ialah kelulusan rendah yang dimiliki oleh guru berbangsa Iran yang mengajarkan mereka EFL. Tinjauan terhadap persepsi diri guru NNSETs menunjukkan bahawa mereka kurang keyakinan diri, lemah dalam pedagogi, dan tidak cekap dalam bidang linguistik. Mereka melihat diri mereka hanya sebagai guru yang pakar dalam bidang tatabahasa. Bagi pihak pengurusan institut bahasa persendirian, mereka menekankan kerjasama antara dua kumpulan guru berkenaan dan berpendapat bahawa pengalaman belajar masa lalu bagi guru Bahasa Inggeris berbangsa Iran dapat membantu mereka dalam mengatasi kelemahan linguistik dan kecekapan komunikatif mereka. Hasil dapatan menunjukkan bahawa langkah yang jitu perlu diambil oleh pihak yang berkepentingan untuk guru, latihan, dan mengambil guru

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DEDICATED TO THE MEMORY OF

MY BELOVED PARENTS, MOHAMMAD AND ZIVAR, AND MY

BROTHER,

SHAHID ABOLFAZL DEGHAN BANADAKI

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA: Analysis of variance	teachers
DV: Dependent variable	NNSETs: Non-native speaking English teachers
EFL: English as a foreign language	N/NNSETs: Native or (&) non-native speaking English teachers
ELT: English language teaching	RQs: Research questions
ESL: English as a second language	SPSS: Statistical package for social science
H0: Null hypothesis	TEC: Teacher education center
H01: Sub-null hypothesis number one	TEFL: Teaching English as a foreign language
IETs: Iranian English teachers	TESOL: Teaching English to students of other languages
IELTS: International English language testing system	TOEFL: Test of English as a foreign language
IV: Independent variable	TPR: Total physical response
NG: Native group (learners taught by native speaking English teachers)	UM: University of Malaya
NNG: Non- native group (learners taught by non-native speaking English teachers)	
NS: Native speaker	
NNS: Non-native speaker	
NSETs: Native speaking English	

DEFINITIONS OF COMMONLY AND FREQUENTLY USED TERMS

Anglophone Countries: Countries in which the speakers use English as their mother tongue

Commonwealth Conference: Conference on the teaching of English as a second language (It was held at Makerere University, Uganda in 1961.)

Convenience sampling: A type of sample selection proposed by Creswell, 2008. As Creswell states, such kind of sampling happens, “when there are no other possibilities and just one group of participants are selected because they are willing and available to participate in the study” (p.155).

'Delphi method': Delphi [pron: delfi] is based on the principle that forecasts from a structured group of experts are more accurate than those from unstructured groups or individuals.

Francophone Countries: Countries where French is used as the mother tongue of the residents.

Homo Loquens angelic: Believing that all varieties of Englishes come from the same origin (cited in Paikeday, 1985 - 'The Native Speaker is Dead.')

Intra-rater: When a rater rates a student's response twice with the time interval of at least two weeks

Inter-raters: When two skillful scorers rate each student's response individually and independently

Language institutes' administrators: The heads of private language institutes

Lingua Franca: a language systematically and internationally used among different nations with different mother tongues (e.g. Nowadays English might have such a kind

of characteristic since it is globally used as a means of communication between or among nations with different mother tongues.)

The Middle Ages: A period of European history from the end of the Roman Empire and the beginning of Renaissance (Cambridge Learners' Dictionary- Second edition)

Modern period: The period beginning in AD 1750 –present day.

Mortality effect: In a research project, the effect caused by the loss of participants during a study

Philologists: It is the humanistic study of historical linguistics, considering both form and meaning in linguistic expression, combining linguistics and literary.

Nature-nurture: Heredity and Environment

Non-probability sampling or 'Convenience sampling': The researcher selects individuals because they are available and ready to participate in a study (Creswell: 2008).

Renaissance: The beginning of modern history

The Age of reason: It refers to the philosophy of early 17th century. It is also called Age of Rationalism which succeeds the Renaissance philosophy era.

Vernacular languages: A vernacular, mother tongue or mother language, and less frequently one sense of idiom and dialect, is the native language of a population located in a country or in a region.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The growing number of learners of English as an international means of communication has resulted in a rapid growth of the number of English teachers, both native and non-native speakers of the language (henceforth NSETs and NNSETs). This (the teaching of English by NSETs and NNSETs) has in turn created much dispute among many researchers (e.g., Foster & Tavakoli 2009; Holliday & Aboshiha, 2009) as well as teachers and learners of English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL), the parents of these learners, the education ministries, school administrators and numerous other stakeholders in the English language teaching/learning process. A careful examination of the discussion on the issue (the teaching of English by NSETs and NNSETs) reveals that despite the great importance given to it and the huge number of voices participating in the discussion, most of the perceptions are non-scientific, meaning that they have not been substantiated with evidence. This is dangerous, as the decisions are related to major aspects such as teaching programs, assessments and recruitment of teachers; these are possibly, even probably, based on questionable perceptions. To underline the point, Celik (2006,p.373) states, “The fact that they (NNSETs) have a non-native accent makes people think that they are linguistically less competent, and this might cause such teachers to be confronted by outrageous experiences such as unfair hiring practices that will ultimately lower their confidence and self-respect.”

A second aspect of the English language teaching/learning scenario is that it is witnessing increasing commercialization of the service (of teaching ESL or EFL). As stated by Moussu (2006, p.2) "Native speakers must also strategize since this is a competitive market and now it is a buyer's market, too." According to her, the severe

consequences of such an educational mistreatment, or rather, commercial treatment, may negatively affect the English language proficiency of EFL/ESL learners.

Much research has been done regarding the methods of teaching English to ESL and EFL learners, but up to forty years ago or so, few researchers had investigated the effectiveness of native or non-native speaking English teachers (N/NNSETs) teaching English to foreign language learners. It was only towards the end of the 1980s that some prominent figures in the field such as Preston (1984); Neill (1991); Medgyes (1994); Moussu and Llurda (2008); and Hayes (2009) laid emphasis on the types of language teachers. Believing that the nationality of language teachers may affect the overall language knowledge and proficiency of foreign language learners, researchers and language teachers focused on this issue and took the crucial role of the NSETs/NNSETs into consideration. Since then (40 years ago), many positive steps have been taken that have benefited both language teachers and learners.

However, the question of who teaches well or better or who the ideal teacher is still remains unanswered. Accordingly, the selection of NSETs/NNSETs from the perspectives of learners, parents, teachers, language institute administrators and even authorities in the field remains controversial. The reasons behind this are that, on the one hand, learners are individually different and the learning process in the brain is vague and, on the other hand, there are some confounding variables such as prior discriminatory experiences of teachers and learners plus learners' heredity or teachers' personality which are fairly uncontrollable and immeasurable and may influence the research procedures and violate the results of experiments. In other words, these variables can negatively affect the validity and reliability of the research. Moreover, as Canagarajah (1999a) believes, "Language learning is a creative, cognitive and social process that has its own trajectory not fully dependent on the teacher" (p.79).

Consequently, the selection of a teacher as a model seems to be impossible, and it is not realistic to expect that all learners will profit equally from a particular type of teacher. However, in spite of all the aforementioned obscurities, it is irrational to close the book on the issue and do nothing about it.

With regard to the superiority and inferiority of NSETs/NNSETs, certain questions may come to one's mind as pointed out by Yung (2006, p. 1) who poses the following questions: "Does being a native speaker or non-native speaker of a language make a difference in teaching the language? How can one define native speaker? What knowledge or ability do native speakers have that their non-native counterparts are lacking?" The answers to these questions would definitely be complex because the concept of native speaker, by itself, is to a great extent controversial and complex.

In order to differentiate or define native and non-native speakers and to be aware of the capability of each, we should see how the two have acquired or learned the target language. It is believed that the former (NS) acquired the target language unconsciously in a stress-free environment, whereas the latter (NNS) learned it consciously in classes. Thus, it is only to be expected that the former would be superior to most of their non-native counterparts in terms of language use, informal language, slang, idioms, cultural knowledge and overall mastery of the target language, while the contributions of the NNSETs might be their awareness of formal English along with language rules and learning experience. These assumptions definitely need further investigation.

The current research adopted two ways to explore these assumptions: assessing the performance of learners taught by NSETs /NNSETs (via a semi-direct oral test and an oral production test involving recounting a simple narrative based on picture prompts- See Appendices F and G respectively), and eliciting the knowledge and perceptions of

the various stakeholders (learners, teachers and language institute administrators) involved in the language learning/teaching situation (via interviews and questionnaires).

A review of the literature reveals that few studies have been carried out regarding the role of NSETs/NNSETs, including their proficiency in the English language, in the Middle East, particularly in Iran. Moreover, it appears that the role of NSETs/NNSETs in terms of teaching quality and teachers' qualification have been ignored to some extent. Besides, no previous attempt is known to have been made to study the attitudes of the learners towards NSETs/NNSETs, the perceptions of both groups of teachers regarding their strengths and weaknesses and the beliefs of language institute administrators regarding the practice of hiring teachers.

Therefore, this research project has been undertaken to address these shortcomings. The main objective was to evaluate the 'merits' and 'demerits' of NSETs and NNSETs regarding their effectiveness in the teaching of oral skills to young Iranian EFL Learners. A second objective was to discover learners' perceptions of both types of teachers. Third, it sought to analyze the teachers' self-perceptions regarding their weaknesses and strengths. Finally, this research also intended to identify and analyze the beliefs of language institute administrators regarding the hiring practices of teachers. By achieving these objectives, the researcher hopes to discover ways which may change the teaching situation in Iran which has been deteriorating for years. The following sections, especially sections 1.4.1 and 1.4.2, discuss the few studies that depict the deteriorating conditions of EFL teaching in the country. Due to this undesirable condition, the researcher has taken the issues of native and non-native speaking English teachers (N/NNSETs) into consideration to highlight some changes needed for boosting the quality of EFL teaching as well as the teachers' qualification.

However, in order to achieve these objectives and shed some light on the ongoing process, the concepts of language will be delineated first. This will further illuminate the upcoming discussions. Subsequently, throughout the following sections the significant role of English pertaining to modern sciences and its role in the educational system of Iran along with the status of Iranian EFL learners and teachers will be discussed. All these factors were taken into consideration since the researcher thinks that teachers, students, and the subjects being taught are important factors in teaching and learning.

1.2 Language and Modern Sciences

1.2.1 Language

Language is a complex, multidimensional phenomenon which challenges a comprehensive definition. Nevertheless, arriving at such a definition has been attempted by some linguists and prominent figures in language and linguistics (e.g., Bloch & Trager, 1942; Chomsky, 1957; Hall, 1968; Martin, 2000; Robin, 1979; Sapir, 1921). As a case in point, Lyons (1990) defines language as such:

Language is composed of various systems of communication, namely natural and artificial. The natural type may be verbal such as English, Chinese and (others)... whereas sign language and body language are referred to as non-verbal systems of communication. The other systems of communication mostly used by mathematicians, logicians and computer scientists for the purpose of notion or calculation is known as artificial language (Lyons, 1990, p. 4).

In addition to the two aforementioned types of languages, there is also the system of communication used by animals (the non-human mode of communication).

Thus, presenting a scientific, concise and comprehensive definition of language which encompasses all varieties of language, namely natural (verbal and non-verbal), artificial, and non-human is quite beyond the reach of the average researcher, and

almost impossible. Despite this, the current research attempts to present a brief description and discussion of issues such as language and culture and the roles of the speaker and hearer (See Chapter 2, cf. 2.6 & 2.13). However, in the preliminary stage of the study, to rationalize the need for the study, the significant role that English as a global language might play in the domain of other sciences will be delineated.

1.2.2 English and the Modern Sciences

The desire for seeking knowledge is one of the outstanding characteristics of human beings. However, for a considerable time now, knowledge is commonly achievable through mastery of English language. Concerning the scientific role of English, Flowerdew (2002, p. 463) denotes that “Scientists need to be able to access literature, which will invariably be published in English, and to be able to disseminate the findings of their own research through the leading international journals, which, again, are likely to be published in English.” Additionally, due to the increase of the world population, the number of learners who globally pursue their higher degree either at home or overseas is increasing day by day. Moreover, due to the existence of a large amount of materials written in English, for the aforementioned learners and whoever seeks for knowledge, proficiency in English is a prerequisite or a necessary means of the enhancement in any field that the learners are involved. Similarly, Callahan (2005, p. 305) claims that, “English is in fact necessary for academic success” and it can be considered to be one of the ladders for a career rise. This view is also supported by Harris (2001) who provides a comprehensive discussion of the significant role of English stating that “In recent decades, English has increasingly become the medium of communication, both in international congresses and in geographical periodicals and serials published in many countries and distributed over all continents” (p. 675). Knowing the dominant language, namely English, is not only significant for scholars,

researchers, web loggers and others who have a thirst to gain knowledge but also for travelers, businessmen, and academics who wish to engage in sabbaticals or fellowships abroad. Thus, for all who pursue the earlier mentioned goals around the world, learning the English language either through native or non-native teachers is a must. Iran with a population of more than 75 million, many of whom seek the ends to which English is the means, is a case in point.

To sum up, in the light of rapid changes taking place in today's world, exposure to mass communication media, and access to scientific articles in English through the World Wide Web, it may be necessary for Iranians, especially the new generation, to learn an international global language after they have acquired their mother tongue. Due to this necessity, in the area of English language education in the country, teaching quality and teachers' qualifications are of central concern in the present study. To put the research work in perspective, a brief summary of the backgrounds of foreign language education in Iran is provided in the next section including remarks on the Iran's educational system and the status of English in the country.

1.3 Educational System and Status of Teaching English in Iran

1.3.1 The Educational System in Iran

Before delving into the history of foreign language learning (FLL) in Iran, it is appropriate to describe, briefly, the present educational system of the country. This comprises three levels: primary (five years), guidance (three years) and secondary (four years). Upon completing the secondary level with a diploma, students can gain entry into the university to study in an area of their choice, provided they pass the university entrance examination.

Presently, English is taught as a foreign language in Iran, and is introduced at the level of guidance school, when the children are about 12 years old. The teaching of the language is then continued into secondary school and university. At these two levels (guidance school and secondary school), English is a compulsory subject, and students have to attend English classes three hours per week. The schools are under the purview of the Ministry of Education, and the teachers are hired and paid by the government. The language educators who are involved in the teaching of English at public (national) schools are mainly non-native speakers of English.

1.3.2 Status of English in Iran- past and present

From the historical perspective, Sadigh (1965) states that foreign language instruction in Iran dates back to 1851, that is, 162 years ago when the first well-known Iranian institution of formal instruction in higher education called 'Darol-Fonoon' was established (cited in Bagheri, (1994) and summarized in Riazi (2005). In those days, because of the conditions of the country, the needs of Iranian elites (scientists, politicians, etc.), and international ties with Europe, it was necessary for the Iranians to learn both English and French and the two languages were taught alongside one another. Accordingly, due to the lack of local English and French teachers, native foreign language teachers were invited to the country from Anglophone and Francophone countries to teach English and French. Gradually, French as an international language lost power and Britain along with its language gained sovereignty and as a result teaching French was completely replaced by English.

The officially acknowledged origins of English language education in Iranian schools, as Azabdaftari (1975) denotes, date back to 1934. Initially mostly NSETs taught English at schools which were, at the start, limited in number. During the reign of the Pahlavi Dynasty, the 1920s till 1979, due to the existence of Iran-America society

and British council and the good relationship of Iranian and European countries the scenario went on. NSETs and NNSETs cooperated with one another to teach Iranian EFL learners in public schools and private sectors. With the passage of time, more and more NNSETs came to help their native counterparts. After the Islamic revolution (1979) or better to say during the last 30 years, the issue of foreign language teaching and the needs of foreign language experts have continuously been on the move. Accordingly, some steps have been taken in this regard, though not sufficient. During this era, textbooks and allocated time of teaching English and teachers' type were constantly a matter of change, but such changes have not led to desirable outcomes. In other words, as the performance of Iranian EFL learners show (cf. 1.4), the enhancement of EFL learners, particularly in terms of language use, is not in the offing.

Nevertheless, to be brief, English has been taught in state schools, private institutes and all universities as a foreign language. Unfortunately, however, presently the aim of most of the EFL learners, except for those who are in private language institutes, is just to know about the target language (English) rather than use it. This has resulted in a situation where most Iranian undergraduates, post-graduates, researchers and even university professors who need to and are willing to gain information from various sources suffer from lack of English proficiency (cf.1.4). This lack of proficiency may present some obstacles or hindrances for those who wish to pursue higher education or career advancement. It will especially affect those who want to pursue research as the researchers involved in fields other than English and wishing to write articles may be faced with the problem of language, both in terms of writing articles and presenting their research in international conferences. During the last thirty years, the researcher himself has repeatedly witnessed such cases.

This situation gives rise to the following questions: Why is the status of English in Iran like this? Who is responsible for such weaknesses? What is the solution to this problem? Where can we begin to look for these solutions? Mohan (2011:Para.2), an Indian poet and writer, partially attributes the responsibility for this undesirable situation to the teachers and argues:

It is found that these days many teachers always try to find fault with work or deeds of their students instead of looking and changing their own attitudes. There comes utter ruin of the society when teachers grow weak or corrupt. As such, teachers must play the role of lamps that shatter darkness, become the lighthouses that guide the wandering ships to their right destinations and prevent any accidents. (On line <http://ezinearticles.com/?An-Ideal-Teacher&id=1302625>- retrieved on 25/12/2010)

However, the researcher thinks that rather than blame or insult any of the stakeholders involved in the process of teaching EFL, a scientific investigation of the issue should be conducted. To do this, he formulated the hypothesis that presumably some of the weaknesses of the learners may be grounded in the teaching quality or the qualifications of the Iranian English teachers, and in order to support or negate it (the hypothesis), the scores and the perceptions of learners taught by NSETs/NNSETs along with the self-perceptions of both groups of teachers regarding their weaknesses and strengths were considered, as were the merits and demerits of the teachers, especially the NNSETs. This means that the NSETs were actually included to be a tool of comparison with the NNSETs so that the advantages and/or disadvantages of the NNSETs (Iranian English teachers) might be recognized; otherwise, in the Iranian educational system, the issue of NSETs and /or NNSETs and the issue of discrimination currently would not be a critical matter of concern (cf. 1.11). Due to the significant role of EFL learners and teachers, the researcher deemed it necessary to touch upon the status of the two sequentially.

1.4 Problems of Iranian Students Learning EFL

As stated earlier, the main objective of English language students in Iran is merely to pass the course; as such, the teaching of the language is confined to the form or the structure of the language rather than its use. Official tests are usually based on grammar, reading comprehension, and vocabulary. Consequently, the various parts or skills of language are taught and tested in isolation. There is little room for listening and speaking, and the language is taught mostly through Persian. Thus as Eslami-Rasekh & Valizadeh, (2004) believe “The orientation is therefore towards a combination of grammar-translation and audio lingual methods in most schools” (cited in, Eslami-Rasekh & Fatahi, 2008, p. 7). This shows that little attempt has been made for teaching language use. According to Widdowson (1990), language as a system consists of knowing and doing, meaning that just having the knowledge about language is inadequate. Similarly, it should be acknowledged that in the process of second or foreign language teaching, as Nassaji (2000) claims, just focusing on language use, as done in the weak version of communicative language teaching, is insufficient. This implies that the integrating of both form- focused instruction along with communicative interaction in the second or foreign language classroom is quite necessary.

Consequently, the reason for poor English proficiency of Iranian EFL learners as it is evident in the following sections (cf.1.4.1 and 1.4.2) could be the fact that for more than half a century the English teachers consciously or unconsciously “used either the prescribed traditional grammar method of teaching or followed the structuralists’ stand introduced by the American post-Bloomfieldian linguists” (Majlesifard, 1998, p. 1).

Accordingly, from the 1950s onward, particularly in terms of teaching English in Iran, the emphasis was placed on the form or the structure and little attention was paid to the function or the sociocultural aspects of language in the hope and belief that the

overt teaching of grammar, vocabulary or language form to the students may help them eventually pick up language use on their own when needed (Majlesifard, 1998). However, this type of teaching has led to a situation wherein even the best students who get the highest marks in English tests are not even capable of giving or asking for an address when the need arises. This is evident in the performance of Iranian graduates who had to sit for a placement test at the University of Malaya (a popular destination of Iranian students) before pursuing their post graduate studies in the institution.

1.4.1 Performance of Iranian Students on the University of Malaya Placement Test

The University of Malaya (UM) requires that all students sit for a placement test before enrolling in their graduate program. The test aims to assess the English language proficiency of the prospective graduate students, and place them at the appropriate level in the English language program for international postgraduate students run by the University of Malaya Centre for Continuing Education (UMCCed.). The program consists of three modules: the first two modules are for a period of ten weeks (120 hours) each and the third is for a period of four weeks (50 hours). Candidates need to pass Module 3 to qualify for a certification to enable them to register for a higher degree at the postgraduate level in UM. Only an IELTS overall band score of 6 or a TOEFL score of 550 and above can qualify the candidates to go directly to Module 3.

The annual placement test was recently (January 4, 2010) administered to the international applicants among whom were 50 Iranians seeking to pursue their higher degree at UM. The results of the test for the Iranian applicants were as follows: 18 percent were channeled into Module 1, the large majority (74 percent) into Module 2, and a mere 8 percent into Module 3. This last category of students comprised those who

were relatively proficient in English, but as the results reveal, they were limited in number.

1.4.2 Further Evidence for the English Language Deficiency of Iranian Learners

Two other studies attest to the fact that the standard of English in terms of language use has been deteriorating in Iran. The first study, conducted by the researcher at the Imam Ali Technical College located in Yazd province, Iran examined the English language scores of the applicants participating in the entrance exam of that college over five sequential years (2004-2008). Out of the total number of 2326 candidates who took the exams, 1644 or 70% scored zero.

Table 1.1 below shows the percentage of those who gained poor scores (zero) in the language upon entering the college.

Table 1.1: Poor Performance of Applicants Sitting for the English Language Exam

Year	Number of applicants	English score=zero	
		(N)	Percentile (%)
2004	592	454	76%
2005	607	417	68%
2006	522	430	82%
2007	377	205	54%
2008	228	138	60%

A second study also highlighted a similar situation. It concerned the English language proficiency of university applicants taking the nationwide entrance

examination for Iranian universities during the academic year 1997-1998. The result of this research reveals that although much time had been spent on teaching different aspects of EFL during the six years in school, the desired outcome was still not in the offing. Surprisingly, as stated by Najafi (1997), then the minister of higher education, out of 1,200,000 applicants who participated in the university entrance examination (1997-1998), more than 340,000 received no marks in English course; some even obtained negative points (Iran Newspaper', September 15, 1997). Unfortunately, this scenario is being repeated every year. This indicates that the weaknesses or the problems of Iranian students in terms of learning English is not college bound; it is prevalent throughout the whole country.

In order to overcome the abovementioned problems related to English language proficiency, the Iranian Ministry of Education as well as university professors involved in school curriculum usually work in close collaboration with English teachers and try to produce new teaching materials in tandem with the new theories of teaching and learning. However, the outcome of such collaboration has not been encouraging.

As the teaching/learning issue has still not been properly addressed in the schools, language institutes have been established in Iran as adjuncts to public schools with the aim of overcoming the weaknesses in the system of learning English. This has led to the private language institute administrators hiring language teachers who are preferably native speakers of English, probably because of the perceptions of these institutes that their customers (students) would prefer these teachers; the learners would probably believe that teachers who were native speakers of English could teach the English language more effectively than non-native speakers of the language. This idea has also been ratified by Mahboob (2003) and Celik (2006).

1.5 Teachers' Perceptions of EFL Learners

In an academic sense, students and teachers are two sides of a coin. In the foregoing sections on English education in Iran, some of the disadvantages of Iranian EFL learner population at the school level were discussed. As cited in Eslami- Rasekh and Fatahi (2008, p. 2) "Understanding teachers' perceptions and beliefs is important because teachers, heavily involved in various teaching and learning processes, are practitioners of educational principles and theories" (Jia, Eslami, & Burlbaw, 2006). The result of a study conducted by Maftoon, et al (2010) indicates that Iranian EFL teachers have implicitly accepted that the English proficiency of majority of their EFL learners is not desirable and it is deteriorating year after year. However, it seems that they (Iranian EFL teachers) are not ready to accept that some of the weaknesses of the learners might stem from teachers' poor pedagogical and linguistic competence. Therefore, in what follows, the researcher explains Iranian EFL teachers' tendency to attribute problems leading to failure in ELT to external sources such as poor living conditions, low student motivation, curricular weaknesses, and other similar causes. Over thirty years of teaching English to junior and senior high school students and colleges and teacher education center (TEC), students in different parts of Iran, the researcher believes that EFL teachers tend to put the failure blame on the learners and on the colleagues who dealt with them in earlier stages of schooling. This is evidenced by personal experiences of numerous teacher meetings, tea-break informal chats, and observations of teacher complaints over three decades.

To pursue teachers' perceptions of EFL learners, I have been frequently asking university professors about the reasons behind Iranian EFL learners' low English language proficiency and language achievement. To my confusion and surprise, the common theme in their responses has been, "Teachers at the secondary school level do

not do their work properly.” The situation is reflected when English teachers at secondary schools are asked the same question; they argue that it is not their fault, and claim that the weaknesses of the learners come from the initial stage of the learning process, implying that the English teachers from junior high schools are inadequate in their skills. At the next level the same perception seems to exist. When enquiring about the issue, most guidance school English teachers who teach the beginners claim that the students are not so clever and not motivated enough to understand the English language learning concepts well while participating in English classes. It seems that these excuses are not very constructive. Concrete research-based steps should be taken for the improvement of English language education in the country and the enhancement of learners’ proficiency.

Consequently, one might come to an understanding that some of the problems may come from the weaknesses of the teachers’ linguistic competence (poor knowledge of English and science of teaching) and their dissatisfaction with their status. Of course from the perspectives of living conditions, this is evident from the fact that during the last few years, the instructors have repeatedly gone on strike, claiming that they were not as well-paid as they deserve. Therefore, in the following sections the two critical points, namely Iranian English teachers’ proficiency and their status, will be discussed and scrutinized in turn.

1.6 Overall Status of Iranian English Teachers

1.6.1 English proficiency of Teachers of English in Iran

Concerning the significant role of teachers’ proficiency in English, Eslami-Rasekh and Fatahi (2008 Para:18) state, “Language proficiency constitutes the foundation of the professional confidence of non-native English teachers.” Based on a study, Berry (1990)

arrived at the conclusion that among method of teaching, theory of language teaching and teachers' language proficiency, language improvement was ranked as the most significant. Nevertheless, the results of three studies delineated below indicate that the qualification of Iranian EFL practitioners is a matter of concern.

The weaknesses of Iranian EFL teachers are evident from the outcome of three studies : one conducted by the Ministry of Education via the department of education in Yazd, Iran (1997) and another by Birjandi and Maftoon (2005a) and the third is the study done by Maftoon, et al (2010).

To assess the English language proficiency of secondary school teachers, in April 1997, a valid and reliable English language proficiency test prepared by the Ministry of Education was administered to 68 Iranian high school English teachers (male and female) in Yazd province, Iran. All the teachers held a BA in TEFL, but their performance was most unexpected: only ten of them (14.7 percent) passed the test with moderate results. Sad to say, although these types of tests are repeatedly administered to the English teachers throughout the country, similar results are usually obtained.

A lack of adequate number of qualified English teachers is evident from a non-empirical or exploratory study done by Birjandi and Maftoon (2005b). They show their dissatisfaction when they pose this question: "Have we developed competent teachers, specially trained ones for teaching EFL?" (cited in Maftoon, et al., 2010 para:6).That means the researchers believe that the number of qualified teachers of English is insufficient and till yet authorities in charge have not taken concrete steps for providing qualified teachers.

The third study (which includes a large sample) was conducted throughout the country by Maftoon et al. (2010) in which the status of ELT of Iran was studied from different perspectives. In that study, validated questionnaires were distributed to 1470

senior and junior high school students, their parents, EFL student teachers, along with English teachers to see their views from different dimensions of interest. The researchers arrived at the conclusion that the failure in ELT in Iran is definitely grounded in factors such as teaching quality and teachers' qualification, limited time allocated to English classes as well as materials and assessment. Similarly, their findings also tended to highlight certain inadequacies in teaching and training procedures currently being practiced in teacher education centers. In the course of surveys, the researchers also inquired the perceptions of 61 high-ranking authorities of the Ministry of Education, English teachers, and university professors pertaining to the status of Iranian English teachers wherein they viewed the poor teaching quality and teachers' qualification of EFL teachers. Below, the weaknesses of local English teachers have been graded based on the priority of the findings:

- *Disregarding students' linguistic abilities*
- *Lack of English conversation in classes*
- *Lack of teacher motivation*
- *Low knowledge of teachers*
- *Unfamiliarity of teachers with latest developments in language teaching and educational technologies (Maftoon, et al., 2010, p. 9)*

To solve the problems, some workshops might be held, but the results of these in-service training classes are not very desirable. There appears to be some flaws related to the initial training of the teachers when studying at teaching training colleges before beginning their teaching careers. However, in the study underway the issue is going to be studied from another dimension through a mixed method research design, wherein students performance and the perceptions of other stakeholders (learners, N/NNSETs, and language institute administrators) regarding NSETs and NNSETs will be considered.

1.6.2 Teachers' Job Satisfaction in Iran

Different variables including job satisfaction may affect teachers' job performance which might lead to positive or negative enhancement of the overall English proficiency of the EFL learners indirectly. Bowran and Todd (1999) on the issue of employees and their performance in general state, "Behavioral and social science research shows that job satisfaction and job performance are positively correlated" (cited in Rezaei et al., 2008, p. 432). Similarly, Judge *et al.* (1995) claim that "the most important information regarding an employee in an organization is a validated measure of his or her level of job satisfaction" (quoted in Rezaei et al., 2008, p.431). Robbins (1998) also concluded that "impressive evidence exists concerning the significance of job satisfaction" (*ibid.*). To him, "A satisfied workforce leads to higher productivity because of fewer disruptions such as absenteeism, and departure of good employees"(Loc.cit.).

As cited in Rezaei et al (2008) to examine need gratification that includes job satisfaction, Herzberg et al. (1959) proposed the 'Motivator-Hygiene Theory'. This theory indicates that factors such as payment, recognition, achievement, working conditions and the supervision of the institute will affect the degree of hygiene and motivation of the employees in any institutions. Definitely, teachers and educational setting in Iran and other parts of the world are no exceptions.

Where this study (comparison of N/NNSETs) is concerned, the issue becomes more critical. It is seen throughout the world, as Celik (2006) and Cook (2008) claim, the two groups of the teachers are not treated equally, meaning priorities are usually given to NSETs rather than their non-native counterparts. This indicates that the aforementioned factors enumerated in Herzberg et al s' theory are globally violated (Medgyes, 1994 and Moussu, 2006).

From an Islamic perspective, teaching in general is considered to be a highly respectable profession in Iran; however, from the viewpoint of payment, Iranian teachers are generally paid and respected less than other employees, working in other public or private sectors. For instance, as mentioned before, during 2006 and 2007 teachers repeatedly went on strike to show their dissatisfaction regarding their insufficient or unfair payment. It can be summed up, at this point that non-native English teachers in Iran appear not to be a 'happy' lot. However, whether this unhappiness impacts on their teaching has not been examined. The present study attempts to do so.

All in all, the researcher believes that a better understanding of teachers' job satisfaction and the factors which may affect the teaching-learning procedures are significant points which need further study and consideration. The assumption is that being aware of the effectiveness of factors which influence teachers' career and learners' promotion in terms of linguistic competence and performance may help authorities in charge of education guide teachers' activities in a desired manner. Therefore, educational researchers, if possible, should pay further attention to the status of teachers' job satisfaction as a variable which might affect the result of any related researches. The assumption is that, examining teachers' job satisfaction might help them (the researchers) arrive at reliable and validated results, when interpreting data. Unfortunately, in this study the researcher had no chance to see to what extent teachers' job satisfaction may affect their job performance. It is hoped that in future other researchers will consider the point scientifically.

1.7 N/NNSETs in Iranian English Language Institutes

To compensate for the overall flaws of EFL teaching and learning in Iran, thousands of private and semi-private language institutes mushroomed to fill the vacuum to upgrade the teaching of English alongside public schools. In such institutes, NSETs and NNSETs including non-Iranian English teachers (Indians and others) were and still are teaching EFL. This, to an extent, has resulted in some language institutes being proud of the fact that some of their learners have had a chance to be taught under the supervision of NSET. With regard to this idea, Derivry-Plard (2005, p. 62) contends that “While linguists seem to have abandoned the concept of ‘native speaker’ as being too restrictive and often inadequate, employers within the teaching market seem to promote that very concept of ‘nativeness’ as a commercial argument for excellence.” Some of the language learners even boast that they are being taught English by an NSET (Moussu, 2006). Braine (1999a) argues that NNSETs face discrimination in the Anglophone countries and usually also suffer from this inequality around the globe. This state of affairs might have a negative impact on the outcome of the learners. The issue of discrimination, however, is not the focus of this study, so it will not occupy centre-stage.

1.8 Overview of the Study

In order to scrutinize the issue of N and NNSETs and their impact on Iranian learners, it was decided that focus should be on the oral skills of young Iranian children. For this purpose, six N and/NNSETs as well as 90 newly enrolled female students of an established Language Institute and its two sub-branches located in Yazd province, Iran, were selected. The sample for this experiment comprised Iranian children aged 11-13 who had never been exposed to any English learning program (Chapter 3, cf. 3.8).

In line with the principles of first language acquisition and based on the theory of language underlying the Natural Approach of teaching (Krashen and Terrell, 1983) both groups of teachers were asked to lay emphasis on oral skills, namely listening and speaking, while teaching. Accordingly, the present study focuses on the evaluation of the oral performance of young EFL Iranian learners taught by N/NNSETs. Based on the perspectives of experts in the field, including Yule (1996), learning oral skills can play a crucial role pedagogically and may be considered as a kind of initiator for the overall promotion of the English language proficiency of youths learning EFL. For instance, Wright (1997, p. 49), writing as a professor of economics, notes that “Establishing a specific requirement for skills in oral communication not only develops the ability to speak coherently and persuasively, but also helps students learn course content” (cited in Limbaugh 2006, p. 1). Widdowson (1990) also denotes that a good speaker can be a good reader and one with a good mastery of reading can write well, implying that reading and writing walk hand in hand. This shows that oral skill can be the ‘infrastructure’ for other skills, namely reading and writing. (Please, refer to Chapter Two (cf.2.3.3) for the rationale behind commencement for teaching the oral skill which could enhance the other skills of reading and subsequently writing [the most sophisticated skill of any language]).

In order to identify which of the two groups of teachers (N/NNSETs) help the learners gain better mastery of oral proficiency in English, the researcher considered scrutinizing one out of five tenets from Phillipson’s (1992) theory of Linguistic Imperialism as ‘the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker.’ These tenets (the five tenets) were developed and delivered by the representatives of ‘Uganda Conference’ (cf. 2.3) with the aim of teaching English in the newly independent countries, mainly those located in Africa. The following list summarizes the main tenets of the conference:

- a) *English is best taught monolingually.*
- b) *The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker.*
- c) *The earlier English is taught, the better the results.*
- d) *The more English is taught, the better the results.*
- e) *If other languages are used much, standard of English will drop (Phillipson, 1992, p. 185).*

However, the second tenet (*The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker*) is in the focus of this study and needs to be examined. As stated by Phillipson, “The evidence for tenet or fallacy needs examination” (ibid). Thus, the purpose in this study is to determine which group (NSETs or NNSETs) can be regarded as good teaching models, and ultimately how the quality of the teaching which has deteriorated can be improved.

In addition to questioning why the study has focused on the oral skills, a query may also arise as to why young learners were selected as the sample of the study. The rationale behind the selection of young learners was that the researcher made a decision to follow the naturalistic approach of learning the first language. Additionally, a lot of experts of the field including (Larsen-Freeman and Long (1992) have acknowledged that the sooner the learners start to learn a foreign language, the better the results were likely to be. For further information, please see Chapter Two (cf.2.4.2). Moreover, the justification for the selection of the young was based on the theory of learning a foreign language that has been supported by the proponents of the development of the mental faculties pertaining to language which were related to puberty, lateralization and the critical period hypothesis proposed by Leneberg (1964; 1967). This will be discussed further in Chapter Two (cf. 2.4.1 & 2.4.2). The following section will describe the problem of the study.

1.9 Statement of the Problem

Three problems are of primary concern in this study: the weaknesses of Iranian EFL learners in terms of language use (cf.1.4); the language proficiency and the pedagogical

capabilities of Iranian teachers which have been deteriorating for years; and the controversial issue of N and NNSETs as to which type of teacher is better. During the last few decades, the ethnicity and nationality of English teachers have been hotly debated among EFL learners, parents, teachers, language administrators and authorities in the field. Previous studies on the matter have delineated some significant points both in favor of and against the two groups of teachers. Due to its significance, many experts, (e.g., Amin, 1997; Braine, 1999a; Cook, 1999; Medgyes1994) and others have discussed this issue. According to Waleign (1986, p. 40) , "The concept of native speaker misleadingly implies that a person is thoroughly proficient in his or her language", which is not always the case. Canagarajah (1999a) quoted by Yung (2006, p. 11) argued that "The association of the native speaker with ownership of English and good pedagogy disempowers and marginalizes the non-native speaking teacher." However, the question about which group of teachers may teach well or better has not been answered as yet. Parallel to this line of thought, Celik (2006, p. 1) claims that the question "Is the language best taught by native speakers of the language?" has remained one of the most important queries that have never been settled."

To date, there are no impartial procedures or valid tests to determine whether NSETs or NNSETs make better EFL teachers. Accordingly, in this study the perceptions of learners towards both types of teachers, the self perceptions of the teachers towards each other and the beliefs of some Iranian language institutes will be considered.

As far as the learners' perceptions are concerned, according to Moussu (2006, p. 5) , "Learners are then disappointed, if not upset, to learn their teachers are not native speakers of English or do not look like their ideal native speaker of English." In addition, parents, due to the significant role of English (Crystal 2003), are convinced that their children should learn English. They spend a lot of money and time to find an

optimal or an ideal English teacher who is a native speaker of English (ibid.). Additionally, dissatisfaction exists among many NNSETs are not so satisfied (Celik 2006, p. 1 & 2) because they think that they are paid less and respected less by the administrators and the learners. Moreover, "Private language schools advertise that their teachers are native speaking English teachers to attract learners' and parents' attention to increase their enrolment rates" (Celik, 2006, p. 2). Mahboob (2003), cited in Moussu (2006, p. 4) , found that "59.8% of 118 program administrators used the 'native speaker' criterion as a major decisive factor in hiring ESL teachers."

Considering the aforementioned problems, the researcher deemed it necessary to examine the issue a little further in order to (i) highlight the findings of predecessors, (ii) extend the work of other studies or fill in the gaps left by them, (iii) seek new ideas and innovations, and (iv) pave the way for future researchers to conduct further studies. This also meant enquiring about students' perceptions of NSETs/NNSETs, teachers' self perceptions regarding their weaknesses and strengths and the views of administrators concerning their hiring practices of EFL teachers.

1.10 Purpose of the Study

The first goal of this study is the comparison of the oral performance of young EFL Iranian learners taught by teachers who are 'native' and 'non- native' speakers of English (NSETs and NNSETs). The results can lead to the evaluation of the capability of both types of teachers in the teaching of oral skills to young EFL learners. In other words, this study attempts to see which category of instructors, the NSETs or NNSETs, is better suited to meet the needs and the expectations of the young EFL learners. The second goal of this study is to investigate the learners' attitudes and tendencies towards NSETs and NNSETs, while the third aim is to inquire the self-perceptions of these two groups of teachers as done by some researchers (e.g. , Liu 1999; Moussu, 2006; Reves

& Medgyes, 1994), regarding their weaknesses and strengths. The fourth and final goal of this study is to see whether the tendency of language institute administrators to hire NSETs is logical and acceptable.

This study is especially significant for Iran as it is conducted in this country. Also, due to the fact that the participants are young EFL learners, the results of this study may theoretically and practically help the researcher to fill in the gaps, and extend and verify the previous findings of other researchers in this field, namely Mahboob (2003 & 2004), Liu (1999) and Kramsch, (1995).

The four objectives stated above will be achieved by examining i) the scores of the two groups of learners taught by N and NNSETs; ii) the perceptions of learners as regards their teachers; iii) the self-perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs in relation to their own merits and demerits, and iv) the administrators' beliefs concerning the two groups of teachers. To this end, the following research questions were formulated for the present study:

1. What are the differences in the English language performance (oral scores) of young Iranian learners taught by native and non-native speakers of English?
2. What are the perceptions of EFL learners regarding teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English?
3. What are the self- perceptions of EFL teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English regarding their own weaknesses and strengths?
4. What are the overall beliefs of Iranian school administrators regarding EFL teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English?

Based on the aforementioned questions the following null hypotheses were formulated:

1. There are no significant differences between the scores of Iranian students whose English teachers are native speakers of English versus those who are non-native speakers of English in terms of their (the students') performance in English oral language skills.
2. Learners do not perceive any differences between the types of teachers (native speakers of English versus non-native speakers of English) teaching them English.
3. School administrators see no differences regarding the hiring of EFL teachers who are native and those who are non-native speakers of English.

It should be acknowledged that for research question 3 no parallel statistical hypothesis can be stated since teachers' perceptions regarding their weaknesses and strengths were inquired qualitatively. That is why there are four research questions but three research hypotheses. According to Creswell (2008, p. 139), "in quantitative research, hypotheses are used. In qualitative research, hypotheses are not used; instead, inquirers use only research questions. Because researchers test hypotheses using statistics, and statistics are not used in qualitative research."

To address these issues, an experimental study was set up using a mixed-methods approach combining both quantitative and qualitative techniques of data collection. The quantitative aspect comprised a semi-direct oral examination along with recounting some narratives for the learners, and two types of closed-ended questionnaires taken from Moussu (2006) (Appendices A & C). One of these was administered to the learners and the other to the administrators in order to study the attitudes to and

perceptions of both categories of respondents with regard to NSETs and NNSETs. Qualitative data was elicited via an open-ended questionnaire (Please, see Appendix B) which was distributed to both types of teachers (NSETs and NNSETs). The characteristics of the questionnaires will be discussed further in Chapter 3 (cf. 3.13).

1.11 Significance of the Study

As noted by contemporary researchers, including Crystal (2003); Mahboob (2003); Celik (2006) and Moussu (2006), the issue of N/NNSETs has globally been a matter of concern among learners, parents and administrators. In addition, the question which among the two groups (N/NNSETs) teach better has been unanswered yet (Celik, 2006). It has also been a subject of debate among researchers in Iran such as Foster and Tavakoli (2009) and Tavkoli (2011). Of course, in the context of Iran, the issue (N or NNSETs) has had ups and downs and to some extent, in this study, NSETs have been included as a tool of comparison with the NNSETs so that the advantages and/or disadvantages of the NNSETs (Iranian English teachers) might be recognized (cf.1.3.2). As a result, this study might have both practical and theoretical contributions. Primarily, the results of this study may be useful to practitioners, administrators, and private language institutes for making necessary changes in the employment of EFL teachers. Moreover, based on the results, the parties involved in the teaching and training of EFL teachers can provide better, more informed services. Thus, improving the competency of teachers who play a crucial role in helping the learners towards better and more effective acquisition of the language might become more probable. On the other hand, some of the findings may theoretically support or contradict previous findings and even open up new vistas for other researchers to extend the study further. From a scientific perspective, this study may result in some significant points which can be borne in mind during future research.

Besides that, the findings of this research would reveal the expectations of the learners and administrators towards NSETs and NNSETs and provide insights related to the perceptions of the latter towards their native counterparts. In short, considering the advantages mentioned above, “doing the research related to the ‘nativeness’ or ‘non-nativeness’ of English teachers and sharing the results with language school administrators would be very beneficial for qualified English teachers to be employed and for ESL/EFL students to be taught by qualified teachers” (Moussu, 2006, p. 13).

1.12 Scope and Limitations

The study has been limited in terms of space, time, gender, and sample size of the participants to cover the scope determined and to maintain the validity and reliability of the experiment. The main reason for the selection of the language institute and its two sub- branches as the study site is due to the homogeneity of the residents living there. Besides, the experimental study was conducted during the summer holidays, and that too only in the mornings. Due to the requests of the school authorities and students’ parents, and following the rules of convenience or non-probability sampling proposed by Creswell (2008), only young female EFL learners were studied. It must be acknowledged that the selection of sample from a geographically limited area might be considered to be a limitation of the research as the results of this study cannot be generalized to the larger population of the whole country. To have an overall view of the study , the outline of the study has been presented as below.

1.13 Outline of the Study

This study consists of eight chapters:

Chapter one presents a general overview of the subject, while Chapter Two reviews the literature pertinent to the study. The methodology is presented in the third chapter.

Chapters Four to Seven are devoted to the results and discussion related to answering the four research questions of the study. Chapter Eight concludes the study, discusses the implications and presents suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

“Language professionals often take it for granted that the only appropriate models of a language’s use come from its native speakers” (Cook, 1999, p. 185). Linguists mostly rely on the intuition of a native speaker for gathering data and for acting as a model for criteria of measurement. For instance, Chomsky (1965) , says, "native/fluent speakers can purely by intuition decide that certain sentences are well-formed/grammatical and that others are ill-formed/ungrammatical” (cited in Suwanarak, 2008, p. 13). Suwanarak (2008, p. 13) says that “This reality of the intuitive judgment of the native/fluent speaker lies at the very heart of the Chomskyan analysis of the sentence". Similarly, there are non-native speaking English teachers (NNSETs) with a tendency to take native speaking English teachers (NSETs) as models in the hope that their (the NNSETs’) second or foreign language learners imitate them. In contrast with this line of thought, Cook (1999,p. 185) indicates that “second language users are not failed native speakers; they are, rather, multi-competent language users, not deficient native speakers”. These opposing views have resulted in a dilemma among EFL/ESL learners, teachers/practitioners and language institute administrators.

As a case in point, believing that NSETs have the ownership of the target language and are good language users has had the effect of weakening and marginalizing the NNSETs. In short, regarding the overall controversial issues of NSETs /NNSETs and the parties involved, Yung (2006, p. 2) makes an interesting point:

ESL students, naively buying into the native speaker fallacy (Phillipson1992), sometimes have reservations and concerns about being taught English by a

nonnative speaker of the language (Liu1999), and these nonnative English-speaking professionals have experienced undue discrimination in the hiring practices (Braine, 1999a). Furthermore, according to Davies (2003), both students and administrators appeared to have accepted the myth of the idealized native speaker and the negative stereotype of the nonnative speaker, putting the nonnative speaking teacher at a disadvantage in terms of recognition and employment.

Linguistically, structuralists have laid emphasis on the active role of teachers. They believe that the mind as a tabula rasa has little role in the process of learning. Accordingly, they claim that language learning is a kind of habit formation and whatever is taught to the learners should be perfect and native-like. This viewpoint implicitly gives priority to the native speaking English teachers, indicating that for getting better results, teaching should be accomplished by native speakers rather than their non-native counterparts; if not, the incorrect forms taught by NNSETs may implant themselves in the learners' minds and cannot be eradicated.

During World War II, there was an urgent need for the armed forces coming from different linguistic backgrounds to learn some conversational forms of languages such as French, German, Japanese, Malay and Russian to make them effective communicators. Therefore, as Richards and Rodgers (1990) declare, upon the entry of the United States into World War II, the US Government set up a special language teaching program called 'Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP)'. Consequently, this program under the name of 'Army Method' made native speaking teachers of different languages follow specific (conversational) teaching strategies for teaching the learners, mainly soldiers, the languages needed. This project, based on which the 'Audio Lingual Approach' came into vogue, was carried out and it was moderately successful, especially for the crash courses during the period of war.

However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, during the war and the first half of the twentieth century, very few studies were conducted to compare and contrast types of teachers to see the effectiveness of native speaking and non-native speaking teachers

for teaching foreign languages. During this era, the active roles of native speaking teachers were most important. Nevertheless, today the situation has changed dramatically. Over one billion people around the globe are using formal English and they are not aware of the informal varieties of English used by native speakers; some may even not have a chance to see or talk to native speakers during their life time, and yet they can successfully achieve their goals. This shows that in reality the ethnicity or nationality of the English teachers or English users are not very significant; it is the qualifications of the teachers which have the last word.

From the 1950s onwards, teaching foreign languages became more scientific. This led to the emergence of new approaches and methods of teaching, and claiming that one was a native speaker of a language was not sufficient for teaching the language (Moussu, 2006); rather, what was more important was that the teacher, either native or non-native, should be well-trained (TESOL professionals, 1992, and 2006). Thus, it appears that it is not advisable to resort to any theory without examining it thoroughly. For instance, whatever Chomsky and his followers have taken into account has linguistic value but not a pedagogical one. Chomsky (1966) adopted a linguistic stance when attacking the foundation of behaviorism and claiming that language was not a habit structure. He contended that “Ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation and formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy” (p.153). He took a biological approach to language acquisition by suggesting that language is innate and that a child is born with language, and advocated that this ability be activated through the environment. Based on this line of thought, it might be implied that Chomsky had a tendency to stand on “the nature side of the nature-nurture (a term coined by the English Victorian polymath, Francis Galton, regarding the influence of heredity and environment) debate in language” (Chomsky 1966, p. 153). The gist of the argument above is that due to the

acceptability or unacceptability of utterances, a native speaker can linguistically be considered as a model of language use, but from the viewpoint of teaching or pedagogy he or she may not be the best choice.

Having delineated the definition of competence, Chomsky (1957, p. 48) referred to the native speaker as an “idealized speaker-hearer in a homogeneous society”. Despite the fact that Chomsky reiterated that his definition of native speaker is the subject matter of linguistics and has nothing to do with the notion of teaching, some administrators and private language institutes seem to have unintentionally or perhaps mistakenly stuck to Chomsky's idea and given priority to NSETs rather than their non-native counterparts. To be fair, as long as this line of thought has not been scientifically proven, there is no rationality behind giving priority to the former (NSETs). Obviously, his (Chomsky's) definition of native speaker is highly abstract; perhaps as in reality it is virtually impossible to find an idealized native speaker/hearer or a homogeneous society.

Towards the end of the 1970s other European applied linguists, such as Hymes (1964), Halliday (1970) and Widdowson (1990), believing that Chomsky's definition of linguistic competence was insufficient, emphasized another fundamental dimension of language, that is, its functional and communicative potential. Pedagogically, they saw the need to shift their focus from pure linguistic competence or mere mastery of structures to communicative competence and performance. “Scholars who advocated this view of language, such as Candlin (1976), drew on the work of British functional linguists (e.g., Firth, 1957) , and on American work in sociolinguistics (Gumperz, and Hymes 1972; Labov, 1969) as well as work in philosophy” (Austin, 1962 Searle, 1976) cited in Richards & Rodgers (1990, p. 64). Furthermore, the history of language teaching, as Kely (1969) quoted in Stern (1991, p. 2) has shown, "A great deal of

theorizing, experimentation, innovation debate and controversy has occurred in the hope of improving the practice and of making language teaching more manageable, more effective, and more interesting.” All the viewpoints presented in this preliminary discussion show that language teaching is a highly complex phenomenon, as is exploration into it. As such, attempts to obtain quick answers and solutions will be futile.

In this chapter the researcher will review previous research and the work done in the domain of teacher types, namely NSETs/NNSETs, and relate past and present ideas to contribute to improvements in language teaching and learning. To do this, developments in the teaching of English from its infancy to the present moment as delineated by Yung (2006) will first be described briefly. Second, theoretical frameworks in EFL/ESL teaching and research in the field, the spread of English, target language and cultural adaptation will be discussed. This will be followed by a delineation of the concepts of Standard English, native speaker and language teaching. Part four will touch upon other related issues from the viewpoints of sociolinguistics, differences between N/NNSETs, and L1 acquisition and L2 learning. The chapter will conclude with a summary of the whole discussion.

2.2 Historical Perspective of NSETs and/or NNSETs

Through the study of the historical perspectives (cf.1.3.2) of foreign language teaching in general and teaching English in particular, enough information and experience can be gained to select better-qualified teachers, regardless of whether they are NSETs/NNSETs, and appropriate strategies of teaching based on our educational settings. Stern (1991, p. 76) believes that "knowing the historical context is helpful to an understanding of language teaching theories.” Based on this assumption, having an

overall knowledge of the history of teaching foreign languages including teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) will be illuminating for this study.

According to Kelly (1969, p. 363), “the schema of the evolution of second language teaching and similarly language teaching in European civilization can be approximately divided into five periods: [1] the classical period; [2] the middle ages; [3] renaissance; [4] the age of reason; and [5] the modern period” (cited in Stern1991: 81-82). However, due to the nature of this study, the researcher deemed it necessary to present a new division, as follows: [1] the middle ages; [2] the colonization era; and [3] the modern period. However, it must be cautioned that these historical periods are distinct more on paper than in reality, thus for reasons of pragmatics, and for consideration of linguistic, or rather pedagogical developments, it would be logical to take them as an entity, beginning from the 11th century and stretching for a period of ten centuries.

At the advent of the eleventh century, from the political, social, and economic viewpoints, the British were witness to big changes happening in Britain due to the invasion of Normans which have had great effects on the lives of the British, including their language. As the French troops headed by William the Conqueror invaded the island, Britain became trilingual at least for three hundred years or more; French became the language of commerce, prestige and nobility, Latin, of education and science and English, the language of the masses. As a result of these changes, different types of language teachers and teaching methods began to emerge; for instance, native speaking French taught French to the British, and vice versa. With the passage of time, as English spread as a means of communication, the teaching of French as a second language became significant, and the hiring of native speaking French teachers became common in British society. This trend continued even after France lost its power over

Britain, not because of political issues, but because of the wide range of emigrants who entered Britain from all around Europe.

During the Colonization era, the British Empire, due to political, cultural and commercial issues, and to keep its colonial power safe, tried to enhance teaching English to those who were dealing with the colonizers. In order to facilitate the spread of its colonial heritage, it was necessary for the British to use the English language as a means to an end: thousands of NSETs were sent to different parts of the world, mainly to the colonized nations. This scenario existed till the end of the Second World War. Throughout the first two periods (the middle ages and the colonization era), less attention was paid to the qualifications of the teachers. Priority was usually given to the instructors (NSETs) born in an Anglophone country in the belief that the “ideal teacher of English is the native speaker” (Makerere report 1961, p. 2 cited in Phillipson, 1992:185) (cf.2.3).

In the course of time, with the beginning of the second half of the 20th century, the world was witness to rapid changes in terms of population and innovation in industry, science and the widespread use of the internet. Meanwhile, English as a worldwide means of communication was taught and learned globally. This led to a situation in which more than 95 percent of the English teachers were selected from among non-native speakers of English (Celik 2006). Despite the fact that NNSETs make up the majority of English language teachers, in some educational settings, there are numerous cases in which local English teachers (NNSETs) are faced with some kind of discrimination including lower salaries and unfair hiring practices (Celik 2006 & Moussu, 2006) in comparison with their native counterparts. To observe the wants and wishes of the learners and parents, and in the hope of attracting more customers, private language institute administrators try to give priority to the NSETs rather than their non-

native counterparts when hiring teachers or instructors. To exemplify the point, Moussu (2006, p. 1) says:

On October 9, 2004, I took a quick look at the first ten job offers (on a list of 401 offers) on Dave's ESL Cafe, (<http://www.eslcafe.com/joblist/>) a website growing in size and popularity, offering a wide range of information to ESL and English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers and students. That day, seven of ten first job offers, each seen more than 200 times in two days, specifically stated that the applicants had to be native speakers (NSs) of English.

The situations outlined above have resulted in the hiring of thousands of NSETs of different ethnicities to teach English to EFL/ESL learners. Unfortunately, the question as to which of the two groups, namely NSETs /NNSETs, teaches better has still been left unanswered, and remains a controversial issue among the learners, parents and the parties involved, thus calling for further study and clarification into the matter.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

This section discusses the theories which provide the underlying structure for this research. According to Creswell (2008, p. 132) “A theory can be seen as a bridge explaining the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.” This is illustrated in the following figure (Figure 2.1):

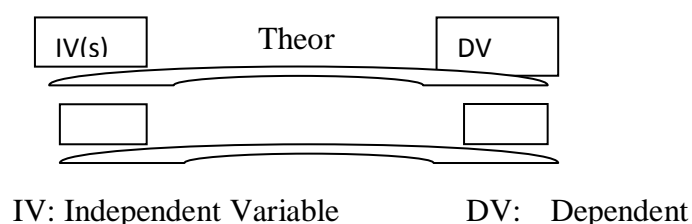


Figure 2.1: Theory as Interface between Independent and Dependent Variable(s) (Adopted from Creswell, (2008, p. 132))

Before touching upon any theories or conceptual or theoretical framework, it is worth noting that this study consists of two phases: experimental phase and survey part. Consequently, two particular theoretical perspectives were needed to raise the research

questions and show what the significant issues are and how they are related to the problems being studied. Accordingly, two lines of thoughts are pursued to cover the theoretical framework – the first is related to research question one and the second one taps the next set of three research questions. The first has been grounded in the advocacy of linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1992), that is, the concepts of hypothetical superiorities of England and its colonial heritage in terms of linguistic notions. As stated by Phillipson (1992), according to the British colonists, English native speakers were rendered ideal to serve as teachers of English as a second/foreign language during the twentieth century. This idea will be tested based on the comparison of the oral scores of the learners taught by N & NNSETs at the end of the experiment. The second set of theoretical ideas and concepts informing the present study are drawn from the idea of ‘World Englishes’ by Kachru (1985) and ‘English as a Global Language’ (Crystal, 2003). These two dimensions will be discussed in the following section.

Phase 1:

The theoretical framework underlying the methodology of phase one (the experimental phase) as mentioned earlier is the theory of linguistic imperialism presented by Phillipson (1992) along with the application of “Natural Approach” proposed by Krashen and Terrell in 1983, and modified later in 1999. The approach consists of two theories, namely theory of language and that of learning. As far as the former is concerned, the approach is based on the communicative view of language, whereas the latter is rooted in the acquisition/learning hypothesis and the natural order hypothesis (Richards and Rodgers, 1990). The objectives of this approach are to help beginners learn the target language via social interaction, thus it supports the notion that communicative language teaching should be adopted as being an effective

methodology. It should be acknowledged that the 'Natural Approach, as Krashen and Terrell (1983) declare, has no techniques of its own . To clarify the point further, Richards and Rodgers (1990, p. 136) denote, "Techniques recommended by Krashen and Terrell are often borrowed from other methods and adapted to meet the requirements of the 'Natural Approach theory". These include command-based actions from total physical response (TPR), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task Based (TB) to complete a pedagogical task which has been emphasized. Accordingly, the pedagogical design used in the experimental phase of the study was an eclectic one informed mainly by the principles of the Natural Approach. Krashen and Terrell (1983) 'the founders of the Natural Approach' see communication as the primary function of language and denote that this approach "is for beginners and is designed to help them become intermediates" (Richards and Rodgers, 1990 p.134). Therefore, to account for the characteristics of the young sample and the objectives of study, mainly the natural approach was used because it emphasizes teaching EFL to beginners communicatively.

Consequently, in the current study, the instructors were recommended to use an eclectic combination of techniques with a focus on the techniques recommended in the 'Natural Approach' to language teaching. However, from one perspective, the eclectic method used in this study did not include a very wide selection of teaching techniques from many methods of teaching namely (i) GTM (ii) Situational language teaching (iii) Direct method (iv) Audio lingual method (v) Suggestopedia or (vi), the Silent way. The informed eclectic method in this study was the eclecticism practiced in the choice of techniques in the Natural Approach of teaching. From another perspective, on the site of '9th Asia TEFL Conference, held in Hotel Seoul, Korea (July 27-29, 2011), Professor Littlewood in his personal communication with the author of this study considered the 'Natural Approach of teaching' to be equal with the strong version of 'Communicative

Language teaching'. Be that as it may, this framework or strategy of teaching (the Natural Approach of teaching) was adopted due to the subject matter of teaching, namely teaching the oral skills to the young Iranian EFL learners.

Phase two:

The theoretical framework of the second phase (survey part), as mentioned earlier, is informed by the concepts of 'World Englishes' (Kachru 1985) and 'English as a Global Language' (Crystal, 2003). It is based on these that the aforementioned tenet or principle of the Commonwealth Conference (cf.1.8) i.e., "The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker" will be tested through the perceptions of stakeholders - learners, teachers and administrators. In other words, the perceptions of the participants might be constructive while testifying the aforementioned tenet in the context of teaching English as an international language.

Phillipson (1992, p. 183) explains the significance of the Uganda Conference (1961):

The key conference which decided on priorities for ELT in the newly independent countries was the Commonwealth Conference on the teaching of English as a second language, held at Makerere, Uganda, in 1961. It brought together representatives of 23 countries who were assumed to have ELT aid needs, and expected support from Britain. The doctrine that was to underlie ELT work was enshrined at Makerere in a number of tenets. The tenets represent a pre-theoretical distillation of the worldwide grassroots EL teaching experience that was assembled at Makerere.

The key tenets formulated in that conference has been enumerated before. For further information, please see Chapter One (cf. 1.8).

The first two tenets ("English is best taught monolingually" and "The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker") have been and are still accepted widely by learners, parents as well as private language administrators (Crystal, 2003 and Moussu, 2006) . The third tenet ("The earlier English is taught, the better the results") reminds the researcher of the "Critical Period Hypothesis" proposed by Leneberg (1964) regarding the optimal

age for language learning. All in all, in this study the second tenet will be tested experimentally and via exploration.

In relation to the framework of the second phase of this study, Graddol (2006, p. 87) states, “Teaching and learning English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) is probably the most radical and controversial approach to emerge in recent years. It squarely addresses some of the issues which global English raises.” Consequently, the current debates on the role of English as an international language and the varieties of Englishes will form the theoretical framework pertaining to the second phase of study.

According to Graddol (2006, p. 110), “Global English has led to a crisis of terminology. The distinction between ‘native speaker’, second language speaker, and foreign language user has become blurred.” Kachru (1985) has also classified the overall speakers of English into three concentric circles – inner, outer and expanding circles as illustrated in Figure 2.2 below. It should be acknowledged that the numbers appearing in the following concentric circles are on a scale of 1000,000. For instance, ‘320’ represents 320,000,000 speakers of the English language.

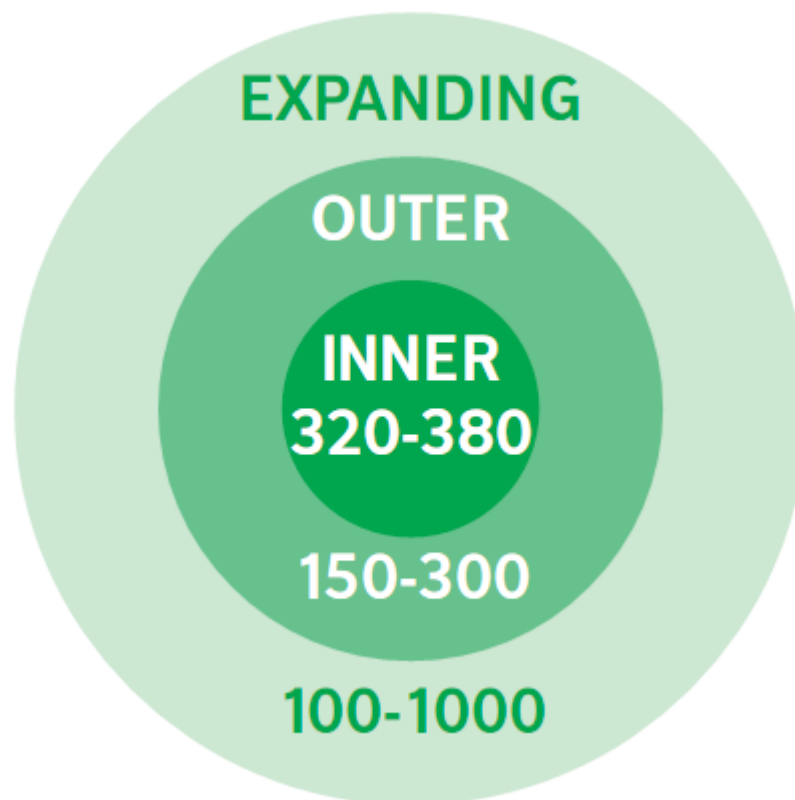


Figure 2.2: The 3 Circles of English as Conceptualized by Kachru (1985).
(Adopted from Graddol, (2006, p. 109)).

According to Kachru, the inner circle is the small area representing the native speaker with varieties of Englishes. To him, as it is implied, the issue of native speaker is a matter of concern. The next two ever- increasing circles attributed to ESL and EFL speakers of English respectively living outside the Anglophone countries. These speakers, who use the language internationally, have their own Englishes. Of course, to the researcher, Kachru's classification of speakers of English (the three concentric circles) is not so precise and it is a matter for debate. At least, it cannot cover the huge number of emigrants living in the Anglophone countries. They are living inside the inner circle, whereas it is very difficult to consider these emigrants as native speakers of English. The same is true with the other circles, namely outer circle and the expanding one. Be that as it may, when taking English as a lingua franca, it is quite impossible to

separate the three types of English speakers as native, second or foreign language speakers. Consequently, due to the important role of English as a global language (Crystal 2003), and in parallel with Graddol's (2006) school of thought, no one can presently assume any nations of the world to be the owner or the ideal speaker of English. Regarding the future of English as a global language, Crystal (2003, p. 172) claims:

Language is an immensely democratizing institution. To have learned a language is immediately to have rights in it. You may add to it, modify it, play with it, create in it, and ignore bits of it, as you will. And it is just as likely that the course of the English language is going to be influenced by those who speak it as a second or foreign language as by those who speak it as a mother-tongue.

All these presuppositions indicate that so many linguists and applied linguists (e.g., Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006; and Kachru, 1985) have given equal rights to all speakers of English which is in sharp contrast to some beliefs of the pioneering linguists of the past including the representatives who formulated the tenets of the Uganda Conference. In other words, these arguments seem to be in complete contradiction with the tenet issued by the participants of the Uganda Conference, that is "the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker". However, scientifically the tenets presented in the aforementioned conference can neither be accepted nor rejected until they are examined thoroughly. Accordingly, the aforementioned tenet might be scrutinized in relation to the commonly accepted theory of global English and world of Englishes in the context of Iran via inquiring the perceptions of EFL learners, teachers and administrators in the light of current theories and knowledge.

The rationale for testing the tenet was to see whether (i) the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker; (ii) whether types of teachers influence the dependent variable, namely, the learners' language performance. Additionally, the researcher assumed that testing the principle(s) might reveal the effects of types of teachers (NSETs /NNSETs)

on learners' perceptions of them (NSETs /NNSETs) ; teacher's self-perceptions; and the ideas and beliefs of language institute administrators towards the hiring practices with regard to teachers.

To summarize, the theoretical frameworks for the experimental phase of the study (the theory of Linguistic Imperialism) and the survey phase (English as an International Language) guide the research in the testing of the tenet mentioned above and help the researcher answer the research questions (research question 1 for the experimental phase and research questions 2, 3 and 4 for the survey phase of the study). Phase one which is experimental in type deals with the package of independent variables (treatment variables), and dependent variable (learners' performances) targeted in the first research question (See Chapter 2, cf.2.4.4). The second phase deals with the learners' perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs, teachers' self-perceptions regarding their weaknesses and strengths, and language administrators' perceptions of the teacher hiring practices. These variables are addressed in research questions 2, 3, and 4, respectively.

Having discussed the theories and principle underlying the theoretical frameworks of this study, what follows is a description of the process of operationalisation of the variables. Furthermore, since some significant concepts or factors including the terms 'native speaker', 'oral skills', 'strategy of teaching', 'variables involved' as well as the 'learners', 'teachers', and 'language institute administrators' perceptions' towards the two groups of teachers are key terms in the structural framework of the study, they will be clarified.

2.3.1 Native Speaker- a Reality or a Myth

Regarding the ideal teacher of English, many researchers, including Paikeday (1985), Derivry-Plard (2005) and Medgyes (1992 ; 1994 & 2000) have empirically sought for the definition of ‘the ideal English teacher’, only to discover that the notion is purely imaginary. For instance, Paikeday (1985), after conducting a survey by sending out a memo entitled “Has anyone met a native speaker?” to dozens of distinguished figures including linguists, lexicographers, philosophers, and psychologists, arrived at the conclusion that the concept of native speaker “is a fuzzy notion” (p.393). Concerning the differences between NSETs and NNSETs, he said, “I would like to call the distinction between native and non-native speaker a linguistic apartheid” (ibid.). This shows that Paikeday rejected the idea of Chomsky (1957) who considered the native speaker as being the criteria of the acceptability of utterances when he states “The sentence generated will have to be acceptable to the native speaker” (p.84). Moreover, Paikeday believes that the tenets of the Uganda Conference mentioned earlier were nothing more than a myth.

In contrast with Paikeday (1985), Medgyes (1994) is not ready to terminate the issue of ideal NSETs or ideal NNSETs; therefore, he distinguishes the ideal teacher of English based on some terms and conditions, meaning after years of studying the notion of NSETs and/or NNSETs, Medgyes, (1994) stands somewhere in-between along the continuum. He says that the ideal NSET is one who knows the mother tongue of the EFL learners, and the ideal NNSET is one who is a near-native speaker in terms of knowing the target language. The researcher himself thinks that it is impossible to find an ideal teacher from either the NSETs or NNSETs, because both groups of English teachers have some merits and demerits, and one might be more successful in teaching

one aspect of language than the other, and vice versa; however, by cooperating with one another, the weaknesses of one may be compensated by the strengths of the other.

2.3.2 Definition of Native Speaker

To understand why there is a lot of controversy over hiring NSETS and NNSETs, it is necessary to examine the contradictory definitions of the term 'native speaker'. According to Graddol (2006, p. 110), as mentioned before, "Global English has led to a crisis of terminology. The distinction between 'native speaker', 'second language speaker' and 'foreign language user' has become blurred." Another definition of the term 'native speaker' is that of Davies' (2003, p. 18), who declares, "Native Speaker means having language X as one's mother tongue, as one's first language, as one's dominant language, as one's home language". Yet a third definition has been presented by Crystal (2003): he adheres, to some extent, to the notion of 'intuitions of native speaker' - the term that Chomsky has taken as the criteria of judgment related to the acceptability or unacceptability of English utterances - and defines the term (NS) in the following way:

A term (Native speaker) used in linguistics to refer to someone for whom a particular language is a first or mother tongue. The implication is that this native language, having been acquired naturally during childhood, is the one about which a speaker will have the most reliable intuitions and whose judgments about the way language is used can therefore be trusted (Crystal 2003, p. 308).

But consider the following scenario: a child who was born in Iran is adopted by an American family at the age of three or four. What would his mother tongue be when he is fifteen years old - Persian or English? The child (a teenager now) would be extremely proficient in English. Is he/she the native speaker of English or Persian? The issue, however, is that Crystal's definition of NS is not comprehensive enough to account for such anomalies.

However, the fourth definition of ‘native speaker’ is that of Kramsch’s (1995), who contradicts Crystals’ definition, claiming:

It is not enough to have intuitions about grammaticality and linguistic acceptability and to be able to communicate fluently and with full competence; one must also be recognized as a native speaker by the relevant speech community (363).

The fifth and final definition mentioned here comes from Soriano (2004), who believes that native speakers are those who use the target language from birth. The question here is: “What about those born in bilingual families? Which of the two languages is their mother tongue? Which language are they the native speakers of?”

As is obvious, none of these definitions are sufficiently comprehensive to encompass all the characteristics of an imaginary native speaker. In addition, like the concept of ‘language’, the term ‘native speaker’ together with his or her characteristics appears to be quite controversial. This state of affairs is probably partly due to the existence of many varieties of Englishes. All versions of Englishes may be partially different from one another phonologically, lexically, orthographically, and even syntactically, but linguistically they are called English or varieties of English. Take for instance, American English (Am E) and British English (Br E) pronunciation and consider different pronunciation of the words “last- /læst, lɑst/ ; “fast-/fæst, fɑst/” or “schedule- /skedju:l, ʃedju:l/” or lexically “elevator” and “lift”, “drug store” , “pharmacy” (Am E) and “chemist’s” (Br E) etc. Furthermore, differences are apparent, in terms of spelling, for instance the word “color” (Am E) and colour (Br E). Syntactically many examples are prevalent: “gotten=AmE, got= BrE”. The following cases are good examples of lexico-grammatical variation, as Crystal (2003:151) points out, “for example, older semi-modals (e.g. *have to, be going to*) are noted to be considerably more common in Am E, whereas recent semi-modals (e.g. *had better, have got to*) are more common by far in Br E.”

If that is the case, then a person may be the native speaker of, for instance, American English, but he or she cannot be the native speaker of other varieties of Englishes such as British, Canadian or Australian English. This may put the notion of native speaker of English into question.

So far, we have been discussing the dichotomy of NSETs and NNSETs. Given the on-going debate over native or non-native speakers of English, a third option emerged, an idea which has put the existence of native speaker into doubt. Paikeday (1985) in his two controversial works entitled “May I Kill the Native Speaker?” and “The Native Speaker is Dead” implies that there is little homogeneity for the definition of native speakers since, as mentioned earlier, there are different varieties of Englishes among Anglophone countries. Also, within the borderlines of each country there are numerous different dialects which may be controversial for the experts of the field, making the definition of native speaker harder. Consequently, according to Paikeday, it is very difficult to make any decisions regarding the definition of ‘native speaker’; to him, there is no model of a native speaker that can be used for pedagogical purposes.

Paikeday’s idea is quite in congruence with Temperely’s (1984), who believes that it is impossible to attach the label ‘native speaker’ to anyone when the language (English), is spoken globally by nearly one and a half billion speakers; the definition for ‘native speaker’ becomes vague when two native speakers pronounce a single word differently. However, due to the complexity of the term ‘NSETs /NNSETs’, and because it is still a controversial subject among students, learners, teachers and administrators, the term is used throughout this dissertation. If, pedagogically, there is lack of certainty as to who would be the model of a native speaker, then presumably the concept of ‘Standard English’ may be beneficial and can be considered as a criterion of measurement for the

appropriate or ideal teacher. To address this issue the term 'Standard English' has to be closely scrutinized (See section 2.8).

2.3.3 Rationale for Teaching of Oral Skills

In order to address the first objective of the study, i.e. to see which category of teachers (NSETs or NNSETs) make better instructors, a comparison of the performance of young EFL learners taught by both these categories of teachers was deemed to be appropriate. And the particular skill chosen to compare the performances of the learners was the oral skill. There were three reasons for the selection of the teaching of oral skills as part of the experimental aspect of this research. Firstly, although it is commonly accepted that most languages consist of four main skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing, studies have shown that oral language skills (including listening comprehension and oral vocabulary) are strong predictors of reading comprehension (Biemiller 2003; Nation & Snowling, 2004; Proctor, 2005). For instance, if children lack listening comprehension and oral skills, they are less likely to understand what they read. Because the lexicon (i.e., vocabulary) and syntax (i.e., grammar) are shared between oral and written language skills, meaning a close relationship exists among the skills (Sticht & James, 1984). Based on the assumption that oral skills might play a significant role in learning reading and writing skills, the researcher laid emphasis on the natural approach proposed by Krashen and Terrell (1983), which is also very similar to Asher's Total Physical Response (TPR) method in terms of advocating the need for a silent phase, and waiting for spoken production to appear afterwards.

Secondly, the teaching of oral skills was selected as the subject of research since speech is prior to reading and writing, both historically and from the viewpoint of language learning. "Historically, we do not know how language originated. However,

we do know that spoken language was developed well before written language” (Yule, 1996, p. 1). Additionally, speech as a universal phenomenon is different from writing, though the two are considered as related language systems. And “writing which is based on some types of alphabetic script can only be traced back to inscriptions dated around 3000 years ago” (ibid., p.9). It is also well-known that a new-born child only begins to babble after a long time practicing listening to the sounds that surround him; generally, it takes four years or more before the child can learn how to read or write. Accordingly, listening is not only considered as the base of speaking but also, as mentioned earlier, has complete interaction with reading, which may lead to successful writing. Pedagogically, in all societies, children start to practice writing when they have mastered their own language, especially in speech. And this is due to the fact that writing as a skill is the most sophisticated, and stands at the extreme end of the continuum of language acquisition.

The third reason for selecting the teaching of oral skills was that the subject matter of speech is sound (phonemes), whereas in most languages letters of the alphabet are used to represent words. Interestingly, there is little similarity between sounds and orthographic representation. In fact, these two are neither one to one, nor are they in complementary relationship. For instance, one sound may be represented by different orthographic symbols (for example, /f/ in the words: floor, physics, and enough) and one letter may play different roles phonologically (for example, 'all', 'day', 'man', 'woman' and 'are'). Orthographically, the letter 'a' has been used in all. However, phonologically, this letter plays different roles. Besides that, there are some letters which are included in the written form of the words (for instance, the initial letters of the following words, know, psychology and write) which, phonologically, are not pronounced at all. Experience has shown that if learners begin to learn a language by writing the words, they may have a tendency to mispronounce them later, or write the

words mistakenly as they hear them. To prevent such kinds of interferences of writing in the pronunciation of words, the researcher thinks that oral skills should be learnt first; this would allow the learners to recognize the differences between writing and speech which would become apparent later. However, this does not imply that the written form of the language will be ignored; it just means that based on the assumption that learners who start learning a foreign language with listening and speaking may improve in terms of pronunciation, teaching and learning the two other skills (namely, reading and writing) will just be postponed for a while. This argument can be concluded by the words of Shaw (1999) who echoes Smith's (1997) sentiments: "Letting students speak on different topics not only raises their presentation consciousness and skills, but also reinforces their mastery of material" (p. 155).

2.4 Teaching Strategies

In the previous section (cf.2.3.), under the title of theoretical framework and theories of learning, it was assumed that children generally learn tangible phenomena better than abstract ones. Because of this, at least for the first three weeks, it was suggested that the instructors selected for the study follow the TPR teaching methodology in their treatment in order to reduce stress on learners studying English as a foreign language. The main teaching device was the use of commands through which the teacher directed student behavior. Meaning was taught through action. Asher, 'the founder of TPR', sees "successful second language learning as a parallel process to the child's first language acquisition" (cited in Richards & Rodgers 1990, p. 87). To support his ideas, he (Asher) claimed that "Speech directed to young children consists primarily of commands, which children respond to physically before they begin to produce verbal responses" (ibid.). This trend should continue up to the time the learners gain a kind of basic familiarity

with the sound system of the target language; only then should there be a shift towards the communicative approach to teaching and learning.

Since from the perspective of age, the young foreign language learners of this study were within the age range of puberty, and as it is commonly accepted children learn a foreign language at a faster pace than adults, it is worth looking at the issue biologically to rationalize the sequence of learning foreign language skills and the selection of young EFL learners.

2.4.1 Learners' Bio-Program and Sequence of Learning

New methods of teaching foreign languages such as TPR and the 'Natural Method' were founded on the assumption that language is pre-programmed at the time of birth (Chomsky1957). The followers of TPR, in general, and its founder Asher, in particular, suggested that children have the biological capacity to learn a second or foreign language through the process of commanding and action. Asher (1977, p. 4) sees three processes as being central:

- *Children develop listening competence before they develop the ability to speak.*
- *Children's ability in listening comprehension is acquired because children are required to respond physically to spoken language in the form of parental commands.*
- *Once a foundation in listening comprehension has been established, speech evolves naturally and effortlessly out of it.*

With regard to the naturalistic process of first language acquisition, one may assume that if the participants of the study follow the same procedures while learning a foreign language, and pay more attention to the receptive rather than productive skills, they may acquire that language naturally. According to Asher, "A reasonable hypothesis is that the brain and nervous system are biologically programmed to acquire language...in a

particular sequence and in a particular mode. The sequence is listening before speaking and the mode is to synchronize language with an individual's body" (ibid., p.4).

At this stage, having a brief glance at the concept of lateralization and the functions assigned to the right or left hemisphere, especially at the time of puberty, might be revealing. This issue should be discussed because of the particular age group selected as the sample of this study.

2.4.2 Lateralization and Optimal Age for FL Learning

Although the concept of optimal age is not the focus of this study and the term itself is linguistically controversial, the issue seems to be significant since the sample of this study is within the age range of the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) presented by Lenneberg in 1967. The hypothesis claims that the best age of learning an L2 is before puberty and lateralization, starting from age six or seven and ending around the age of 12 (at the time of puberty) and when CPH ended, the magic ability of foreign language learning would disappear . Several researches including Johnson, and Newport (1989) ; Long (1990) and Scovel (2000) support CPH and claim that those who begin to be exposed to an L2 after the age of 12 can never become native-like phonologically due to the "neuromuscular basis". Long (1990) also acknowledged that age of twelve is likely the maturational point beyond which a native-like L2 accent cannot be acquired. According to them the prerequisite for the native like acquisition of L2 morphology and syntax is exposure to the L2 before the age of fifteen. The hypothesis also indicates that there is an ideal period of time for children to acquire a foreign or second language when an appropriate situation or context is provided. It is believed that they will never gain such an opportunity later in life. It seems that this period accords closely with Piaget's (1972) ideas which hold that during this time, children gain a better understanding of mental operations.

However, it should be noted that among researchers and language teachers, the issue of age has been a matter of concern, and as Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991, p. 155) declare, “Some studies appearing to show child superiority, some favoring adults”. Nevertheless, based on their studies Krashen, Long and Scarcella (1979) “concluded that older is faster, but younger is better” (quoted by Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991, p. 155).

Concerning the optimal age of learning a foreign language, several views have been put forward. Brustall et al. (1974) conducted a longitudinal experimental study between 1964 and 1974 to see "whether a start in a second language at the age of eight was practically feasible in the British school setting and whether it offered any special advantages over a start at the age of eleven" (cited in Stern 1991, p. 364). In this experiment, 17,000 children were dichotomized into control and experimental groups, and regularly assessed at different time intervals over a period of 10 years. Stern (1991), reported that the results of the experiment did prove that it was feasible to introduce a foreign language in the primary school, but there were some differences between the results of early starters and those who started to learn a foreign language later. Consequently, as Stern (1991, p. 365) claims, “The authors of this study saw in these results evidence that the theory of the advantages of an early start was a myth.”

This idea accords with the results of the variance equality test administered to the samples of the study in hand. The researcher applied a variance equality test among different groups of students aged 11, 12 and 13 to verify the homogeneity of different dimensions of interests. The results indicated no significant differences in this regard. Nevertheless, Stern (1991) believes that young children exposed to another language appeared to acquire the language rapidly and without much effort, probably due to the fact that psychologically, or neurologically, it has been proved that certain functions

may be assigned to the right or left hemisphere before the brain loses its property of elasticity. This may happen before puberty. Based on this assumption, it is believed that children or learners before the age of puberty may learn a foreign language faster and more easily than adults; as Abrahasson and Hyltenstam (2009) claim, the younger the learner, the better is his capacity for learning a foreign language. It is commonly believed that the best age for foreign language learning is childhood, and that the opportunity is commonly lost among adults; the rationale behind this belief might be that this is due to the neurological and biological system of children.

Singleton (1995) also states that in learning a second language, the young learn better and faster than adults in the long run. In parallel with this line of thought, Stern (1991, p. 364) pointed out that "In recent years, the advantages of an early start have received further support from the successful Canadian experimental programs in 'early immersion'"(Lambert & Tucker, 1972; Stern 1978a; Swain, 1978). Lenneberg (1967) also claimed that "the years before puberty can be regarded as a biologically active period of language development" (Stern 1991, p. 362). These views by experts in the field underlie the rationale behind the selection of young EFL learners as the participants of this research.

In the process of teaching, certain strategies of teaching and learning should be selected based on the age and other characteristics of the learners. It is widely acknowledged that any approach or method of teaching consists of two theories: the theory of learning and the theory of language. The previous section discussed the biological aspects of language learning, and that which follows will discuss the psychological aspects. The issues discussed in these sections might be considered as logical reasons for the sample selection of this study where priority was given to learners within the 11-13 age range.

2.4.3 Learners' Characteristics in Learning Theories

Regarding the theories of learning, as mentioned earlier (see section.2.3), it is assumed that children mostly learn concrete phenomena better than abstract ones. Experience has shown that children, regardless of any probable danger that they may face, have a high tendency to touch anything which is within their reach. They want to experience for themselves, first-hand, whatever they touch or see, and in this way learn about them. This might be done through trial and error, and apply to the learning of a foreign language as well. Pennington (2009, p. 2) has enumerated the characteristics of the learners within the age range of 9-12 as follows:

- *Willing to try new things*
- *Curious and willing to explore new ideas*
- *Want immediate gratification*
- *Desire recognition and praise for achievement*
- *Like hands-on, learn-by-doing activities*
- *Perform well with many brief learning experiences*
- *Have quickly changing interests” (Pennington.M., 2009, p. 2).*

Given the above characteristics, in this study, in the initial stages all instructors followed the TPR methodology in their teaching. The main teaching device was the use of commands through which the teacher directed students' behavior. In this case, meaning was taught through action. To ensure that the teachers were practicing TPR in their classes, they were asked to demonstrate whether they were following appropriate ways of teaching as they had been instructed to. The reason behind the selection of this method of teaching was to reduce the stress on the learners studying English as a foreign language. Therefore, the following section has been allocated to the role of stress and how it can negatively affect the learning process. But the issue of alleviating tension may vary from instructor to instructor, especially when the teachers come from different nations and cultures. Undoubtedly, the long time period of 8 -year war

between Iran and Iraq had tremendous psychological effects on the behavior of the residents of both countries including the EFL teachers (NNSETs) of Iran. However, the situation for NSETs is quite different. The psychological differences of NSETs and NNSETs might have great influence on the teaching procedures of both groups of the EFL teachers and the outcomes of the EFL learners.

2.4.3.1 Reduction of Stress

Foreign language learning is quite often thought to be a stressful and strenuous exercise. Ewald (2007, p. 124) takes a more moderate side and declares:

Though the findings of a number of studies indicate that some tension can motivate students and even enhance their learning (See Spielmann & Radnofsky, 2001), a larger number of studies (e.g., Elkhafai, 2005; Gregersen 2003; Gregerson & Horwitz 2002) emphasize the negative effects of anxiety in the classroom.

However, according to Ewald (2007), EFL instructors can either alleviate or intensify this tension. Concerning the two groups of teachers (NSETs/NNSETs) who are involved in this study, the situation is completely different, since they come from two distinguished societies with quite different concepts and practices of ‘nature and nurture’, defined by Clark (1976) as heredity and environment. Of course, there is some doubt as to the extent to which our characteristics are determined by our DNA or the environment, but it is accepted that both play a part. Besides that, as Yan and Kember (2004) believe a part of such behavior might be influenced by the training and teaching environment. All these factors might affect the behavior of all, including NSETs/NNSETs, who tackle the moral value and anxiety of the learners; this would probably affect learner outcome. In other words, according to this belief, the two groups of teachers might behave differently in their classes, but unconsciously, based on the environment, in which they were born and bred, as well as their training, teaching and learning environment. Some part of the teachers’ social behavior may be grounded in

the relationships and experiences that they would have had with their close relatives, friends, teachers and colleagues. Thus it is highly unlikely that teachers who come from two varied cultures and contexts will behave in the same manner towards their students. For further information, please refer to Chapter Two (cf. 2.4.3).

Richards and Rodgers (1990, p. 91) also claim, "An important condition for successful language learning is the absence of stress." Based on their viewpoints, it can be seen that children acquire their mother tongue in a relatively stress-free environment. Neither the parents nor the children are aware of the fact that they are playing the role of teachers and learners, respectively. This unconscious practice makes acquisition perfect. For second language learners, according to Asher (1977, p. 4), "The key to stress-free learning is to tap into the natural bio-program for language development and thus to recapture the relaxed and pleasurable experiences that accompany first language learning" (cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1990, p. 91).

2.4.3.2 Studies related to the role of anxiety and stress

A large number of studies have shown the negative or positive effect of anxiety on learners learning a foreign language. For instance, the term 'low affective filter' which was introduced by Krashen (1982) shows the level and role of anxiety in EFL classes. Ewald (2007) believes that anxiety or tension is not related to any specific age, and foreign language learners of all ages may more or less experience it. According to his study, anxiety experienced by most foreign language learners has primarily negative effect, and may be undesirable, pedagogically. But Ewald also mentions that in some cases, low anxiety may motivate students and even enhance their learning. Some researchers, such as Larson and Smalley (1972, p. 46) lay emphasis on "the disorientation of the language learner who experiences in the foreign country the trauma

of 'culture shock' or... the state of anxiety" (cited in Stern 1991, p. 381). They claim that anxiety basically inhibits foreign language learning. According to this line of thought, it may be implied that language practitioners who practice methods such as TPR mostly seek to keep tension at a minimum.

To sum up, pedagogically, the aforementioned researchers including Ewald (2007) believe language teachers should be aware of the anxiety of learners learning a foreign language. Despite the fact that behavior is environmentally oriented and usually influenced by the teaching/training environment (Yan & Kember, 2004); Ewald (2007, p. 135) emphasizes that EFL teachers should understand the causes and effects of anxiety and try to:

- *Build a friendly environment in their classes (Gregerson & Howitz 2002).*
- *Present themselves as helpful instructors concerned primarily with promoting student learning rather than as authority figures concerned primarily with evaluating student performance (Gregersen & Horwit2002).*
- *Establish the expectations that mistakes are a normal part of the learning process (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002).*
- *Use group work (Garrett & Shortall, 2002; Gregersen 2000).*
- *Find ways to encourage participation without forcing the students to speak (Ewald, 2007, pp. 135-136).*

Hence, according to Ewald (2007) it was deemed necessary that both groups of instructors (NSETs/NNSETs) in the current study should take the biological and psychological aspects of the learners into consideration.

Now that factors such as strategies of teaching (cf.2.4), theories of study, learners' tension and some other issues including learners characteristics (cf.2.4.3) have been delineated or assigned , it is necessary to have some background knowledge about the variables. The next section, therefore, describes the variables considered in this study.

2.4.4 Variables Involved

To shed light on the different dimensions of this study, it was deemed necessary to understand the variables and their influential roles in charting its direction. This study consists of the independent variables (treatment variables-NSETs/NNSETs), dependent variable (learner outcome), control and mediating variables (gender, age, race and background with regard to the English language) and some confounding variables which will be explained in due course. The independent and dependent variables (the cause and effect) have been touched upon repeatedly throughout the study and need little clarification. The others will be discussed to see how they may violate the results of the study if not considered. In order to increase the validity of the results of this study, some minor independent variables which may affect the results of the experiment, such as place, age, race, gender, English language competency, and the socioeconomic level of the learners along with subjects and strategies (methods) of teaching were also considered. These predictors were controlled or neutralized through statistical or design procedures to enable precise measurement of the independent variables (NSETs/NNSETs).

Concerning the significance of control variables, Tuckman,(1999, p. 100) believes that they should be considered and neutralized, since “They potentially influence the dependent variable” (cited in Creswell, 2008, p. 128). Aligned to this line of thought, different researchers have studied the role of factors such as the role of EFL learning, age, culture, gender and place of learning in determining their influence on the dependent variables. For instance, concerning the place and the role of learning EFL, Foster and Tavakoli (2009) having studied the relationship of native speakers and task performance through comparing 100 learners of English (40 based in London and the rest in Tehran) discovered that learners taught by NSETs/NNSETs pause differently

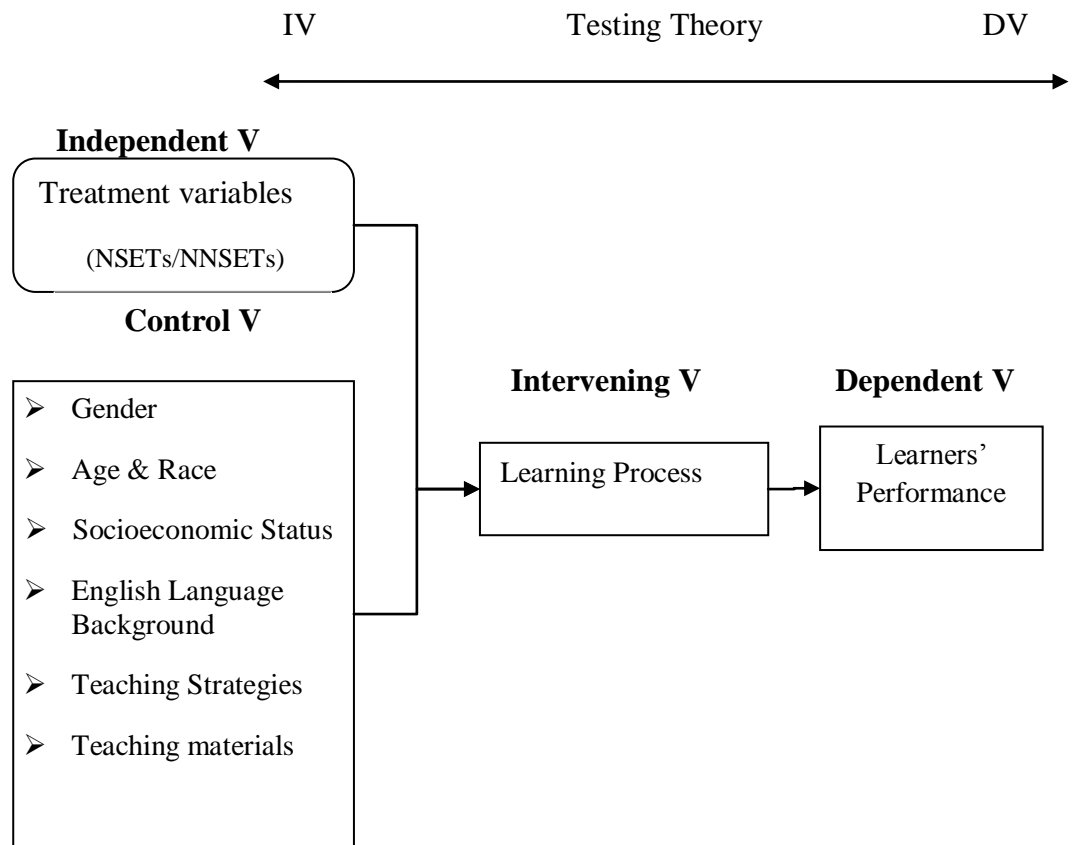
when retelling picture stories: those taught in London mainly paused more naturally at clause boundaries rather than those supervised by NNSETs in Tehran. This might have been due to their differing linguistic backgrounds and the places where they had learned the language.

The relationship of age and the concept of native likeness was studied by different researchers (e.g., Asher & Price, 1967; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1992) and showed the significance of age, meaning the sooner the child is exposed to a foreign language, the better the results. In addition, the denial of ideology in perceptions of NNSETs was considered by Holliday & Aboshiha (2009). Some may view the labeling of EFL teachers as native and non-native as reflecting aspects of racism; if so, they (the teachers) can be scrutinized based on their culture. According to Farhadi (2004) and Farhadi & Foroozandeh (2008), the age and gender of the learners commonly affect their learning procedures. Crystal (2003) sees successful second or foreign language learning in the early age, meaning the earlier the better . Salem (2006) provided empirical evidence that females have a greater tendency and higher capacity for learning EFL than males. Generally speaking, there are authoritative findings that imply that the aforementioned factors do affect the performance of learners differently and should be controlled before starting the treatment. Accordingly, in this study specific attention was laid on controlling the minor independent variables including place, gender, and age, and the social and economic status of the participants before enrolling them in the oral course in order to enhance the reliability of the results.

Besides dependent, independent and control variables, the researcher has given due consideration to some other variables such as intervening and confounding variables which may stand between the dependent and independent variables or affect the results of the study. For instance, it is quite evident that the dependent variable (learner

outcomes) is a manifestation of the learning process, not the learning itself, and since it (the learning process) is neither measurable nor observable, it is an intervening variable which comes between the independent and dependent variables.

In a study of issues such as those undertaken in this research, some confounding or uncontrolled variables such as heredity and the teaching/training environment of NSETs/NNSETs, their social background or the probable chronic illness of the instructors or the learners may affect the dependent variable, and should be considered as the limitations of the study since it is impossible to assess them. Thus, phase one of the framework of the study has been illustrated in Figure 2.3 below to show the factors being addressed when answering research Question 1.



Key: V=Variable

Figure 2.3: Framework of Phase 1 - The Relationship among the Variables

As discussed earlier, the first phase of the study focused on the outcome of the learners, whereas the second phase concentrated on the perceptions of the various parties (learners, teachers and language institute administrators) involved in the educational encounter. It is widely acknowledged that the perceptions and beliefs of these participants may affect the learners' teacher selection, the self perceptions and job satisfaction of NSETs and NNSETs, and the decisions made by policy makers when dealing with teacher training or teacher hiring practices. Accordingly, learner's perceptions of NSETs /NNSETs and administrators beliefs regarding hiring practices will be examined quantitatively- via closed-ended questionnaires.

The premise or hypothesis needed for testing these two variables is the same principle presented in phase one, namely, the ideal teacher of English is a native

speaker. On the other hand, teachers' self-perceptions regarding their weaknesses and strengths will be handled both quantitatively and qualitatively, and there is no necessity for theory testing or hypothesis in relation to these. Consequently, via an open-ended questionnaire, background information, teachers' work experience and the self-perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs will be compared and contrasted to see if either group of teachers has experienced discriminations, and how they perceive their own strengths and weaknesses, as well as those of their 'opponents'. Keeping the qualitative part of the study (teachers' self-assessment) in mind, it should be acknowledged that no theory is going to be tested, since in qualitative study there are no rooms for variables, descriptive analysis or hypothesis testing (cf. 1.10). Accordingly, from the perspective of teachers' self-assessment, addressing the research question will be considered alone. Phase two (the survey part) of the study has been illustrated in Figure 2.4 below:

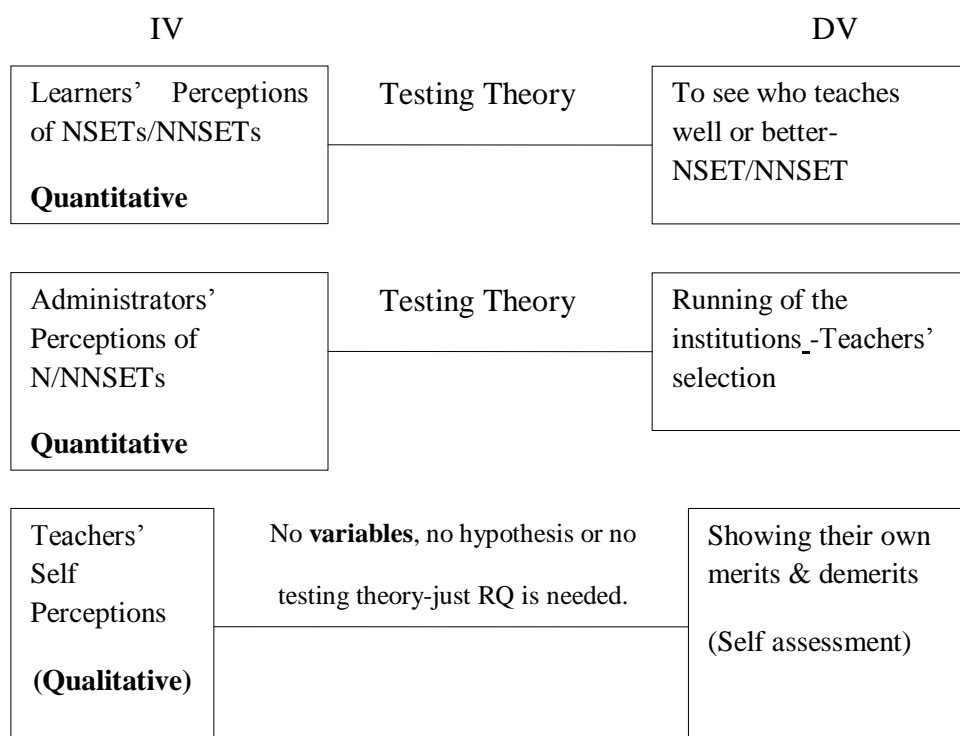


Figure 2.4: Phase 2 – Participants' Perceptions of N& NNSETs

Four parts of the conceptual framework (definition of native speaker, selection of oral skills, teaching strategies and variables) have been discussed (cf. 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.4 & 2.4.4) earlier. Assuming that in this study, the perceptions of the parties involved have a crucial role, it is time to shift from the above mentioned concepts to the learners' perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs, teachers' self-perceptions and language institute administrators' beliefs regarding the aforementioned types of the teachers.

2.4.5 Perceptions of Learners, Teachers, and Administrators of N/NNSETs

The ideas and beliefs of the learners, teachers and administrators regarding the issue of NSETs and NNSETs can be used as measuring instruments to test the underlying theory of the study or monitor research questions 2, 3 and 4. This aspect is considered to be the last part of the theoretical framework of the study since the measurement and the outcome of these perceptions may pave the road for the policy makers who are establishing the settings and teaching strategies. These ideas will be discussed further in the following sections (cf. 2.4.5.1, 2.4.5.2 & 2.4.5.3).

2.4.5.1 Learners' Perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs

Learners all around the world have different views regarding N/NNSETs. Exploring the attitudes of ESL students towards native and non-native English teachers, Kelch and Santana-Williamson (2002) found that teachers perceived by students to be native speakers were judged to have higher levels of education and training, while the advantages for those believed to be non-native speakers were the empathy factor, source of motivation, and sharing of the first language (Yung, 2006, p. 52).

In her survey of 47 NNSETs in Hong Kong, Tang (1997) found that learners usually perceived their NNSETs as successful EFL learners because these teachers themselves had experienced the process of foreign language learning for a while. Medgyes (1983, p.

2) supports this with tongue-in-cheek when he says that “By being both teachers and the learners of the same subject, we are necessarily driven into a constant state of schizophrenia.” However, Tang based on her findings, claims that NNSETs can be helpful, especially when sharing the students' first language.

Although the findings of the aforementioned studies support the effectiveness of NNSETs, the results of Amin's (1997) study, cited by Yung, (2006, p. 44) to some extent contradict the findings mentioned earlier:

Amin (1997) found in her study of five visible-minority female adult ESL teachers in Canada that student's perceptions of the ideal ESL teacher were so stereotypical that the participating teachers felt disempowered. The students assumed that only white people can be native speakers of English, that only native speakers know real, proper, Canadian English.

In other words, the students thought that there was a connection between ethnicity and linguistic competence, leading to yet another debate on the subject: that the controversy over ethnicity or nationality may result in discrimination. According to the participants of this study, other speakers of international varieties of English or those who were different from Europeans in terms of physical appearance, such as Malaysians, Indians and Singaporeans, were considered as less competent and less knowledgeable than those coming from US, UK, Australia, and New Zealand. To these students, formal education, qualifications and teaching experience were not significant at all.

Moussu (2006) has argued in favor of NSETs. Based on the results of her study, she asserts that students' attitude was more positive towards NSETs than towards NNSETs. Furthermore, she added that this attitude increased significantly with time and exposure. She also states that the mother tongue of the teachers and the learners, among other factors, has had greater influence on students' responses.

The researcher believes that these viewpoints which reveal the wants and wishes of the EFL learners can be fruitful for authorities involved in teacher hiring practices. Based on this assumption, the researcher wanted to investigate the perceptions of young Iranian EFL learners towards their N/NNSETs. Gathering and analyzing such kinds of data might help policy makers make appropriate decisions when dealing with teacher hiring practices. It is generally acknowledged that decisions based on sound reasons can be beneficial for the promotion of English language proficiency among learners. Insights gained from an analysis of learners' perspectives might be appropriate for addressing the second research question presented in Chapter 1 (cf.1.10). The next section will consider teachers' self-perceptions.

2.4.5.2 EFL Teachers' Self- perceptions

Concerning teachers' self-perception, Moussu (2006, p. ix) concludes that "Teachers' responses revealed NNSETs' lack of confidence in their linguistic and teaching skills." Some other recent research studies (cited by Phothongsunan & Suwanarak, 2008, p. 14), have been conducted to investigate NNSETs perceptions of themselves as ELT professionals and what they think of the 'native' and 'non-native' concepts. For instance, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) using a mixed method research design, examined the way non-native speaking TESOL (Teachers of English to Students of other Languages) graduate students studying in the United States viewed themselves professionally. The results revealed that though the participants perceived many differences between NSETs and NNSETs, the question of whether native or non-native speakers were better language teachers was not a matter of concern. The important point was how well-trained or qualified an ESL teacher was, regardless of his or her ethnicity.

Phillipson (1992) states, "There is a given assumption that native speakers represent the model teachers of a language as they have a better command of fluent, correct

language forms and are more conversant with the cultural appropriateness of a language” (cited in Phothongsunan & Suwanarak, 2008, p. 11). Numerous experts in the field, (e.g. , Kachru & Nelson 1996; Lazarton, 2003; Liu, 2001; & Widdowson, 1994) have contradicted it and claimed that such features of NSETS were also within the reach of non-native speakers if given enough training, deep insights into language learning and exposure to a foreign language.

With regard to teachers' self-perception, Samimy and Brut-Griffler (1999) cited by Yung (2006), extended Medgyes' (1994) international project on NSETs and NNSETs. In the 1994 experiment, as mentioned earlier, Medgyes had compared and contrasted the language competence and teaching practices of NSETs and NNSETs in an attempt to identify the merits and demerits of teachers through their teaching practices in ten countries. The Hungarian teacher along with his co-author, Arva (2000, p. 353), summarized some of the characteristics of NSETs and NNSETs as below: what has been illustrated in Table 2.1 below is a brief and paraphrased version of the original one presented by the two researchers.

Table 2.1: The Differences between N and NNSETs

No	Native ETs	Non-native ETs
1	speak better English; use real language with more confidence	speak poorer, bookish English; are less confident
2	are more flexible, innovative and casual; less empathetic	adopt a more guided approach; are cautious; attend to the needs of students; more empathetic
3	are less insightful; focus on fluency, language use, oral skills, context; free activities; variety of materials; tolerate errors; administer fewer tests; use less translation and homework	are more insightful; focus on accuracy, form, grammar, printed word, form, isolated points; controlled activities; correction of errors; more tests; use learners' L1; assign more homework
4	supply more cultural information	supply less cultural information

Apparently, in this study, the researcher has compared and contrasted the results of the study underway with that of Arva and Medgyes to see to what extent the two studies overlapped with each other, and what additional information might be provided further. Samimy and Brutt-Griffer (1999) , based on their investigation of non-native graduate students trained in TESOL, found that:

NNSETs perceived themselves to be more sensitive to students' needs, efficient, aware of negative interlanguage transfers and possessed the ability to use the shared first language as a medium in teaching. Meanwhile, they perceived their native speaking counterparts as informal, flexible, self-confident, and fluent and accurate users of English (cited in Yung, 2006, p. 36).

Liu (1999) found that teachers' self-perception regarding the issue of NSETS and NNSETs was multidimensional. Rather than dichotomizing the two groups of teachers, the seven participants of his study described their self-perception on a native speaking (NS) non-native speaking (NNS) continuum. Medgyes (1994), quoted by Yung (2006), reaffirms that though the difference between the two groups of the teachers, at least from the viewpoint of English proficiency, is quite evident, he (Medgyes) believes that their strengths and weaknesses can counterbalance one another.

Llurda (2005) studied 32 teacher training centers in the US which were dealing with TESOL programs. Based on the results of his study, he concluded that NNS student teachers had higher awareness of English compared to their native counterparts, but their supervisors recommended that the newly trained NNSETs teach lower-level classes. Besides that, the supervisors mentioned that the non-native teacher trainees would feel more comfortable if teaching English in their own country rather than in the US. 16 percent of these teachers (non-native teacher trainees) were found to have problems in terms of accent. Finally, the supervisors asserted that some of these non-native student teachers were very smart and creative. From this study, it can be concluded that NNSETs are moderately knowledgeable and they can be good teachers

provided that they are trained well. They can be competitive, but some of them may suffer from having problematic accents and lack of confidence.

Nevertheless, except for Medgyes (1994) and Samimy and Brutt-Griffer (1999), most researchers appear to have handled the issue of teachers self- perceptions just theoretically. In the modern world, as Phillipson (1992) claims, only ideas and perceptions examined scientifically are acceptable. In other words, believing that theories and assumptions should be tested, this study examines the self-perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs in the context of Iran. Consequently, having a better understanding of the characteristics of EFL teachers in general and qualified teachers in particular might be insightful for programmers, practitioners and researchers conducting surveys in the field. Therefore, the next section will highlight the positive values that a qualified teacher should possess.

(a) Characteristics of Qualified Teachers

To distinguish who teaches well or better, it is necessary to have some well-defined criteria. In spite of the ongoing debate on whether native (NS) or non-native (NNS) teachers are better language teachers, or whether the dichotomy of the native speaker and non-native speaker is valid, there is the more relevant question of how qualified the individual is as an EFL or ESL teacher (Samimy & Brutt- Giffler, 1999). Teachers in general, regardless of whether they are native or non-native, should be proficient and competent. They need to be educated and well-trained.

Astor (2000) believes that "a qualified teacher of English should be a professional in at least three fields of knowledge: pedagogy, methodology, and psycho- and applied linguistics" (p.18). He adds that being proficient in only one of these areas is insufficient and that "no amount of fun or good relationship will make it up to the students" (ibid.) if the English teacher, whether native or non-native, lacks competence

in an area. Moussu (2006) claims that according to Astor (2000), none of these three fields of knowledge come intuitively to anyone. Consequently, all these different areas must be learned and practiced. Without proper education, native speakers will not have a good background in applied linguistics or pedagogy. Similarly, an NNSET might know grammar but will also need to be educated in methodology and pedagogy, especially if he or she plans to teach in an EFL or ESL environment. Accordingly, to Astor, it seems the dichotomy of teachers into N/NNSETs is quite meaningless, and should be replaced with a "professional-nonprofessional" or "competent-incompetent" dichotomy.

Davis (2001) based on the findings related to a study conducted on the differences between experienced and beginning teachers, says:

In school settings, one of the clear and conclusive findings is that inexperienced teachers lack the conceptual structures to make sense of classrooms events. Beginning teachers simply do not extract the same levels of meaning from what they see. Experienced teachers see better what is happening. True, they have more knowledge about the subject, but experienced teachers also have more perspective on the instructional process. They know how to "read" the classroom (p.5-6).

Additionally, TESOL professionals (2006) claimed that it is much preferable to see how professional the applicant is and how prepared he or she is, regardless of whether the candidate is native or non-native. Above all, based on the viewpoints of aforementioned experts of the field and the policies of the TESOL organization, a qualified instructor should be aware of individual differences, learners' needs, and administering justice when in class. He or she should not deliver a monologue but give opportunities to all students, whether male or female, bright or weak, those seated in the front, back, centre or on the periphery, to participate in class activities equally.

Medgyes, (1994, pp. 348-349) acknowledges both groups of NSETs and NNSETs, provided they possess the following characteristics:

- i)The ideal NSET is the one who has achieved a high degree of proficiency in the learner's mother tongue.*
- (ii)The ideal NNSET is one who has achieved near-native proficiency in English.*

It seems that Medgyes' definition cannot be equated to qualified teachers, since qualification is a matter of degree. The term "ideal" used by him is highly abstract and subject matter of debate, meaning it is very improbable that one can find an ideal teacher of any foreign languages, including English. Any qualified or professional English teacher be native or non-native, has weaknesses and strengths of his own. However, Medgyes has considered the proficiency of target language and the mastery of learners' mother tongue as the most important requirements and assets of qualified English teachers.

(b) Advantages and Disadvantages of NSETs & NNSETs

Obviously, from the point of view of researchers, both groups of teachers (NSETs /NNSETs) have advantages and disadvantages. During the last three decades, many researchers, including Pride (1981); Kachru (1982); Nickle (1985) and Kresovich (1988), have talked in favor of or against the two groups of teachers. For instance, at the secondary school level, NSETs were usually better at the oral skills while their local counterparts were deemed to be superior at the other skills - for instance teaching grammar (Arva & Medgyes, 2000). Derivry-plard (2005, p. 63) claims, "The idea is far from new that the 'native teacher' is inherently a better teacher because he or she has a greater mastery of language and a spontaneous command over it."

Even though some prominent figures in the field such as Paikeday (1985) and Derivery–Plard (2005) have talked in favour of NNSETs, Medgyes (1992, p. 342) as an NNSET himself remarks that:

Even the best NNSETs will never reach 'native competence' in spite of all their efforts. They might be able to come quite close to it but will always be 'halted by a

glass wall,' a kind of invisible 'plateau' where their language competence will stop improving."

In further discussion of the weaknesses and strengths of NNSETs, the native Hungarian teachers of English touched upon the deficits that they (the NNSETs) possess, especially in the area of oral fluency and pronunciation. Medgyes further claims that "non-native speaking teachers of English have split personalities" (1994:103). To rationalize the point, he takes this group of teachers, including himself, into consideration and states:

We as NNSETs have to face our students, attempting to teach something we ourselves invariably have a shaky knowledge of. By being both teachers and learners of the same object, we are necessarily driven into a constant state of schizophrenia.

To counterbalance his ideas, Medgyes (1983) highlighted some positive points NNSETs have that their native counterparts are deprived of. He believes that these teachers might be good models for the learners, since they are empathetic to the learners' needs and can teach the foreign language better owing to the fact that they themselves have experienced foreign language learning strategies. Edge (1988) cited in Moussu (2006, p. 22) , for example, wrote a short article to advocate the importance of giving 'real' models (NNSETs) to the EFL students. According to him these 'real' "models speak the language of the students natively and have learned to speak English well, as opposed to the 'foreign' models (NSETs), who do not share the cultural, social, and emotional experience of the students" (Edge, 1988; cited in Moussu, 2006, p. 22).

This idea was supported by Medgyes (1994) and McKay (2003). In his discussion, Medgyes (1994, pp. 346-347) enumerated six positive points of NNSETs. He states that NNSETs are good models on condition they

1) provide a good learner model to the EFL learners, 2) can teach language strategies very effectively, 3) are able to provide more information about the language to their students, 4) understand the difficulties and needs of the students, 5) are able to anticipate and predict language difficulties and 6) can use the students' native language to their advantage

Medgyes (1994:347) implies that all these can happen provided that the NNSETs are quite efficient in English. Consequently, based on his viewpoint, if NNSETs have a good command of the English language, the two groups have equal chances to achieve the goal. In line with this trend of thought, Moussu (2006:23) states: "Being born into a language does not mean that one inherently speaks or teaches it well."

As it is necessary that NNSETs be proficient in English, and have a psychology of teaching and learning to gain a basic knowledge of contrastive analysis, so is familiarity with the learners' culture extremely important for NSETs. While there may be little doubt that NSETs are good in speaking and pronunciation and they can convey their own cultures to the learners better than the NNSETs, NNSETs may be professionally better teachers in terms of teaching TOEFL, or grammar. It is quite evident, that a person can teach something better when he or she himself or herself has learned it consciously.

Like Celik (2006), Phillipson(1992) and Medgyes (1994), Seghayer (2005) claims that NNSETs deserve to be respected more since they work at least twice as much as their native counterparts. In addition to their hard work, he also considers other qualifications that NNSETs possess which NSETs do not.

I believe that a strong case can be made for NNESTs in the profession. Five [sic] advantages will be highlighted, including (a) firsthand experience, (b) patience and understanding, (c) multicultural understanding, (d) a living model, (e) ease of identification through similar experiences, and (f) better insights into the structure and use of the language. My references are to well-trained and well-qualified NNESTs (Seghayer, 2005, p. 1).

Medgyes (1994) carried out an experiment on N/NNSETs in ten countries to determine their effectiveness in teaching English to EFL learners. He concluded that both groups had equal chances of success in teaching, just that in terms of English language proficiency, the natives were superior to their non-native counterparts.

However, the NNSETs, according to him, could compensate their weaknesses since they could make the best use of their own experiences of learning English to help the learners when they come across a problem.

2.4.5.3 Administrators' Attitude toward N/NNSETs

With regard to the issue of N/NNSETs, administrators and private language institutes, like others, have opinions of their own. Their views are usually reflected in the offer advertisements. Liu (1999) points out that many advertisements request that only NSETs apply for the position of English language teachers, and believes that "Such a perception disadvantages NNSETs vis-à-vis native speaking English teachers in the job market" (p.97). Celik (2006, p. 372) maintains that "private language schools advertise that all of their teachers are native speakers, in order to attract attention from students and parents and increase their enrolment rates." He also mentions that private schools tend to pay NSETs more than NNSETs. These practices may have negative effects on the confidence of NNSETs and as a result lead to lack of competence and performance among the learners.

Celik (2006, p. 373) believes that scientifically, it is neither rational nor logical to consider a native speaker, regardless of his qualifications, as a good model in teaching English as a foreign language. According to him, "speaking a language does not necessarily bring an innate awareness of the language or ability and skills to teach it" (ibid.). This appears to be a crucial point that private language institutes should keep in mind when dealing with the issue of teaching and hiring practices.

Regarding the issue of employment, Braine (1999a), cited by Derivry-plard (2005, p. 62) , supports local English teachers and comments on "how difficult it is for non-native teachers of English to get positions within the ESL/EFL teaching world. Discrimination against non-native teachers not only occurs in English speaking countries but seems to

pervade the 'global' foreign language teaching world.” Consequently, the issue of discrimination may have severe negative effects on the confidence and performance of NNSETs and ultimately lead to poor learner performance. In a research conducted in Thailand, Phothongsuman and Suwanarak (2008) observed that Thai English teachers are at times regarded as 'second class' during the hiring process even in their own context. Avasadanond (2002) touches upon the economic effects of having NSETs in the teaching market in Thailand which causes unemployment among the NNSETs, including Thais. He says, “Non-white teachers will have an extremely hard time finding employment in most schools, even if they speak perfect English and have all required degrees or certificates and teaching experience” (p.3).

Theoretically, as Medgyes (1994) noted, the debate over the question of native/non-native dichotomy has generated a number of continuous issues, especially in the case of teachers' employment. It is also apparent that very little research has been conducted to throw light on this issue.

In order to determine the degree of efficiency of the two groups of English teachers, and to see if there is any discrimination against the NNSETs concerning their employment, the researcher deemed it relevant and useful to approach the issue from an academic perspective. This will also render the study pedagogically useful. The growing adoption of English as a lingua franca by the world's population necessitated that more and more strategies of teaching came into vogue, and the need for conducting research in second and foreign language teaching, especially English, became not only necessary but inevitable.

2.5 The Spread of Research into ELT

The spread of English has necessitated a great number of studies to be conducted globally on various aspects of language teaching and learning; notions of

NSETs/NNSETs and the perceptions towards these notions form an important part of these. “In less than a lifetime, English has developed from ‘the native language of a relatively small island nation’ to the most widely taught, read, and spoken language that the world has ever known” (Kachru & Nelson 2001, p. 9; quoted by Kuo, 2006, p. 213). It (the English language) has always been on the move (Crystal 2003, p. 30) and “became worldwide through colonization, globalization and emigration; taught, studied, acquired and learned for internal, external and international purposes” (ibid., p.213). Drawing on these dimensions, Kachru (1985, p. 13), quoted by Kuo (2006, p. 213), “distinguishes between the inner circle (e.g., the UK and the USA), the outer circle (e.g., India and Nigeria) and the expanding circle (e.g., China and France), with the acknowledgement that it is the users in the expanding circle who actually strengthen further the claims of English as an international or universal language.”

Concerning the road to world Englishes, two centuries ago, John Adams made an interesting linguistic prophecy (cited in both Crystal, 2003:74 and Yung, 2006:23):

English is destined to be in the next and succeeding centuries more generally the language of the world than Latin was in the last or French is in the present age. The reason for this is obvious, because the increasing population in America, and their universal connection and correspondence with all nations will, aided by the influence of England in the world, whether great or small, force their language into general use, in spite of all the obstacles that may be thrown in their way, if any such there should be.

Pedagogically, whatever seems to be significant is that "The way English is taught and assessed (by native or non native or any strategies of teaching applied) should reflect the needs and aspirations of the ever-growing number of non-native speakers who use English to communicate with other non-natives"(Graddol 2006, p. 87). As a result, the famed dominance of the native speaker over the language both scientifically and linguistically has come to an end, largely due to the fact that at least three out of four speakers of English belong to either the outer or expanding circle of people who

use the language internationally (Kachru, 1985). This means that the language which has been in the dominance of native speakers for at least half a century is no longer ruled by its native speakers. This in turn means that further studies are needed to ease the process of English language teaching and learning.

2.6 Target Language and Cultural Adaptation

Languages are culture bound. Anyone who comes from another nation has a culture that is peculiarly one's own. This is especially apparent if one's language is different from that of the host country, and NSETs teaching in countries that are not their own are no exception. They go to classes in which the language and the culture of their addressees are quite different from that of their own. In parallel with this line of thought, Hoffman (1989) states:

It is a central assumption in anthropological studies of learning that language and culture, as symbolically construed meaning systems, are interdependent: the acquisition of language is tied to social and cultural context, and the acquisition of culture occurs at least in part through language (p.118).

As a lingua franca, the English language has been adopted in most educational systems of the world, and has, to some extent, been geographically and culturally adapted in the primary and secondary school curriculums in general, and in all academic fields in particular. The cultural aspects of the target language (English) and the cultural norms of EFL learners are two sides of the same coin, and both need attention. The former, that is, the cultural aspects of the target language can be taught by the NSETs, whereas the NNSETs may be more successful in terms of the latter, namely, adjusting the target language with the cultural values of the learners. The only question is that, between the two groups of teachers with different cultures and linguistic competencies, which group might be more successful in terms of teaching the overall aspects of language, including the two-way culture. Definitely, owing to the lack of familiarity of

the two groups of teachers, one with the cultural aspects of the learners and the other with that of the target language, the effectiveness of the N and NNSETs in terms of teaching the oral skills will vary from one group to another. The researcher, by conducting the present study, planned to see the degrees of difference through the language performance outcome of the learners.

2.7 Related Research

Much research has been conducted to clarify the significant role of native and non-native speaking English teachers in terms of teaching English to second or foreign language learners. One issue that has been widely touted is that the two groups of English teachers do not produce the same results pedagogically, and each has its own merits and demerits. Definitely, “One way of assessing the truth of this perception has been to undertake an investigation of the effects of teachers’ background on teaching outcomes” (Derivry 2003) cited in Derivry (2005, p. 63). In addition, examining the learners’, teachers’ and administrators’ perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs may confirm the reality of this claim. No research can be quite comprehensive, but each one may highlight some findings of the predecessors, fill up the probable gaps and pave the way for other researchers to follow. Certain related studies conducted throughout the world have been reviewed here to shed light on common assumptions and give sufficient justification for the current study. Although much time and effort have been allocated to such studies throughout the world, little has been done in Iran, hence the need for this study (cf. 3.3).

The only related study conducted in Iran that comes to mind is that entitled “Native Speakers and Task Performance: Comparing Effects on Complexity, Fluency and Lexical Diversity” by Foster and Tavakoli (2009). The main aim of the study was to investigate the role of the environment and determine the success of NSETs and

NNSETs through the language performance outcome of the learners. The sample comprised 100 participants, mostly female learners of English, within the age range of 19 and 47. Sixty participants were Iranian EFL learners living in Tehran and the rest (40) were non-native speakers with various mother tongues based in London. They had learned the target language in England from early childhood. The researchers initially administered an Oxford-based placement test to the participants in London and a locally correlated one to their Iranian counterparts. The test required the participants to retell picture stories and interpret events such as picnics and sports. Although the two groups of participants had different social and academic backgrounds, they achieved similar scores on the test.

According to the researchers, the results showed that both groups of participants living in London and Tehran willingly wanted to use more subordinated language when retelling stories, but the narrative structure had different effects on learners' fluency. The learners living in either London or Tehran did not differ in their performances when compared to each other, except in lexical diversity. Apparently, the learners in London were close to native-speaker levels in terms of fluency, which showed the significance of environment, but their language was more informal than their counterparts who resided in Tehran. The findings also showed that pauses in the performance of the subjects living in Tehran occurred more often in the middle of clauses; the learners in London paused more naturally at clause boundaries than within them, perhaps because they had acquired more lexical knowledge. But it appeared that separating the roles of the teachers and the environment in contributing to the learners' performance was quite difficult. Moreover, the sample selection of the study does not seem to be very scientific, particularly from the perspectives of age and learners' mother tongue. Consequently, the results cannot be generalized.

As the literature reveals, few studies have been conducted to examine the effectiveness of types of teachers, namely N/NNSETs, on the performance of young foreign language learners. Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, the sample that participated in Foster and Tavakoli's (2009) study were adults (within the age range of 19-47) and it seems, to the best knowledge of the researcher, the voice of young Iranian EFL learners has not been heard. The present study hopes to fill this gap in research by focusing on young learners who are just beginning to learn a foreign language (the oral skill) and to examine the impact of 'nativeness' of the teachers on the learners.

According to Derivry-Plard (2005), a survey was conducted among a group of learners and teachers in France to examine the participants' ideas regarding 'ideal' English teachers. The results showed that the participants laid more emphasis on linguistic competence rather than teaching competence. To test the legitimacy of these ideas, Derivry-Plard (2005) carried out another quantitative research in which 19 NSETs and an equal number of NNSETs were involved in teaching English to 600 students (300 students for each set of teachers). Both groups of teachers were bilingual users of English and French. Their work experience and other qualifications were also taken into consideration. The learners had the same characteristics, especially in terms of social and academic background. Both oral and written marks were taken into account.

The findings revealed that the learners taught by NNSETs performed better. This contradicted the ideas of learners and teachers who laid more emphasis on linguistic competence than teaching competence. Above all, the results contradicted the widely-held opinion that the learners taught oral skills by NSETs must have better performance than those supervised by NNSETs. The findings of the study seem to be credible since all the requirements of the study were basically observed.

Contrary to the results of Derivry's (2005) study, the findings of Carles' (2006) study, conducted in Hong Kong, showed the other way round, meaning secondary school students taught by NSETs were more successful than those supervised by NNSETs. According to Carles (2006) in that longitudinal study which lasted for two years, 91 imported NSETs cooperated with local English teachers teaching junior high school students. However, the longitudinal study might have given way to other confounding variables which could have affected the overall outcome of the research. For instance, during the time interval, there is a possibility that some students might have had a chance to learn English in private language institutes or participate in other language teaching procedures. Such intervening variables will definitely call the results of the study into question. Additionally concerning sample selection, in Carless' study there are no criteria showing how the students or the teachers were selected.

To see the perceptions of NNSETs regarding NSETs, Phothongsuman and Suwanarak, (2008, p. 14) conducted a qualitative study in Thailand on a group of 24 Thai university lecturers. A validated questionnaire was distributed to the lecturers and they were also interviewed. Based on their findings, the researchers arrived at the conclusion that "Despite the critique offered by many TESOL professionals, the dominance of being a native speaker becomes particularly distinct." By and large, the findings showed that in many aspects there were differences between NSETs and NNSETs, such as in earnings and teaching qualifications, as well as in how the EFL teachers were viewed by the learners and administrators. Moreover, Phothongsuman and Suwanarak concluded that if the two groups of teachers were treated similarly, better results might have been obtained. When asking the participants' views regarding the assumption that the ideal teachers are native speakers, most of the respondents confirmed the point and said that this could be true provided that these teachers have appropriate teaching qualifications and sufficient language knowledge, and the

capability of understanding the students' problems. The research findings appear appropriate but insufficient, thus more research is necessary. If more attention had been given to the sample selection and the students and administrators involved in the project, better results might have been obtained. Since the sample comprised university teachers, and the academic staff of just one university, the findings cannot be generalized to other universities or a larger population.

Similarly, in his study, Liu (1999) examined the perceptions of non-native ESL professionals teaching in the US through a qualitative study. The participants had little tendency to be labeled as NNSETs, NSETs or bilingual teachers. Besides that, there was no conclusion as to who was the ideal ESL teacher. In terms of native or non-native constructs, the participants reported difficulty in affiliating with either the native or the non-native category, claiming that such taxonomy would not sufficiently represent the true nature of being a speaker of a language; in addition, it would diminish the experiences and language skills of ESL professionals. But the results of this study also cannot be generalized owing to the limited number of participants, and their heterogeneous linguistic and socio-cultural background.

In Hong Kong, Tang (1997) carried out a study of 47 NNSETs on their perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs in terms of their proficiency and competency in the English language. The results showed that although NSETs were believed to be superior in terms of fluency and competency, NNSETs were associated with better accuracy and as sincere helpers who could solve learners' educational problem in an easier fashion. The respondents, however, did not specify who was or would make a better language teacher. Based on the participants' viewpoints, the researcher concluded that NNSETs can help the learners more due to the fact that they share students' first language.

A qualitative approach was also adopted by Yung (2006) to investigate ESL students' perceptions of their NNSETs at San Francisco University in the US. The main aim of this study was to see in what areas the second language learners feel that NNSETs are superior or inferior to their native counterparts. To carry out the study, 43 college students from various language backgrounds were selected as the participants of the research. The qualitative data, which comprised 7 tape-recorded interviews and 41 essays written by the participants regarding their perceptions of their NSETs and NNSETs were analyzed. It was found that the participants perceived their non-native English-speaking teachers very positively, and thought they were highly knowledgeable and proficient teachers. As the researcher, Yung, (2006:7) claims "The study results, showing a high correspondence between the participating students' perception and research literature validate the capabilities of the often-underrated nonnative teachers."

However, there may be some weaknesses in the study. First, the researcher being an NNSET herself together with her close contact with the participants might have limited their freedom; they might have been reluctant to reveal their sincere opinions in order not to offend the researcher. Besides that, the sample selection was not very effective as the respondents were from different linguistic and academic backgrounds. Therefore, due to the earlier mentioned deficits and because the research was limited to one college, the findings cannot be generalized to larger populations.

In another research, Hayes (2009) conducted in-depth interviews with 7 NNSETs teaching at different secondary schools in Thailand. Two aspects of the teachers' lives and careers, namely their methods of teaching and their commitments to teaching were considered. Concerning the former (classroom methods), analysis of the interviews showed that the 7 Thai teachers had usually paid attention to both recent findings

(communicative aspects of language) and learners' needs (the students' final examination formally held at schools) when teaching, meaning that to them (the Thai teachers), teaching both language use or communication and language usage or needs were considered to be important. With respect to their commitment to teaching, the results showed that despite their low salary compared to other professions, the teachers did their best when teaching.

There are some other prominent figures that have touched upon the issue of NSETs and NNSETs theoretically, and their ideas are presented briefly below.

Nayar (1994, p.4) believed that "English native speakers have the rights and responsibilities not only of controlling the forms and the norms of English globally but also of dominating theory and practice of its teaching and research." On the other hand, Kramsch (1997, p. 251) emphasized that " Native speakers do not always speak according to the rules of their standard national languages; they display regional, occupational , generational, class-related ways of talking that render the notion of a unitary native speaker artificial." Owing to their lack of familiarity with the mother tongue of the learners, sometimes NSETs (albeit unconsciously) may be faced with the problems of negative transfer. Based on their research, Barratt and Contra (2000), cited by Moussu (2006:24), concluded that "NSETs can also easily discourage their students since they are rarely able to make useful comparison and contrast with the learners' first language."

Widdowson (1992) stated that the main difference between both groups was that "NSETs obviously have the more extensive experience as language users; the NNSETs have had experience as target language learners" (p.338). On the other hand, Liu (1999, p. 17) argued that "being non-native speaker or native speaker English teachers may not be the cause of classroom problems, rather professional handling of a class is crucial

and professional education may play a greater role in teacher's success than native speaker or non-native speaker status does."

Definitely, no research can be totally comprehensive. As the review of literature reveals, there are strengths and weaknesses in all the studies. Some are weak due to sampling, and in many cases, the researchers may not have narrowed down the research problem in a way that the results can be more achievable. Moreover, all, except one, have selected their participants among adults, and paid little attention to young EFL learners. With the idea of teaching the oral skill in mind, selection of young female learners within the age range of puberty is one of the outstanding characteristics of this study. Finally, to the best knowledge of the author, few researchers, except Foster & Tavakoli (2009), have conducted and pursued such issues in the Middle East, including Iran. Consequently, as mentioned earlier, in order to fill the gaps the researcher has tried to examine the effectiveness of NSETs versus NNSETs in terms of teaching oral skills to young EFL learners (Phase 1) and the perceptions of the learners, teachers and language institute administrators towards N and NNSETs (Phase 2) (cf. 2.3.4). Given the controversial ideas illustrated in this section, it appears plausible that English teachers, regardless of their ethnicity or nationality, should try to teach standard English. However, the term 'standard English' itself is subject to debate, as discussed below.

2.8 Standard English

While defining 'native speaker', it was concluded that there was neither a comprehensive definition of the term, nor was there a teaching model (cf. 2.3.3. & 2.3.2). Given that it is difficult to define a native speaker of English, how does one conceptualize or measure an ideal teacher of English? Hence, an appropriate criterion for measuring an ideal English teacher was needed and it was assumed that 'Standard

English' might be appropriate for the purpose. However, the term 'standard' itself is controversial. It was assumed that if NSETs adhere to Standard English, then, they can teach the language properly and guarantee the tenet which claims the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker.

For further inquiry into the area of what makes up an ideal teacher of English and if standard English can be taken as a criterion of measurement, the researcher deemed it necessary to investigate the points from different dimensions. Initially, the perceptions of some experts in the field who have themselves studied issues such as 'N/NNSETs' and 'Standard English' will be presented. Then, in the following paragraphs the ideas of political and social elite and common people pertaining to the term 'Standard English' will be considered.

As an expert in the field, Medgyes (1994,p.7) claims that "Standard English is obviously an idealization, an amalgam of beliefs and assumptions about rules and norms to which certain people attempt to adhere with varying degree of success". Kennedy (1985), cited in Medgyes (1994), acknowledges the importance of using a set of criteria of measurement such as 'Standard English' as the basic requirement for the ideal native speaking English teachers. However, he implicitly notes that there is little possibility to select any single set of standards or norms due to the varieties of Standard English. However, it seems that the existence of Standard English as to be taken by NSETs has come under fire. Interestingly, Ward has put an end to the notion of 'Standard English' when he states, "No one can define 'Standard English', because such a thing does not exist" (quoted in Kachru 1982, p.34 and summarized in Medgyes 1994, p.7).

According to the Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (Hornby, 2005, p. R91), "English is not just one standard language, but can be thought of as a 'family' which includes many different varieties." Crystal (1992, p. 366) defines 'Standard English' as

“A prestige variety of language used within a speech community, providing an institutionalized norm for such purposes as the media and language teaching.” To him, any linguistic form or dialect that does not conform to this norm is often labeled substandard or nonstandard. In Britain, he states, 'Standard English' is often called 'BBC English' or 'Oxford English', but when labeled such, the focus is on pronunciation rather than vocabulary and grammar.

From the perspectives of political and social elite and the views of common people, factors such as power, race, ethnicity, religions and beliefs may be considered as criteria for measuring the notion of 'standard English' and the acceptability and unacceptability of English utterances. The main question here is what one means by 'standard language' when used with reference to that which an ideal teacher uses when teaching. Responses vary. If you ask a politician, for instance, what the standard language is, his or her response may be that where there is power, standard language is used, meaning that the language used by people living in the capital is more 'standard' than those living in the outskirts and other cities. Those who believe in racism may say that the language used by the whites or the higher classes, as opposed to the 'coloureds' or the lower classes, is the most acceptable. Likewise, priests, clerics, judges, and university professors may have different viewpoints on the issue. As a result, one may conclude that there is no standard norm to be selected by an imaginary idealized NSET and the term 'Standard English' has no value of judgment to assess the imaginary notion of ideal NSET.

All in all, due to the aforementioned issues, one looking for a 'standard' language may become frustrated and face disappointment. Thus, it would be advisable (as literature review reveals and Paikeday (1985a) denotes) for EFL teachers to follow the norms commonly or pedagogically acceptable from the viewpoints of international

English and not use the term ‘Standard English’ or find an imaginary ‘ideal English teacher’ who can be taken as a model. They should rather inform the learners that there are many varieties of English.

2.9 ‘Native Speaker’ and Language Teaching

Although a native speaker is no longer accepted to be the ideal teacher, there is indirect evidence for the importance of the native speaker in English language teaching. Quirk (1990), cited in Cook (1999), believes that “The choice lies between different types or aspects of native speakers, not in whether to use them as models at all” (p.188). Stern (1983) puts it bluntly: “The native speaker’s ‘competence’ or ‘proficiency’ or ‘knowledge of the language’ is a necessary point of reference, and students need to get an idea of how the new language is used by native speakers,” Stern (1991), cited in Cook (1999, p. 189). However, Paikedy (1985, p. 392) attacks the concept of native speaker, saying, “Learners of any variety of English include all of us, so called natives and foreigners, black and white, English and French, Indians and Inuit speakers of other languages and dialects - everyone belongs to the same subspecies of human being that I would call them *Homo Loquens Angelic*.” Thus, it has been concluded that there is neither a precise definition for the term ‘native speaker’ nor for ‘standard English’, and pedagogically it is very difficult to find one (definition) that be taken as a model for teaching a foreign language. Perhaps it is worth examining the term ‘native speaker’ from the viewpoints of sociolinguistics.

2.10 ‘Native Speaker’ and Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguists believe that languages in general, particularly in terms of use, are heterogeneous. Throughout the world, nobody can find two individuals who talk the same way, who use the same utterances and expressions either in terms of syntax or in terms of intonation and stress. People talk differently, even within a small group of

family members. In any society, speakers from different classes (higher, lower or middle class) basically use the language differently. Obviously, teaching a foreign language when there are so many varieties is really difficult.

Selection of appropriate teachers either native or non-native is another issue which needs consideration. Because of the complexity of language, the selection of viable criteria of judgment for teaching and hiring practices is difficult and needs further research. Furthermore, due to the existence of numerous varieties of language, the judgment of acceptability and unacceptability of English sentences or utterances is neither within the reach of the native speaker nor accessible to the non-native speaker.

2.11 NSETS and NNSETS – Differences or Deficits?

So far, we have been talking about credible criteria of judgment, including the (perhaps non-existent) terms of ‘Standard English’, ‘ideal teacher’ and ‘native speaker’. Throughout the argument, all these concepts were in one sense or another negated, and it was proved that there is no real native speaker to be taken as a model for foreign or second language users or learners. On the assumption that one stumbles upon a native speaker who follows all the rules found in precise dictionaries and a comprehensive grammar of English, the question is whether we as foreign or second language teachers or learners should compare ourselves to him, and try to emulate him. The answer is definitely in the negative. Obviously, such an imaginary native speaker would be different from the second language teachers or learners. But, as Cook (1999, p. 194) says, “Should such differences be seen as deficits from the native speaker standard? Labov’s classic argument held that one group should not be measured against the norm of another, whether whites against blacks or working class against middle class” Labov (1969) , cited in Cook, (1999, p. 194). According to Cook (1999), people who speak differently from some arbitrary group are not speaking better or worse, just differently.

Language is a means of communication by which the speaker can send his or her message to the hearer through encoding and decoding procedures. Throughout the world, at least one billion non-native speakers of English are using the language as a foreign language. They can communicate with each other quite effectively, and nothing is wrong with the kind of language they are using. Thus it can be considered as evident that non-native speakers might be different from natives in terms of accent and pronunciation. But what they are exhibiting are differences, not deficits.

Today, almost all experts in the field believe in this perspective: that what the various users of English are illustrating are differences, not deficits. Cook (1999, p. 194) maintains:

One cannot claim that women should speak like men to succeed in business, black children should learn to speak like white children, working-class children should learn the elaborated language of middle class and second language learner should learn English to become an English native speaker. Second language users have to be looked at in their own right as genuine second language users, not as imitations of native speakers.

In other words, we can say that each group has characteristics of its own. Comparing the native speaker with second language users is like comparing apples and oranges. No one can make one change the color of his or her skin; it is impossible to turn oranges into apples. Given the above points, it is apparent that the main aim of foreign language learning is not the imitation of the native speaker. In fact, learners should try to become accurate and fluent language users and not worry about acquiring the inaccessible accent of the native speaker while they are in the process of teaching or learning English as a second or foreign language.

2.12 L1 Acquisition, L2 Learning and Teaching Experience

It is quite evident that a window of opportunity is available for those who acquire their mother tongue because they are born into it (like NSETs) which is not accessible to adults learning a foreign language. McGlothlin (1997) has delineated some points and

enumerated a few opportunities which have been gifted only to children learning their mother tongue. To differentiate the two terms, namely, first language (L1) acquisition and second language (L2) learning, the researcher has turned to McGlothlin (1997) who has enumerated a child's language environment and learning strategies when acquiring L1 as follows:

- *There is no direct pressure to learn (no tests, no grades, etc.).*
- *There is no time limit for learning (no end of the semester).*
- *There is no way of escaping into a different language (no vacations).*
- *The language is not sequenced by grammar or vocabulary (no textbook).*
- *There is lots of repetition. His life contains repetitions and the language around him reflects it.*
- *Both the language and the world are new (and therefore interesting).*
- *All the language is spoken in the context of the surrounding world.*
- *The language is all around. The child has native speakers of the language speaking to him often.*
- *The child has many opportunities for using the language to communicate to those around him.*
- *Much of the language is simplified to the level of understanding of the child. It is tailor-made for the child (pp. 13-14).*

Interestingly, if one changes the first four items into the positive and the others into the negative, the situation will be in accordance with that in which adults try to learn English as a foreign language. Obviously, since NSETs usually do not have the experience of second language learning, they may follow different teaching procedures when teaching the target language as compared to NNSETs, who may have had a lot of experience in learning the target language.

With regard to the role of learning experience in teaching English as a foreign language, Stern (1991, p. 75) claims that "A good way to start developing a language teaching theory is to look at ourselves and to explore to what extent our second language teaching has been influenced by our own language learning and language teaching experience." To Stern, the kind of background events that have influenced our experience of learning and even the procedures that our own teachers have followed

while teaching the target language to us can be expected to influence our way of teaching (ibid. Pp.75-6). This is the focus of inquiry of the current study. However, the most outstanding point concerning experience is that NSETs have spontaneous experience of acquiring and using the target language whereas NNSETs possess conscious knowledge of learning the target language. These two different types of experience might function differently when the two groups of teachers are teaching the target language.

Contrary to current methods of foreign language teaching, in the past (and still in some parts of the world including Iran), NNSETs have a tendency to follow the same traditional approach by which they were taught (Eslami-Rasekh and Fatahi, 2008). This means that they are getting used to teaching language forms rather than use, believing that when learners master the forms or structure of language, they can eventually use the foreign language on their own when needed. Of course, the review of literature reveals that teaching foreign languages cannot be totally rule free; logically, some kind of monitoring as Morrison and Low (1983) believe is needed. However, monitoring the learners should not be to the extent that the EFL teachers sacrifice the mastery of the functions of the target language for achieving mastery of the forms or the structure of the language. According to Krashen (1981), adults can acquire a second language better when learning is guided by a monitor model, an idea which is questionable since fluent speakers never think about language or the structure of language when they are using the target language.

2.13 Teaching Language

Teaching is an art and teachers should be skilful artists in their own profession, meaning that they should have a basic knowledge of linguistics, pedagogy and psychology of teaching and learning (Astor, 2000). Teaching cannot take place in a

vacuum. According to Davis (2001, p. 2), “It involves a teacher trying to teach someone something somewhere.” Accordingly teachers and students usually interact over a subject in a setting prepared by various stakeholders in the educational enterprise, namely curriculum designers; policy makers, including authorities at the level of the Ministry of Education; headmasters and language institute administrators. As a result, without students, teachers, subject, setting, and policy makers, teaching is meaningless. Based on these assumptions, in addition to assessing the learners’ language outcomes, there is a need to inquire into the perceptions of stakeholders, especially regarding teaching and hiring practices, or preparing other facilities such as setting, time, and teaching materials.

As far as teaching languages is concerned, the issue becomes a bit more complicated. As Widdowson (1990) believes, EFL teachers should place attention on teaching both form and function, or usage and use. To him, just knowing about language without the capability of using it is meaningless. Obviously, teaching words, utterances, and sporadic sentences are insufficient, since language as a system of communication is applicable in context, and the sum of the language parts cannot form the whole system of language. It is comprised of culture, feeling, and emotion; above all, it should convey the thoughts of speaker to hearer through the process of encoding and decoding. Moreover, the role, the age and the overall characteristics of the participants – speakers and hearers - as well as the time and the place in which a conversation takes place play significant roles in the communication process. Who is going to teach, and how is s/he going to convey such highly abstract phenomena to the foreign language learners? Among these two types of teachers, namely native and non-native, which group is going to help the learners to achieve their goals more effectively? These are the questions that most practitioners in the field, including the researcher himself, are eager to answer. Similarly, at the level of the Ministry of Education, the authorities accountable for

language teaching procedures should take effective steps to provide teacher training so that teachers are properly qualified to guide language learners: this is, after all, the ultimate aim of teaching English as a foreign language. The knowledge relevant and necessary for this purpose is only accessible through empirical research.

In addition to sound logic and reason, there are other factors that play a role in effective language learning and teaching, and, the researcher attempts to provide a brief glimpse into the relationship between culture, language and emotion. Due to lack of familiarity of NNSETs and NSETs with cross-cultural phenomena of L1 and L2 and the overall surrounding where communication may take place, a discussion of issues such as language , Participants, place and time seems to be necessary.

According to Bottomore (1971, pp. 115-116), “A system of communication is among the priorities of any human community.” However, as Chomsky maintains, this system is quite dynamic. Interestingly, the brain automatically adjusts the language or the utterance to, on the one hand, the age, personality and kinship of speaker and hearer and on the other hand, to the place and time in which communication is taking place. However, this capacity or unconscious knowledge of language might be within the reach of just the native speaker, and remain hidden to his non-native counterpart.

Finally, we may arrive at the conclusion that language, as Chomsky and others believe, is creative, dynamic, rule-governed, instinctive, and in a word, a highly sophisticated phenomenon. Therefore, it is with the best of intentions that the researcher is making a concerted and determined effort to illustrate how and by whom (NSETs or NNSET) it might be instructed successfully.

2.14 Summary

During the history of foreign language teaching much attention has been given to the issue of NSETs and NNSETs. Till thirty years ago as Watson-Todd & Pojanapunya

(2009) believe NSETs were given more priority over their non-native counterparts. However, some researchers felt otherwise. Towards the end of 1980s, according to Nemtchinova (2005) things changed drastically and the ideas that NNSETs are inferior to NSETs came under fire. Researchers arrived at a conclusion that pedagogically the issue can no longer be very critical believing that there are differences between the two groups of the teacher, not deficits. According to TESOL professionals (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1992, 2006) and researchers such as Crystal (2003), Medgeyes (2000), Mahboob (2003), and Paikedy (1985), ethnicity of the EFL teachers is not a matter of concern. To these researchers what should be taken into account is that of the teaching quality and teachers' qualification, rather than their nationality.

However, despite the ongoing debate, and as the review of literature reveals some studies have globally been carried out regarding the efficiency and deficiency of NSETs and / or NNSETs. To the researcher's best knowledge, it seems that from the perspectives of types of teachers little has been done in the Middle East especially in Iran. Consequently, the present study has taken an important step forward to inquire into the efficiency of NSETs and NNSETs in terms of teaching oral speech to young Iranian EFL learners. It was also meant to examine the perceptions of Iranian foreign language learners, teachers, and administrators regarding both groups of teachers.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

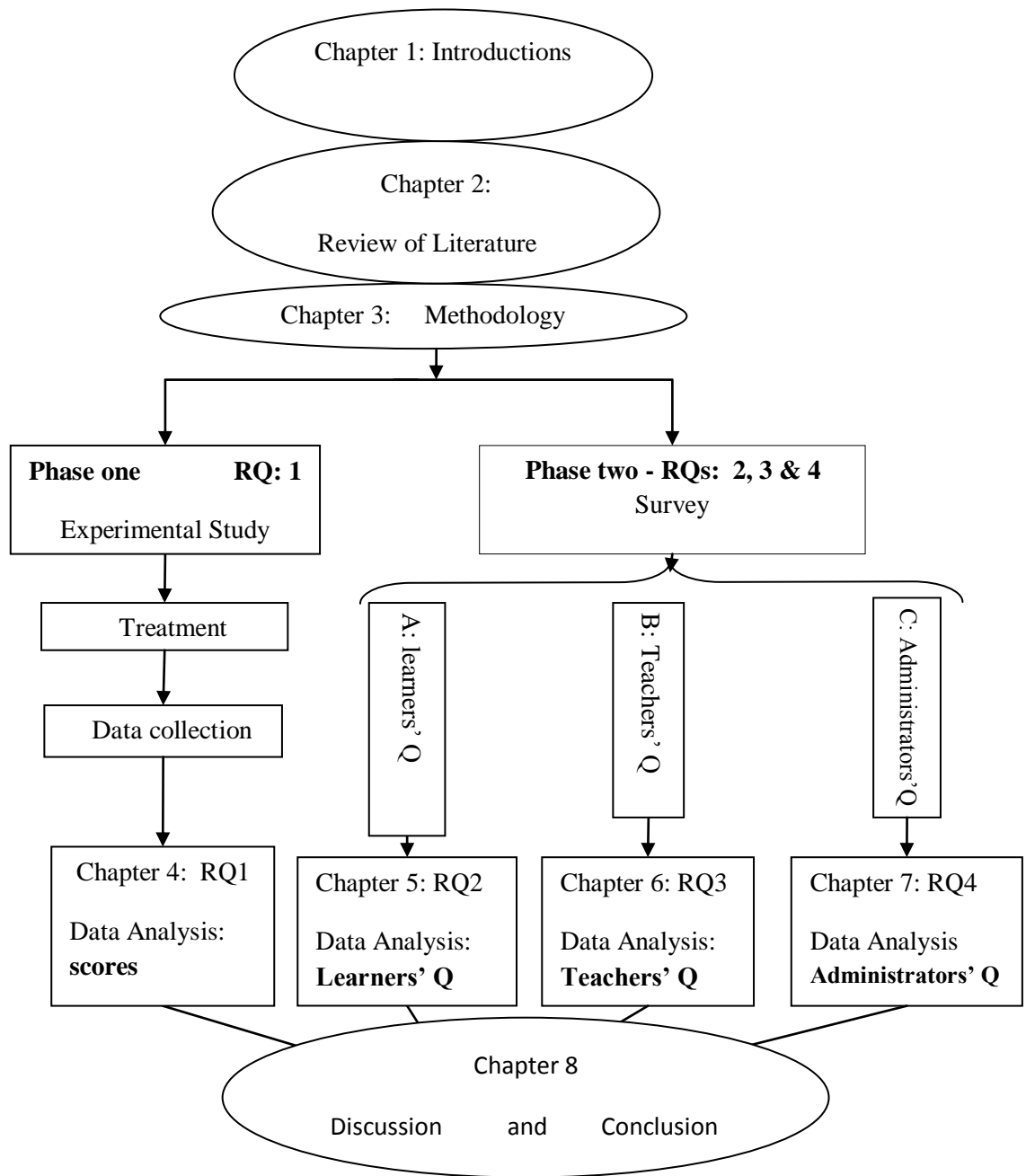
3.1 Introduction

The aims of this study are, firstly, to compare the oral performance of young EFL Iranian learners taught by native and non-native speaking English teachers (N and NNSETs); secondly, to investigate the overall perception of young foreign language learners regarding both types of teachers; thirdly, to examine the self-perceptions of these teachers concerning their strengths and weaknesses; and, finally, to throw some light on whether the tendency of administrators to hire NSETs is logical and acceptable. The achievement of these goals may indicate more effective ways to enhance teachers' qualification and pave the way for foreign language learners to improve their overall knowledge of English by providing them opportunities through which they can use English orally in relation to both local situations and international circumstances in which they are interested or involved in. Besides this, the authorities involved in the process of teaching English can make pedagogically appropriate decisions in accordance with the results and the findings of the research, if they so wish.

3.2 Research Design

As stated earlier, the study was divided into two phases, and a mixed methods research design was adopted in order to conduct the investigation. In Phase 1, the effectiveness of types of teachers (NSETs and NNSETs) based on the language learning outcomes of the learners was considered. To investigate this phenomenon, an experimental study was designed, whereby the oral scores of six groups of students (15 in each group) were compared. Out of these six groups, three were taught by NSETs while the other three were supervised by NNSETs. In Phase 2, the perceptions of learners, teachers, and private language institute administrators regarding the two

aforementioned groups of teachers were examined. This was done by obtaining their responses to three standard and validated questionnaires (See Appendices A, B and C) borrowed from Moussu (2006) and adapted to suit the participants. For further clarification, Figure 3.1 below has been presented to illustrate the outline and the two phases of the study.



RQ = Research Question Q = Questionnaire

Figure 3.1: Outline of Study

The problem under investigation in this study was fairly large and consisted of several independent and dependent variables as well as some controlling, mediating, and

intervening ones (cf.2.4.4). The independent variables which may have changed the outcome of the treatment (dependent variables) were divided into two categories:

Category 1 (IV- Phase one)

It is much obvious that in experiments, we need to consider the independent variables. These variables affect the outcome or the dependent variable of the study. Accordingly in this study, treatment variables, manifested in types of teaching and teachers (N/NNSETs), are considered as the independent variables that through the treatment procedures might affect the learners' performance or the outcome of the study. Creswell (2008, p. 305) ratifies the points when he says, "In experiment, 'treatment variables' are independent variables that the researcher manipulates to determine their effects on the outcome, or dependent variable". Thus, in the experimental part of this study, treatment variables refer to treatment independent variables (types of instruction, teaching or teachers) which are usually used in educational experiment. Thus, for the sake of unity and ease of data collection and data analysis, throughout this study, these independent variables have been unified and discussed under the terms 'native' and 'non-native' speaking English teachers (NSETs and NNSETs).

Category 2 (IV- Phase Two)

The other group of independent variables comprised the perceptions and attitudes of the stakeholders (students/learners, and language institute administrators) regarding NSETs and NNSETs. It was assumed that these variables might influence policy makers in terms of running schools or private language institutes, teaching/training and teacher hiring practices.

The dependent variables which were observable and measurable and were used to determine the effect of the independent variables also comprised two categories:

Category 1 (DV- Phase One)

This consisted of the overall test scores of the individuals, the number of grammatical and semantic errors made by the learners while taking the semi-direct oral test, and enumerated mid-clause pauses produced by the participants while recounting a series of picture storylines in a narrative task, apart from the semi-direct oral test. All in all, in phase one of the study, the experimental part, the dependent variable (learners' scores) or rather the overall English proficiency of the two groups of the learners taught by N/NNSETs was computed quantitatively to measure the effect of treatment variables (IV). Hence, to go into the detail when interpreting data (DV) the researcher took the measurement of central tendency (mean, mode and median), variance and other statistical procedures into consideration to measure the amount of English proficiency gained by the EFL learners from different dimensions of interest.

Category 2 (DV- Phase Two)

Concerning phase two of the study or the survey part, the researcher is supposed to distribute two separate closed-ended questionnaires to the learners and institute administrators respectively to examine their attitudes towards N/NNSETs. This was done due to the assumption that the perceptions of learners and administrators (IVs) might have an impact on the running of the institutions (DV), which include of course the hiring of teachers or instructors.

In addition to the two sets of aforementioned variables, as mentioned earlier (cf. 2.4.4), four other variables, namely control, intervening, mediating and confounding variables, were involved in this study. These variables, delineated in the preceding chapters, might have neutralized the effects of the independent variables on the outcome of the study. Accordingly, to gain valid and reliable results, these variables (control, intervening, mediating and confounding) were considered to the extent possible.

A multidimensional design comprising a cross-sectional and longitudinal study was chosen to deal with “such a very large spectrum of naturally occurring and sometimes non-manipulable variables to explore the relationships between these variables and to study the interrelationship of many variables at the same time” Hatch & Lazaraton (1991) cited in Moussu (2006, p. 43). Indeed, this research design allowed the researcher to statistically and qualitatively, as Seliger & Shohamy (1989) believe, manipulate variables to see if types of teachers (NSETs/NNSETs) influenced the dependent variables (outcomes of the learners) more significantly than others or whether the perceptions of stakeholders affected the decision of the policy makers. Furthermore, the researcher was also seeking for ways to identify the strengths and weaknesses of both groups of teachers.

The goals of this research made it necessary to involve a large number of participants and ‘co operators’. Young EFL learners, NSETs and NNSETs, and school administrators were the participants, while the students’ parents and authorities of the institutes (where the experiment was conducted) were regarded as ‘co operators’. 348 students took part in this study: 45 of them were those who were involved in the piloting procedures (which were carried out in three stages); 90 were selected and participated directly in the main treatment, in Phase 2, while the rest (213) volunteered to respond to the student questionnaire.

In addition to the researcher who was present at all stages of the study, 59 NSETs and NNSETs took part in the experiment and the survey: 3 in piloting procedures, 6 in treatment procedures, 9 in test preparation and test administration, 5 in the assessment and scoring of the inappropriate pauses produced by the participants while retelling the picture story and in Phase 2, and the rest (36) in responding to the teachers’ open-ended questionnaires. 21 administrators were also involved in the study.

A descriptive quantitative method was needed to compare the quantitative data (participants' scores) and to analyze the close-ended questionnaires completed by the students and administrators, while a qualitative approach was necessary to study the open-ended questionnaire related to the overall self-perceptions of the NSETs and NNSETs. Therefore, the mixed method research design comprising both explanatory and exploratory designs was selected as it appeared the most rational, and was in accordance with the idea of experts in the field, such as Brewer and Hunter (1989, p. 28) who claim that "The basic assumption is that the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods, in combination, provides a better understanding of the research problem and questions than either method by itself" (cited in Creswell, 2008, p. 522). The mixed methods research comprising both reliable and valid statistical procedures and qualitative data obtained from instructors' questionnaires would enable the researcher to find answers to the research questions posed in this study since both the methods can counterbalance weaknesses and the strengths of one another.

At this juncture, restating the research questions might prove convenient to the reader:

1. What are the differences in the performance (oral scores) of young Iranian EFL learners taught by native and non-native speakers of English?
2. What are the perceptions of EFL learners regarding teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English?
3. What are the perceptions of EFL teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English regarding their own weaknesses and strengths?
4. What are the beliefs of school administrators regarding the EFL teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English?

An experimental method was used to address Research Question 1 (RQ1). A statistically reliable sampling framework was adopted. Based on the rules and regulations of sampling (pre-test and interview), 90 newly-enrolled female students were selected out of 153 applicants of an established institute and its two branches located in Yazd province, Iran (cf.3.8.1). They were divided into six groups of fifteen. When conducting the interview, factors such as age, socioeconomic status and language proficiency background of the learners were considered. (These issues will be discussed in detail in section 3.8.). Three of the groups of entry-level EFL learners were taught English by three NSETs, while the other three groups were taught by three Iranian NNSETs. The allocated time for the experiment was 17 weeks, with three 100-minute sessions per week. A semi-direct oral test was administered to the learners at the end of the treatment. (Characteristics of the test and its administration are discussed in section 3.10). The final scores of the learners were then computed and taken into account. Furthermore, to examine one dimension of the fluency of the EFL learners, the enumerated mid-clause pauses of the students were considered when retelling a simple narrative based on pictures (Please, see Appendix G).

To address Research Question 2 (RQ 2) related to learners' perceptions and their attitudes regarding NSETs/NNSETs, a quantitative approach was used. Based on the framework of the study, a standard close-ended questionnaire comprising 25 multiple-choice items was prepared and distributed to 340 students, but only 213 self-selected (voluntary) participants completed the questionnaires and returned them to the researcher. The resultant data were statistically computed.

Only Research Question 3 (RQ3) which pertains to the self-perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs regarding their advantages and disadvantages was addressed qualitatively by the use of open-ended questionnaires. In addition to some questions related to the

teachers' experience and their demographic information, 12 questions in this part required text responses from the respondents on their self-perceptions regarding the issue of teachers' qualifications. The analysis of the qualitative data was done manually based on the process of codification.

In order to answer Research Question 4 (RQ4), that is, language school administrator's beliefs regarding the two groups of the teachers, the researcher preferred to use a standard close-ended questionnaire (Further information for the types and selection of questionnaires will be presented in 3.13).

3.3 The Research Site

Numerous studies have been conducted regarding the issue of the effectiveness of teachers in terms of teaching foreign languages, including English (cf.2.7). From the 1980s onwards, more attention has been paid to this issue, and as the literature review reveals, many researchers, including Derivry-Plard (2003, 2005) in France; Brutt-Griffler & Samimy (1999); Liu (1999), and Yung (2006) in US; Suwanarak (2008) in Thailand; and Carless (2006) and Tang (1997) in Hong Kong have conducted studies in terms of NSETs and NNSETs. It appears that most of the studies have been conducted in Europe, America and some parts of Asia like Thailand and Hong Kong. Besides that, the participants of these studies were either teachers or secondary or post-secondary students. As a result, in most studies, attention has been given to adults. Therefore, to the best knowledge of the researcher, few studies about the roles of NSETs and NNSETs have been conducted in the Middle East, including Iran, and the voices of the Iranian children have not been heard (cf.2.7).

For this reason, the researcher, with the agreement of the authorities in charge, selected the Sina Language Institute and its two branches located in Yazd province, Iran, as the research site. Subsequently, the permission of the participants and that of

their parents was secured through an informed consent form (See Appendix D). Learners as well as their parents received enough information concerning the aim and the schedule of the study. The form guaranteed their rights as voluntary participants, and assured them that they could withdraw from the study any time they wished. The section below provides further information related to the aforementioned form.

3.4 The Informed Consent Form

One of the most important steps in any treatment is the agreement of the participants. Creswell (2008) emphasizing the rights of the participants, says, "Develop an informed consent form for the participants to sign before they participate in the study even if your project poses minimal risk to the participants" (P.158). This form "is a statement that participants sign before they participate in research. In this form the researcher will guarantee them certain rights, and that when they sign the form, they are agreeing to be involved in the study and acknowledging the protection of their rights" (Creswell, 2008, p. 159). Due to the fact that the sample comprised children under the age of 18, the consent form was given to their parents. As a result, in addition to the agreement of the participants, the permission of their parents, as well as that of the authorities of the three institutes, was obtained. The informed consent form not only conformed to ethical considerations, but also legalized the other steps of the study that had to be taken.

In order to fine-tune the research questions and the research methodology that was to be used in the research, a pilot study was conducted. This is described below.

3.5 The Pilot Study

Creswell (2008, p. 402) describes the characteristics and the advantages of pilot tests as follows:

A pilot test of a questionnaire or interview survey is a procedure in which a researcher makes changes in an instrument based on feedback from a small number

of individuals (similar to the main sample) who complete and evaluate the instrument. The participants in the pilot test provide written comments directly on the survey, and the researcher modifies or changes the survey to reflect those concerns.

Thus, before starting the experiment, a three-stage pilot study was conducted. The goal of the study was to design the learners' questionnaire, check whether it was possible to effectively obtain the initial and final perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs, and determine the practicality of observing the classes, especially the cross-switching of the teachers. ('Cross-switching' here means exchanging the class teachers' mid-stream such that the NSETs take over the NNSETs' classes, and vice-versa.) The pilot study was also meant to determine and evaluate the content of the materials (assigned to be taught to the learners during the course of instruction), to schedule the appropriate time of the classes (for teaching English) and to prepare for assessing the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments used during the two phases of the study namely experimental and the survey parts.

The three stages of the pilot study, involving three groups of 15 students each, were carried out simultaneously.

Stage One

To make appropriate decisions regarding the learners' questionnaire, and to assess its validity and reliability, 15 students who had previously been exposed to both N and NNSETs were selected on the basis of their overall similarities with the sample of the main treatment. In this survey, no treatment was conducted since the participants had had a chance to experience both types of teachers (NSETs and NNSETs) who had fairly similar characteristics with the appointed instructors in the main study. To determine the type and to measure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, the test-retest method was employed. Initially, an open- ended questionnaire translated into Persian

was distributed to the learners to see their capabilities with regard to answering the open-ended items.

The findings revealed that participants were not very successful in answering the subjective items. It should be acknowledged that the samples of this pilot study were all female learners within the 11-13 age-range. Therefore, the researcher assumed that the inability to answer the open-ended questions might have been due to their age. He further assumed that this may imply that they could answer the objective items (closed-ended items) better. He was supported in these assumptions by Pennington (2009) who stated that Piaget (1972) had classified students of these ages (10-11) as being in the childhood or “the 'Concrete Operational Stage'”; these students have difficulty with abstract concepts.

Consequently, based on Piaget’s point of view and in accordance with the written comments of the participants and the recommendations of 2 Ns and 2 NNSETs, the 5-point Likert scale questionnaire was selected to be used in the pilot study. The questionnaire was borrowed from Moussu's unpublished dissertation (Moussu, 2006, pp. 197-198), but it was adapted to suit the age and psychological aspects of the learners and the culture and society in which the study was conducted. The test-retest was repeated in order to enhance the validity of the study. The final version of the questionnaire was sent to two psychologists who were members of the Faculty of Psychology of Yazd University in Iran. They made some revisions and also recommended replacing the 5-point scale with a 3-point one. This suggestion was supported by two professors from the University of Malaya who were experts in teaching and testing. Accordingly, the 3-point Likert scale (translated into Persian) was selected. Choudhry (1981, p. 119) has this to say about the Likert scale:

The Likert Scale is a method of ascribing quantitative value to qualitative data, to make it amenable to statistical analysis. Used mainly in training courses evaluation,

Likert scales usually have five potential choices, on a scale of continuum 1 – 5 (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree) but sometimes go up to ten or more, depending on the sample size. For smaller samples a three-point scale may be more dependable. A numerical value is assigned to each potential choice and a mean figure for all the responses is computed at the end of the evaluation or survey. The final average score represents overall level of accomplishment or attitude toward the subject matter.

Choudhry (1995, p. 2) also claims that the Likert Scale is an effective tool to study the consistency of the respondents in terms of their claimed attitudes.

Stage Two

During this stage, 15 young foreign language learners, absolute beginners who had never been exposed to any English teachers, were selected for investigation. The main aim of this stage was to see the perceptions of the learners regarding the NSETs and NNSETs before and after the treatment. The other aims were to see whether observing the classes and cross-switching of the teachers were desirable and practical. This stage was conducted continuously for 12 weeks, totaling 36 sessions at 3 sessions per week.

To the researcher's surprise, the initial and final perceptions of the participants as well as their attitudes towards the selection of native or non-native speaking English teachers differed drastically. Two independent and similar questionnaires, each consisting of just one item, were distributed to the learners - one at the initial stage, and the other towards the end of the treatment, with a time interval of about 70 days. Before undergoing any treatment, all the participants preferred to be taught by NSETs, believing that native speaking English teachers were superior to their non-native counterparts. However, after experiencing both types of teachers, about 65 percent of the learners changed their minds and attitudes, and claimed that if in future they could choose their own English teachers, they would prefer NNSETs.

Observations of the class that was supervised by both types of teachers in turn did not yield many insights, probably because the teachers were not comfortable that their

freedom was being limited by an observer. Nevertheless, a few sessions of class observations made it quite evident that the NSETs performed better in terms of supplementary activities including simple class debates and productive discussions.

It had been suggested to the researcher that the teachers should exchange classes, meaning to exchange classes in the middle of the treatment. Therefore, to examine the practicality of this idea, the learners were taught English by an NSET for the first six weeks (first half), and by an Iranian NNSET for the next six weeks (second half). However, the pilot study showed that cross-switching the teachers was neither acceptable to the teachers nor statistically feasible since it was quite evident that, as Nassaji (2009) through the process of e-mail claimed, “when the teachers are switched, the same students would have been exposed to two different treatments, making it hard to compare the groups” (e.mail, March 12, 2010).

Stage Three

In parallel with ‘Stage Two’ but over a greater duration of time, a class of 15 young foreign language learners was selected for examining the materials, preparing appropriate final exam test and gathering enough information prior to the main treatment of the study. Besides that, for the assessment of reliability and validity of the measuring instruments of the survey part of the study (questionnaires), a group of learners, teachers and one of administrators (each comprising 30) were considered. The overall objectives of this stage were threefold: a) to prepare and verify the content of the materials to be used during the main treatment, b) to schedule appropriate times for each session, and c) to prepare valid, practical, and reliable measuring instruments of the study. In comparison with the two aforementioned stages, this was a fairly longitudinal study which lasted for 17 weeks. During the preparation of the test content (semi – direct oral test) , its reliability, criterion-related validity , concurrent and face validity

were determined. For instance, the criterion validity of 0.66 was established by correlating the scores obtained during piloting with another reliable and valid test of the same level.

To determine the criterion related validity or concurrent validity (not the predictive validity) of the test, the following procedures were pursued:

- a) Towards the end of piloting, the panel of experts (5 experienced teachers) were asked to select a valid and reliable test fairly equal to the one constructed as measuring instruments (the test allocated for the final exam) in terms of the readability (level of difficulty), item independency, etc. As a result, they selected one out of a battery of English language tests existed in the institute where the experiment was conducted.
- b) The two tests, the valid one and the one newly constructed, were administered to the same group of the participants (15) at the end of the piloting procedure, one after the other.
- c) The two tests taken by the test takers were carefully scored by three scorers (two NSETs and the researcher) separately and individually.
- d) The average scores of each participant were computed i.e. two scores were obtained for each participant based on the two tests.
- e) The two rows of scores related to the two separate aforementioned tests were carefully recorded in SPSS file. By correlating the two, the concurrent validity of the newly constructed test was calculated. The criterion related validity of the new measuring instrument (the new test) as shown in the following Table was found to be .66.

Table 3.1: Criterion Related Validity- Concurrent

	VAR00001	VAR00002
VAR00001 Pearson Correlation	1	.661*
Sig. (2-tailed)		.016
Sum of Squares and Cross-products	3825.214	1876.786
Covariance	294.247	144.368
N	15	15
VAR00002 Pearson Correlation	.661*	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.016	
Sum of Squares and Cross-products	1876.786	2323.214
Covariance	144.368	178.709
N	15	15

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Although the correlation of .6 or above indicates a positive relationship as Creswell (2008) claims, the validity of the present test is moderately high. However, it should be noted that as Davies (1990, p.50) puts it:

...no test can ever be wholly valid or wholly reliable. Indeed, a completely reliable test would measure nothing; and a completely valid test would not measure (Davies 1990 p.50, quoted in Widdowson 2003, p.171).

As mentioned earlier, the reliability and validity of the questionnaires were also computed via distributing the modified versions of the questionnaires, initially borrowed from Moussu, 2006, to the respondents, namely learners, teachers and administrators (c.f.3.13). To sum up, the overall results related to the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments used for the two phases of the study have been computed and illustrated in the following table (Table 3.2). This assessment was conducted because the original valid and reliable versions of the questionnaires, which had been borrowed from Moussu, 2006, were modified later to suit the participants.

Table 3.2: Reliability and validity of measuring instruments

Phases	Instruments	Reliability & related formula	Validity
1)Experimental phase	i) Semi-direct oral test	r: .71 -inter-rater Pearson product	Criterion V= 0.66 Content V - Delphi method)
	ii) Simple-picture story test	r: .78 – inter-rater Pearson product	Content V - Delphi method
2)Survey phase	i) Learners' Q	r: .70 Cronbach's Alpha	Content V - Delphi method
	ii)Teachers' Q	r: .74 Cohen Kappa formula (inter-rater agreement)	Content V: Delphi Method
	iii)Administrators' Q	r: .66 Cronbach's Alpha	Content V- Delphi Method

To assess the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments the following procedures were pursued. As far as the assessment of the reliability (stability or

predictability) of the measuring instruments, is concerned, as shown in the above table, three types of formula were taken into account:

- i) Pearson product formula was used when the data was continuous or interval such as the obtained scores of the test-takers who participated in the semi-direct oral test or the enumerated mid-clause pauses of the participants when recounting the narrative. That means that the two rows of scores given by the two raters (inter-rater) to the same test or the two enumerated rows of mid-clause pauses of the same narrative story counted by two raters individually and independently were carefully recorded in the SPSS file. Then, the consistency or the degree of predictability of scores and that of the pauses was considered using the Pearson product formula. The computed reliability of semi-direct oral test and that of the mid-clause pauses as shown in the table were .71 and .78 respectively.
- ii) Cronbach's Alpha formula was used for assessing the reliability of the Likert type (closed ended) questionnaire to see the item consistency and the reliability of the overall questionnaire as an entity. To follow the procedure, the two versions of the questionnaires (that of the learners and the administrators) were distributed to 30 learners and the same number of administrators just once. Creswell (2008:156) denotes that "As a rough estimate, an educational research needs approximately 30 participants for a correlational study." Then, during data analysis, the researcher separately calculated the reliability of the two questionnaires, meaning initially he recorded the item responses of all participants (e.g. 30 learners' participants) into SPSS file and then the Cronbach's Alpha formula was used. And the same procedure was replicated to determine the reliability of the

administrators' questionnaire. Consequently, as shown in Table 3.2, the reliability of learners and administrators' questionnaires were .70 and .66 respectively.

- iii) Cohen Kappa formula was used to determine the reliability of the open-ended questionnaire i.e., that of the teachers. This formula was used to measure the inter-rater agreement for categorical (qualitative) items. To do this the two raters scored the codified qualitative items and then according to the specified formula presented below the assessment of teachers' questionnaire reliability (.74) was considered. The formula for calculating Cohen's Kappa is as below:

$$K = \frac{\text{Pr}(a) - \text{Pr}(e)}{1 - \text{Pr}(e)}$$

Where:

Pr (a) = Relative agreement among raters

Pr (e) = hypothetical probability of chance agreement

With respect to validating of the instruments, different ways have been suggested. To secure the content validity of the tests, researchers upon a time may hold three meeting sessions (Focus group/Delphi method) for preparing different types of tests like the process followed for the construction of the semi-direct oral test related to the experimental part of this study (cf. 3.10.2). The term Delphi method, as explained at the onset of this study, (cf. xxii-Definition of terms) refers to the principle that forecasts from a structured group of experts are more accurate than those from unstructured groups or individuals. For further information, please refer to Chapter Three (cf.3.5.1

and 3.11.1). According to some researchers including Creswell (2008) for validating a test the following ways (as applied in this study) are recommended:

1. Experts' opinions: The questionnaire is evaluated and commented upon by experts in the field to make sure it validly measures what it claims. 2. The questionnaire is pretested and based on the analysis of the responses (e.g. Item response analysis) and the feedback from the respondents, the necessary modifications are made.

Be that as it may, the content validity and that of the face validity of the measuring instruments were secured via the process of Delphi method. For further information, please refer to Chapter Three (cf. 3.5.1).

From the results shown in Table 3.2, it can be seen that the consistency of the measuring instruments are moderately good and acceptable from the perceptions of experts of the field including Cohen (1988) and Cohen and Manion, (1994). As cited in Creswell (2008, p. 365) Cohen and Manion (1994) consider the correlation coefficient within the range of .65-.85 to be acceptable; therefore, they claim "when correlations fall into this range, good prediction can result from one variable to the other. Coefficient in this range would be considered very good".

3.5.1 Test Preparation

The 'Delphi Method' or focus group method was employed in order to prepare the test and guarantee the content validity of the measuring instruments. To pursue the goal the researcher organized three focus group sessions comprising five experienced teachers who were fully familiar with teaching and testing the material being used (cf.3.10).

The 'Delphi Method' has been defined by Rowe and Wright (1999, p. 1) as follows:

The 'Delphi method' is a systematic, interactive forecasting method which relies on a panel of independent experts. The carefully selected experts answer questionnaires in two or more rounds. After each round, a facilitator provides an anonymous summary of the experts' forecasts from the previous round as well as the reasons they provided for their judgments. Thus, experts are encouraged to revise their earlier answers in light of the replies of other members of their panel. It is believed that during this process the range of the answers will decrease and the group will converge towards the "correct" answer. Finally, the process is stopped after a pre-defined stop criterion (e.g. number of rounds, achievement of consensus, and stability of results) and the mean or median scores of the final rounds determine the results.

During stage three, the learners were supervised by an NNSET, but after the administration of the test again for certainty, a cross-switching of three weeks was practiced. In other words, for three weeks, the learners were taught by an NSET, but neither the learners nor the teachers were happy with this cross-switching. The overall findings of the pilot study are summarized below.

3.5.2 Summary of the Pilot Study

During piloting, different types of questionnaires were examined, and three validated questionnaires (two closed- and one open-ended) were finally adopted. The second stage of the study suggested that learners' initial perceptions of the effectiveness of classes conducted by NSETs may change. As the results revealed, initially, the students preferred to have an NSET; however, towards the end of the piloting procedure, about 65 percent of the learners changed their minds and attitudes, and claimed that if in future they could choose their own English teachers, they would prefer an NNSET. The pilot study also revealed that cross-switching of the teachers appeared to be neither acceptable to the teachers nor statistically feasible. Finally, during stage three, some decisions were made regarding appropriate materials, time allocation for the main

treatment, and the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments. On the whole, the results of the pilot study were favorable in the sense that they indicated that the research method was appropriate for application on a larger sample, and paved the way for the commencement of the main treatment of the study.

As is evident from the study, the project is partially teaching oriented; therefore, it might be fruitful and informative to have a glance at the concept of teaching components.

3.6 Teaching Components

Davis (2001, p. 2) believes that “Teaching involves a teacher and a student interacting over a subject in a setting.” In the following model, these fundamental components of teaching have been highlighted. The following figure(Figure 3.2) shows this relationship.

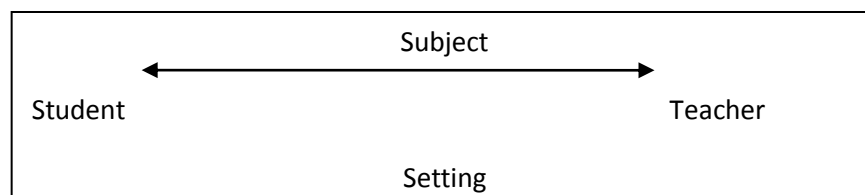


Figure 3.2: Teaching Components (Adopted from Davis, 2001:1)

As the model reveals, in the process of teaching, teachers play a crucial role, and types of teachers may play a significant role, particularly when NSETs/ NNSETs are involved. This involvement and its influential effect(s) on the outcome of EFL learners can be tested in an educational setting in which a treatment procedure is administered. Accordingly, in the current project, the research focused on the assessment of English language oral skills of young teenagers taught by native and non-native speaking

English teachers. For further information, please, see section 3.14 (data collection and analysis).

3.7 Treatment

Treatment is the most significant part of any empirical study or explanatory design as it is the tool that enables theories to be tested and the research questions to be answered. According to Creswell (2008, P. 305), "In experiments, treatment variables are independent variables that the researcher manipulates to determine their effect on the outcome or dependent variable."

With reference to the current study, treatment means conducting an experiment and finally assessing the effectiveness of types of teachers, namely NSETs and NNSETs, in the teaching of oral skills to young EFL learners. This is to say, an experiment was conducted to see the extent to which factors or predictors such as ethnicity or the mother tongue of the instructor(s) may influence the outcomes or the results of the study, i.e., the learners' language performance. Based on this assumption, Creswell also refers to the term 'assessment' as the ultimate goal of any study and says, "In all experimental situations, you assess whether a treatment condition influences an outcome or dependent variable such as achievement on tests" (ibid., p.306). Since students and teachers are the two fundamental parts of teaching components and the necessary parts of educational treatment, the researcher deemed it necessary to touch upon them in turn. In other words, sample selection is an important aspect of the research method since it underlies the basic structure of the study. This process is thus described in some detail below.

3.8 Sample Selection (Phase 1- Learners and Teachers)

The model of teaching components (cf.3.6 & 2.13) assumes that four factors, namely, setting (place), learners, teachers, and subject of teaching are the most influential factors

that need to be considered when designing experiments or carrying out any teaching procedures. So far, just the first requirement of the study, that is, the location of study (cf.3.3) has been discussed. The following sections will focus on the selection of the second and third components (learners and teachers), respectively. As stated earlier, this study was conducted in two phases. Sample selection for Phase 1 and 2 will be discussed in the coming sections namely, sections 3.8.1 , 3.8.2.and 3.12. respectively.

3.8.1 Learners' Selection of the Main Experiment

Due to sampling procedure of phase one, (cf. 3.2), at the beginning of the summer holidays (school semester break) in Iran in May, 2009, during a meeting with the authorities of the Sina institutes, an agreement was reached between the researcher, the teachers who were supposed to participate in the treatment and the learners' parents, whose permissions were secured (cf.3.4). The researcher's inquiries revealed that till then 153 young EFL learners had enrolled in the Sina institutes to start learning English during the summer holidays in Iran.

All the learners were females within the 11-13 age range, chosen based on the principles of non-probability, specifically convenience sampling, as these female participants were willing and available to be studied. Creswell (2008: 155) states this type of sampling is logical and happens because "The researcher has the permission of the principal and can gain consent from that (particular) group of students to participate in the study. This is a convenience sample because the participants are convenient to the researcher and are available for the study." Creswell has added that this type of sampling is appropriate and "It can provide information for addressing the research question and testing hypotheses" (ibid.). An additional reason for selecting female participants was that the researcher wished to increase focus and study the issue in depth

by narrowing the variables, and hoped that later on he himself or others would extend or replicate the study and consider the issue of age and gender attribution.

However, among the 153 learners, only a few had knowledge of the English language, and that too only a very little since most of them had not been officially exposed to any English classes. Therefore, administering a written form of a placement test to such learners seemed to be irrational. Due to the fact that the applicants were fairly beginners and had little knowledge of English, a panel of experts comprising four native and non-native speaking English teachers of the institutes (2x2), including the researcher himself, suggested a kind of simple structured interviewing of the candidates to select 90 participants. Communicative events such as greetings or small talk, asking the social status of the interviewees and their age, and naming the objects around the examination hall formed the contents of the interview. The following were not selected for various reasons (to secure the validity and reliability of the study) as a result of the interviews:

- 10 learners from the higher level income group to observe homogeneity of the participants in terms of their economical status. To guarantee the validity of the research, the higher level income group was not selected in order to control the socioeconomic status of the participants which was a matter of concern due to the outcome of the study. It should be noted that the participants who were selected as the sample of the study belonged to the middle level income group. The background knowledge and the age of the learners were also the other minor independent variables which were controlled as illustrated below:
- 23 learners because they had some background knowledge of English
- 30 learners because they were not within the required age range

The remaining 90 students who formed a fairly homogeneous group were divided into six equal groups of 15. (The class number was restricted to just 15 students because classes allocated to teaching oral skills should not be very crowded.) Creswell (2008, P.156), in relation to sample size suggests, “As a rough estimate, an educational researcher needs approximately 15 participants in each group in an experiment.” Accordingly, the six groups were divided into two teams, and placed under the two types of teachers. Thus 45 students were placed under the care of three NSETs, while the other 45 were taught by three NNSETs. Six additional applicants who enrolled later joined the two native/non-native groups at the beginning of the treatment. They were interviewed and accepted due to the ‘mortality effect’ of the research. As defined at the onset of this research (cf. xxii-Definition of terms) mortality effect, in a research project, refers to the effect caused by the loss of participants during a study.

Therefore, to observe the probable loss of participants, each applicant joined one of the six aforementioned classes, so the number of learners participating in each class increased from fifteen to sixteen.

The reason for including 3×3 groups of native vs. non-native English teachers was to improve statistical results. That is, we could compare the scores between and among groups. For instance, if the difference of the scores of the NSET groups had been significant, then we could conclude that the main effect was not due to teacher type. The same idea applied for the NNSETs as well. However, if there had been a significant difference between NSETs and NNSETs, this would indicate that the type of teachers played an important part.

Before the experiment started, in order to be certain about the homogeneity of the groups, and see the probable preexisting English knowledge of the participants, the researcher administered a pre-test to the newly enrolled beginners. However, owing to

lack of initial English proficiency of the participants, no concrete data in the form of scores were obtained when administrating the pre-test. Accordingly, there was no possibility to compare the results of the pre-test and the post-test to decisively show lack of preexisting differences in the groups. Nevertheless, despite my best effort to ensure that whatever improvement made by the learners are due to the instructors' instruction; caution should be exercised when interpreting the results. This also may be considered as a part of limitation of the research (cf. 8.9) that might open up a new vista for future studies.

3.8.2 Selection of NSETs and NNSETs Engaged in Treatment

The second group of participants who were involved in the treatment were the EFL teachers. Besides the instructors who were engaged in piloting, test preparation and scoring, six NSETs and NNSETs (3x3) were selected to teach the young EFL learners. The six of them, all females in the 35-41 age range with 12-15 years of experience as teachers, were from the Sina institutes. All of them had a Bachelor of Arts degree in English.

One of the main criteria for selecting them was that they had to adhere to the stringent language requirements of the institutes: the minimum English language proficiency score for all NNSET applicants was 550 in TOEFL or a Band 6 in IELTS. (The same requirement exists in all the prestigious language institutes in Iran.) In addition, a questionnaire, comprising a number of closed-ended questions related to teachers' demographic information and their experience of teaching and learning, was designed and distributed to the teachers to elicit information about their personal background. Additionally, upon entering the institutes, pedagogical tests were always administered to the teachers to filter out inappropriate or unqualified teachers.

However, Intervening factors such as teachers' personality and attitudes were not taken into considerations and as such are the limitations of the study.

To summarize the discussion, the intervening factors which were within the reach of the researcher were either statistically handled or controlled. However, it goes without saying that, it is almost impossible to find two persons who are equal or identical. Finocchiaro & Bonomo (1973, p. 239) confirm the point, "No two individual students, no two schools, no two communities, no two teachers are exactly alike." As mentioned earlier (cf. 3.6), teaching involves an instructor trying to teach something (a subject or course of instruction) to someone in a specific setting, for instance, classes. Therefore, after discussing the selection of the location of study (cf. 3.3) and the learners and teachers who were to be involved in the experiment, it is necessary to clarify the two notions of teaching subject and teaching materials. Initially, oral skills as the subject of study and its interaction with the teachers will be examined, and then other issues including materials, lesson planning and teaching procedures will be considered.

3.9 Subjects Taught in the Program

3.9.1 Oral Skills

Different definitions have been presented for the notion of oral skills. According to a recent definition on the internet, oral skills encompass both formal and informal context-based use of language:

Oral communication skills are a set of abilities enabling individuals to become confident and competent speakers/communicators by the time they graduate. Rather than thinking of oral communication skills as the ability of a student to make a speech, it is important to consider both informal and formal uses of communication within a situation (Byrd 2008, p. introduction).

A few key terms such as 'confident', 'competent', 'informal' and 'formal' uses of communication have been highlighted in this definition, showing that oral

communication would enable people to gain capability and confidence, provided they communicate fluently in both formal and informal language. This can happen with the assistance of good teachers, regardless of whether these are either NSETs or NNSETs.

Another definition has been presented by Ammer et al (2006):

Oral communication refers to the process of people using verbal and nonverbal messages to generate meanings within and across various contexts, cultures, channels, and media. It promotes the effective and ethical practice of human communication. (p.3)

This definition provides a greater challenge to the teaching procedure as it claims that speakers should take factors such as verbal and non-verbal messages within and across different cultures, contexts channels and media into consideration when communicating with their audience. This means language is not just a string of words to be taught or learned. There are some concepts beyond words which the teachers, either native or non-native, should focus on when teaching. To the researcher, communication, especially speaking, is the manifestation of thoughts and should be given due consideration. It is oral skills which are commonly used by human beings, whether literate or illiterate, young or adult. They need no instruments, and can be used wherever there is an addressor and addressee(s). Besides, as delineated in the following paragraphs, oral skills form the base of literacy skills (reading and writing) which only come later.

Learning oral skills can be crucial to the learners' success since it can help the learners to comprehend and analyze information, communicate, and express their thoughts clearly. In fact, it is a process of encoding and decoding by which the addressor tries to put his message into a kind of code and convey it to the addressee(s). In other words, both productive and receptive procedures are involved. The current

research attempts to discover which group of teachers, N or NNSETs, can teach oral skills better to ESL/EFL learners.

It is a common assumption that due to the familiarity of the NSET with the culture and the environment in which the target language is spoken, he or she may teach it better than his or her non-native colleagues. Van Patten and Lee (1995, p. 149) have presented a model of communicative competence which comprises “strategic, sociolinguistic, discourse and linguistic competences.” The oral capability of NSETs and NNSETs as well as their language proficiency can be illustrated on this model, based on which the former (NSETs) is thought to possess them whereas the latter (NNSET) is thought to have been deprived of them. Paulus (1998, p. 146) referring to the earlier mentioned components, gives the concepts a pedagogical stance, and contends that:

These components not only guide instruction by suggesting teaching and learning strategies but also become acquisition goals so that students may have a better understanding of and take a greater responsibility for their own progress. Teachers (either native or non-native) should set the components as a wheel for ease in posting the information in the classroom in order to convey to the students in a visual sense, that those are all parts that contribute to an overall concept.

It is commonly assumed that since NSETs were born, brought up, and simultaneously acquired the target language (English), they have had a chance to master these components unconsciously, whereas their non-native counterparts usually lack such a schemata or background knowledge. This unconscious and instinctive knowledge of NSETs may help them teach the EFL learners better than Iranian NNSETs. However, this assumption should be tested through experimentation in the hope that the data gathered, and analyzed would reveal the theoretical and practical significance of the study. However, to achieve this goal, sources are needed to be used as a means to an

end, that is, to present or teach or convey the oral form of language to the learners. These sources are discussed below.

3.9.2 Materials

During the experiment, the learners in all six groups were exposed to volumes 1 and 2 of a set of textbooks entitled “New Parade I & II” by Herrera and Zanatta (2001) as the preliminary textbooks, followed by another textbook, “On Your Mark”, by Davy (2000). These books are currently used in the private language institutes in Iran. Regarding the selection of the aforementioned sources (teaching materials), the researcher consulted with a panel of experts comprising five experienced teachers who had been teaching English oral skills for many years, and they confirmed the appropriateness of these.

According to the schedule of the institute, some supplementary materials such as simple picture stories, “Fun English Games” and audio visual aids were also used to make the classes more exciting. The narratives were used to convey abstract phenomena through concrete experience. They were pre selected, meaning the committee or the panel of experts (including the two groups of the teachers) cooperating with the Institutes determined their appropriateness from the perspective of readability and cultural viewpoints of both the learners and the target language. Practitioners and applied linguists have declared various benefits for such simple stories. For instance, to explain the pedagogical effectiveness of stories, Martin (2000, p. 351) says:

Stories are well-suited to explicating this complex world of social interaction as well as encouraging and contributing to a respect for the thoughts, feelings, and interests of others (Joe,(1994) etc) . Narrative invites attention since it is the ‘most pleasurable format that language, spoken or written, takes, [and] its content is not ideology but action, and those situations which action creates (Havelock 1986, p. 75). In classrooms, a teacher’s use of narratives, humor, and self-disclosure has been found to be an effective tool in helping students to understand the material (Downs, Javidi & Nussbaum1988). This lends support to the “findings of Holladay (1984)

that suggest effective teachers engage in narrative activity more often than less effective teachers.

With respect to teaching English language games, Vernon (2009, pp. 3-4) declares:

With these ideas for teaching English games you can transform your classes and achieve all this because the communication games are designed to allow everyone plenty of opportunity to practice speaking, without neglecting spelling, reading and writing. In fact, most of the games can also be played to specifically enhance these skills. There are also spelling games, writing games and English composition games.

According to Vernon, (2009) teaching English games can stimulate the interest of pupils in learning the target language, and help them gain confidence which will in turn lead to their improvement across other subjects at school. As the quotation above indicates, Vernon also believes that the greatest gift one can give to the learners is the skill and confidence to speak the language confidently and competently, and the likelihood of this happening is higher when pupils learn the target language through games. Due to significant role of games and action, Krashen (2004, p.8) states, “Activities can include games, sports and projects. The best activities are those in which students are completely absorbed, in a sense forgetting that they are using another language.” This idea has also been supported by Lozanov (1978) who developed a teaching method called Suggestopedia, based on which, active participation in songs and games has been considered when, for instance, learners are learning English as a foreign language.

Widdowson (1990) implies that knowing or teaching just the rules and the structure of language is insufficient; it is the actual use of the language which enables and provides the necessary skills. It is definitely one of the most important roles of the teachers, regardless of their ethnicity, to create situations in which the learners can achieve their goals in terms of language proficiency.

The preparation for this type of teaching was based on contextualizing the materials of the textbooks and selecting areas of use which move the teachers and the learners towards task based teaching and learning. Widdowson (1990), concerning the creation or selection of such areas of use, states, " It is a common view among language teachers that they should attempt to associate the language they are teaching with situations outside the classroom to what they frequently refer to as the 'real world' of the family, holidays, sports, pastime and so on" (p.15). Widdowson further believes that school is also part of the students' real world, so for teaching use and usage (form and function), the English teacher can select topics which are life-like and tangible for the learners. The selected areas of use can be greetings and talking about people's home, school food, prices, weekends, people's occupation, clothing, family relationships and so on. On the assumption that the materials and the appointed times of study can be considered as means for achieving the goal (language proficiency), it might be necessary to prepare a lesson plan for presenting the materials. This can help control the minor independent variables which may affect the dependent variable and the assessment of the effectiveness of teacher type on the performance of the learners.

3.9.3 Lesson Planning and Teaching Procedures

3.9.3.1 Lesson Planning

Chomsky (1957-1965) claimed that language is rule-governed and systematic, and thus teaching it cannot be haphazard. Based on this assumption, the researcher takes it for granted that all teachers in general and English teachers in particular should prepare a step-by-step plan before entering their classrooms. In fact, it is the duty of teachers to write lesson plans for each of their classes at least a week in advance so that they can make the best use of their time when doing the actual teaching. It is assumed that when the two groups of teachers (NSETs and NNSETs) take a similar lesson plan into

consideration, the results of the study will be more valid and reliable. Also, this will be in the interests of all three stakeholders, namely, the teachers, the learners and the researcher, to control the peripheral variables as much as possible.

Finocchiaro and Bonomo (1973), referring to lesson planning; state that lesson planning may cause the practitioner and the learners to be reliable and punctual. Additionally, Finocchiaro and Bonomo (1973) believe that it is good for both the teachers and students to be implicitly or explicitly aware of the aim of the study, the class activities and the allocated time for any part of the lessons. However, due to the pivotal role of the teacher and the learners, the aforementioned experts of the field implicitly indicate that the plan should not be considered as a kind of prescription; based on his or her work experience, the teacher should have some amount of freedom and flexibility to make changes in decision when needed.

In each session, based on the rules commonly accepted in most educational settings and as proposed by Finocchiaro and Bonomo (1973), three stages, namely review, view and preview were considered as current trends in lesson planning. These stages were usually accepted by private language institutes in Iran, , but sometimes they may have been adapted to suit the characteristics of the learners and the subject of teaching.

Initially, the instructors touch upon the review stage with the aim of making the learners more lively and enthusiastic through the use of greetings or small talk; this is known as the warm-up period. This stage generally comes to an end by reviewing the materials taught to the class during the previous session. For a session of 100 minutes, the allocated time for this stage (review stage/warm-up period) is fairly short, that is, not more than five to ten minutes when homework correction is involved.

This stage might be beneficial to the learners. When the learners feel that their teacher is warm and sincere, they may pay more attention to him/her. Besides that, the

warm-up period can alleviate learner's anxiety and tension. Similarly, when the teacher corrects students' homework and reviews the materials taught during the previous session, it implies that the instructor is systematic and takes his work seriously. This may increase the motivation of the learners, and consequently lead to the improvement of their language knowledge. Conversely, paying insufficient attention to this stage may lead to the learners' frustration and failure.

The main stage, viewing, comes next and takes up much of the class-time. In this stage, based on the lesson plan written in advance (Please, see Appendix E), the teacher starts to teach the materials. During this stage, as Finocchiaro and Bonomo (ibid. pp.147-148) denote the teacher should encourage the learners to participate in class activities as well.

Preview, the final stage, comes later. Here, the teacher provides the students a short summary of what has been presented during the session, and a brief idea of what is going to be studied during the next session.

During the teaching procedure, all four language skills – listening, speaking, reading, and writing - were given due consideration, but since the focus of this study were on the first two skills, concentration was on these. The researcher's inquiries revealed that most language institutes which emphasize oral skills adhered largely to the same timetable procedure when teaching oral skills, i.e., they placed more attention on listening and speaking and allocated most class-time to these two skills. This type of scheduling is very similar to the one suggested by Finocchiaro and Bonomo (1973, p. 149), and is illustrated below.

Table 3.3: Teaching/Learning Schedule

No	Skills	Time percentage
1	Listening	40%
2	Speaking	40%
3	Reading	15%
4	Writing	5%

Consequently, in this study reading and writing received the least attention as the focus was on listening and speaking. To ensure that this emphasis was adhered to by the teachers, the researcher provided a detailed class teaching schedule, lesson plan (Please see Appendix E.) and teaching–learning materials which focused more on listening/speaking and to a much lesser extent on reading /writing. In addition, the researcher made regular observations of the classrooms to ensure that the instructors paid adequate attention to the instruction related to listening and speaking activities, which form the basis of measurement of this study.

However, it is of interest to note that, as it has been pointed out earlier, listening and speaking skills usually precede reading and writing skills, but this does not mean that there are clear borderlines among the four skills. In fact, they are integrated and, by and large, form a system called language.

Therefore, during the first two weeks (six sessions), according to the tenets of TPR, the foreign language teachers (NSETs/NNSETs) tried to enhance the listening and speaking skills of the learners through parent-like commands and actions. Gradually, the instructors created a situation in which teaching and learning could become more

meaningful in such a way that learners could understand the form and the function as well as the sense and the value of utterances.

Nevertheless, if we take it for granted that language is an integrated system, then it might be claimed that skills which are distinct on paper, may not be in practice. Be that as it may, the focus of this study was on oral skills, not just on listening or speaking separately. Thus, due to the purpose of the study (cf. 1.10) the two skills were taken as an entity for all the teaching and testing procedures throughout this research. That means no separate evaluation was considered for the assessment of the two individual skills. Nevertheless, lack of separate evaluation of listening and speaking might be considered as a limitation of the study (cf. Section 8.9).

To adhere to the rules of the Sina Language Institutes (the research sites), the researcher prepared a time-table and a lesson plan based on the appointed class-times and the materials meant to be covered during the course of instruction (Please, see Appendix E). Not to violate the commonly accepted norms of other private language institutes, the researcher sought to present a lesson plan very similar to those of other institutes which followed the same teaching procedures.

3.9.3.2 Teaching Procedures

When all preparations, including lesson plans, had been completed, teaching procedures were initiated.

As stated earlier (cf. 3.7.), initially priority was given to listening comprehension (receptive skills) through the process of practicing commands and actions. Later, the spoken form (productive skill) received full attention. The former (listening) can be considered to be the input and the latter (speaking) as the feedback or output; the two skills seem to be totally interrelated, and in complementary relationship.

Reading and writing were not totally ignored; they were slightly postponed, and received some attention during the course of instruction.

To learn listening skills, learners listened to audio or videotaped listening comprehension passages comprised of greetings and conversations on topics such as hello songs, daily activities, hobbies, weekends, clothing items, favorite games and food.

With respect to speaking English, the instructors were requested to create situations in which the students could actively participate in conversational activities using the English language. For instance, recounting narratives (simple- picture stories) was a part of such activities. Throughout the process of teaching, EFL learners were encouraged rather than forced not to use Persian.

Vocabulary items were taught both through context (incidentally) and intentionally by giving synonyms, antonyms, clear illustrations and demonstrations preferably using realia when possible. Eventually, the learners were given a few key words, and asked to use these new items orally in new contexts.

Grammatical points, if any, were taught based on context, and not rule prescription (materials were contextualized through dialogues, texts, realia, pantomime and pictures). It was believed that in the early stages grammar should be taught inductively, and a more explicit presentation of grammar should be postponed to a time when learners have acquired a higher level of proficiency. On the whole, throughout teaching and learning procedures, meaning and form negotiation received full attention.

The allocated time for teaching the spoken form of English to the beginners was 17 weeks (3 sessions of 100 minutes per week), and it was equal for all six groups.

During the course of summer and autumn, the students in all the groups were required to complete the three books mentioned earlier.

3.10 Measuring Instruments

Teaching and testing are two sides of a coin. Accordingly the assessment of the results of the experiment began upon completion of the treatment.

To shed light on the outline of the testing procedures of the study, the measuring instruments of phase 1 have been illustrated in the following table (Table 3.4). For further information regarding the details of scoring procedures, please see chapter three (cf.3.10.3).

Table 3.4: Measuring Instrument and Scoring (Phase 1)

<div>Phase :1</div> <div>Quantitative</div>	
Measuring Instruments	Scoring:
1.Semi-direct oral test(assigned to the learners)	<div> <div> <div>Examiner 1</div> <div>Examiner 2</div> </div> <div> <div>= listening, then scoring the learners separately & individually</div> </div> </div> <p>Examiner3= Scoring based on the verbatim form</p> <p>Raw score of each learner=Average of the 3 scores given by 3 examiners</p> <p>(For further information, please refer to section: 3.10.3 below.)</p>
2.Recounting a simple picture story	Assessing the percentage of mid-clause pauses of both groups of EFL learners taught by N and NNSETs

3.10.1 Final Examination

To check whether the instruction had been effective, a post-test was administered at the end of the instruction and each student's score was recorded. As indicated by Bachman & Palmer (1981), "One of the areas of most persistent difficulty in language testing continues to be the measurement of oral proficiency" (cited in Huei-Chun, 2007, p. 2). According to Shohamy (1994), "A number of variables in direct speaking tests tend to affect test-takers' scores, including the role relationship, personality and grades of the testers and respondents, the purpose of the interaction, the topic, and the setting"

(ibid., p.1). However, it should be noted that as Nambiar and Goon (1993) believe audio recorded tests in comparison with face- to- face evaluation have weaknesses of their own since the examiners are definitely deprived of assessing the affective factors of test takers when they are scoring the audio recording tests. Nevertheless, to control the intervening variables of direct speaking tests, and providing equal situation for all test- takers, subjects were tested in the language laboratory based on a semi-direct oral test. The oral achievement test comprised answering questions, picture description and presentation and, from the view of content, was very similar to the contents of the textbook and the materials taught to the learners.

3.10.2 Format of the Test

Concerning the content of the test, the researcher consulted with five experienced teachers (panel of experts) to obtain their opinions and suggestions. The recommendations related to the test topics were i) film presentation; ii) description of a holiday; iii) a typical day in my life; iv) answering questions; v) picture description; and vi) presentations on my house and family. The focus group selected the last three because they thought these were the most suitable.

The test was a semi-direct speaking test recorded on tape, with instructions in Persian. Except for the instructions that were translated into Persian, all other parts including the test items along with their related numbers or the cues were in English. Upon listening to the tapes, the examinees were supposed to respond to the test items in English; their responses were recorded automatically. As mentioned earlier, there were three task types adopted in the speaking test, namely “answering questions”, “picture description” and “presentations on house and family”.

In the first task (answering questions), the test-takers were required to respond to eight questions in English. The questions were recorded on the test tape, and each question was stated only once. The test-takers were given eight seconds to answer each question orally, and the answers were recorded on tape. An interview format was used for this session, and it was fairly life-like.

With regard to the second stage, namely, picture description, learners were required to describe a set of pictures in the form of sequential events. Having listened to instructions in Persian and sequencing the events, the test-takers studied the pictures and answered questions on them orally in English. Ten seconds were allocated for answering each question. The answers were automatically recorded on tape.

The third task comprised two parts, namely, describing their house and describing their family. The test takers listened to instructions broadcast on the tape recorder while studying the picture of a house given as an example. However, their task was to imagine their own house, and based on oral clues given; describe it orally in English in four sentences. The same procedures were applied for the second part of this task that is, describing their family. These answers too were automatically recorded on tape. (See Appendix F for a format of the test.)

In addition to the semi-direct oral test, in phase one of the study, the fluency of 30 learners of the two groups-15 from each group- who were selected randomly was also considered. That was done via enumerating the mid-clause pauses produced by the learners while recounting a narrative. (For further information regarding the aforementioned narrative test, see Appendix G). The selected simple- picture story for the final exam test consisted of a set of pictures based on which the learners –after listening to the Persian instruction of the test- had to narrate a story very similar to the ones that they had experienced during the course of instructions. Content validity and

reliability (0.78) of the narrative test was considered in test preparation and via the process of focus group and inter-rater respectively. The term 'inter-rater' means two skillful scorers rate each student's response individually and independently.

As it was noted, the picture story test consisted of a set of pictures representing a typical day in Bob's life. Learners were asked just to look at the pictures provided and distributed to them in advance. They were asked to recount each scene orally when looking at the pictures within the appointed time of eight minutes. Their responses were recorded digitally and analyzed for enumerating the mid-clause pauses to determine the degree of this dimension of fluency of the learners. All pauses longer than one second that occurred within the boundaries of dependent and independent clauses were counted. To account for differences in the length of the narratives produced by the examinees in this assessment, the total number of mid-clause pauses was divided by the total number of clauses: $\text{Mean number of mid-clause pause} = \frac{\text{all mid-clause pauses}}{\text{all clauses}}$. The greater the number of mid-clause pauses of the examinees while recounting the narrative, the more deficient their language fluency. Through the process of data collection and data analysis the number of both utterances and pauses were considered and the ratio of pauses of each group of participants was computed and compared with one another (cf. 4. 3.4).

3.10.3 Scoring Procedures

With regard to scoring procedures of semi-direct oral test, the subjects were tested in a language laboratory setting, meaning that their responses were recorded on an audio tape, and later scored independently by two NSETs and the researcher. Obviously, the situation was equal for all test-takers, since the scoring was done by independent scorers rather than their own instructors. The scoring procedures were as below:

- i) Two NSETs rated the audio-taped responses independently and subjectively after listening to them, taking into consideration phonological, semantic and syntactic aspects of utterances. The third scorer (the researcher himself) rated the transcribed version of the protocols that were recorded verbatim. The final score for each individual was computed based on the average of the three scores given by the three raters.
- ii) The semi-direct oral test consisted of three equal tasks: Answering questions, Picture description, and presentation on house and family. The three tasks were also scored separately by the researcher to evaluate the performance of the learners pertaining to the three tasks separately. From the viewpoints of value or credits (marks) given to the individual items of the three equal tasks the following clarification might be helpful statistically.

The semi- direct oral test prepared for this purpose as mentioned before consisted of three equal tasks, (please see Appendix F) namely ‘answering questions’ (8 items each 4 marks, totaling =32 points), ‘picture descriptions’ similarly (8 x 4 =32 points) and ‘presentation on house and family’ (8 x 4 =32 points). The total scores of the three tasks are 96 which were computed based on the scale of 100-for the ease of data analysis. That means whoever obtained 96, his marks was assumed to be 100 and if a participant’s score was 48, the computed mark for her was 50 on the scale of 100. In other words, interval scales were selected for the measurement of the dependent variables and the representative typical scores of each group are on a scale of 100.

- iii) Concerning the computation of mid - clause pusses related to one dimension of fluency, please refer to chapter four (cf.4.3.4).

- iv) The learners and administrators' questionnaires used a Likert scale requiring respondents to choose from three options to indicate the degree of their perceptions concerning the two types of the teachers-N/NNSETs. Responses were graded from 1 to 3 (agree, not sure, disagree). The mean for each item for all respondents was obtained by summing the numerical value of each and dividing by the number of respondents. (cf. Appendices H and J).

Through the process of piloting the reliability and the validity of the measuring instruments were considered. For instance, the reliabilities of semi- direct oral test calculated through intra -rater and inter- rater were 0.76 and 0.71 respectively. According to Cohen (1988), reliability is acceptable when it is within the range of 0.50 to 1.0. These assessments pertained to 'Phase One' of the study, meaning the raw scores of the participants concerning the semi-direct oral test. However it should be noted that the second phase of the study was totally based on surveys and there was no place for treatment, The analysis of the data pertaining to Phase One and Two was done via SPSS using inferential tests like Student T-Test, and qualitative techniques.

3.11 Characteristics of the Final Exam Tests

3.11.1 Validity

As mentioned earlier (cf.3.5.1), the 'Delphi method' was used for the construction of a valid test. This technique is based on the assumption that decisions made by a group of experts in the field are better than those made by a single decision maker. In order to ensure the face, content and construct validities and appropriateness of the test, five experienced English teachers as well as three university professors were consulted. To

do this, the researcher organized a three-session focus-group meeting comprised of five English language teachers (professionals who were teaching the materials used for the experiment) as a panel of experts.

During the first session, in order to familiarize the group with the goals of the study and the research method, the researcher briefly described the course contents, the time allocated for the treatment, and the characteristics of the research samples. Then, he asked each member of the focus group to prepare an oral test comprising 20 items related to the materials which were to be taught to the learners during the treatment. Later, common items produced by the various group members were selected.

During the second and third sessions, the researcher played the role of facilitator, but the experts made the necessary decisions and adaptations regarding the appropriateness of the selected items, and prepared more that were necessary. The completed oral test was then presented to three Yazd University professors familiar with the issues of teaching and testing, and their suggestions were taken into account. Consequently, the final list of items selected by the focus group was considered to be valid and appropriate. With regard to the selection of simple- picture story needed for measuring the fluency of the two groups of the learners, the same procedures was pursued. (For further information regarding the measuring instrument of 'Phase One', please see Appendices F and G.)

3.11.2 Reliability

The reliability of the aforementioned test was computed through a pilot study using the procedures of intra-rater and inter-rater reliability through Pearson's correlation formula. At the end of the pilot study, the oral examination taken by the learners was rated twice by a NNSET (the researcher) with a time interval of two weeks; the

reliability or the stability of the scores was then computed. The rating procedure used for computing inter-rater reliability was adopted for scoring the same test in the research project as well. Therefore, two NSETs, both trained raters, independently assessed each participant's answers recorded on the tape, and individually assigned a score for each learner. The inter-rater reliability was then computed based on the two rows of scores. The intra- and inter- rater reliability scores were 0.76 and 0.71 respectively.

3.12 Selection of Stakeholders (Phase 2)

3.12.1 Selection of Learners

Phase one of the study (the main treatment) was conducted in Yazd province, whereas Tehran, the capital of Iran, was selected as the place of phase two to compensate lack of participants dealing with phase 2. To pursue the goal, two international schools located in Tehran were selected for inquiring learners' perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs. To determine the appropriate sample size, following Cochran's (1977) sampling formula, out of 483 students of the two aforementioned schools 340 female students (aged 11-13) were selected. According to Cochran's formula, the sample size for a population of 1679 in the categorical data example should be 313. This selection (the selection of 340 participants) was done because the overall population size of such learners living in Tehran, as estimated before, will not be more than 2000. To determine the sample size, as Bartlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001, p. 47) state, appropriate formula should be used. With keeping Cochran's sampling formula in mind, the selection of the 340 participants was done based on the rules of simple- random sampling presented in Creswell (2008, P.153). It should be noted that before participating in the survey, these students had had the chance to be exposed to both NSETs and NNSETs either at home or overseas. They were also similar to the participants in Phase 1 in terms of age and gender. To sum up, they (the students) were

given a close-ended questionnaire so that they could participate in an educational survey, but only 213 of them returned the completed questionnaires. The survey was conducted by the authorities of the schools, and the researcher's role was just to distribute the questionnaires to the learners. In other words, in order to reduce bias, a third party rather than the learners' English teachers or the researcher was involved in the survey procedures. The data collected via the questionnaires will be presented in Chapter 5.

3.12.2 Selection of Teachers

Fifty NSETs/ NNSETs out of the academic society of English teachers in Tehran were also chosen randomly. Only eight of the participants considered themselves as NSETs. These participants (NSETs) represented the former population of native English teachers teaching English in the private language institutes in Iran, whereas the NNSETs represented the current population of local Iranian English teachers, both past and present. The aforementioned teachers were supposed to participate in this survey and reveal their self- perceptions via an open-ended questionnaire which was designed for this purpose. The questionnaire was sent to 50 NSETs and NNSETs, but only 36 of them returned the completed questionnaires. Eight EFL teachers out of 36 considered themselves as NSETs, 28 as NNSETs among whom two were trilingual (Bengali, Hindi and English, and a little familiarity with Farsi).

3.12.3 Selection of Language School Administrators

Given the on-going debate over the selection of N/NNSETs, the third group of participants who played a significant role was the language school administrators. They were self-selected, as the researcher could not do very much in this regard due to the political situation at that time. Only 21 administrators accepted the researcher's

invitation to complete the questionnaire. Some of them were politically conservative, and did not cooperate with the researcher in any way. This could have been due to the coincidence of the study with the controversial issue of the Iranian presidential election held in 2009.

3.13 The Measuring Instruments-Questionnaires (Phase 2)

To investigate the perceptions of learners, teachers, and administrators about the concepts of NSETs and NNSETs, three types of questionnaires were used as the measuring instruments. Table 3.5 briefly illustrates the procedure and the questionnaires involved.

Table 3.5: Summary of Measuring Instruments (Phase 2)

Mixed Method Research Design			
Phase: two			
Measuring Instruments	Types of Data	Scoring	Research Qs
Learners' Questionnaire (A)	Quantitative	Statistical	RQ2
Teachers' Questionnaire (B)	Qualitative	Manual	RQ3
Administrators' Questionnaire (C)	Quantitative	Statistical	RQ4

To see the overall perspectives and attitudes of the learners, teachers and administrators about N/NNSETs, three types of validated questionnaires adopted from Moussu (2006) were administered by the researcher. They were revised or modified to be suited to the aforementioned participants and the context of the study. Because of the highly abstract nature of the 5-point scale and due to the suggestion of two university professors who were experts in the psychology of learning, a 3-point Likert scale comprising of 25 items was used for the young EFL learners (see Appendix A).The rationale for the selection of this scale comes from the fact that children of this age can

usually understand concrete phenomena better than abstract ones; to them, a 3-point scale would be more tangible and understandable than a 5-point one. For further information, see section 3.5. To support this idea, Piaget (1972) , cited in Pennington's website (2009, p. 1) , "classified students of these ages (childhood period - ages 10 and 11) as being in the 'Concrete Operational Stage'; these students have difficulty with abstract concepts."

Choudhry (1981, p. 119) states that "for smaller samples a three-point scale may be more dependable." Accordingly, the 3-point Likert scale with 25 items was adopted and adapted for administrators (See Appendix C). It goes without saying that the Likert-type questionnaire has strengths of its own. According to Farhadi (2004, p. 216), the advantage of the closed-ended questionnaire is that "the choices are uniform... and they are easy to be filled out on the part of respondents." Furthermore, Krosnick et al. (2005) state that Likert-type questionnaires are appropriate since "collecting and objectively comparing large number of perceptions, attitudes and beliefs is difficult with interviews and other qualitative designs" (cited in Moussu, 2006, P. 43). Brown (2001, p. 41) believes that "Likert-scale questions are effective for gathering respondents' views, opinions, and attitudes about various language-related issues" (ibid.). To cater to the poor English proficiency of the learners and administrators, the close-ended questionnaires were translated into Persian (See Appendix C).

An open-ended questionnaire was assigned for the NSETs and NNSETs. It included teachers' demographic information, their experience of teaching and learning and their ideas about the issues of NSETs/NNSETs (See Appendix B).

The assessment of the reliability of the modified version of the learners' administrators' and teachers' questionnaires were considered earlier (cf.3.5) What this means is that while carrying out the pilot study, a questionnaire was administered to

individual stakeholders (students, teachers and administrators) possessing similar characteristics to the main participants of the study. The data were then computed for reliability of the two closed- ended questionnaires (learners' and administrators') based on the 'Cronbach Alpha formula'. However, the reliability of the open ended questionnaire for the NSETs and NNSETs (.74) was computed based on the Cohen Kappa formula, used for the measurement of inter-rater agreement. The reliability and validity of the two phases of the study have been illustrated in Chapter Three (cf. 3.5 - Table 3.2).

3.14 Data Collection and Analysis (Phases 1 and 2)

For better understanding of the research problem and for addressing the research questions, a mixed method design was used. Data was collected via a semi-direct oral test and three types of questionnaires (two closed- and one open-ended). SPSS was used in order to analyze and describe the data and to calculate the mean-score and standard deviation and other descriptive statistics. The t-test and one way ANOVA was adopted for the analysis of quantitative data. The qualitative data were analyzed manually through codification and classification of the key terms.

Findings related to the semi-direct oral test and the questionnaire related to the learners attitudes towards NSETs and NNSETs will be discussed in Chapters 4 and 5, respectively. In Chapters 6 and 7, teachers' self-perceptions and language institute administrators' beliefs regarding teacher hiring practices will be presented. The former will be discussed with a view to address the third research questions of the study, and the latter, the fourth. In order to observe ethical considerations, pseudonyms were used for the respondents when necessary, as when mentioning their TOEFL scores or discussing the treatment results.

3.15 Summary

Although much research has been conducted to study the efficiency of NSETs/NNSETs, little has been done in terms of discussing this issue in terms of teaching oral skills to young EFL learners. Besides that, to the best knowledge of the researcher it appears that few researchers, except Foster and Tavakoli (2009), have conducted such studies in Iran. Therefore, this study attempted to investigate, on the one hand, the efficiency of NSETs and NNSETs and, on the other hand, to explore how students, teachers and administrators felt about the NS-NNS differences and whether their opinions were congruent with the findings of other researchers in this field. The researcher believes the best way to address the research questions was to apply a mixed-method approach comprising of an objective test, and closed- and open-ended questionnaires.

CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS OF ORAL SCORES

4.1 Introduction

The discussion of the findings in this study will be presented in the following four chapters. First of all, this chapter presents the analysis of the results related to the raw scores of the students on the semi-direct oral test. In addition to the raw scores of the EFL learners, their fluency in terms of mid-clause pauses was considered in a task involving recounting a simple narrative. The two aforementioned analyses are in relation to the first research question. Focusing on research question two, the next chapter (Chapter 5), includes analyses of the learners' perceptions regarding NSETs and NNSETs. To answer research question three, Chapter 6 presents the analyses on the self- perceptions of the two groups of the teacher (NSETs and NNSETs) concerning their own strengths and weaknesses. Following that, Chapter 7, the final chapter of data analyses, considers the language institute administrators' viewpoints on teacher recruitment practices and pedagogical practices of native and non-native English teachers. Finally, the thesis concludes with Chapter 8 which will present the summary of the study and discuss the implications of the overall findings.

Null Hypothesis 1 states that there are no significant differences between the oral scores of young Iranian EFL learners whose English teachers are native versus those who are non-native in terms of their performance in oral skills.

Owing to the fact that the semi-direct oral test consisted of three equal task types entitled answering questions, picture description, and presentation, a sub-set hypothesis (a peripheral null hypothesis related to H01) was formulated after taking these three tasks into consideration:

Learners taught by NSETs or NNSETs do not perform differently on various tasks such as answering questions, picture descriptions and presentation.

Additionally, the first hypothesis and sub-hypothesis took into consideration the grammatical and semantic errors that existed in the learners' utterances, while taking the semi-direct oral test. Besides that, the degree of fluency of the participants while recounting simple - picture stories was taken into account by computing the mid-clause pauses. To clarify this aspect of the analysis further, the researcher has listed the differences in the test results of the two groups before going into greater detail. In order to answer the first research question and its components, the two groups were compared based on the following criteria:

Part A: the overall scores, i.e., the average of scores given by the three scorers (to address the first null hypothesis)

Part B: the separate scores for the three equal but separate tasks of the test namely *answering questions*, *picture description*, and *presentation* (for considering the sub-set hypothesis related to H01)

Part C: the overall number of grammatical and semantic errors that existed in respondents' utterances of both groups of learners taught by the NSETs/NNSETs

(It is of interest to note, that by grammatical errors, I mean errors in the use of articles, prepositions, verb-subject agreement and other syntactic features, whereas by semantic errors, I mean the utterances which are grammatically right but semantically wrong.)

Part D: the number of mid-clause pauses produced by both groups of learners (in order to determine the degree of one dimension of the fluency of learners in both groups by enumerating the mid-clause pauses, one class was selected from each group.)

4.2 Data Analysis

After the data was collected, the raw scores of the learners were considered in order to determine the degree of efficiency of NSETs and NNSETs and to measure the role of teachers' linguistic competence in learners' oral language performance. For statistical analysis of quantitative data such as the raw scores of the participants and the computation of the two closed-ended questionnaires of learners and administrators, the t-test technique and one way ANOVA were conducted using SPSS. Qualitative data related to teachers' self-perception were analyzed manually by classifying and coding the main issues which were repeated in the teachers' questionnaires (See Chapter 6).

4.3 Analysis of the Semi-Direct Oral Test Results

4.3.1 The Overall Scores (Part A)

The following tables show detailed information about the variables. Due to the fact that just two means were involved, the t-test technique was applied (see Table 4.1). Interval scales were selected for the measurement of the dependent variables and the representative typical scores of each group are on a scale of 100.

Table 4.1: T-test Results of the Mean Scores of the Semi-Direct Oral Test (N: 90)

	No:	Mean	SD	t obs	T cri	Result
N. G.	45	82.09	8.4	5.14	1.96	T obs>t cri
NN.G.	45	68.93	14.9			H0= Rejected

Key: N.G: Groups taught by NSETs NN.G: Groups taught by NNSETs

As is evident from the table above, the comparison of the two mean scores of the two groups of learners taught by the NSETs and NNSETs indicates that the '*t*' *observed* is greater than '*t*' *critical* ($5.14 > 1.96$); therefore, it is safe to reject the first hypothesis

which says, "There are no significant differences between the oral scores of young Iranian EFL learners whose English teachers are native speakers versus those who are non-native speakers in terms of their performance in oral skills." In other words, the EFL learners taught by NSETs have got better results in their oral performance than the other group of students supervised by NNSETs. The achievement of the learners taught by NSETs also supports Mahboob (2003, p. 52) who said, "NSETs are praised for their oral skills, large vocabulary and cultural knowledge."

To see whether there were differences among the mean scores of the three classes supervised by the three NSETs, the one-way ANOVA was applied. Table 4.2 shows the result of ANOVA which indicates that there was no significant difference between or among them.

Table 4.2: Differences among the Groups Taught by NSETs (N: 45)

Mean Values	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F observed	Sig.	Result
Between Groups	87.426	2	43.71	.603	.552	H0= Accepted
Within Groups	3047.20	42	72.55			
Total	3134.63	44				

Statistical analysis indicates that the p value of observed scores (amount of statistical significance), .552, is larger than the predetermined alpha level (probability=.05), meaning that the three groups taught by NSETs had obtained similar scores on the oral-test, and the difference is not statistically significant (See table Four 2 above).

Table 4.3 below depicts the statistical analysis that determined whether there were significant differences among the three classes taught by the NNSETs.

Table 4.3: Differences among the Groups Taught by NNSETs (N:45)

Mean Values	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Result
Between Groups	121.398	2	60.699	.262	.771	H0=Accepted
Within Groups	9719.333	42	231.413			
Total	9840.731	44				

Table 4.3 indicates that there was no significant difference among the three groups taught by the NNSETs. In other words the amount of significance (.771) shown in the table above is greater than the predetermined alpha level .05; this means that the three groups had scored similarly on the oral-test and the difference is not statistically significant.

However, the means of the overall oral scores of the two groups taught by NSETs (82.10) and NNSETs (68.94) shown in the following figure (Figure 4.1) indicate that learners taught the oral skills by NSETS exhibited higher levels of achievement than their NN counterparts. Consequently, the overall results of learners' raw scores support (Arva & Medgyes, 2000) who claim that NSETs are preferred for teaching conversation. However, learners taught by NNSETs obtained moderate scores which should not be underestimated.

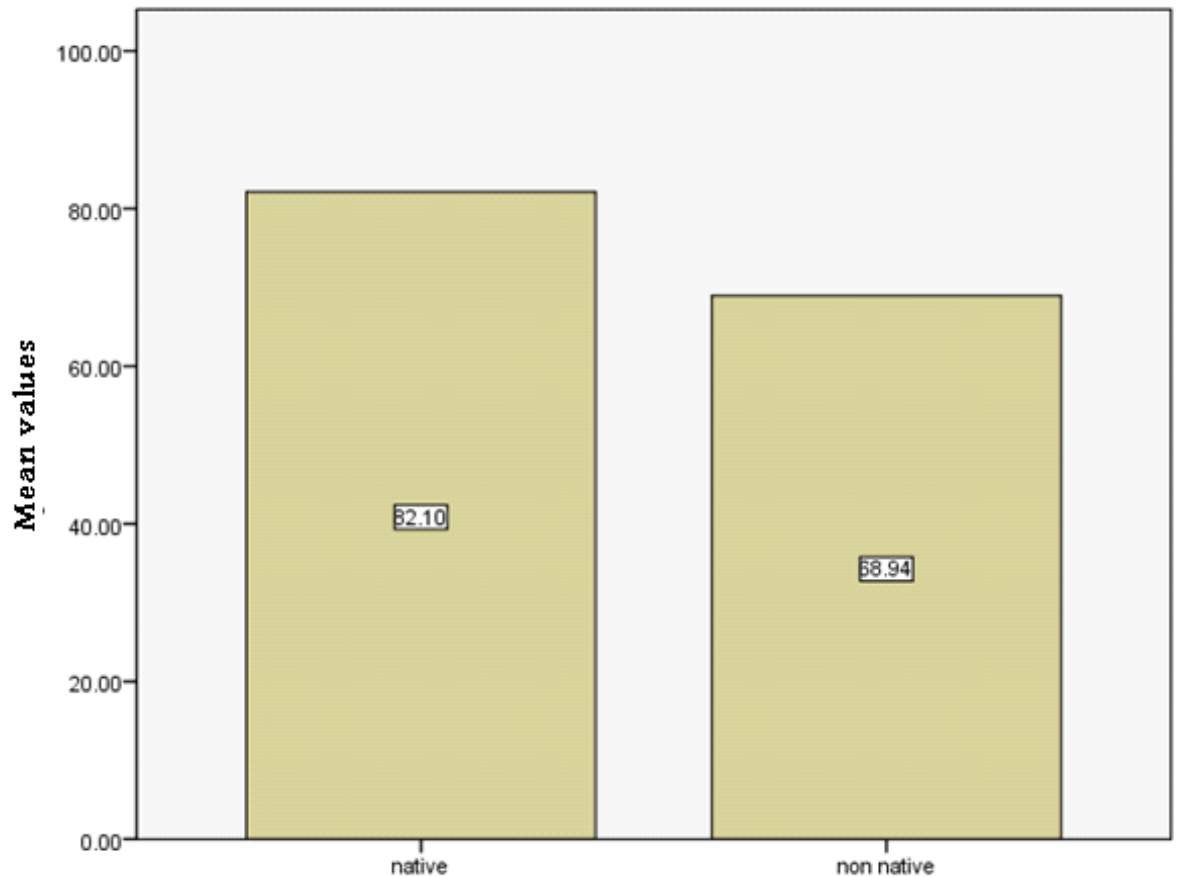


Figure 4.1: Comparison of the Learners' Results Taught by NSETs and NNSETs

As explained earlier, the final semi-direct oral test was comprised of three equal tasks (See Appendix: F), namely, answering questions, picture description and presentation. Each task contained eight questions/items. However, till yet, the researcher has calculated an overall score for each participant, and considered the issue holistically. In the upcoming argument, the researcher has considered the three aforementioned tasks as a sub-set of the first hypothesis of the research and dealt with each task separately and independently. The three abovementioned tasks were equal in value or in terms of scoring.

4.3.2 Answering Questions, Picture Description, and Presentation (Part B)

As far as the sub-set of the first null hypothesis is concerned, the following tables (Table 4.4, Table 4.5 and Table 4.6) indicate that the sub-hypotheses has been rejected due to the fact that learners of the two groups taught by NSETs and NNSETs performed differently on the three tasks: the learners in those taught by the former (NSETs) were outstanding in all three tasks compared to those taught by the latter (NNSETs).

Table 4.4: Data Analysis Related to Task 1 (Answering Questions)

	N	Mean	SD	t.obs	T cri	Result
N. G.	45	25.47	4.52	5.13	1.96	t.tobs> t. cri
NN.G.	45	18.68	7.60			Ho1.1 =Rejected

Key: N.G. = Groups taught by NSETs; NN.G. = Groups taught by NNSETs

Table 4.5: Data Analysis Related to Task 2 (Picture Description)

	N	Mean	SD	t.obs	t cri	Result
N. G.	45	25.68	4.22	3.01	1.96	t.obs> t.cri
NN.G.	45	22.68	5.17			Ho1.2=Rejected

Key: N.G. = Groups taught by NSETs; NN.G. = Groups taught by NNSETs

Table 4.6: Data Analysis Related to Task 3 (Presentation)

	N	Mean	SD	t obs	t cri	Result
N. G.	45	27.24	3.54	3.149	1.96	t. obs> tcri
NN.G.	45	24.31	5.14			Ho1.3= Rejected

Key: N.G. = Groups taught by NSETs; NN.G. = Groups taught by NNSETs

The means of the two groups of EFL learners taught by either NSETs or NNSETs and the amount of ‘t. obs’ shown in Table 4.4, Table 4.5 and Table 4.6 indicate that there were significant differences between the groups of learners taught by native and non-native teachers. Accordingly, the results prove that learners taught by NSETs showed better performance than those taught by their non-native counterparts in all three tasks. The results also indicate that the learners taught by the NNSETs were weaker in answering questions (cf. Table 4.4) than the other two tasks, namely picture description (Table 4.5) and presentation (Table 4.6). This proves that the learners in groups taught by NNSETs could not participate in conversations as well as the learners in groups taught by the NSETs. Moreover, both groups were more successful in terms of presentation tasks (cf. Table 4.6) rather than answering questions and picture description. It appears that subjects such as presentations on ‘my house’ and ‘my family’ are more tangible and ‘concrete’ in comparison with answering questions or picture description. This surely proves Piaget’s (1972) belief which claims children understand concrete phenomena better than abstract ones.

4.3.3 Grammatical and Semantic Errors (Part C)

Besides the three tasks discussed in the foregoing paragraphs, the computation of grammatical and semantic errors of the transcribed version of the tape protocol related

to the final exam (semi-direct oral test) indicated that learners in both groups, those taught by NSETs and NNSETs, made more grammatical errors than semantic ones when they were responding to the test items (Tables 4.7 and 4.8). This implies that the respondents had more problems in the productive skill (producing grammatical utterances) rather than the receptive ones (understanding the meaning of utterances). These results also accord closely with Long (1990) and Gass & Selinker (1994) who claim that learners are usually stronger in the receptive skills rather than the productive ones. It can be concluded that when teachers are teaching, they should know the significant role of receptive skills as mastery of these can eventually lead to better productive skills. This means that the more a person can increase his or her input data, the better will be the results that can be gained in terms of output or production (Pica, Doughty, & Young, 1986). The analysis of the semantic and grammatical errors is illustrated in Table 4.7 and Table 4.8, respectively.

Table 4.7: Analysis of Semantic Errors of Learners Taught by NSETs and NNSETs

	N	Mean	SD	t obs	t cri	Result
N. G.	45	3.42	1.8	4.11	1.96	t.obs> t.cri
NN.G.	45	5.53	2.9			Semantic Ho=Rejected

Key: N.G. = Groups taught by NSETs; NN.G. = Groups taught by NNSETs

Note also: In this table, 'smaller mean' indicates fewer errors.

Statistical analysis as shown in Table 4.7 reveals that learners taught by NSETs have had fewer errors than the other groups.

Table 4.8: Analysis of Grammatical Errors of Learners Taught by NSETs and NNSETs

	N	Mean	SD	T.obs	T. cri	Results
NG	45	7.04	4.68	3.62	1.96	T.obs> t.cri H0=Rejected
NNG	45	10.33	4.83			

Note: N.G=Groups taught by NSETs; NN.G. = Groups taught by NNSETs
Note also= In this table, ‘smaller mean’ indicates fewer errors.

Table 4.8 indicates the analysis of data related to grammatical errors made by the learners taught by both groups of teachers (NSETs and NNSETs) using the T-test. As the means of the two groups indicate, learners taught English by Iranian English teachers (NNSETs) have made more grammatical mistakes in comparison with the other group.

In other words, the means of the two groups in Table 4.7 and Table 4.8 show that in terms of meaning and grammar, learners taught by NSETs had fewer errors than those supervised by NNSETs. Of course, this does not mean that Iranian teachers could not teach well. The results illustrate that both groups of learners performed well; those who were taught by the NSETs performed better.

In contrast to Mahboob (2003, p. 3) who criticizes NSETs “for their poor knowledge of grammar and values NNSETs for their good command of the structure of English,” the results of this study show that NSETs are superior to their non-native counterparts even in terms of teaching grammatical utterances. (cf. Table 4.8). The findings also run counter to Arva and Medgyes’ (2000) findings which indicate that NNSETs are better as long as they teach grammar rather than other components. Of course, in this study grammatical points were taught indirectly (incidentally), or rather, implicitly and

inductively through the process of communication, otherwise the result might be the other way round.

However, results of this study indicate that when the NSETs are qualified as in this case, they are more outstanding in terms of teaching the overall aspects of oral skills to the foreign language learners than their non-native counterparts.

4.3.4 Fluency of Learners (Part D)

To examine one dimension of fluency of the two groups of participants, a very simple oral test, apart from the semi-direct oral test was administered to two classes. In this comparative study, the number of inappropriate mid-clause pauses produced by the participants while retelling a picture story was considered. The allocated time of the fluency test was eight minutes for each examinee.

To compare the number of inappropriate (mid-clause) pauses between the two aforementioned groups, two random sub-samples of learners (15 taught by a NNSET and 15 by NSETs) were asked to recount a simple narrative at the end of the course of instruction based on a set of interrelated pictures illustrating 'A typical Day in Bob's Life'. Initially, the test takers were asked to look over the pictures for two minutes and then they were asked to tell the story to someone who had no chance to see the pictures. Consequently, each individual participant was digitally recorded while recounting the narrative. Mid-clause pauses lasting more than one second were counted with the assistance of a computer technician. In a similar study done by Foster and Tavakoli (2009) mid-clause pauses (of advanced learners) more than 0.4 long were enumerated. However, in this study mid clause pauses longer than one second were counted since the learners of this study were young beginners.

To calculate the reliability of retelling narrative test via the process of inter-rater (two raters rating the same paper or oral-based test) two rows of quantitative data, here enumerated as mid-clause pauses were needed. Accordingly, the researcher also replayed each recorded digital file and calculated the number of mid-clause pauses. Then, stability of the enumerated mid clause pauses (which was 0.78) was computed. The results of this part of the study showed that learners taught by NNSETs had more mid-clause pauses than those taught by native teachers. As shown in Table 4.9 below, the total number of mid-clause pauses produced by the two classes of the learners taught by NNSETs and NSETs was 162. Ninety six mid-clause pauses were recorded for the learners taught by NNSETs and the rest (66) for the learners taught by NSETs. Statistically, the ratio of mid-clause pauses of the above-mentioned groups of participants was 59.25 percent to 40.75 percent, respectively. Further details on this fluency measure have been illustrated in Table 4.9

Table 4.9: Number of Mid-Clause Pauses Produced by the Learners of the two Groups

Learners taught by NNSETs				Learners taught by NSETs			
No	Clauses	Mid-clause pauses	Mean pause Per Clause	No	Clauses	Mid-clause pauses	Mean pause Per Clause
1	10	4	0.4	1	11	4	0.36
2	10	6	0.6	2	11	3	0.27
3	8	9	1.13	3	10	4	0.4
4	7	6	0.85	4	9	7	0.77
5	7	11	1.57	5	9	7	0.77
6	6	7	1.16	6	9	4	0.44
7	6	7	1.16	7	8	3	0.37
8	5	8	1.6	8	8	3	0.37
9	5	8	1.6	9	6	5	0.83
10	5	6	1.2	10	5	6	1.2
11	4	5	1.25	11	5	7	1.4
12	4	5	1.25	12	4	3	0.75
13	3	4	1.33	13	4	4	1
14	3	5	1.66	14	3	2	0.66
15	3	5	1.66	15	2	4	2
Total: 15	86	96	18.42	Total:15	104	66	11.59
NNSETs' pauses = 59.25 percent				NSETs' pauses=40.75 percent			

In this table greater mean (18.42) indicates greater number of mid-clause pauses.

The analyses of the participants' oral production in this part of the study indicated that those taught by NSET produced a greater number of clauses (104) than their peers who were taught by NNSETs (86). Moreover, those taught by NSET paused less frequently in the middle of their clauses. Learners taught by NNSETs had a total mean of 18.42 mid-clause pauses whereas their peers had a mean of 11.59. In other words, of the total 162 mid-clause pauses observed, 96(59.3%) were made by the learners taught by NNSET and 66(40.7%) were made by the learners taught by native teachers.

Interestingly, clauses produced by the students of the non-native teacher seemed to be more accurate and formal than the learners taught by the native speaking English teacher. This supports the results of the study conducted by Arva and Medgyes (2000) who saw priority of non-native speaking English teachers over NSETs in terms of accuracy in target language., and that might be true from the parts of the EFL learners they teach.

All these proved that at least from one dimension of fluency, namely inappropriate pauses, the participants who were taught English by non-native English teacher were not as good as those who were taught by the NSET; this supports the idea of Foster and Tavakoli (2009, p. 878) who claim that “native speakers do not need to repair their speech” and the same may be true for the EFL learners taught by NSETs. In keeping with their findings and as the two researchers claim, “What is most noticeable is that learners taught by the native speaker have fewer mid clause pauses than their non-native counterparts" (ibid., p.881). This indicates that the learners who were taught the target language by NNSETs were less secure in planning and delivering whole clauses or sentences fluently without unnecessary pauses but were more accurate in terms of sentence structure.

4.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, the data analysis of the four parts of Phase 1 of the study has been handled with regard to the first null hypothesis. In Part A, the raw scores obtained on a test by the six groups of learners taught by the two types of teachers (NSETs and NNSETs) were statistically and holistically computed, and revealed that the learners taught by the NSETs exhibited better performance than those taught by the NNSETs. The difference between the results of the two groups was significant, thus the first hypothesis of the study had to be rejected.

In Part B, as mentioned earlier, the final examination test (semi-direct-oral test) consisted of three tasks, namely, answering questions, picture description, and presentation, and the scores in each task was studied and compared between both the groups separately. For instance, the scores obtained by the learners taught by the NSETs for the first task (answering questions) were compared with those of the learners taught by the NNSETs. The same procedures were applied for the two other tasks. In all three tasks, the better performance of the learners taught by the NSETs was evident.

In Part C, the holistic errors for all three tasks obtained by the learners in both groups were compared and examined in terms of grammar and meaning. That means, in this stage the enumerated numbers of semantic and grammatical errors of each individual was considered and analyzed respectively. The results showed that both groups of learners performed better in semantics rather than syntax; they exhibited more grammatical problems in their utterances than in recognizing the meaning of utterances.

Finally, in Part D, the fluency of the learners in both groups was examined via recounting a picture story comprised of different situations (cf.4.3.4), explaining one episode - 'A Typical Day in Bob's Life'. This was done by counting the mid-clause pauses of the students' utterances which were recorded on tape. Statistical procedures showed that learners who had been taught the language by NNSETs had more mid-clause pauses than the other set of learners, whose pauses occurred more often at clause boundaries.

From the evidence provided by the raw scores in the oral test, it can be concluded that in terms of teaching and learning oral skills, the performance of the learners supervised by NSETs performed better than those taught by the NNSETs. However, it should be noted that the latter also performed moderately well.

In this chapter, the scores of the learners were analyzed to compare and contrast the performance of the two groups of the students taught by two different types of teachers (NSETs and NNSETs). However, as Berns et al (1999, p. 138) state, “What is of concern is the value and necessity of hearing actual voices and views from the periphery that provide rich perspectives on and insights into the complexity of English [language teaching] worldwide.” In ratification of this point, Tudor (2001, p. 9) contends, “Understanding the reality of teaching involves exploring the meaning it has for students, for teachers, and for the others who, in one way or another, influence what is done in the classroom” (cited in Hayes, 2009, p. 2). In line with this thought, the researcher deemed it necessary to inquire into the perceptions of some of the stakeholders involved in the overall EFL teaching/learning procedures. Chapters 5, 6, and 7 that follow will discuss the perceptions of the learners about NSETs and NNSETs, the self perceptions of the teachers, and the viewpoints of the language institute administrators, respectively.

CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSIS OF LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS OF N/NSETs

5.1 Introduction

As stated in Chapter 1, this study investigates the oral performance of learners taught by NSETs and NNSETs and examines the opinions of learners, teachers and administrators regarding these two types of teachers. Chapter 2 highlighted the related ideas and the findings of other researchers in the field and showed the probable gaps in the studies carried out with regard to the issues being studied in this investigation, while Chapter 3 discussed the methodology used for the investigation. In Chapter 4, the researcher analyzed the learners' scores and viewed the first null hypothesis, that there are no significant differences between the scores of Iranian students whose English teachers are native speakers of English versus those who are non-native speakers of English in terms of their (the students') performance in oral skills. This chapter considers the second null hypothesis, that is, learners do not perceive any differences between the types of teachers (native speakers of English versus non-native speakers of English) teaching them English.

5.2 Learners' Perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs

To investigate the learners' perceptions of NSETs & NNSETs, a closed-ended questionnaire originally taken from Moussu (2006) was selected and modified slightly (cf.3.13). For constructing the test, Moussu initially identified some keywords or constructs based on the aims and research questions of her study, as well as the characteristics of her participants. Then, in 2005, she sent her research questions along with two lists of beliefs, including the keywords and the constructs which had been identified earlier, to experts in the field of Applied Linguistics who had studied issues

related to NSETs and NNSETs, such as Braine, Matsuda and Matsuda and Mahboob, and invited their suggestions and opinions. Finally, keeping their recommendations in mind, she designed the questionnaires based on the format and structure of Duncans' New Multiple Range Test, which, according to Moussu (2006), had been developed in 1955 to compare sets of means. Thus she assumed that the test was eminently suitable for her to compare her own sets of means.

Due to the fact that the context and the participants of this study were different from that of Moussu, the items in the questionnaire were modified in terms of content and wording so that they would be more suited to the young participants. For instance, based on Piaget's viewpoints (1972) (cf.3.13), the 5-point Likert scale was changed to a 3-point one. Through piloting procedures based on the recommendation of two faculty members of the Department of Psychology at Yazd University, Iran (cf.3.5), inappropriate items were excluded and the questionnaire was revised and translated into Persian to suit the participants of the study. As Brown (2001) and Wegener and Fabrigar (2003) believe, other significant issues such as construct, wording, number of items, and readability of the items were taken into account. The reasons for the revision, modification, of the items and the exclusion of some items, as mentioned above, were due to the fact that both the participants and the place of the two studies were quite different. Moussu's participants were selected from young male and female university students studying in the United States who came from different countries with different mother tongues. However, the sample of the current study was just young female Iranian EFL learners within the age range of 11-13. Therefore, with keeping such differences in mind, the researcher made a decision to make changes in terms of the measuring instrument. For instance, a few items taken from Moussu's (2006) questionnaire which were excluded are given below:

My English teacher knows the English grammar very well.
My English teacher rarely makes grammar mistakes when he or she speaks.
What country is your English teacher from?
My English teacher looks like a native speaker of English
My English teacher is a good example of the ideal English teacher. (Moussu, 2006,p.203)

As it is unfair to expect the participants of the current study who are beginners to judge the proficiency of their teachers in terms of grammar or in term of identifying the ideal English teachers, such items were excluded. For further information, please see Moussu's student questionnaire (Appendix K).

The content validity as well as the reliability of the students' questionnaire (.70) were ensured via a panel of experts and a pilot study. Next, a Persian professor of literature revised and edited the items on language use. His recommendations were also considered. Finally, the modified version of the questionnaire comprising 25 statements which called for responses on a 3-point Likert scale (*agree, not sure and disagree*) was prepared. Concerning the place of survey, two international schools located in Tehran were selected. After the permission of the Department of Education and that of the principals of the schools had been obtained, 340 out of 483 female Iranian EFL learners exposed to both NSETs and NNSETs were randomly selected based on the rules of simple-random sampling proposed by Creswell (2008). Finally, the translated version of the questionnaire was distributed to the participants. However, only 213 of them returned completed questionnaires.

Although the Likert-scale items were in the form of statements, for ease of data analysis, they are referred to by the question numbers used in the questionnaire, thus statement 1 would be represented by Q1, Statement 2 by Q2 and so on. Of the 25 items on the questionnaire, 11 required the learners to provide their perceptions with regard to NSETs, while another 11 were allocated for their perceptions of the NNSETs. The

remaining three items inquired into the learners' perceptions of the target language and its significance.

The analyses of the response frequencies related to questionnaire items are summarized in the section that follows. First, the learners' perceptions regarding NSETs (Table 5.1) and their perceptions with regard to the NNSETs (Table 5.8) are presented and discussed item-by-item. Second, the means scores of items addressing NSETs and NNSETs are compared using a t.test in relation to the second hypothesis of the study (Table 5.14) since these are quantitative data. Finally, data from the three remaining questionnaire items that inquire into the significance of English from the viewpoint of the learners are presented (Table 5.15). Since in the present study, the t.test techniques have been used in chapters 4, 5, and 7 abundantly, the researcher deemed it necessary to substantiate its application with primary evidence.

It is of interest to note that the independent-sample t-test is used when the researcher compares mean scores obtained from two independent groups for possible significant differences. Due to the quantitative type of the data in the present work, the researcher compared two set of scores by EFL learners taught by N and NNSETs. Please, see Chapter four (cf. 4.3). The aim was to test the first null hypothesis of the study to check possible significant differences between the scores of Iranian students whose English teachers were native speakers of English on the one hand and those whose teachers were non-native speakers of English on the other hand. The two sets of score were, therefore, obtained from two independent samples on their performance in oral language skills. It is worth noting that the basic assumptions for the use of this inferential test were also taken into account. Based on Connolly (2007) who says the basic conditions for the use of this test are met when: a) we compare the scores of two independent groups on a

scale variable; b) the scale variable is approximately normally distributed; and c) the variances of the scores for both groups on the scale variable are roughly equal.

T-test was also used as the inferential statistics for hypothesis 2 (cf. 5.2.2) and 3 (cf.7.2.2) as well because the data on related questionnaire items had been redefined (transformed) as a scale variable and the resulting data were interval. Learners' and administrators' perceptions of native-speaking and non-native speaking English teachers were therefore shown and compared in interval terms in addition to the more qualitative analysis of each questionnaire item. Interestingly, statistical analyses in the foregoing, ongoing and following chapters indicate that the t.test's results were revealing. As shown in Chapters 4, 5 and 7 (cf. 4.3, 5.2.2 and 7.2.2), the numerical values for statistical significance (p values) were lower than the predetermined alpha level (.05) and the differences were statistically significant. Therefore, it was safe to reject the related null hypotheses (1, 2, and 3). It is noteworthy that ANOVAs were used, where there was a need to compare more than two means. However, there was no room for applying Z. test since the sample size of present study was inadequate to observe the requirements of such test.

To analyze the data related to the present chapter, the following procedures have been taken into account. Initially, the items have been classified and placed in the table. Then, they (items) have been ranked based on the values that learners have assigned to each statement/question. Finally, as shown in the upcoming table (Table 5.1) the ordered mean of each individual item has been computed. Regarding the value attributed to each item of the 3-point Likert scale (*agree, undecided and disagree*), the following points should be noted: If the mean of an item is around one, it means the participants mainly 'agreed' with that item; however when the mean of any particular item is 2 or within 2 and 3, that indicates learners were 'undecided' or 'disagreed'

respectively. To examine the issue in depth, every statement/question will also be scrutinized and supported with a figure or table individually and comparatively, based on the sequence in the original table, meaning as presented in the main questionnaire.

5.2.1 Learners' Perceptions of NSETS

The following table (Table 5.1) illustrates learners' perceptions of NSETS, indicating how the respondents responded to the related items.

Table 5.1: Overall Perceptions of Students Regarding NSETS (N: 213)- F=frequency

Ranking, No	Qs on NSETS	Agree: F-(%)	Not sure: F-(%)	Disagree: F-(%)	Rank score	Ordered Mean
1	<i>Q21:NSETS can be good models for young EFL learners.</i>	132 (62)	53 (24.9)	28 (13.1)	530	1.51
2	<i>Q18:NSETS can teach oral communication skills better than NNSETS.</i>	128 (60.1)	50 (23.5)	35 (16.4)	519	1.56
3	<i>Q17:If I could choose an NSET, I would do so.</i>	125 (58.7)	49 (23)	39 (18.3)	512	1.59
4	<i>Q4:FL teachers should all speak with a perfect American accent.</i>	113 (53.1)	65 (30.5)	35 (16.4)	504	1.63
5	<i>Q6:NSETS who are familiar with the learners' mother tongue can teach English better.</i>	120 (56.3)	48 (22.5)	45 (21.2)	501	1.64
6	<i>Q23:I encourage my friends to take English classes from NSETS.</i>	100 (46.9)	79 (37.1)	34 (16)	492	1.69
7	<i>Q2:NSETS can tolerate our mistakes better than Iranian English teachers</i>	105 (49.5)	56 (26.3)	52 (24.4)	479	1.75
8	<i>Q8:To learn English well, I need to have a teacher who is an NSET.</i>	89 (41.8)	65 (30.5)	59 (27.7)	456	1.85
9	<i>Q20:NSETS use modern educational tools better than NNSETS.</i>	75 (35.2)	79 (37.1)	59 (27.7)	442	1.92
10	<i>Q13:NSETS know about American or British culture better than NNSETS.</i>	66 (31)	77 (36.2)	70 (32.9)	422	2.01
11	<i>Q5:EFL teachers should all speak with a perfect British accent.</i>	41 (19.2)	84 (39.4)	88 (41.3)	379	2.22
Total Learners' Perceptions		1049	705	544	476	19.37

It should be noted that two series of numbers have been allocated to each item, the first in the first column and the second in the next column, just before the statements (Qs). The former is the ranking number of the items, while the latter is related to the item number as it appears in the questionnaire (See Appendix A).

For the first item (Q21), that is, *NSETs can be good models for young foreign learners of English*, 62 percent of the participants agreed with the statement, while only 13.1 percent disagreed (Table 5.2). About a quarter of the respondents (24.9 percent) stated they were not sure. Thus the results indicate that the respondents had a positive attitude towards NSETs. The findings support Nayar (1994, p.4) who says, “English native speakers have the rights and responsibilities not only of controlling the forms and the norms of English globally but also of dominating theory and practice of its teaching and research.”

Table 5.2: NSETs Can be Good Models for EFL Learners (Q21).

No.	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Mean	Std deviation
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent		
Q21	132	62.0	53	24.9	28	13.1	1.5117	0.71777

Responses given to the next statement, *NSETs can teach oral communication skills better than Iranian English teachers* (Q18), exhibit a similar pattern, with 60.1 percent of the participants strongly confirming the superiority of NSETs to NNSETs in terms of teaching oral skills (Figure 5.1). This finding is surprisingly congruent with that of Mahboob & Bloomington (2003), which revealed that exactly the same percentage of respondents (60.1) thought that NSETs’ were better at teaching oral skills to EFL learners. Figure 5.1 below illustrates the point.

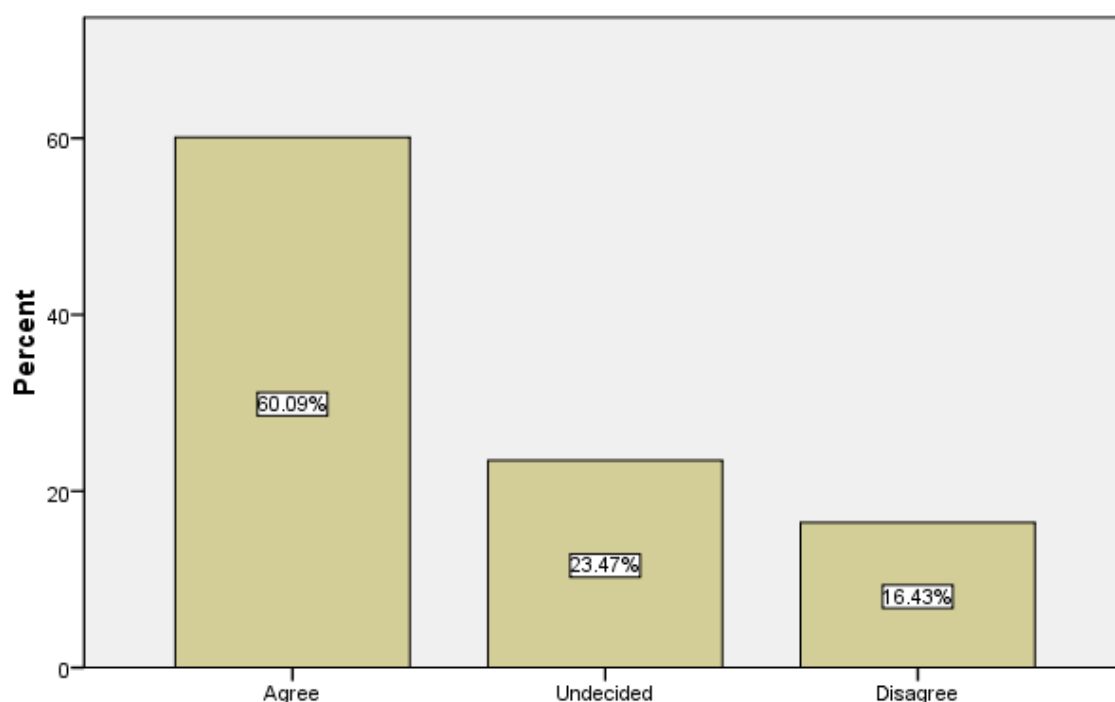


Figure 5.1: Priority of NSETs over NNSETs in Teaching Oral skills (Q18)

As Table 5.3 shows, more than two-fifths (42 percent) of the participants agreed with the statement that to learn English well, *I need to have a teacher who is an NSET* (Q 8). The percentages of responses for the other two options were almost equal, with 30.5 percent opting for ‘not sure’ and 27.7 percent for ‘disagree’. The perspectives of the participants based on the results to Questions 21, 18, and 8 strongly confirmed their higher opinion of NSETs as compared to NNSETs. The similarity of the responses also confirmed the item dependency and internal validity of the test. This preference given to NSETs may have been grounded in the higher English language proficiency of native speakers in comparison to that of their non-native counterparts.

Table 5.3: I Need an NSET to Learn English well (Q8).

No.	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Mean	Std deviation
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent		
Q8	89	41.8	65	30.5	59	27.7	1.8592	.82352

Responses to Q 17 as shown in Figure 5.2 and Q 23 (Table 5.4) *If I could choose a NSET, I would do so and I encourage my friends to take English classes from NSETs* respectively reveal that the majority of the participants (58.7 percent & 47 percent, respectively) would select NSETs as teachers if given a choice, and encourage their friends to go for classes in which NSETs are teaching. This idea supports Moussu (2006) who claims that learners will become disappointed when they learn that their EFL teachers are NNSETs. Similarly, parents usually prefer to send their kids to classes wherein the native speaker of target language is teaching. The same seems to be true for EFL learners who go overseas to attend English classes. They spend a lot of time and money to learn English from one who is a native speaker of the language. However, these findings run counter to Fox's (1992) conclusion that students who were exposed to both groups of teachers (NSETs and NNSETs) valued NNSETs more than their native counterparts.

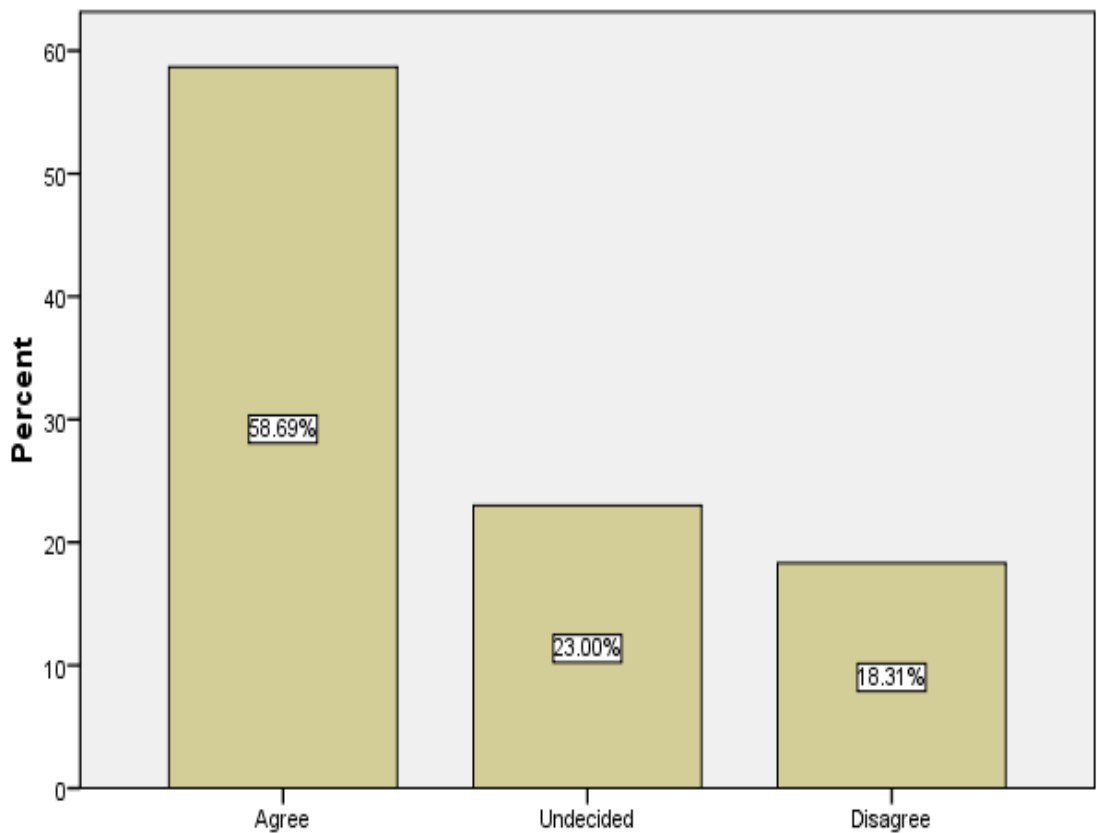


Figure 5.2: I would Choose an NSET if I could (Q17).

Table 5.4: I Encourage Friends to Take English Classes from NSETs (Q23)

No.	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Mean	Std deviation
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent		
Q23	100	46.9	79	37.1	34	16.0	1.6901	0.73185

The next set of items (Q4 & Q5) which asked the participants about their preferences for teachers' accents revealed that they preferred those who spoke with an American (53.1 percent) rather than those who had a British accent (19.2 percent) (See Figure 5.3 and Table 5.5. As Crystal (2003) and Graddol (2006) claim, political, military and economic powers contribute to making a language appealing, and as is generally

acknowledged, Americans are thought to be superior in these domains, especially since the ‘sun has set’ over the British empire.

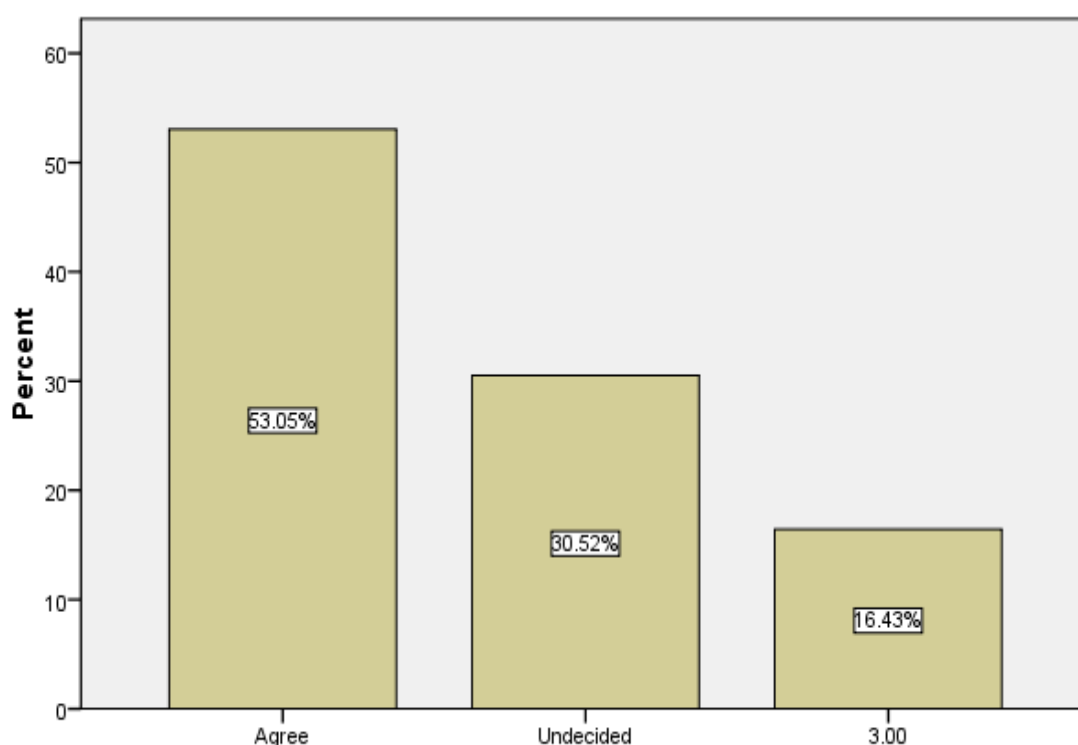


Figure 5.3: Teaching with American Accent (Q4)

Table 5.5: Teaching with British Accent (Q5)

No.	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Mean	Std deviation
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent		
Q5	41	19.2	84	39.4	88	41.3	2.2207	0.74804

With regard to Q6 (*NSETs who are familiar with the learners' mother tongue can teach English better*), more than half the learners (56.3 percent) agreed with this statement (Table 5.6). About a fifth of them (21.1 percent) disagreed, while almost an equal proportion (22.5 percent) indicated uncertainty. Medgyes (1994, pp. 348-349)

confirms the point: "The ideal NSET is the one who has achieved a high degree of proficiency in the learner's mother tongue." Obviously, knowing a learner's mother tongue can help NSETs solve the problems of the learners when coming across native language interference or negative transfer of the learner's mother tongue.

Table 5.6: Knowing Learner's Mother Tongue can Benefit NSETs (Q6)

No.	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Mean	Std deviation
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent		
Q6	120	56.3	48	22.5	45	21.1	1.6479	0.80854

Q2 states that *NSETs can tolerate our mistakes better than Iranian English teachers*. As it is evident from Figure 5.4 below, about 50 percent of the learners show their agreement with this statement.

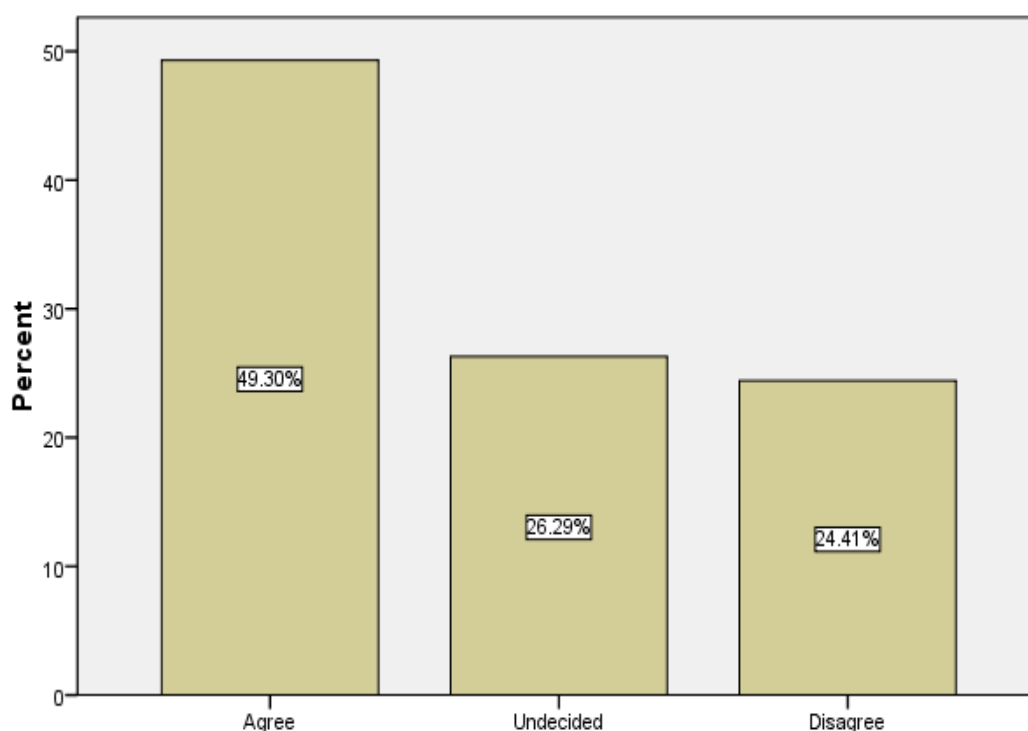


Figure 5.4: NSETs can Tolerate our Mistakes better than NNSETs (Q2).

Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) emphasized the flexibility of NNSETs, whereas Arva and Medgyes (2000), through their experiments, concluded that NSETs could tolerate EFL learners' errors and mistakes better than NNSETs. When teaching in private language schools, the researcher himself has come across cases where NSETs have shown tolerance and flexibility when dealing with students' problems.

As regards Q20, '*NSETs use modern educational tools better than NNSETs*' the responses of the students were not significantly different as shown in Figure 5.5. More than a third of the respondents (35 percent) showed their agreement while 28 percent disagreed. However, most of the respondents (37 percent) stated that they were not sure about this aspect of the teachers. Interestingly, both learners and administrators (See Chapter 7) exhibited a similar pattern of responses. The perceptions of the participants are contrary to the ideas of Arva and Medgyes (2000) who claimed that NSETs use educational technology better than their non-native counterparts. However, the researcher's experience supports Arva's and Medgyes' testimony: he has been witness to scenes where NSETs had greater tendency to use varieties of materials, including audio-visual aids, whereas their non-native counterparts had been text-bound.

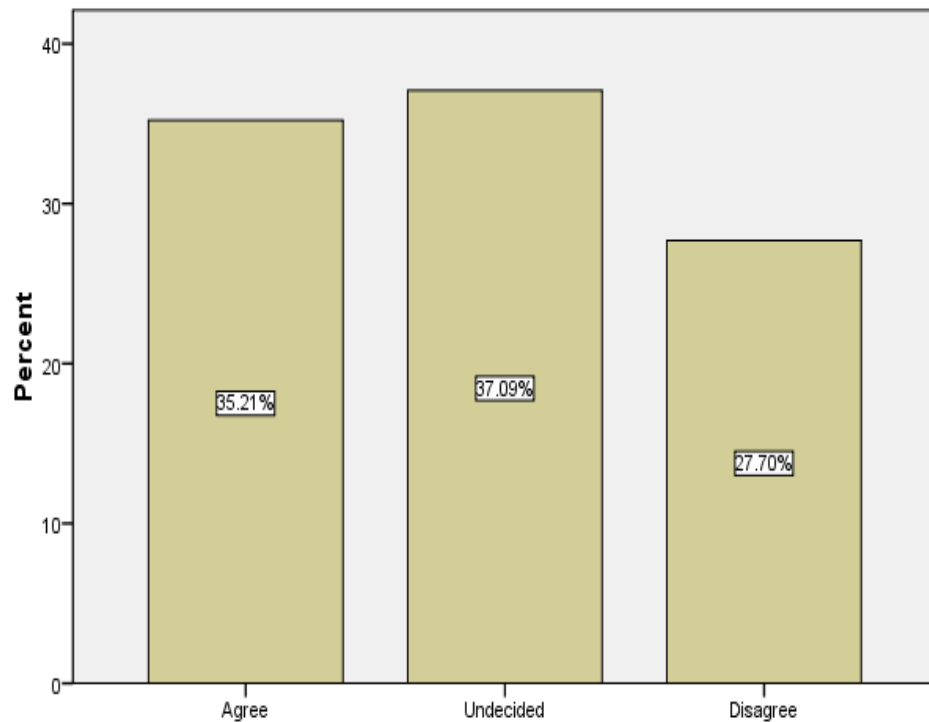


Figure 5.5: NSETs Use Educational Technology better than NNSETs (Q20)

The responses to the next statement, *NSETs know about American or British culture better than NNSETs* (Q 13), were more equitably distributed : 31 percent showed their agreement, 33 percent showed their disagreement, while 36 percent were not sure (Table 5.7). This implies that according to the learners some NNSETs may know Anglophone cultures as well.

Table 5.7: Better Familiarity of NSETs with American Culture than NNSETs (Q13)

No.	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Mean	Std deviation
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent		
Q13	66	31.0	77	36.2	70	32.9	2.0188	0.800

The overall responses given to the constructs pertaining to the NSETs indicate that learners appear to have a better opinion of NSETs than of NNSETs. The next section will discuss the set of statements pertaining to learners perceptions of NNSETs.

5.2.2 Learners' Perceptions of NNSETS

The second set of statements examined the learners' perspectives regarding Iranian EFL teachers. As in the earlier section, two numbers have been allocated to each statement: the numbers in the first column refer to the ranking items, while the numbers next to the statements refer to the numbers of the statements in the questionnaire (Please, see Appendix A).

Table 5.8: Overall Perceptions of Students' Regarding NNSETs (N: 213)

Ranking No	Qs on NNSETs	Agree F-(%)	Not sure F- (%)	Disagr ee F- (%)	Rank score	Ordered Mean
1	<i>Q7: I do not care where my English teacher is from as long as he/she is qualified and experienced.</i>	143 (67.1)	38 (17.8)	32 (15)	537	1.48
2	<i>Q14: I am concerned about the difference in English knowledge between NSETs and NNSETs.</i>	63 (29.6)	101 (47.4)	49 (23)	440	1.93
3	<i>Q22: NNSETs can be good models for young EFL learners.</i>	60 (28.2)	97 (45.5)	56 (26.3)	430	1.98
4	<i>Q12: NNSETs have difficulties understanding and responding to students' questions.</i>	73 (34.3)	67 (31.5)	73 (34.3)	426	2.00
5	<i>Q11: NNSETs can help me to solve my concerns in English better.</i>	62 (29.1)	71 (33.3)	80 (37.6)	408	2.08
6	<i>Q1: NNSETs give learners better opportunities to participate in classroom activities.</i>	63 (29.6)	66 (31)	84 (39.4)	405	2.10
7	<i>Q10: NNSETs motivate me more than NSETs in the classroom.</i>	57 (26.8)	52 (24.4)	104 (48.8)	379	2.22
8	<i>Q9: I can only learn English from NNSETs.</i>	48 (22.5)	66 (31)	99 (46.5)	375	2.23
9	<i>Q19: NNSETs can teach reading and writing skills to EFL learners better than NSETs.</i>	40 (18.8)	75 (35.2)	98 (46)	368	2.27
10	<i>Q16: I understand my teacher better when he is an NNSET rather than being an NSET.</i>	45 (21.1)	63 (29.6)	105 (49.3)	366	2.28
11	<i>Q15: NNSETs can help me familiarize myself better to the new American culture.</i>	45 (21.1)	56 (26.3)	112 (52.6)	359	2.31
Total Learners' Perceptions		699	752	892	408.4	22.88

F= frequency

Interestingly, the highest rank assigned by the participants goes to Q7: *I do not care where my English teacher is from as long as he/she is qualified and experienced* (Please, see Table 5.8).

More than two thirds of the learners (67.1 percent) agreed to this, indicating that the teachers' qualifications were important to them (Figure 5.6). The issue of qualification has been confirmed by TESOL (1992) which has given equal opportunities to both NSETs and NNSETs. If this is the case, then the overall preference of the participants for NSETs is not due to the ethnicity or citizenship of the instructors. Perhaps, to the learners, Iranian NNSETs are not highly educated or well-trained in comparison with their native counterparts. Therefore, the officials in charge (in Iran) should consider the point and carry out the necessary revisions with regard to the teaching and training practices of Iranian NNSETs.

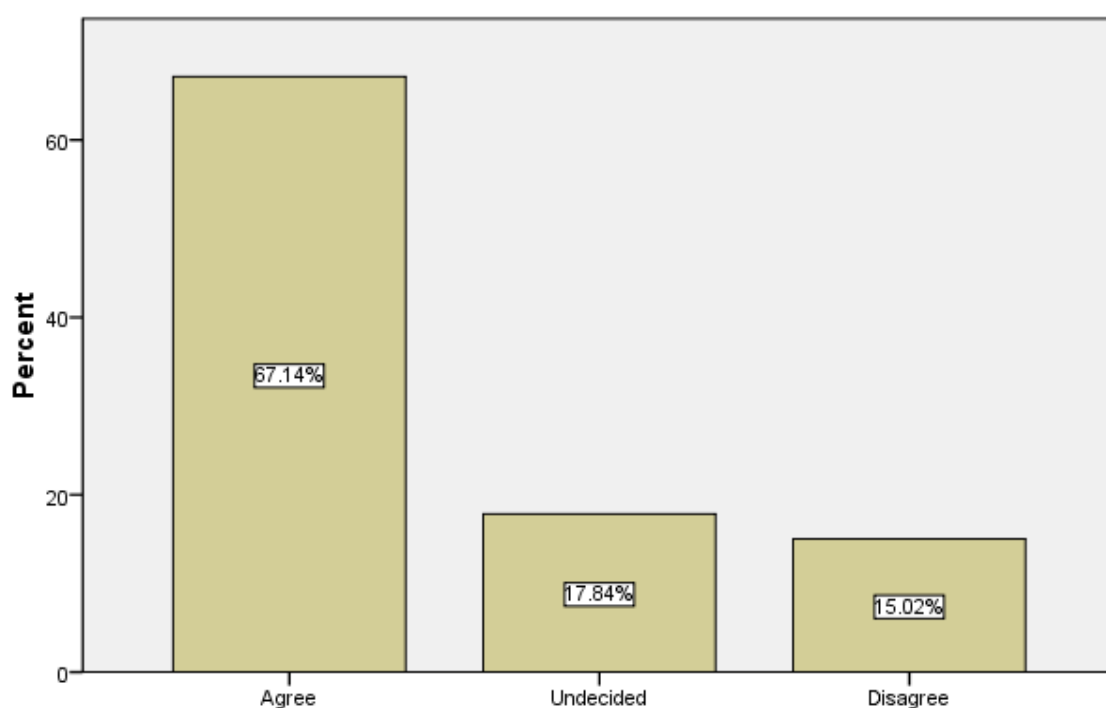


Figure 5.6: Significance of Teachers' Qualifications (Q7)

The next set of constructs, Q14 and Q12 (*I am concerned about the differences in English knowledge between NSETs and NNSETs and Iranian English teachers have difficulties understanding and responding to students' questions*, respectively), show a contradiction in the extent of agreement of the participants, which are 29.6 percent for

the former and 34.3 percent for the latter (Figure 5.7 and Table 5.9). This implies that learners are not as concerned about their teachers' knowledge of English as they are about the Iranian EFL teachers' capabilities to solve their English language problems. A substantial number of the respondents also appear to be 'unsure' of their responses, since almost a half of them (47.4 percent) opted for this option for Q14, and almost a third (31.5 percent) for Q12. The results for the two items are very similar to that of Maftoon, et al (2010), which confirms the poor English language proficiency of Iranian EFL teachers.

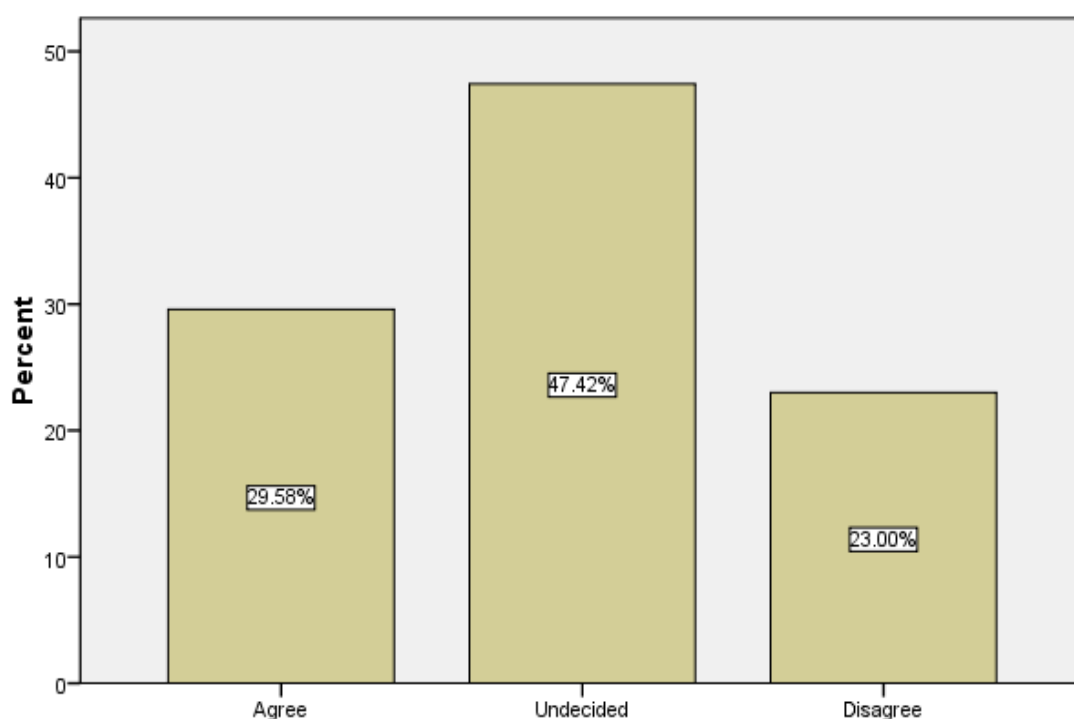


Figure 5.7: Learners' Concern Regarding Proficiency of NSETs and NNSETs (Q14).

Table 5.9: NNSETs' Difficulty in Answering Students' Questions (Q12).

No.	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Mean	Std deviation
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent		
Q12	73	34.3	67	31.5	73	34.3	2.0000	.829

The responses for Qs 14 and 12 are substantiated by the responses for a related item, Q11, which states '*NNSETs can help me solve my concerns in English better*'. As evidenced by Table 5.10 below, only 29 percent 'agreed', indicating that according to the learners, local teachers were not great problem-solvers when it came to 'concerns in English'.

Table 5.10: NNSETs can Help Solve Concerns in English better (Q11).

No.	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Mean	Std deviation
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent		
Q11	62	29.1	71	33.3	80	37.6	2.0845	0.81402

This idea definitely runs counter to the beliefs of the followers of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis who believe that local teachers are better problem solvers since they know whether the errors are rooted in learners' mother tongues or it is grounded in the lack of learners' linguistic competence in the target language.

Q22 reads *Iranian English teachers can be good models for young EFL learners*. The low percentage (28.2 percent) of the participants' who agreed reveals the lack of confidence of the learners in their Iranian EFL teachers (Figure 5.8).

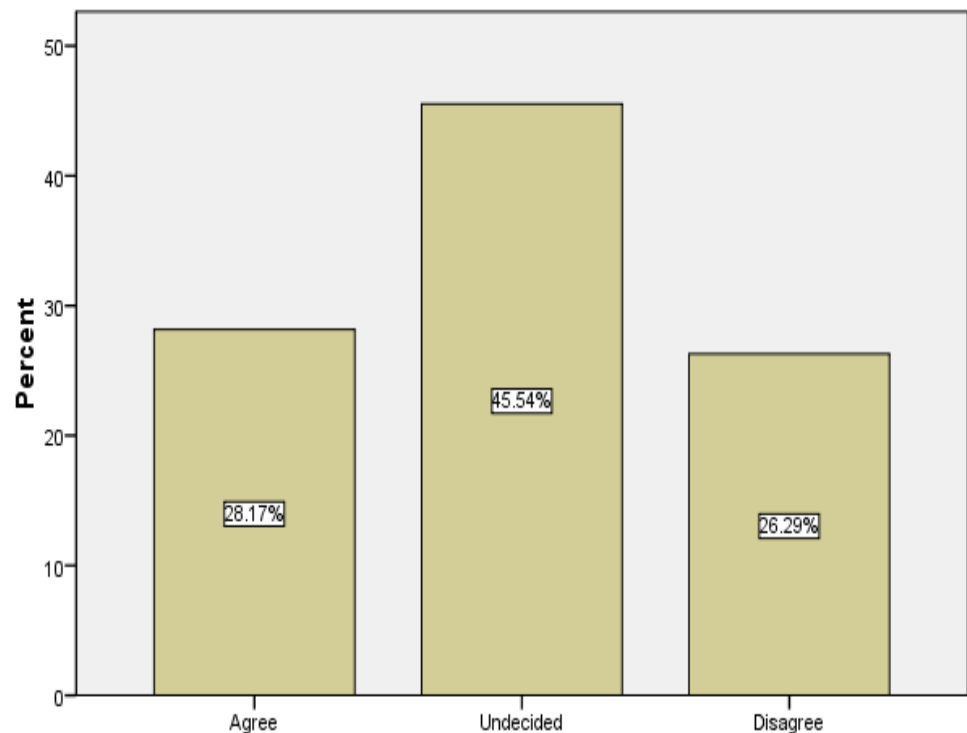


Figure 5.8: NNSETs can be Good Models for Young EFL Learners (Q22).

The next constructs to be discussed are Q1 and Q10, *NNSETs give learners better opportunities to participate in classroom activities* and *NNSETs motivate me more than NSETs in the classroom*. According to Figure 5.9 and Table 5.11, just 29.6 percent and 26.8 percent of the participants, respectively, agreed that compared to NSETs, Iranian teachers gave them greater opportunities to participate in class activities (Q1) or provided them with more motivation to enhance their English language proficiency (Q10).

Of course, this also indicates that there might have been some lack of motivation on the part of the teachers. During the last few years, Iranian teachers have occasionally been on strike showing their dissatisfaction, especially in terms of payment for services rendered.

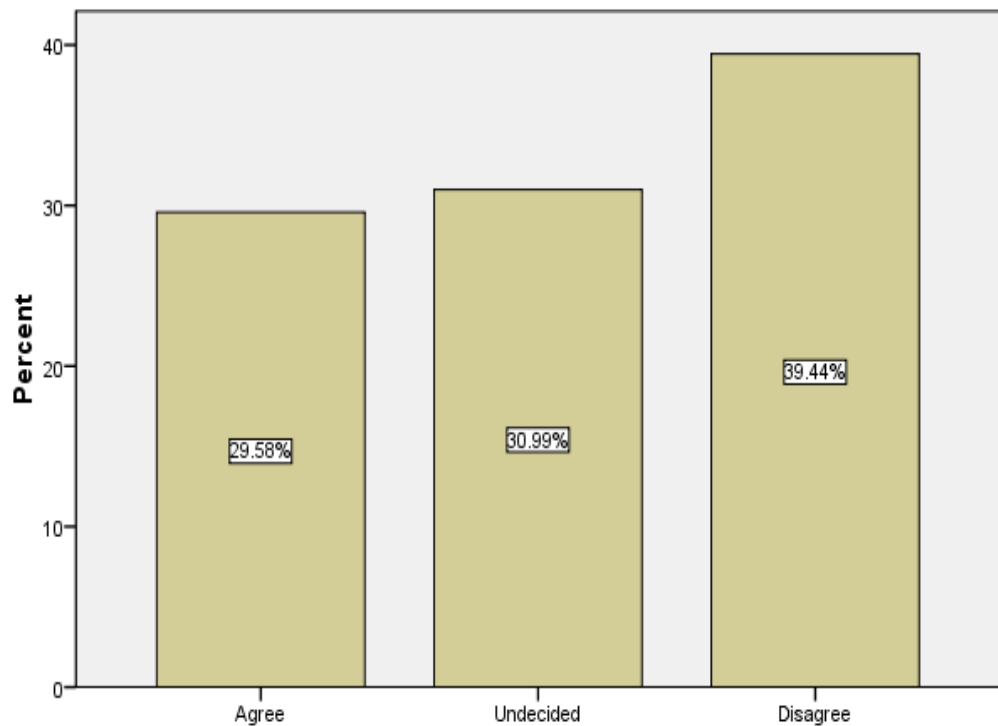


Figure 5.9: NNSETs Give Learners better Opportunities of Class Activities (Q1).

Table 5.11: NNSETs Motivate their Learners better than NSETs(Q10).

No.	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Mean	Std deviation
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent		
Q10	57	26.8	52	24.4	104	48.8	2.2207	0.84292

The next set of statements (Qs 9, 19, and 16) ascribe no higher values to Iranian English teachers than the previous items discussed above. These statements, along with the degree of participants' agreement / disagreement with each, are presented below.

I can only learn English from an Iranian English teacher (Q9) garnered just 22.5 percent of agreement from the participants (Figure 5.10). This may imply that learners

seek for qualified teachers, be they native or non-native. Previously, 67.1 percent of the students acknowledged this point when answering Q7.

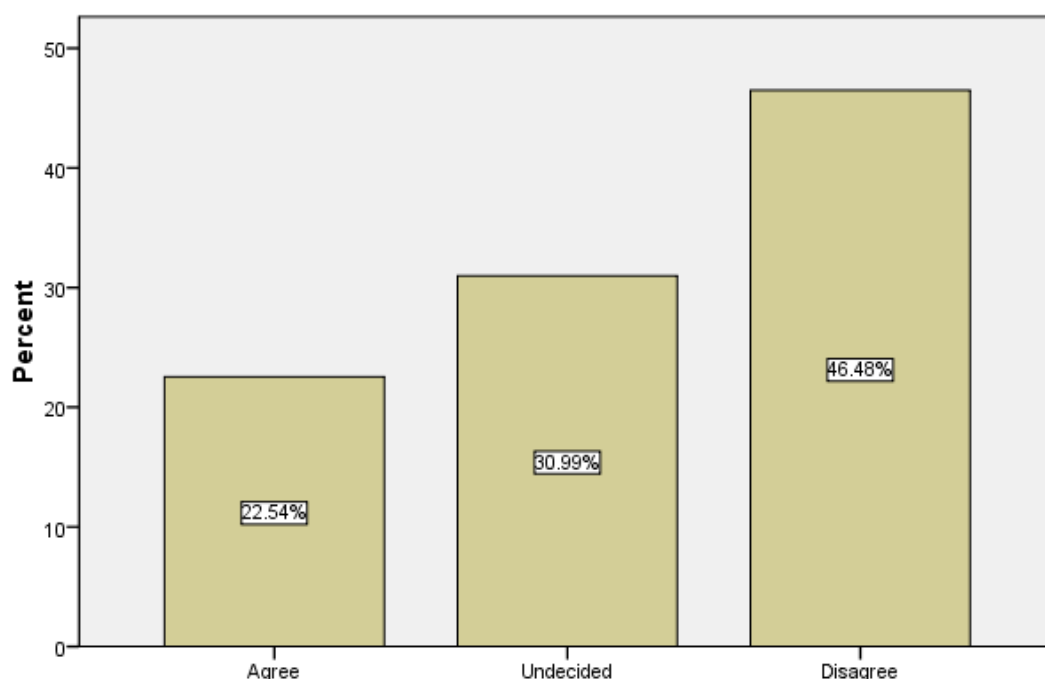


Figure 5.10: English can only be learned from an NNSET (Q9).

Responses given to Q19, *Iranian English teachers can teach reading and writing skills to young EFL learners better than NSETs* and Q16, *I understand my teacher better when he is an NNSET rather than being an NSET* are very similar, thus the learners responses to both these statements were quite similar: most of the students disagreed with these statements (Figure 5.11 and Table 5.12). The extremely low percentages of those who agreed (18.8 and 21.1 percent for Qs 19 and 16, respectively) are really quite shocking because they imply that matters are quite bad in Iranian public school English classes conducted by Iranian English teachers. To the students, such teachers are neither capable of teaching reading and writing appropriately nor can they teach better than NSETs.

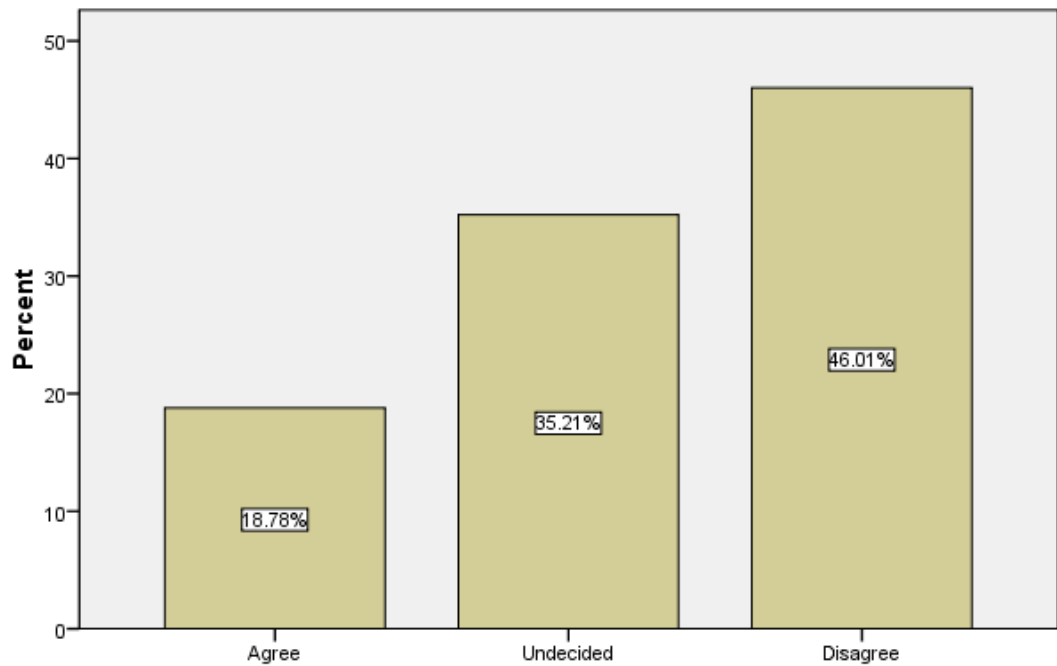


Figure 5.11: Priority of NNSETs over NSETs in Teaching Reading and Writing (Q19)

Table 5.12: Learners Understand NNSETS Better than NSETS (Q16).

No.	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Mean	Std deviation
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent		
Q16	45	21.1	63	29.6	105	49.3	2.28	0.792

As the results show, the large majority of students (about 80 percent) either showed their uncertainty or disagreed with the two aforementioned items.

The responses for Q15 which says *Iranian English teachers can help me familiarize myself better to the new American culture than NSETs* showed that more than a fifth (21.1 percent) of the participants agreed (Table 5.13). However, more than half (52.6 percent) of them disagreed, while more than a quarter (26.3 percent) remained unsure.

Table 5.13: NNSETs Make Learners more Familiar with American Culture (Q15).

No.	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Mean	Std deviation
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent		
Q15	45	21.1	56	26.3	112	52.6	2.3146	0.80

The overall conclusion that one might draw from the analyses of the frequencies of responses to the questionnaire items is that, to the participants, the nationality of the teacher is not a matter of major concern. What is of concern to them is the poor qualifications of the non-native (Iranian) speaking English teachers (cf. Chapter 5.2.2, analysis of responses on item 7). Even though teacher qualification is viewed by learners (Q:7=67.1percent) as more important than ‘nativeness’, statistical analysis summarized in Table 5.14 shows the difference between participants’ perceptions of the two groups of teachers to be so high that one can safely reject the second null hypothesis of the study which says ‘*EFL learners do not perceive any differences regarding the types of teachers teaching them English*’. This is quite evident from the means of the items addressing perceptions of the two groups of teacher (Native Teachers = 2.2, Non-native Teachers = 1.8) and the p value is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 5.14: Sample T-test Comparing NSETs and NNSETs (n=213, p<0.05)

Learners’ Perceptions of N& NNSETs	Mean	t. observe	t. critical	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Native	2.2347	83.05	1.97	212	0.000	2.24
Non native	1.8552	74.70	1.97	211	0.000	1.86

Comparing the results gained from learners' scores (shown throughout Chapter Four – cf.4.3.1) with the overall findings of learners' perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs (in the chapter underway) indicates that both results are fairly in complementary relationships, meaning that in both cases learners have given priority to the NSETs rather than their non-native counterparts. In other words, it seems that there is a correspondence between the performance and the perceptions of young Iranian EFL learners taught by NSETs and NNSETs.

5.2.3 Significance of English

The three items analyzed in Table 5.15 below discuss the significance of English in terms of going abroad or getting jobs. For instance, in response to Q25 which says *Learning English will help us go abroad*, 81.2 percent of the participants expressed agreement. More than three-quarters of them (77.5 percent) also agreed that *learning English will help us (them) get a good job* (Q24). However, Q3 exhibits a different pattern, with only a third of the respondents (33 percent) agreeing that *learning English would enable them to go to the US or UK*. This shows that learners probably believe that knowing English is constructive for taking any types of trips internationally (please, see Q 25 below), and not just for travelling to the US or UK (please see Table 5-15).

Table 5.15: Students' Perceptions of English as an International Language (N: 213)

Q No	Instrumental perceptions	Agree: F- (%)	Not sure: F- (%)	Disagree - (%)	Rank score	Ordered Mean
1	<i>Q25: Learning English will help us go abroad.</i>	173 (81.2)	22 (10.3)	18 (8.5)	581	1.27
2	<i>Q24: Learning English will help us get a good job.</i>	165 (77.5)	29 (13.6)	19 (8.9)	572	1.31
3	<i>Q 3: I am learning English to enable me to go to the US or UK.</i>	70 (32.9)	55 (25.8)	88 (41.3)	408	2.08
Total		408	106	125	520.3	4.66

F= frequency

The next chapter will discuss teachers' characteristics and their self- perceptions concerning their strengths and. weaknesses.

CHAPTER SIX: TEACHERS' SELF-PERCEPTIONS

6.1 Introduction

Numerous studies have been conducted on various aspects of teachers' behavior, and attitudes to and perceptions of teachers and teacher characteristics (e.g. Liu 1999; Mahboob, 2003). In his book entitled "The Non-Native Teacher" Medgyes denotes that NSETs and NNSETs are "two different species" (Medgyes 1994, p. 27). Teachers' classroom practices have been investigated by Hu (2005), who worked with students in China, while Mitchell and Lee (2003) compared and contrasted EFL teaching in Korea with French language teaching in Great Britain. However, as stated earlier, very little has been done in Iran in this field (teacher characteristics, teacher behavior and attitudes to these). What is even more significant is that practically no research has been carried out, to the researcher's knowledge, on teachers' self perceptions, not only in Iran but in other parts of the world as well. This is especially true of issues related to the 'nativeness' or 'non-nativeness' of teachers. For example, Medgyes (2000, p. 445) refers to the point and says, "On the whole, the study of the non-native teacher remains a largely unexplored area in language education."

The earlier chapter looked at this issue in terms of whether EFL learners perceived any differences between NSETs and NNSETs, and revealed that this was indeed the case (that there were differences in the perceptions of learners with regard to these two types of teachers). In this chapter, the characteristics of the two groups of teachers are discussed based on their perceptions of themselves. The sample for this aspect of the study comprised 36 NNSETs and NSETs, out of whom 28 were NNSETs and the rest (8) were NSETs. Table 6.1 below shows the sample distribution of NNSETs and NSETs.

Table 6.1: Sample Distribution of NNSETs and NSETs (N=36)

Sample	NNSETs	NSETs
36	28 (78%)	8 (22%)

The participants had responded to an open-ended questionnaire that included a section for obtaining demographic information about them, their experience of teaching and learning , and their self-perceptions regarding their strengths and weaknesses. The questionnaire was distributed to 50 teachers (See Appendix B), but only 36 returned completed ones. The analysis of the results will be presented and discussed in relation to the third research question of the study which asks the participants (NSETs and NNSETs), ‘What are the self- perceptions of EFL teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English regarding their own weaknesses and strengths?’

6.2 Demographic Traits of Teacher Respondents

The two groups of the participants were identified via teachers’ demographic traits collected through the questionnaire. By “teachers’ demographic traits” I refer to their nationality, gender and level of education. Eight of the teachers identified themselves as native, the rest 28 were NNSETs. Two of the 36 participants did not indicate their gender, but of the remaining 34, the ratio of males to females was 20:14. Both groups had degrees ranging from bachelors to doctorates, mainly in TESL/TEFL, and all were EFL teachers in Iranian language institutes. Additionally, the institutes confirmed their identity as well. As mentioned earlier, the notion of NSETs in Iran has had ups and downs. Therefore, my participants (NSETs) represent the former population of those groups of the teachers teaching English in Iran many years ago. On the other hand, my NNSETs represent the current population of local Iranian English teachers.

6.3 Respondents' Experience in Teaching

To the first question, '*Do the students in the institute make discriminatory comments about NNSETs?*', 13 respondents (36.1 percent) out of which two were NSETs answered the question in the affirmative, while the responses of the rest (23=63.9 percent) were negative (See table 6.2).

Table 6.2: Discriminatory Comments Made by Students Against NNSETs (N: 36)

Q: <i>Do the students in the institute make discriminatory comments about NNSETs?</i>	Native	Non-native
Yes, students do discriminate.	2	11
No, students do not discriminate.	6	17
Total	8	28

Of the 13 respondents who claimed that students do make discriminatory comments about NNSETs, 11 went on to say that they had personally experienced discrimination. All 11 were NNSETs. For instance, one of the NNSETs who claimed that he had experienced discrimination said, "I do hear that some of the students do not like me since their previous teacher was a native speaker of English."

When the teachers (respondents) were asked, "How do you respond to such comments?" different responses were presented. For instance, an NSET expressed sympathy for her NN colleagues (NNSETs) and said, "*I try to make them (the learners) understand that NNSETs are also capable of teaching EFL, if knowledgeable.*" Another NSET mentioned, "*When I come across discriminatory comments from learners, I try to convince them (the students) that they should learn varieties of English rather than just the American or British versions since no country can claim ownership of the target*

language, and even in UK or US geographically, there are different accents.” Others claimed that convincing the learners was difficult and useless. On the other hand, a NNSET contended, “I usually ignore the point since I don’t want to make the problem bigger.” Another NNSET mentioned, “I try to do my job well and compensate for my weaknesses using “Fun English Games” to make my classes more exciting. That may satisfy the learners.”

The next question was ‘*Do you feel that you are being discriminated against in any way by principals of the school or colleagues?*’ Only seven participants, and that too NNSETs, showed serious dissatisfaction: 26 (18 NNSETs and 8NSETs) respondents either denied the issue of serious discrimination or claimed that it was tolerable. Three of the NNSETs did not reply to this question.”Table 6.3 below illustrates the issue of discrimination against EFL instructors by private language institute administrators and their colleagues further.

Table 6.3: NNSETs Discriminated by Principals or Colleagues

Choices	NNSETs (N:28)	NSETs (N:8)
Yes, I experienced discrimination.	7	0
No, not at all	18	8
Didn’t comment	3	-

To exemplify the point, one NNSET claimed, “It is unfair that our native colleagues, regardless of their qualification, are respected more and paid higher salary than the local teachers. Sad to say, even sometimes they[NSETs] are very proud of themselves just for being native speakers of English.”

When the instructors were asked to respond to the statement that their experiences as EFL teachers in the school had been positive thus far, 15 (41.6 percent) strongly agreed,

19 (52.7 percent) agreed and 2 (5.5 percent) were not sure. This shows that, on the whole, the instructors' attitude towards the institutes were positive. To the statement *"Collaboration between NSETs and NNSETs is strongly encouraged in this school"*, more than half the respondents (52.7 percent) agreed; 14 (38.9 percent) disagreed, while three (8.4 percent) respondents abstained. In this survey, as noted in the following chapter (cf.7.2.1- Q 18) administrators (90.5 percent) like the teachers strongly confirmed the collaboration of the two groups of the teachers as well. Based on the results of his study, Liu (1999) also confirms the notion of collaboration between NSETs and NNSETs, and sees no need for the dichotomy between the two groups of the aforementioned teachers.

6.4 Teachers Respondents' Perceptions Regarding their Weaknesses and Strengths

The third part or the main body of the questionnaire comprised 12 open-ended questions. The responses to these items have been analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively in relation to the third research question: "What are the perceptions of EFL teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English regarding their own weaknesses and strengths?"

Throughout the ongoing sections, several points, including the self-perceptions of the teachers regarding their own strengths and weaknesses, and other additional comments made by the participants, will be discussed in some detail. Although applying NVivo Software (version, 9 or 10) was appropriate for interpreting the qualitative data (open-ended questionnaire related to teachers' self perceptions) of this study, I analyzed it manually. It means that the responses given to each individual item have been codified and classified based on the frequency of occurrences of any individual code and the distribution of that code's percentile (cf. Appendix I). For instance, in terms of

Q1‘What makes an EFL teacher a good instructor?’, as shown in the following table, six codes have been allocated to it based on the most frequently chosen code namely ‘Pedagogy and qualifications’: F:19/ [% 39.6] as first and the least frequent code ‘Pragmatics’: F:3, [% 6.25]) as the last. Thus, the twelve open-ended questions of this part have been analyzed as following: Be that as it may, the responses given to Q1 are shown in

Table 6.4 below:

Table 6.4: Characteristics of a good EFL Instructor (N=36)

Q1: What makes an EFL teacher a good EFL instructor?	NNSETs		NSETs		NNSETs &NSETs	
Codified concepts	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. Pedagogy and qualifications	14	41	5	35.7	19	39.6
2.Familiarity with learners’ L1	7	20.6	1	7.14	8	16.7
3.Good pronunciation	6	17.6	1	7.14	7	14.5
4.Motivation	3	8.9	3	21.4	6	12.5
5.Experience	3	8.9	2	14.2	5	10.4
6.Pragmatics	1	3	2	14.2	3	6.25
Total	34	100	14	100	48	100

F: Frequency

Pedagogy and qualification were recognized as important factors with the highest percentage (39.6 percent). This idea supports Astor (2000, p.18) who emphasizes teachers’ qualifications and knowledge of Pedagogy when he claims that "no amount of fun or good relationship will make it up to the students." if the English teacher, whether native or non-native, lacks competence in any of the aforementioned areas. Interestingly, concerning teachers’ qualification, teachers’ perceptions regarding the

characteristics of ideal EFL teachers were very similar to learners' viewpoints discussed in previous chapter, meaning both categories of respondents laid emphasis on the qualifications of the teachers rather than their nationality (See Chapter 5.2: Q7). Next, the respondents laid emphasis on familiarity of the EFL teachers with the learners' mother tongue (16.7 percent), the point which has been confirmed by Medgyes 1994. Pronunciation, motivation, and experience were the third, fourth and fifth choices, while knowledge of pragmatics (contrary to Widdowson, 1990) appeared as the last choice on the scale of ranking. All these show that from the perspectives of the participants (NSETs and NNSETs), an English teacher can be successful provided that he or she possesses professional knowledge of the target language, plus a good mastery of the English proficiency, along with the familiarity with the learners' mother tongue. Like NNSETs, NSETs viewed pedagogy and qualification as precious assets for an EFL instructor. However, in contrast with NNSETs who chose familiarity with learners' L1 as their second choice; NSETs rated motivation as the second most important quality. Regarding the role of experience, only three NNSETs and two NSETs believed in the awareness of teachers regarding learners' needs. One of the two aforementioned participants (identified herself as NSETs) who was a university professor and the most highly educated and experienced person among the respondents claimed, *"Increasing one's proficiency in the English language and being aware of the students' needs, wants and desires can make a good EFL teacher. This happens provided the teacher, based on his/her experience, designs the course to meet the students' needs."* From the researcher's point of view, he firmly believes in the role of previous learning experience of NNSETs when learning the target language. He believes that such kind of experience might help the NNSETs to handle learners problems from the perspectives of contrastive and error analysis, since they themselves have previously experienced similar learning procedures.

It should be acknowledged that frequency shown as ‘F’ in the above table and the following tables is not be mistaken for the overall number of participants. In fact, it just shows the number of codes that some of the participants have referred to while answering the questions subjectively. For instance, 14 persons (NNSETs) have referred to the terms ‘pedagogy and qualification’ when answering question 1 and considered them as positive characteristics of a good teacher. Other codes might have been selected by these 14 participants as well. Therefore, this number (14) is the frequency of the thematic code (pedagogy and qualification) appearing in the responses given to item one subjectively. It does not mean that just 14 persons answered item one. Others (the rest of the participants =22) might have considered other issues or codes as positive points for a good EFL teacher in their response to the first questionnaire item.

Due to the similarities between the two items (Q 2 and Q11), they have been analyzed simultaneously. Therefore, the merits of the two types of teachers (NSETs and NNSETs) based on the responses given to these items will be viewed, compared and contrasted sequentially.

Question 2 was: **‘What do you think are the advantages of native speaking English teachers?’** The summary of responses given by the respondents has been illustrated in the following table,(Table 6.5).

Table 6.5: Advantages of NSETs (N=36)

Q2: What do you think are the advantages of NSETs?	NNSETs (N:28)		NSETs (N:8)		NNSETs & NSETs (36)	
Codified concepts	F	%	F	%	F	%
1.Pronunciation	9	34.6	6	26.1	15	30.6
2.Fluency	8	30.7	4	17.4	12	24.5
3.Linguistic competence	4	15.3	7	30.4	11	22.4
4.Culture	2	7.7	4	17.5	6	12.2
5.Idioms and expressions	3	11.6	2	8.7	5	10.2
Total	26	100	23	100	49	100

F: Frequency

As shown in the above table, the most commonly repeated responses given by EFL teachers of both groups regarding the merits of NSETs are (i) pronunciation (ii) fluency (iii) linguistic competence or English language proficiency of NSETs, whereas from the perspectives of ranking, the cultural and idiomatic aspect of the target language were considered to be the next points favoring the dominance of the NSETs. Considering the perceptions of NNSETs and NSETs, the analyses indicated that both groups of teachers rated pronunciation as the most positive quality of NSETs. Moreover, as Table 6.5 illustrates, while NNSETs rated fluency as the second most important strength of NSETs, NSETs themselves rated their ‘linguistic competence’ as the second most important advantage. One of the NSETs wrote, *“NSETs have the advantage of sounding natural which most EFL learners prefer, as well as having a good accent, pronunciation, intonation and a wide range of vocabulary not mentioned in the text books.”* Another NSET claimed that *“Appropriate pronunciation, accent, general*

knowledge about customs, traditions, vocabulary, speaking and pragmatics are the merits of NSETs.”

NNSETs repeatedly placed emphasis on the good accent and pronunciation of their native counterparts- the points which have been ratified by Arva and Medgyes (2000). For instance, an NNSET readily acknowledged NSETs’ superiority in pronunciation and language structure and use: *“Pronunciation, intonation and stress, mastery of use and usage, forcing students to use the language, using slang, expressions, proverbs and idioms are the most important characteristics of native speakers.”* The ‘authenticity and fluency’ of the NSETs are among the qualities which received full attention. Another NNSET claimed, *“They (NSETs) are preferred to NNSETs because of their pronunciation, intonation, fluency and accuracy; besides that, they use authentic language.”*

Q11 asked respondents about the advantages of NNSETs. From the perspective of self-assessment, both parties (NSETs & NNSETs) involved acknowledged merits of NNSETs as:(i) understanding of learners’ problems and needs (46.6 percent); (ii) their (the NNSETs’), familiarity and intimacy with the EFL learners’L1 (30 percent), (iii) surprisingly, the mastery and the command of teaching grammar (which is commonly accepted to be in the domain of NNSETs) just stood third with a very low ratio (16.6 percent), and finally being well- trained (6.6 percent) was placed as the last priority of NNSETs over NSETs. For instance, one NNSET stated, *“We can have a better understanding of the weaknesses of the students since we are familiar with the differences of L1 and L2.”* Another said, *“We can help the students in grammar and reading, since we have also had the same experience of learning the aforementioned skills.”* NSETs, who were 8 in number, voted in favor of their NN counterparts for the following reasons: understandings of learner’s problems and needs (45.5 percent);

familiarity with the culture and the learners' mother tongue (36 percent); and their command of teaching grammar (9.1 percent). One NSET said that the main advantage of the non-native teachers is that:

...they (NNSETs) are sometimes better able to understand what goes through the students' minds since once they had been in the same position as the EFL learners and can relate to them better and also can sometimes treat errors due to L1 transfer better.

In short, NNSETs' merits, based on the frequency of distribution of the responses given to this question, have been illustrated in the following table (Table 6.6).

Table 6.6: Advantages of NNSETs (N=36)

Q11: What are the advantages of NNSETs?	NNSETs (N:28)		NSETs (8)		NNSETs & NSETs (N:36)	
Codified concepts	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. Problem solving and knowing learners needs	9	47.3	5	45.5	14	46.6
2. Familiarity with learners' language and culture	5	26.3	4	36	9	30
3. Teaching of Grammar	4	21	1	9.1	5	16.6
4. Being well-trained	1	5.26	1	9.1	2	6.6
Total	19	100	11	100	30	100

F: Frequency

Question 3, '**What do you think are the serious weaknesses of NNSETs?**', sought to investigate the weaknesses of NNSETs. The results are indicated in Table 6.7:

Table 6.7: Serious Weaknesses of NNSETs (N=36)

Q3: What do you think are the serious weaknesses of NNSETs?	NNSETs (N:28)		NSETs (N:8)		NNSETs & NSETs (36)	
Codified concepts	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. Weak in pronunciation	9	34.6	5	31.2	14	33.3
2. Lack of knowledge	5	19.2	4	25	9	21.4
3. Weak in language use	4	15.4	4	25	8	19.4
4. Unaware of the culture of target L	4	15.4	1	6.25	5	11.9
5. Poor authenticity and fluency	4	15.4	1	6.25	5	11.9
6. Lack of motivation and confidence	-	0	1	6.25	1	2.4
Total	26	100	16	100	42	100

F: Frequency

One third of the overall responses (33.3 percent) referred to the inappropriateness of the NNSETs' pronunciation; 21.4 percent of the responses were allocated to lack of knowledge of the target language and the weaknesses of NNSETs in language use (19.4 percent) stood third. From the perspective of ranking, the insufficient knowledge of NNSETs regarding cultural aspect and their authenticity in language use (each 11.9percent) were recognized as fourth and fifth in the process of ranking. Just one participant (2.4 percent) pointed to lack of self-confidence of NNSETs. Through examining the subjective responses of the respondents, the researcher came across a respondent who said that most of NNSETs' weaknesses were related to *"their imbalance in language use (slang and literal), poor pronunciation, severe command of grammar, avoidance, and using the mother tongue."* This is in sharp contrast to what Mousse (2006:147) says, "It is commonly accepted that the NNSETs were superior to the NSETs in terms of teaching grammar." The opinions of NSETs concerning the weaknesses of their non-native counterparts were as follows: 31.2 percent of the overall responses given by NSETs mentioned that pronunciation was a major weakness of the NNSETs. Lack of knowledge in the English language stood second. One NSET stated that some of their weakest areas were *"vocabulary, reading comprehension, pronunciation, accent, general knowledge (of English), speaking and pragmatics."*

The responses of the participants to Q4, **'Does the use of L1 help NNSETs teach English easier? Please explain.'** were quite insightful which is evident from the following table(Table 6.8).

Table 6.8: The Role of Learners' Mother Tongue and NNSETs (N=36)

Q4: Does the use of L1 help NNSETs teach English easier?	NNSETs (N:28)		NSETs (N:8)		NNSETs & NSETs (36)	
Codified concepts	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. Useful	6	27.27	2	20	8	25
2. Harmful	5	22.72	3	30	8	25
3. Good for teaching abstract phenomena	3	13.6	3	30	6	18.75
3. Good for teaching beginners	3	13.6	1	10	4	12.5
4. Good for teaching translation	2	9	1	10	3	9.37
5. Good for low proficiency teachers	3	13	-	0	3	9.37
Total	22	100	10	100	32	100

F: Frequency

Just 8 (25 percent) out of the 32 respondents who answered question 4 stated that when teaching a foreign language the use of L1 is useful. Interestingly the same number of responses (8= 25 percent) recognized it to be quite harmful, meaning that its advantages and disadvantages counterbalance one another. For instance, an NNSET said, *“No, I don’t think using L1 helps the NNSETs to teach the target language. If they (NNSETs) are knowledgeable enough and well experienced in the process of teaching, using L1 doesn’t make any sense regarding their quality of teaching.”* Another NNSET said that the use of L1 depends on the approaches used by NNSETs when teaching. However, to her, the use of the mother tongue should be banned in English classes so that the learner can gain better mastery over L2.

Nevertheless, 10 participants (31.25 percent) believed that the use of L1 could be appropriate for teaching abstract phenomena (18.75 percent) and beginners (12.5 percent). About 9.4 percent of the respondents claimed that using L1 is appropriate for translation courses and the same percentage found it useful for the teachers with poor English proficiency. They believed that it (the use of L1) could be especially useful for those teachers who were weak in English. One participant said, “Sometimes, yes, when the teacher is not highly educated and he faces problems to convey foreign language knowledge to the students then, he can use L1 as a means to an end.” 8 of the NNSETs mentioned that the use of L1 was perfectly suitable for teaching EFL. One NSET firmly supported the use of L1: “Sure, it can be a good resort and a shortcut to help the learners learn the target language semantically.” Regarding the advantages or disadvantages of using the learners’ mother tongue, the voting of the 8 NSETs was 5 in favor and 3 against. A native speaker stated, *“I believe it would be better when the teachers don’t use L1 in class but still for some serious important explanations, they (NNSETs) might benefit from L1.”* Of course, L1 can only be used in homogeneous classes. If the students in the class are multinational, then it is not possible to use the mother tongue, for obvious reasons.

The participants answered the most controversial question (Q5) ‘**Are NSETs ideal teachers? if yes, under what conditions?**’ very decisively as shown in Table 6.9 .

Table 6.9: NSETs as Ideal Teachers of English (N=36)

Q5: Are NSETs ideal teachers of English? If yes, on what conditions?	NNSETs (N:28)		NSETs (N:8)		NNSETs & NSETs (N:36)	
Codified concepts	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. Yes	2	9	3	33.3	5	16.12
2. Yes, if they are qualified	7	31.8	3	33.3	10	32.25
3. Yes, if NSETs, know learners' L1	6	27.2	2	22.2	8	25.8
4. No, not at all	7	31.8	1	11.1	8	25.8
Total	22	100	9	100	31	100

F: Frequency

Five of the respondents (16.1 percent) said “yes”, but they did not support their answers. As illustrated from the above table, 18 (58 percent) respondents out of 31 viewed the question positively, provided that the teachers were qualified (10) or knew the mother tongue of the learners (8). 1 participant (NNSET) rationalized the point when he said, *“Yes, but on condition that they possess some basic knowledge of the learners’ L1.”* Medgyes (1994) also considers the significance of knowing learners’ L1 when he declares that ideal NSETs is one who knows the mother tongue of the learners. Another NNSET mentioned, *“Yes, provided that they are academic English teachers.”* In addition to the above mentioned respondents, 8 N/NNSETs’ responses (25.8 percent) were a firm “No”. One NNSET said, *“My answer is definitely no. Being a good speaker does not mean being a good teacher.”* This idea accords with that of Seidlhofer’s (1999, p. 238) who opined, “Native speakers know the destination, but not the train that has to be crossed to get there; they themselves have not travelled the same

route” or Moussu (2006) who believed that just being a speaker of a language does not guarantee that one is an ideal teacher of that language.

The NSETs’ self-perceptions regarding their effectiveness as EFL teachers revealed that almost all of them (seven out of eight) in one sense or another thought that they were ideal teachers. To the researcher, these results implied that the NSETs had too high an opinion of themselves. For instance, one NSET stated, *“Yes, because they are proficient enough to conduct the classes in the English language.”* The only native speaker who disagreed with the notion of NSETs as ideal teachers rationalized his view as follows: *“No, not at all. Native speakers of a language are not necessarily ideal English teachers. Teaching requires a number of other factors.”* This idea supports Paikeday (1985) who claims teaching should be geared based on the learners’ needs or Phillipson (1992) who denotes that teachers are made not born.

Regarding question 6, **‘Can an NNSET be an ideal English teacher?** If yes, under what conditions?’ the two groups of the teachers responded differently as shown in Table 6.10:

Table 6.10: NNSET be an Ideal English Teacher (N=36)

Q6: Can a NNSET be an ideal English teacher? If yes, on what condition?	NNSET(28)		NSET (8)		NNSETs & NSETs (36)	
Codified concepts	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. Yes	4	18.18	1	9	5	15.15
2. Yes, if qualified	13	59	6	54	19	57.6
3. Yes, if NNSET is exposed to NSET for a while	-	0	4	36	4	12.12
4. No	3	13.6	-	0	3	9.09
5. No difference	2	9	-	0	2	6.1
Total	22	100	11	100	33	100

F: Frequency

Majority of the respondents (19 out of 33 or 57.6 percent) answered “yes”, To them, the NNSETs’ qualification was the only precondition. One respondent, who didn’t like to be named or identified, justified his affirmation by stating the condition that “they (the NNSETs) should have a comprehensive knowledge of teaching and know the target language very well.” This idea is parallel to that of Moussu’s (2006:40) who claims that “we can base our opinions more on our teachers’ level of professionalism than on the language background of our teachers.” In addition to the aforementioned participants, 5 others (15.5 percent) answered in the affirmative, but did not support their responses, while 3 (9.09 percent) chose the negative response. 2 participants (6.1 percent) remained noncommittal. None forwarded any suggestions. Interestingly 4 out of 8 of NSETs mentioned that NNSETs can be ideal English teachers provided that they had been exposed to native speakers of the target language for a while. However, exposure

of NNSETs to native speakers of the target language was not rated high by the NNSETs respondents.

To the question as to whether NNSETs can be ideal teachers, 6 out of the 8 NSETs (75 percent) voted in favor of their non-native counterparts, claiming that if they (NNSETs) were qualified and knowledgeable, they could be ideal English teachers. Just two NSETs were indifferent. One of them said, “I think that the nationality of a teacher is not a matter of concern when the teacher is qualified and experienced. Another NSET believed that non-natives could be ideal English teachers, “on condition they have been exposed to a native English-speaking environment at least for one year.” One NSET added to this, declaring that an NNSET could be an ideal English teacher provided that he or she knew the target language well, along with the psychology of learning and teaching. The responses of the two groups of teachers indicate that professional knowledge of teaching EFL and language proficiency of English teachers are the two major criteria for an ideal English teacher not being native or not. Apparently, one can be a successful (not ideal) teacher if one knows the target language, pedagogy, along with psychology of teaching and learning. Teaching experience and patience can be considered as two other requirements of a qualified EFL instructor.

To gauge the job satisfaction of the participants, (Q7), the EFL teachers were asked **‘If it were possible for you to change your job, what would you do in this regard.’** As shown in the table 6.11 below, twenty four N and NNSETs responded to this question:

Table 6.11: Possibility of Changing one's Career (N=36)

Q7: If it was possible for you to change your job, what would you do in this regard?	NNSETs (N:28)		NSETs (N:8)		NNSETs & NSETs (36)	
Codified concepts	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. Again teaching	11	64.7	3	42.8	14	58.3
2. Writing articles, doing research, or translation	2	11.7	1	14.3	3	12.5
3. Manager	2	11.7	1	14.3	3	12.5
4. Business	2	11.7	1	14.3	3	12.5
5. Tourism	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.16
Total	17	100	7	100	24	100

F: Frequency

14 out of 24 respondents (58 percent) claimed that they would select teaching again and the rest (10 = 42 percent) mentioned that they liked teaching but if they were to change their profession, they would like to be translators (3), managers (3) and businessmen (3). One person preferred to work in the domain of tourism. Generally speaking, most of them (about 60 percent), in one way or another, showed that they were satisfied and self confident with their jobs. One NNSET, for instance, said, "I've always been proud of being an educator." Another one claimed, "I just love languages and teaching, but not in public schools." That implies teaching in state schools is not very desirable. The researcher, as an observer, is aware that the salary of Iranian instructors is so low that mostly practitioners working in public schools are not very satisfied with teaching in state schools, and have to take on heavier teaching loads to meet their needs. To sum up the main point, based on the frequencies in Table 6.11, the majority of the respondents (around 60 percent) seem quite confident with their jobs.

For instance, 64.7 percent of NNSETs and 42.8 percent of NSETs showed that they would resort to teaching again if asked to choose a new job.

Q8 focused on the pedagogic aspect of the learners' problems: '**Who can help EFL learners better to solve their problems pedagogically, NSETs or NNSETs? Why?**'

Table 6.12 below illustrates the finding.

Table 6.12: Problem Solvers : NSETs or NNSETs? (N: 36)

Q8: Who may help EFL learners better to solve their pedagogical problems, NNSETs or NSETs?	NNSETs (N:28)		NSETs (N:8)		NNSETs& NSETs (36)	
Codified concepts	F	%	F	%	F	%
1.NNSETs	13	40.62	2	20	15	35.7
2.NSETs	7	21.9	4	40	11	26.2
3.No difference	7	21.9	1	10	8	19
4.Competent EFL teachers	4	12.5	2	20	6	14.3
5.Both, If collaborate with one another	1	3.125	1	10	2	4.76
Total	32	100	10	100	42	100

F: Frequency

As shown in the above table, out of 5 codified concepts the selection was 15 (35.7 percent) in favor of NNSETs, and 11 (26.2 percent) in favor of NSETs; more than a fifth of the respondents (8=19 percent) did not want to comment. 6 teachers (14.3 percent) believed in the competency of the teachers as problem solvers, be native or non-native, and 2 (4.76 percent) believed that collaboration between both types can be effective in this regard. However, both groups affirmed themselves to be good problem solvers which is evident from the number of NNSETs (13 out of 32) and NSETs (4 out of 8) who supported the idea.

With regard to Q9, ‘**Generally speaking, it is assumed that NSETs and NNSETs are not the same. What are their differences?**’, Table 6.13 below illustrates the findings.

Table 6.13: Differences between NSETs and NNSETs (N:36)

Q9: Generally speaking, it is assumed that NNSETs and NSETs are not the same. What are their differences?	NNSETs (N:28)		NSETs (N:8)		NNSETs & NSETs (36)	
Codified concepts	F	%	F	%	F	%
1.Fluency and accuracy of target language, and linguistic competence	6	24	6	35	12	28.6
2.Pronunciation	7	28	2	11.76	9	21.5
3. Cultural awareness	4	16	4	23.5	8	19.1
4. Knowledge of idioms	3	12	3	17	6	14.3
5. Understanding learners problems	3	12	1	5.88	4	9.52
6.Teaching Grammar	2	8	1	5.88	3	7.14
Total	25	100	17	100	42	100

F: Frequency

The responses from both groups of teachers mainly highlighted differences in favor of the NSETs. 12 responses (28.6 percent) were allocated to the fluency, accuracy and linguistic competence of native speaking English teachers, placing them first in ranking among the 6 codes; 9 (21.5 percent) for their (the NSETs’) pronunciation; 8 (19.1 percent) and 6 (14.3 percent) responses went for the familiarity of the natives with the ‘cultural’ and ‘idiomatic’ aspects of the target language respectively. Only 4 (9.5 percent) and 3 (7.1 percent) instructors certified the capability of NNSETs in terms of understanding learners’ problems’ and their mastery of grammar, respectively. Even though the number of NNSETs (28) outnumbered their native counterparts (8), the overall responses given to Q9 (shown in Table 6.13) indicate lack of NNSETs’

confidence in their English proficiency. This is also in accordance with the idea of Arva and Medgyes (2000) who differentiate NSETs and NNSETs by claiming that NSETs use English more confidently than their non-native counterparts.

The next question (Q10) in the questionnaire examined the teachers' perceptions concerning the issue of discrimination. The responses for the question 10, **'Do you think some private language institutes give priority to NSETs regardless of their qualifications?'** as shown in the following table (Table 6. 14) were quite homogeneous.

Table 6.14: Giving Priority to NSETs (N=36)

<i>Q10: Do you think some private language institutes give priority to NSETs regardless of their qualifications?</i>	NNSETs (28)		NSETs(8)		NSETs & NNSETs (36)	
Codified concepts	F	%	F	%	F	%
1.Discrimination	17	65.4	5	62.5	22	64.7
2. No discrimination	5	19.2	1	12.5	6	17.6
3. No idea	4	15	-	0	4	11.7
4. Maybe	-	0	2	25	2	5.8
Total	26	100	8	100	34	100

F: Frequency

The issue of discrimination was ratified by 22 (64.7 percent) of the participants. 6 (17.6 percent) believed that there was no room for discrimination at all, while a similar number were indifferent. 1 of the participants complained bitterly that he had been treated badly, and accused some institutes of hiring native speakers without testing their qualifications: "Just because they are native." Another NNSET said, "Yes, (They do that) just to keep the face [sic] of the institutes and the reputation, meaning Just for name's sake or fame." Yet another NNSET confirmed this, and added, "Yes, they do that to attract more applicants." The overall issue of discrimination highlighted by the

respondents reflect Celik (2006) who believes that private language institutes claim that all of their EFL instructors are native teachers of English in the hope that they attract more customers. Among those who believed that there were no discriminations, one respondent said, “Not at all”. He added that the administrators knew that “Being a native speaker does not guarantee being a good teacher.” Interestingly, upon referring to the self-perceptions of the NSETs, 6 out of 8, that is, 75 percent of them confirmed the issue of discrimination against their non-native counterparts. 1 native teacher mentioned, “Yes, of course, for commercial reasons.” The overall responses of participants rationalized the idea of Celik (2006) who says:

Private language schools advertising that all of their teachers are native speakers in order to attract attention from students and parents and increase their enrollment rates, schools paying native speaker teachers much more than what their non-native speaker counterparts get paid, administrators (and sometimes parents, and students alike) scapegoating non-native speaker teachers, not the native ones, for any potential negative situation that might arise in the language teaching/learning process (i.e., student failure, nonattendance) all confirm the fact that there are some differences between native and non-native teachers of English in action, or at least, that they are perceived to be different in some ways by the majority (P.372-3).

Q 12 required respondents to answer to this question: **‘If both native and non-native speaking English teachers who may teach listening and speaking, reading, writing, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and young learners are equally qualified, who can teach these skills better? Please consider the teaching of each separately’**. Table 6.15 below shows the responses of the 36 respondents (NSETs and NNSETs) participated in self-assessment. The numbers appeared horizontally in the following table (Table 6. 15) represent the frequency (number of respondents viewed positively pertaining to a specific skill) and the related percentage of that frequency respectively. For instance, where ‘listening and speaking’ are concerned, 24 (20.3 percent) respondents viewed NSETs to be dominant in these two skills whereas only 4 (5.9 percent) respondents thought that NNSETs might be better in listening and speaking.

Table 6.15: Teaching English Skills and Components by NSETs Vs NNSETs (N:36)

<i>Categories of skills & components</i>	<i>Native (NSETs)</i>		<i>Non-native (NNSETs)</i>	
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>total Percentage</i>
Listening & Speaking	24	20.3	4	5.9
Reading	19	16.1	14	20.6
Writing	18	15.3	12	17.6
Pronunciation	29	24.6	2	2.9
Vocabulary	17	14.4	12	17.6
Grammar	6	5.1	20	29.5
Teaching young learners	5	4.2	4	5.9
Total	118	100	68	100

The responses to Q 12 were analyzed qualitatively, and subsequently coded and categorized. Seven categories were identified for NSETs and NNSETs, and of these seven, 118 codes were related to the NSETs; only 68 codes were related to the NNSETs, indicating that the respondents, on the whole, perceived the former to be better teachers of the various skills. As the quantified and coded data in the column for NSETs shows, they were ranked as better teachers of listening, speaking, pronunciation, and poorer teachers of grammar and vocabulary. On the other hand, NNSETs were viewed as better teachers of grammar, reading and writing, but comparatively poorer as teachers of listening, speaking and pronunciation. On the whole, NSETs were given more credits for the teaching of most language skills and components.

6.5 Conclusion

As the data from the teachers' questionnaire show, except in the teaching of grammar, translation, test preparation, and test administration, the NNSETs were more insecure and less comfortable than their native counterparts when teaching aspects of the English language such as speaking, writing, pronunciation, vocabulary and idioms. Probably due to their similar earlier experience of learning the target language, NNSETs

feel they are more capable in solving students' learning problems with grammar, translation, and exams.

The questionnaires also highlighted some weaknesses of the NNSETs, especially in terms of conveying the culture of EFL as well as speaking and pronunciation. Ultimately, according to the self-assessment of the NSETs and NNSETs, the result of this section supports Moussu's (2006:137) assertion that "NNSETs felt quite comfortable when teaching grammar and to some extent courses of lower level and intermediate students." Nevertheless, the results of the self-perceptions of the teachers in terms of grammar, to some extent, run counter to the previous results of the semi-oral test administered to the learners of this study. The results of phase one of the study (cf.4.3) indicated that students taught under the supervision of NSETs (in contrast with the teachers self assessment) gained better results even in terms of grammar, which was commonly accepted as the only dominant characteristic where the NNSETs held sway. It should be acknowledged that in this study the focus was on oral performance not grammar. Syntax was a matter of concern but not the focus of teaching. Grammars was taught, learned and acquired implicitly and unconsciously through the process of communication. To sum up the point, NSETs' self-confidence from the perspective of linguistic and communicative competence performance was stronger than their non-native counterparts as shown throughout the qualitative data presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN: LANGUAGE INSTITUTE

ADMINISTRATORS' PERCEPTIONS OF N/NNSETS

7.1 Introduction

Four chapters (Chapters 4 to 7) have been allocated for data analysis: Chapters 4 and 5 discussed the raw scores related to the semi-direct oral test and the learners' perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs, respectively, with reference to the first two null hypotheses. In Chapter 6, teachers' self-perceptions regarding their strengths and weaknesses were considered. This chapter examines the views of private language institute administrators regarding issues such as professional discrimination and teachers' qualifications in relation to the hiring of NSETs/NNSETs; these will be discussed with a view to proving or disproving the fourth null hypothesis.

To examine the administrators' attitudes towards NSETs and NNSETs, a questionnaire (cf. 3.13) consisting of 25 statements requiring responses on a 3-point Likert scale (*agree*, *not sure* and *disagree*) created by Moussu (2006) was selected. A pilot study conducted earlier in order to test the research instruments had considered the option of using an open-ended questionnaire, but the results revealed that the administrators were not very comfortable with this. The reason behind the selection of the 3-point Likert scale was the sample size; it has been recommended that when the number of the participants is small, the 3-point Likert scale is more dependable (Choudhry 1981).

Through further piloting procedures, inappropriate items were excluded. The reliability (.67) and the validity of the questionnaire (via Delphi Method or Focus Group) were considered. The questionnaire was revised and translated into Persian in order to be more accessible to respondents who were more comfortable in this language;

it was then edited and revised by a Persian professor of literature before being administered to 30 participants living in Tehran and Yazd. They (the respondents) were selected through a simple random sampling method proposed by Creswell (2008); however, only 21 questionnaires were completed and returned to the researcher. These were from the representatives of institutions that had teachers who were both native as well as non-native speakers of English at least for a while. It must be noted that the 21 respondents from the 21 participating institutions were all non-native speakers of English who mostly held degrees in subjects other than English.

Although the Likert-scale items were in the form of statements, for ease of data analysis and presentation, they are referred to by the question numbers used in the questionnaire; for instance, Statement 1 is represented by Q1 and Statement 10 by Q10. Careful analyses of the data, supported by tables and figures in the form of bar graphs and pie diagrams, are presented in the following sections.

The focus in this chapter is on the third hypothesis which says: School administrators see no differences between the teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English. To facilitate easier access to the analysis, the 25 questions in the questionnaire have been grouped into three categories:

- Administrators' perceptions of NSETs (15 questions)
- Administrators' perceptions of NNSETs (6 questions)
- Administrators' comparative perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs (4 questions) regarding the: **i)** collaboration between N/NNSETs; **ii)** role of advertisements pertaining to NSETs for attracting potential applicants; **iii)** effects of qualified NNSETs in comparison with their native counterparts and **iv)** equal role of N/NNSETs (cf. 7.2.3- Table 7-11).

The first category comprises Q1, Q2, Q4, Q5, Q7, Q9, Q8,Q10, Q12, Q13, Q15, Q16, Q19, Q21 and Q24 which sought for the administrators' beliefs concerning the success, fluency and flexibility of NSETs, and how the students and their families regarded these aspects of the teachers. It should be noted that three 'negatively-phrased' items namely Q9, Q19 and Q24 have been placed in the first category because the administrators indirectly inquired into the students' willingness to comment on the NSETs strength and weaknesses.

The second category comprising Q6, Q11, Q14, Q17, Q 20, and Q22 inquired into the administrators' views regarding NNSETs , for instance, their experience and salaries. It should be noted that the number of questions posed about the two groups of teachers are not balanced; the questions regarding the native teachers were far more than those regarding the non-native teachers. As mentioned earlier, the questionnaire was borrowed from Moussu (2006) since her study and the present one are partially in complementary relationship. The first reason for the 'imbalance' in the number of questions was that careful consideration of Moussu's (2006) study and the borrowed questionnaire showed that mostly the constructs or keywords embedded in the items covered questions related to NSETs. Secondly, many experts in the field, including Celik (2006) and Cook (2008), claim that private language institutes globally have a tendency for hiring native speakers of English, regardless of their qualifications. Hence, the researcher felt a greater need to investigate administrators' perceptions about hiring native speakers of the language as teachers. However, not to violate the statistical analysis of the study, when trying to explore the overall perceptions of administrators about native and non-native teachers, the means obtained from items related to each group were compared. The means rather than the sums were compared across sub-samples so that the imbalance in the number of items may not distort the result. This is

comparable to cases where different numbers of items in a questionnaire load on different variables or factors in factorial analyses.

In addition to the 21 items allocated to the administrators' questionnaire to examine their perceptions of N/NNSETs, four more items were included. These items are Q3, Q18, Q23 and Q25 which dealt with both NSETs and NNSETs. These items were added to touch upon keywords, or constructs which were the focal center of the research interest and which had not been adequately covered by Moussu's (2006) questionnaire. The constructs covered by the four items are: i) collaboration between N/NNSETs; ii) role of advertisements pertaining to NSETs for attracting potential applicants; iii) effects of qualified NNSETs in comparison with their native counterparts and iv) the equal role of N/NNSETs. For further information, please see Chapter 7 (cf. 7.2.3- Table 7-11).

7.2 Data Analysis

7.2.1 Administrators' Perceptions of NSETs

Table 7.1 below summarizes the administrators' perceptions regarding the merits and demerits of native speaking English teachers (NSETs), and have been ranked in descending order. However, when there are similarities between two items (for example, between Q5 & Q8), or when it is necessary to compare and contrast two items, the ranking order has not been observed. (At this juncture, it should be noted that most administrators in Iranian language schools are not experts in TEFL pedagogy, as is apparent from their demographic details elicited from the questionnaires), and sometimes they may view an issue from a commercial perspective.

In terms of presentation of the analysis, the administrators' perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs will first be displayed sequentially in this section (Table 7.1 & Table 7.7

respectively). This will be followed by individual analysis of each of the 21 statements/questions. Second, the means scores of items addressing NSETs and NNSETs are compared using one-sample t-test in relation to the fourth hypothesis of the study (Table 7.10). Finally, data from the four remaining questionnaire items that inquire into the significance of collaboration and qualification of the two groups of the teachers as well as commercial role of NSETs will be discussed individually from the viewpoint of the administrators as presented toward the end of this section (Table 7.11).

Table 7.1: Administrators' Perceptions of NSETs (N=21).

Rank	Items (as they appear on the administrators' questionnaire)	Agree %	Not-sure %	Disagree %	Sum	Mean	Std. D
1	<i>Q21: Most EFL students think their EFL teachers should have a native accent.</i>	71.4	14.3	14.3	54.	1.43	.746
2	<i>Q2: I think that parents prefer that their children be taught by NSETs.</i>	57.1	28.6	14.3	51.	1.57	.746
3	<i>Q15: NSETs speak more clearly than their NN counterparts.</i>	57.1	19	23.8	49.	1.67	.856
4	<i>Q1: NSETs are really successful in teaching English as a foreign language.</i>	57.1	19	23.8	49.	1.67	.856
5	<i>Q7: Private language schools that have employed NSETs are commercially more successful than others that have no NSETs.</i>	52.4	23.8	23.8	48.	1.71	.845
6	<i>Q16: Employing NSETs is socially prestigious.</i>	57.1	14.3	28.6	48.	1.71	.902
7	<i>Q10: NSETs usually make the best use of audio visual aids when teaching.</i>	38.1	33.3	28.6	44.	1.90	.830
8	<i>Q4: NSETs are very flexible in their approach to teaching.</i>	33.3	28.6	38.1	41.	2.05	.864
9	<i>Q9: As EFL learners claim, NNSETs place more emphasis on a theoretical rather than a practical approach.</i>	33.3	23.8	42.9	40.	2.09	.889
10	<i>Q8: NSETs have pedagogically better knowledge of teaching English than NNSETs.</i>	28.6	23.8	47.6	38.	2.19	.872
11	<i>Q24: As EFL learners declare, NNSETs often have difficulties responding to students' questions.</i>	28.6	14.3	57.1	36.	2.29	.902
12	<i>Q12: NSETs can help learners solve their language-related problems.</i>	14.3	38.1	47.6	35.	2.33	.730
13	<i>Q13: NSETs can perform better than their NN counterparts in terms of administering tests.</i>	14.3	38.1	47.6	32.	2.33	.749
14	<i>Q19: Students in our English programs often seem disappointed if they see that their EFL teacher is an NNSET.</i>	9.5	23.8	66.7	30.	2.57	.676
15	<i>Q5 : All NSETs are well-trained and qualified.</i>	14.3	14.3	71.4	30.	2.57	.746
<i>Total Scores on NSETs</i>					652	30.08.	5.65

Responses to Q21 (*Most EFL learners think their EFL teachers should have a native-like accent*), the item that obtained the highest ranking, reveal that almost three-quarters (71.4 percent) of the administrators strongly believed that their students were fond of instructors having a native accent. The percentage of respondents who did not agree or who were undecided on this issue was only 14.3 in each category, which seems to be of little significance (See Figure 7.1 below).

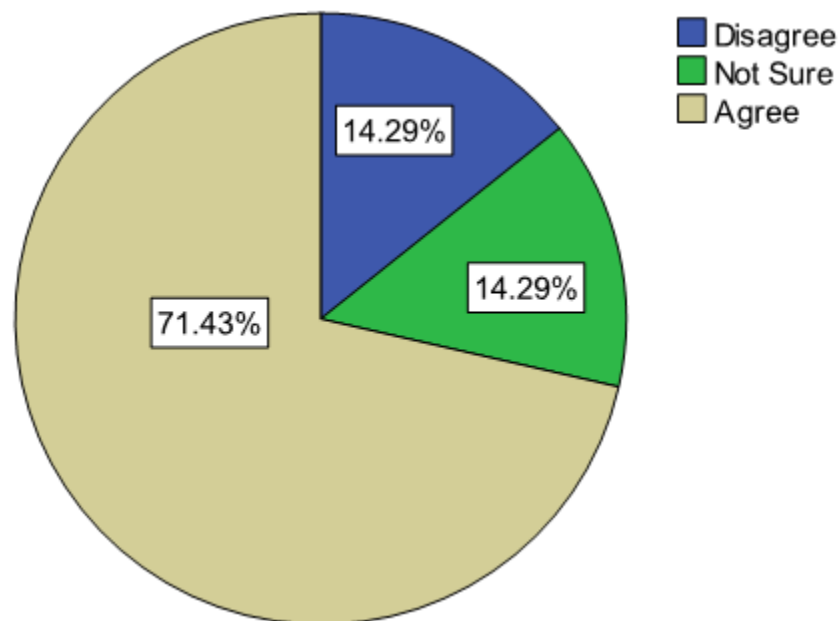


Figure 7.1: Students Prefer English Teachers with Native Accent (Q21).

The next noteworthy question is Q2 which says, ‘*I think that parents prefer that their children be taught by NSETs*’. More than half the respondents (57.1 percent) believed that parents were eager to send their children to classes supervised by NSETs (Table 7.2). This idea is supported by Moussu (2006:5) who says, “Parents all over the world are convinced that their children must learn English before any other foreign language, and will spend much time and money to find the best ‘representatives’ of the language, that is, native speakers of a specific variety of English.”

Table 7.2: Parents’ Preference for NSETs (Q2)

Q2	Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Mean
	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	
	12	57.1	6	28.6	3	14.3	1.57

The responses for Q15 (*NSETs speak more clearly than their NN counterparts*) and Q1 (*NSETs are really successful in teaching English as a foreign language*) were similar. The results indicate that more than half the administrators (57.1) believed in the superiority of NSETs over NNSETs with regard to clarity of speech and teaching accomplishment (Tables 7.3 and Table 7.4). The result of Q15 supports both Mahboob's (2003) survey and Moussu's (2006) idea, which say NSETs can be good English speaking models.

Table 7.3: Greater Clarity of NSETS in their Speech (Q15)

Q15	Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Mean
	Frequency	%	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	
	12	57.1	4	19.0	5	23.8	1.66

Table 7.4: Decisive Success of NSETs in Teaching EFL (Q1)

Q1	Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Mean
	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	
	12	57.1	4	19.0	5	23.8	1.6667

The similarity of the results for the two questions (Q15 and Q1) reveals their internal validity and reliability. The responses to both the questions could serve as a motivation factor for the administrators to hire NSETs, which may lead to some kind of discrimination against the NNSETs, a point which has for long been a matter of serious concern to NNSETs functioning in relevant contexts (TESOL,1992; 2006).

Q7 (*Private language schools that have employed NSETs are commercially more successful than others that have no NSETs*) and Q16 (*Employing NSETs is socially prestigious*) seem to walk hand-in-hand, both in terms of meaning, and hence, results.

This is evident from the degree of agreement which administrators showed to both items (Figure 7.2 and Figure 7.3). NNSETs consider this as discrimination which is occasionally manifested through advertisements and propaganda when administrators are engaged in the hiring of EFL/ESL teachers (Celik 2006; Moussu, 2006).

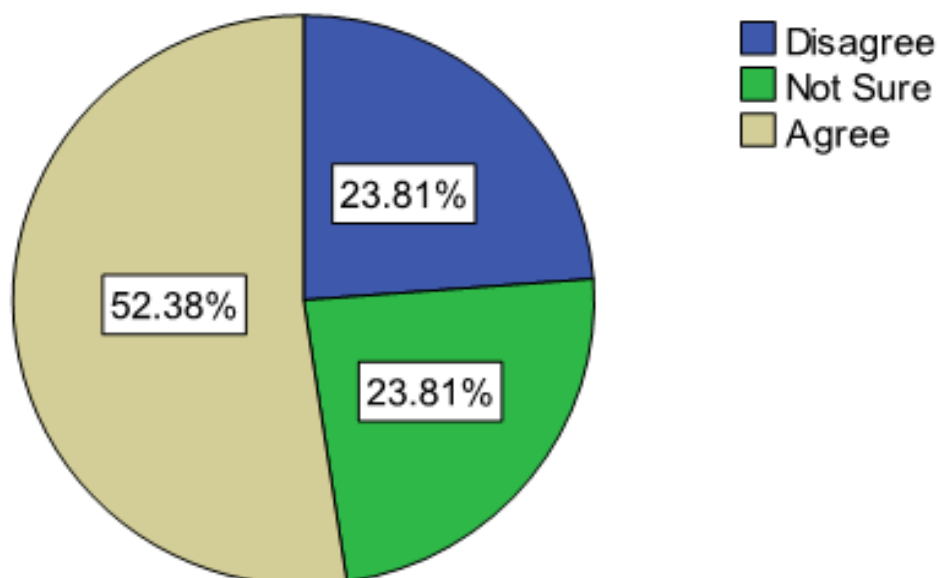


Figure 7.2: Commercial Role of NSETs in Comparison with NNSETs (Q 7)

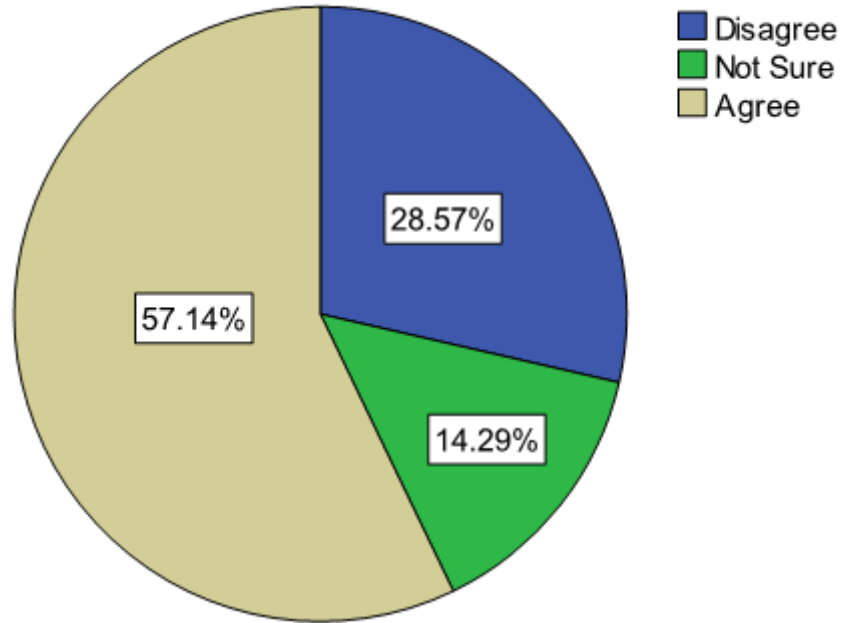


Figure 7.3: Employing NSETs for Social Prestige (Q 16).

Responses to Q10 (*NSETs usually make the best use of audio visual aids when teaching*) were distributed across all three options: 38.1 percent agreed, 28.6 percent disagreed and 33.3 percent were undecided (Table 7.5).

Table 7.5: Use of Audio Visual Aids by NSETs when Teaching (Q 10)

Q10	Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Mean
	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	
	8	38.1	7	33.3	6	28.6	1.9048

Like Q10, responses to Q4 (*NSETs are very flexible in their approach to teaching*) were fairly moderate. A third (33.3 percent) of the administrators agreed, 38.1 percent disagreed and the rest (28.6 percent) were not sure (See Figure 7.4). This lack of certainty of the administrators implies that many of the administrators felt that the NSETs were very method or text-bound. This view is contrary to the idea of Tang

(1997) and Arva and Medgyes' (2000) study which revealed that NSETs rarely adhered to a particular textbook or method of teaching.

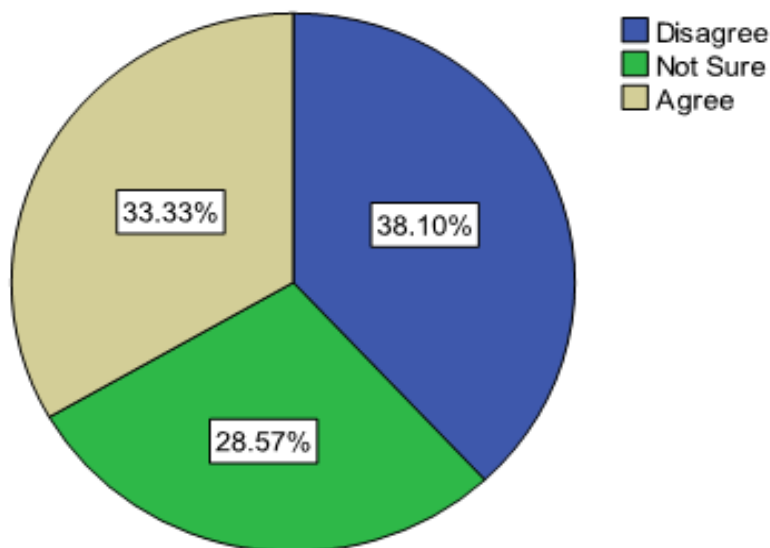


Figure 7.4: Flexibility of NSETs in their Approach to Teaching (Q4)

The responses to Q9 (*As EFL learners claim, NNSETs place more emphasis on a theoretical rather than a practical approach*) appear to cast negative aspersions on NNSETs, perhaps in order to strengthen the position of NSETs; however, 42.9 percent of the administrators disagreed with this statement. As stated earlier, Q9 has been placed in this category, that is, administrators' perceptions of NSETs, because indirectly it implies that NSETs are more practical, and hence better, than their non-native counterparts. Surprisingly, despite the fact that the administrators continuously supported NSETs, they were not ready to accuse NNSETs of adopting a theoretical approach for teaching EFL learners. In contrast with administrators' perceptions, Arva and Medgyes (2000:357) claim that NNSETs depend mostly on textbooks and pay scarce attention to modern equipment, implying that such teachers commonly use chalk and board. However, the noticeable disagreement (43%) of the administrators

concerning Q 9, to some extent encourages the perception that Iranian English teachers are oriented more towards the practical approach (Figure 7.5).

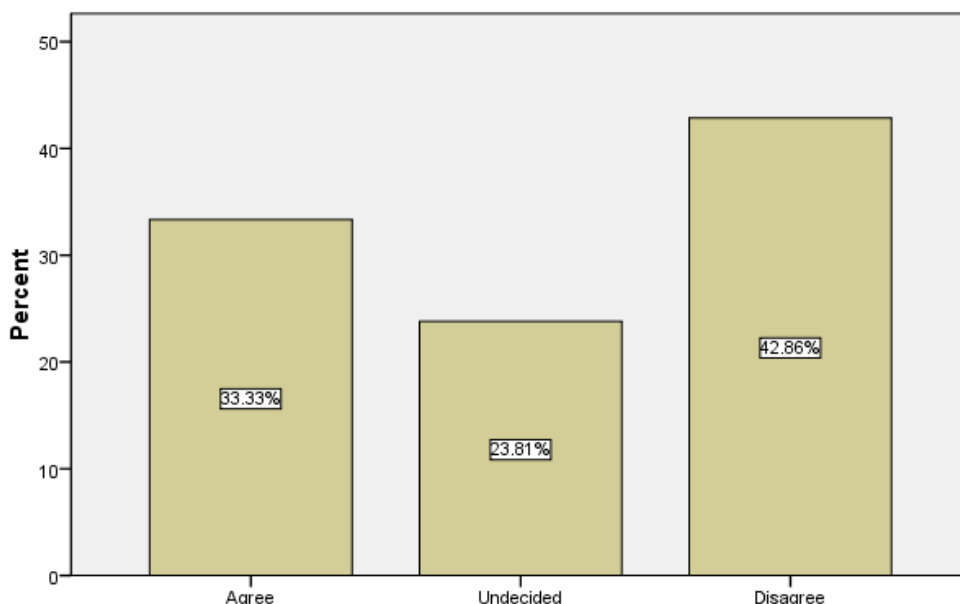


Figure 7.5: NNSETs are more Theoretical when Teaching (Q9).

Q8 and Q5 are being discussed together since both items deal with pedagogical perspectives of NSETs and appear to be highly interrelated to each other. Responses to Q8 (*NSETs have pedagogically better knowledge of teaching English than NNSETs*) show the significance of training. 10 out of 21 participants (47.6 percent) disagreed with this statement, meaning that hiring NSETs regardless of their being well-trained is meaningless: these respondents think one cannot generalize the point that all NSETs are pedagogically well-trained. This idea is supported by Phillipson (1992:194) who says, “Teachers, whatever popular adages say, are made rather than born, whether they are natives or non-natives.” This idea has also been supported in figure 7.6 illustrated

below.

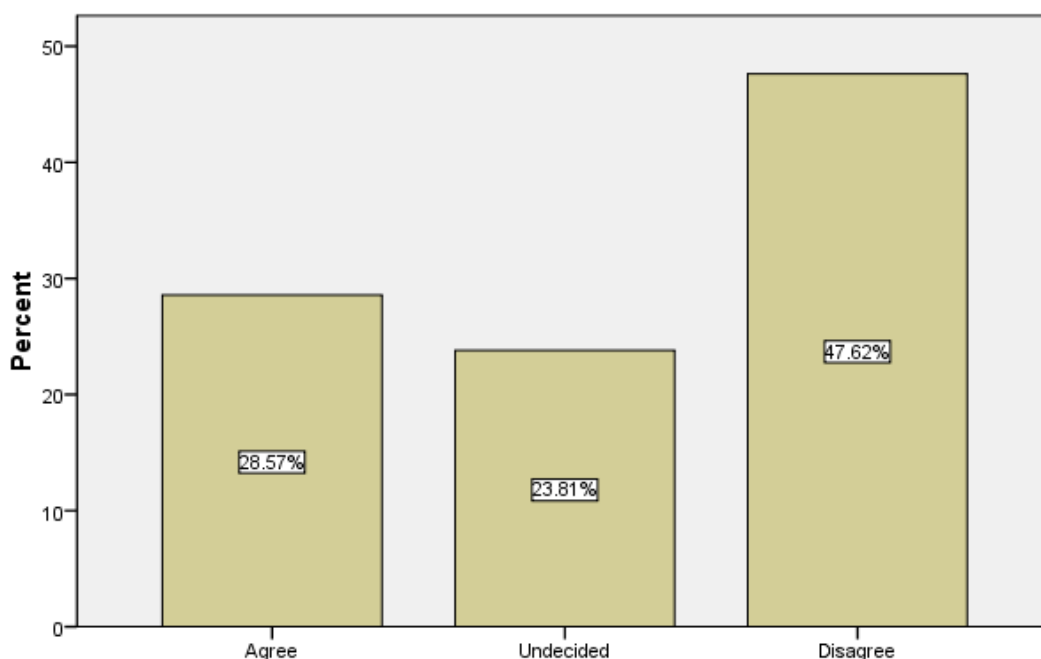


Figure 7.6: NSETs are pedagogically better Teachers than NNSETs (Q8)

Like Q8, responses to Q5 (*All NSETs are well-trained and qualified*) revealed that, according to the respondents, training of NSETs was an absolute must, as about three-quarters (71.4%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement (Figure 7.7). This accords with Phillipson (1992: 195) who maintains, “The untrained or unqualified native speaker is a potential menace.” Medgyes (1992) also revealed that two-thirds of the 60 participants of his study claimed that qualified NNSETs were preferable to untrained NSETs. The percentage of respondents who agreed or were undecided was relatively insignificant, as it was only 14.3 percent for each category. It appears that at least theoretically the administrators believed that NSETs should be well-trained. Fortunately, some private language institutes in Iran give importance to teachers’ qualifications, and usually hold some in-service classes to meet their needs.

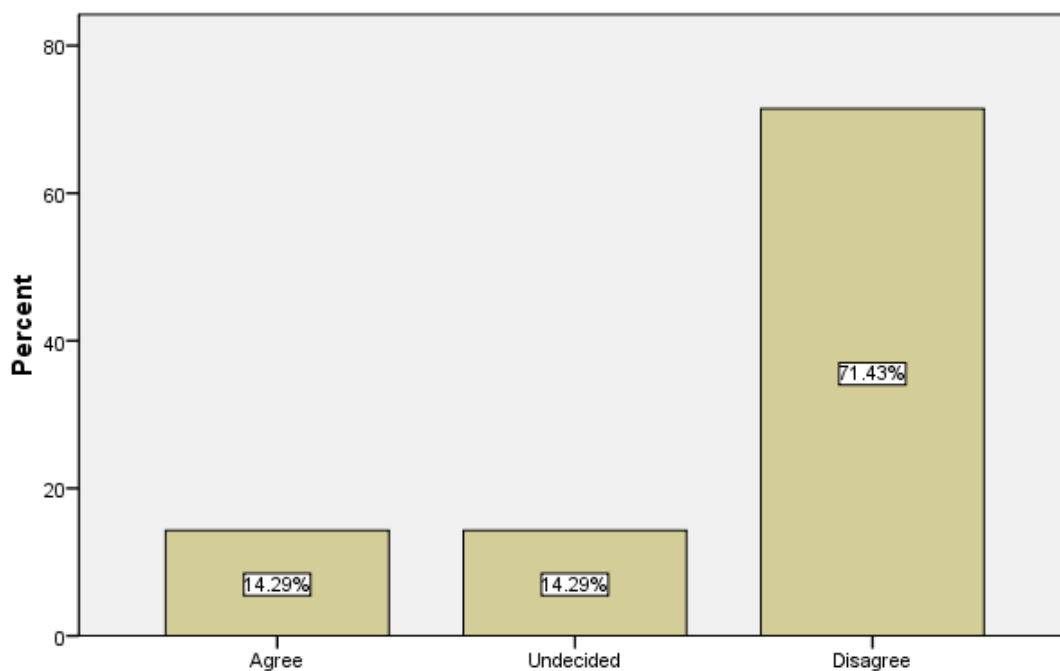


Figure 7.7: All NSETs are Well-trained and Qualified (Q5)

More than half the administrators (57.14 percent) showed their disagreement with Q24 ‘*Based on learners’ objections, NNSETs often have difficulties responding to students’ questions*’ (Figure 7.8). Due to its negative phraseology, this question, like Q9 and Q19, has also been placed into the category of administrators’ perceptions of NSETs. These perceptions appear to be that NSETs, too, can respond to students’ questions. The disagreement of majority of administrators (57.14) implies that all NSETs are not perfect, and one cannot generalize the point that all NNSETs are unable to solve the problems of EFL learners.

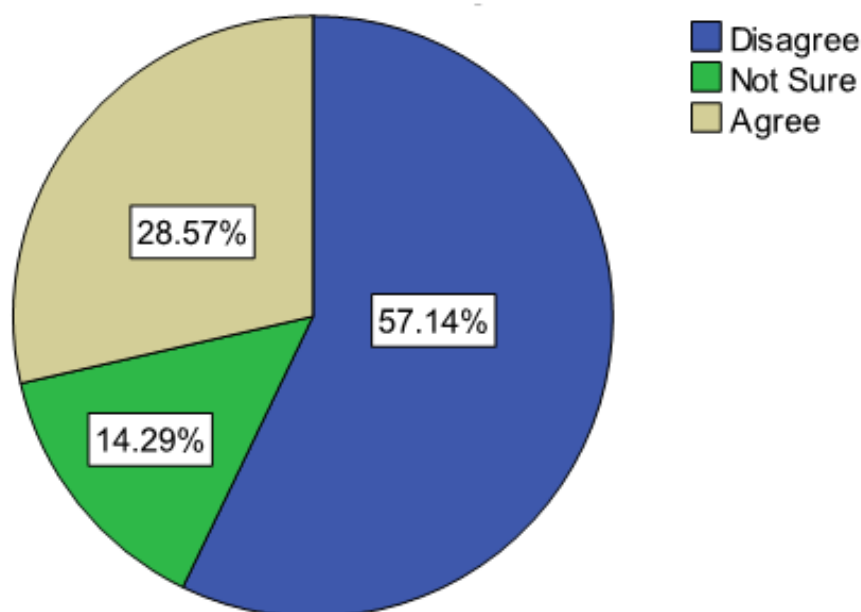


Figure 7.8: NNSETs cannot Answer Students' Questions Properly (Q 24).

Q12 (*NSETs can help learners solve their language-related problems*) and Q13 (*NSETs can perform better than their non-native counterparts in terms of administering tests*) are to some extent similar to each other (Table 7.6 and Figure 7.9). The disagreement of the majority of administrators with both the statements shows that the NSETs lack the ability to solve students' problems (47.6 percent) and administer tests (61.9 percent). With regard to Q12 (Table 7.6), more than a third of the administrators (38.1 percent) were undecided; only 14.3 percent of them agreed. For Q13 (Figure 7.9), 14.3 percent of the administrators agreed, while about a quarter of them (23.8 percent) were unsure.

The mean of Q12 (2.3) (Table 7.6) shows that the majority of the administrators believed that NSETs lacked the capability of solving students' problem. This accords with Barratt and Contra (2000) (cited in Moussu, 2006. p.24) who state, "NSETs can also easily discourage their students since they are rarely able to make useful comparison and contrast with the learners' first language". This also reminds the

researcher of Cook's (1999) belief that NSETs are good bike riders who do not know how they ride a bicycle, meaning, based on their intuition, they know that a sentence or an utterance is acceptable or not, but they cannot explain why or how. Obviously, from the perspective of the proponents of contrastive analysis, including Lado (1957) and James (1980), it might be implied that due to the lack of familiarity of NSETs with the mother tongue of the EFL learners, such teachers have difficulties when dealing with the learners' problems, especially when these problems are rooted in learners' L1.

Table 7.6: NSETs can Help Learners Solve their Language Problems (Q12).

Q12	Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Mean
	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	
	3	14.3	8	38.1	10	47.6	2.3

Concerning, the capability of NSETs in administering tests, as the result of Q 13 shows, these teachers (NSETs) are also handicapped in terms of test preparation and test administration. This idea accords with that of Seidlhofer's (1999, p. 238) who opined, "Native speakers know the destination, but not the train that has to be crossed to get there; they themselves have not travelled the same route." Most of them have not pedagogically studied teaching and testing procedures of the target language and few of them hold the degree pertaining to teaching English as a second or foreign language. The following figure (Figure 7.9) related to Q13 can sufficiently clarify the point. As it is evident from the figure , only 14.29 percent of the administrators believe in the

capability of NSETs to administer the test properly.

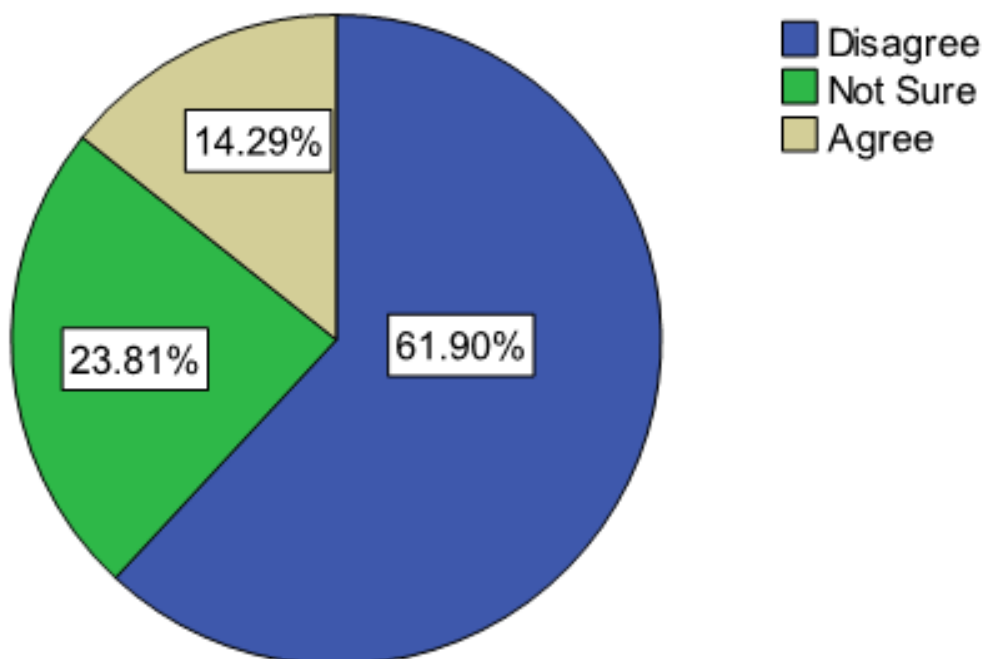


Figure 7.9: NSETs are more Successful in Administering Tests than NNSETs. (Q13)

The responses to Q19 (*Students in our English program often seem disappointed if they see that their EFL teacher is an NNSET.*) are surprising: in contrast to what has been established by researchers (e.g., Mahboob, 2003 and Celik 2006), more than two thirds (66.7 percent) of the administrators disagree with this statement, meaning that they (administrators) perceive that their students like their NNSETs too (Please, see Figure 7.10 below). However, Moussu (2006:5), contrary to the participants of this study, says, “according to popular beliefs, adult students are disappointed at first, if not upset, to learn that their teachers are not native speakers of English or do not look like their ideal native speaker of English (Caucasian).” Of course, this idea need not apply to all the EFL learners since learners and their environments are different.

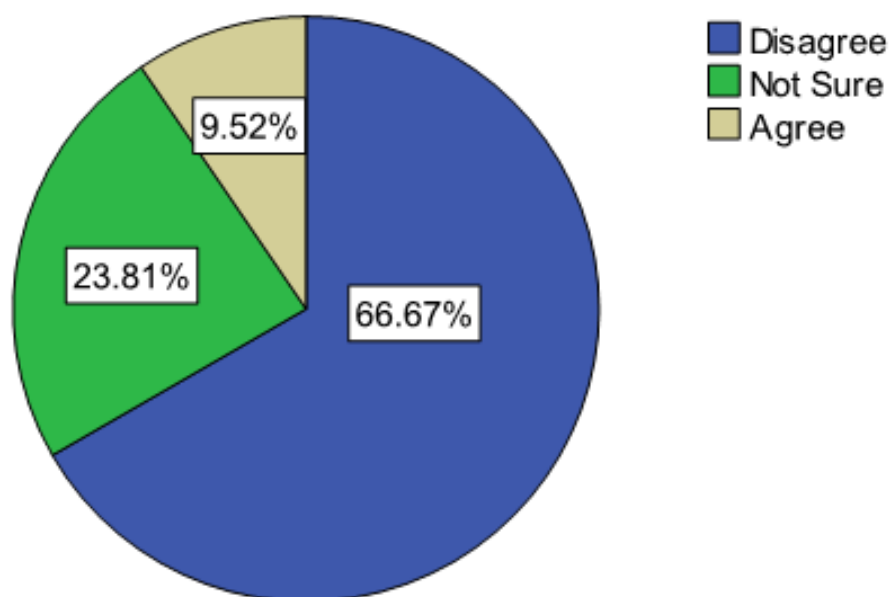


Figure 7.10: Lack of Learners' Satisfaction when NNSET is Teaching Them (Q19).

As it is evident from Table 7.1 (at the outset of this section) and the coming table (Table 7.7), the number of items was 15 for NSETs and 6 for their non-native counterparts. This methodological decision was justified on the assumption that when better chance is given to the administrators to see the NSETs properly, it can provide for the administrators better judgment on the merits and demerits of NSETs. This might indirectly help the administrators to see the quality of the two groups of the teachers consciously and as a result make appropriate decisions when dealing with teaching hiring practices.

7.2.2 Administrators' Perceptions of NNSETs

The second category of questions aims to shed light on administrators' viewpoints related to NNSETs. Table 7.7 below summarizes the responses of the administrators.

Table 7.7: Administrators' Perceptions of NNSETs (N=21)

Rank	Administrators' perceptions of NNSETs	Agree %	Not sure %	Disagree %	Sum	Mean	SD
1	<i>Q17: The learning experience of NNSETs can be considered as a positive point to balance some of their shortcomings.</i>	71.4	14.3	14.3	54.00	1.43	.746
2	<i>Q20: NNSETs are often perceived by their students as good role models.</i>	57.1	9.5	33.3	47.00	1.76	.943
3	<i>Q11: Classroom preparedness is better among NNSETs.</i>	33.3	47.6	19	45.00	1.86	.727
4	<i>Q14: NNSETs make the best use of handouts, worksheets and short texts.</i>	38.1	38.1	23.81	45.00	1.85	.792
5	<i>Q22: NNSETs can help students cope with cultural adjustments to English-speaking countries better than NSETs.</i>	14.3	28.6	57.1	33.00	2.42	.746
6	<i>Q6: NSETs are generally paid less than NNSETs.</i>	4.8	19	76.2	27.00	2.71	.560
<i>Total scores on NNSETs</i>					251.	11.93	2.224

Q17 (*The learning experience of NNSETs can be considered as a precious asset to balance some of their shortcomings*) aims to identify the role and significance of experience. The large majority of the administrators (71.4 percent) agreed with the statement, probably believing that experience can balance some of the weaknesses of NNSETs (Figure 7.11). Only 14.5 percent chose to disagree. Another 14.5 percent remained uncertain. The degree of participants' agreement and the mean of 1.43 (Table 7.7) indicate that administrators firmly believed in the importance of teaching and learning experience for NNSETs. The significance of experience as a whole is supported by Davis (Davis, 2001, pp. 5-6):

Beginning teachers simply do not extract the same levels of meaning from what they see. Experienced teachers see better what is happening. True, they (beginning teachers) have more knowledge about the subject, but experienced teachers also have more perspective on the instructional process.

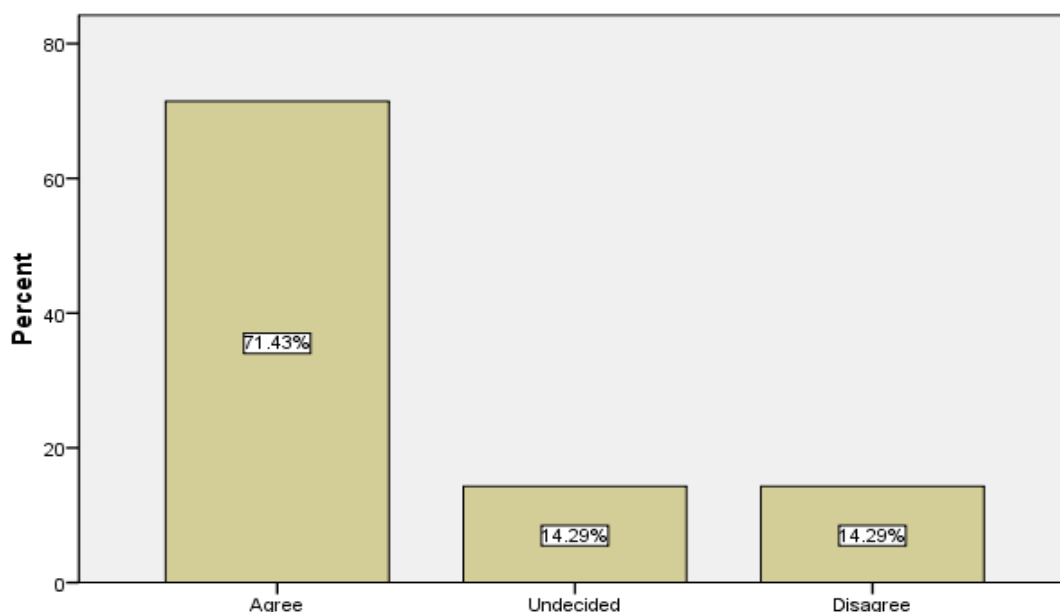


Figure 7.11: The role of Learning Experience of NNSETs (Q17)

Learning experience of NNSETs plays an important pedagogical role, since non-native teachers have experienced the same learning procedures that their learners are presently pursuing. Consequently, they (NNSETs) can help learners better to cope with their pedagogical problems when learning English as a second or foreign language. It is acknowledged that whatever one consciously learns is helpful in one's teaching process. However, as Arva and Medgyes (2000) denote, NSETs do not have such an opportunity, since they unconsciously have acquired the target language; in fact the unconscious knowledge of language acquisition cannot help them solve learners educational problems.

More than half the administrators (57.1 percent) agreed that *NNSETs are often perceived by their students as good role models* (Q20) (See Table 7.8) The mean of 1.76 supports the idea that the majority of administrators think that learners have a positive perception of their local (Iranian) English teachers.

The researcher believes that this perception is justified provided that NNSETs are qualified and ‘native-like’ in terms of linguistic competence. Moreover, to the learners, such EFL teachers can be especially good role models since the teachers themselves have gone through the process of learning the target language. Moussu (2006) also supports this idea, and says that NNSETs can be considered as good models for learners of English.

Table 7.8: NNSETs as Good Models for EFL Learners.(Q20)

Q20	Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Mean
	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	
	12	57.1	2	9.5	7	33.3	1.7619

Responses to Q11 (*Classroom preparedness is better among NNSETs*) show that administrators neither confirm the point nor reject it (See Figure 7. 12).

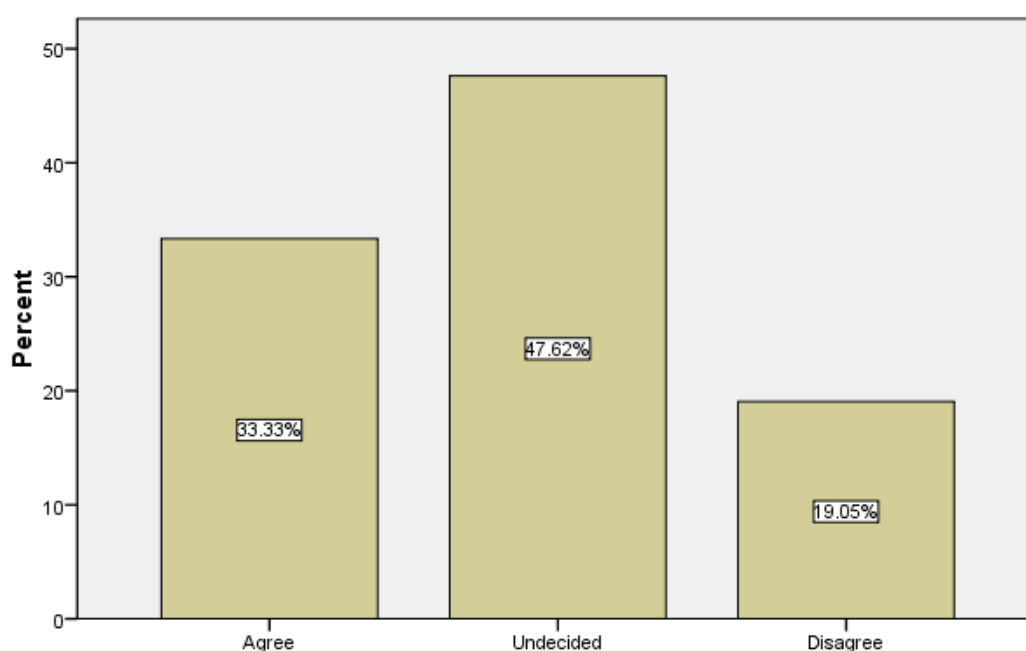


Figure 7.12: Classroom Preparedness is better Among NNSETs (Q11)

The figure below (Figure 7.13) indicates whether the administrators agree or disagree with the statement that *NNSETs make the best use of handouts, worksheets and short texts (Q14)*. Although a large percentage of them (38.1 percent) express no opinion on this matter, an equally large percentage state their agreement. But about a quarter of the respondents (23.8 percent) do express disagreement, meaning that they believe that the local teachers are not very willing to use handouts, worksheets or short texts. This idea is supported by Arva and Medgyes (2000:357) who say, “NESTs use a variety of materials [whereas] Non-NESTs use a single textbook.”

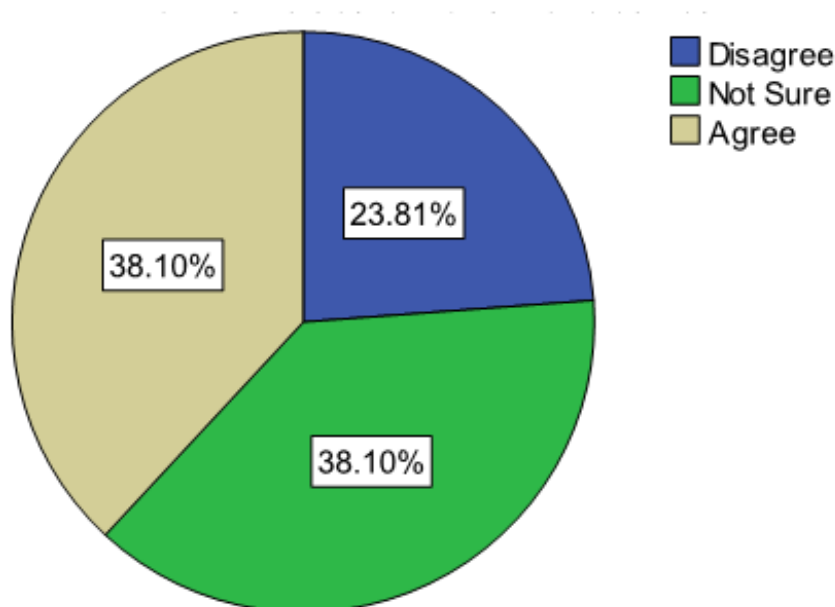


Figure 7.13: NNSETs as better Users of Handouts, and Short Texts (Q14).

Responses to Q22, *NNSETs can help students cope with cultural adjustments to English-speaking countries better than NSETs*, indicate the former’s relative ability/inability to teach socio-cultural aspects of the target language (Table 7.9). This is understandable as one who himself or herself has insufficient socio-cultural knowledge of the target language (in this case, English) can hardly help students cope with the

cultural adjustments to Anglophone countries This is evidenced by the fact that more than half the respondents (57.1 percent) disagreed with the statement.

Table 7.9: NNSETs can Help Students Cope with Cultural Adjustments to English-Speaking Countries better than NSETs (Q22)

Q22	Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Mean
	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	Frequencies	Percent	
	3	14.3	6	28.6	12	57.1	2.4286

The last of the six items pertaining to administrators' perceptions of NNSETs is Q6, which says, '*NSETs are generally paid less than NNSETs*'. Q6 apparently refers to NSETs; however, since it is phrased negatively, it falls into the second category. In other words, the term "less" used in the context of this item has negative sense and implicitly indicates that NNSETs are paid more than NSETs.

About three quarters (76.2 percent) of the administrators disagreed with this statement, implying that NSETs are paid either equally as or more than Iranian EFL teachers (Figure 7.14).

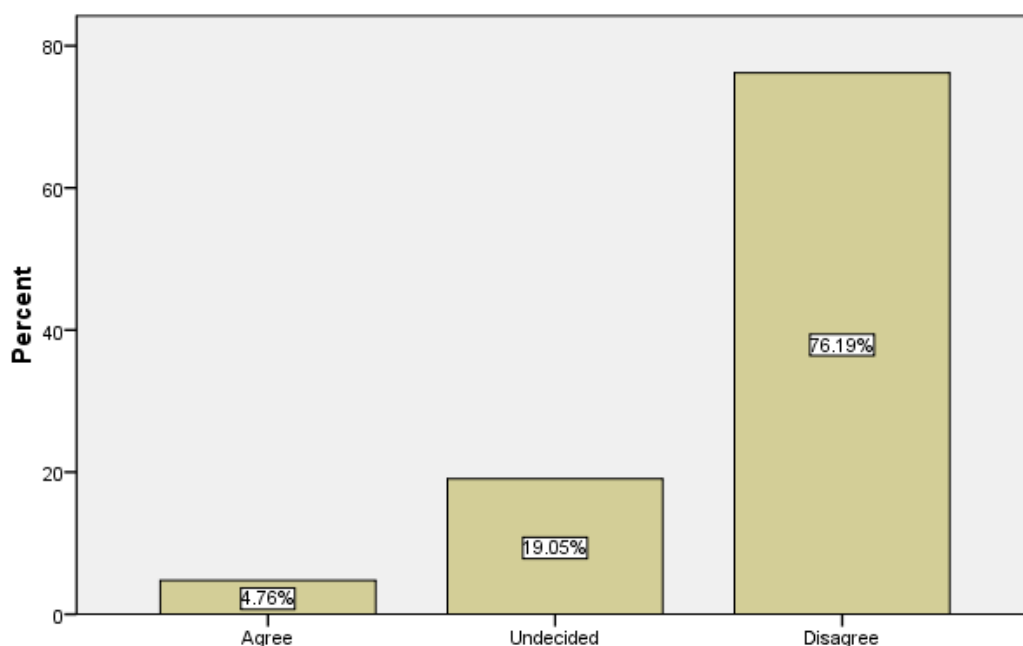


Figure 7.14: NSETs are Generally Paid Less than NNSETs' (Q6).

Concerning negative items, it seems that further clarification is needed. Be that as it may, on hind sight the researcher realized that negatively phrased items are a problem when it comes to analysis. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) suggest that negative items should be avoided and if they are used, care should be taken in their analysis. In this work, the negative phrasing (directly quoted ones or the ones accepted by experts in their negative formats) was carefully considered when coding and recording the responses in data sheets and SPSS files (for instance, refer to earlier explanation regarding Q6 illustrated above).

The overall statistics related to the administrators' questionnaires indicate that the respondents tended to express a more positive attitude towards NSETs; the differences are to the extent that one can safely reject null hypothesis number three which says, *"School administrators see no differences between the teachers who are native and those who are non-native speakers of English."*

In other words, as observed in the descriptive statistics on the items related to the perceptions of administrators with regard to NSETs and / or NNSETs, there were differences in how this category of respondents viewed these teachers. The mean scores that were calculated for the two groups of teachers were very different, as shown in Tables 7.1 and 7.7 above . The two means related to administrators perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs have also appeared in table 7.10 below. (NSETs=30.08, SD=5.65; NNSETs=11.93, SD= 2.22).

In order to see whether this difference was statistically significant, an independent sample T-test was performed and the level of significance was set at the 0.05 level. The results of this test have been summarized in Table 7.10 below, and show that the differences between the mean scores for native and non-native teachers were significant ($t_{\text{obs}}=24.113$, $T_{\text{cri}} = 2.08$) (Sig= .000, df=20). Based on these analyses, it can be seen that administrators have a higher opinion of native teachers; their perception is that native teachers are generally better teachers.

Table 7.10: Comparing Administrators' Perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs

Condition	Group	Mean	t-observed	t. critical	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal Variances assumed	NSETs	30.08	24.113	2.086	20	0.000
Equal Variances not assumed	NNSETs	11.93	24.624	2.086		

As observed in the table above, the t-value obtained for the difference between the means of attitudes to NSETs and NNSETs was 24.11. This value is much greater than the critical value at the specified significance level. Therefore, the difference is statistically significant (df=20, sig=0). This means that the administrators have a higher

opinion of NSETs and the third null hypothesis in this study has to be rejected. As suggested by the data, school administrators seem to prefer to hire NSETs.

7.2.3 Administrators' Pedagogical and Commercial Perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs

The third category of questions in the questionnaire consisting of four items presented in the following table. These items illustrate the administrators perspectives in terms of a) the collaboration between the two groups of teachers; b) the commercial role of advertisements for enrolling more applicants on English courses. ; c) the effects of teachers' qualifications on teaching English regardless of being N/NNSETs; and d) the equal role of the two groups of the teachers.

Table 7.11: Administrators' Perceptions of NSETs and /or NNSETs (N=21)

Rank	Items	Agree %	Not sure %	Disagree %	Sum	Mean	Std. D.
1	Q18: We strongly encourage collaboration between NSETs and NNSETs.	90.5	9.5	00	61.	1.09	.300
2	Q3: Advertisements captioned, "Only NATIVE speakers can apply" are good for attracting potential applicants.	66.7	19	14.3	53.	1.47	.749
3	Q23: Qualified NNSETs can teach English just as well as NSETs.	61.9	23.8	14.3	52.	1.52	.749
4	Q25: Whether my students are taught by NSETs or NNSETs makes no difference to me.	33.3	19	47.6	39.	2.14	.910
Total Scores of both N/NNSETs					205	6.22	1.3

Q18 (*We strongly encourage collaboration between NSETs and NNSETs*) drew responses that showed the high support of administrators (90.5 percent) for cooperation between the two categories of teachers; the remaining 9.5 percent of the participants were undecided (Figure 7.15). No one expressed disagreement.

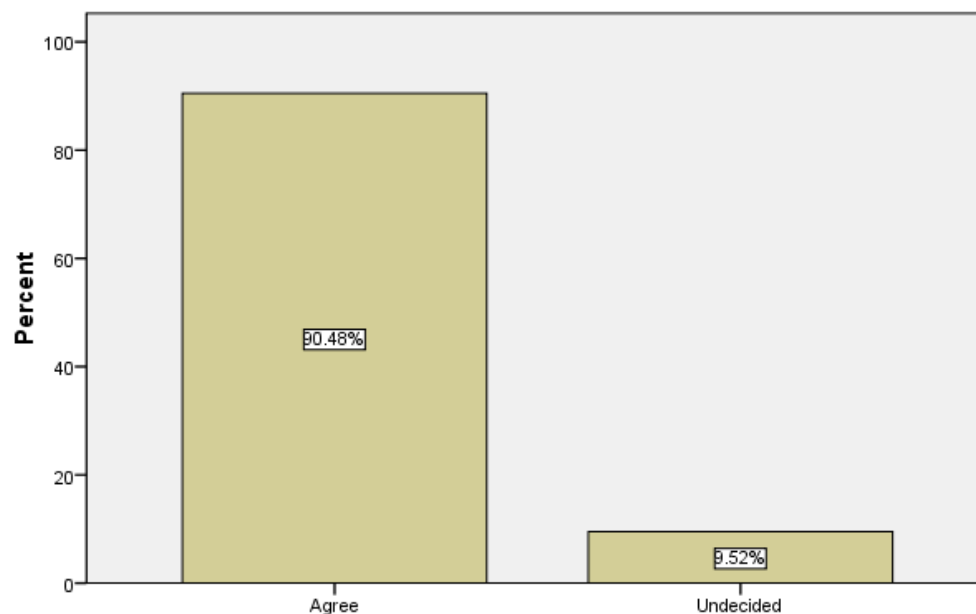


Figure 7.15: Collaboration between NSETs and NNSETs (Q18).

Q3 (*Advertisements captioned, “Only NATIVE speakers can apply” are good for attracting potential applicants’*) investigated the role of advertisements which laid emphasis on NSETs. Two thirds (66.7 percent) of the participants believed in the effectiveness and positive role of propaganda in attracting more customers (Figure 7.16). This idea supports Celik (2006:272) who says, “Private language schools advertise that all of their teachers are native speakers in order to attract attention from students and parents and increase their enrollment rates.” Moussu (2006:1) supports this: “Seven of ten first job offers, each seen (on the web) more than 200 times in two days, specifically stated that the applicants had to be native speakers of English.” This indicates that to the administrators, selection of NSETs is significant both from the commercial perspective as well as that of the prestige of the institution. The researcher’s experience when heading several language institutes for a while supports these views.

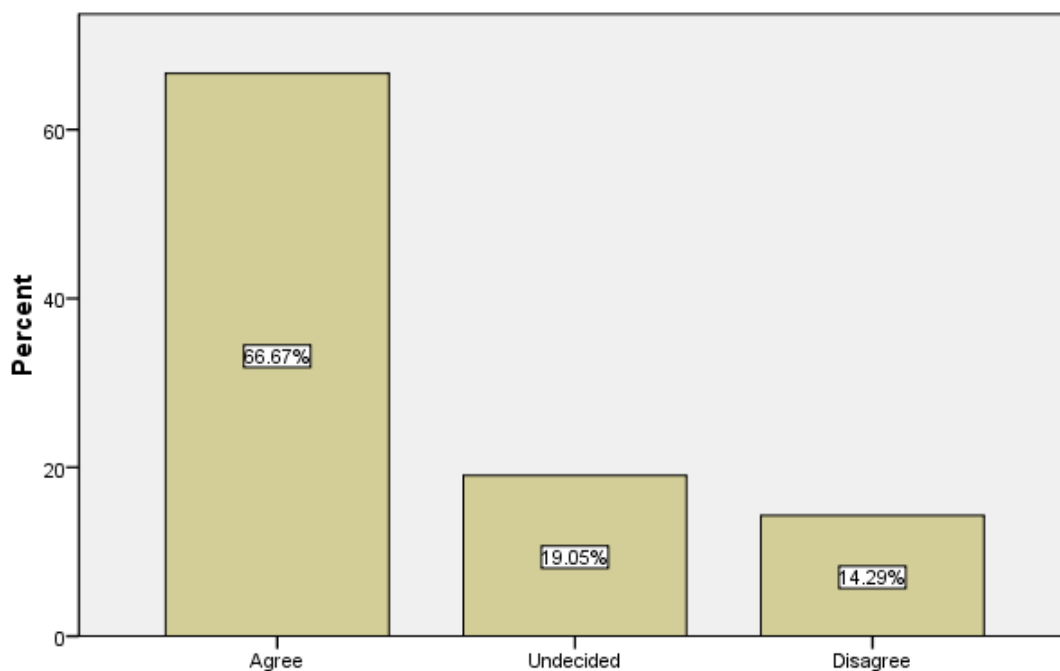


Figure 7.16: Advertisements Captioned, "Only NATIVE Speakers can Apply" are Beneficial (Q3)

The responses to Q23 (*Qualified NNSETs can teach English just as well as NSETs*) show that 61.9 percent of the administrators support this belief. This idea is congruent with students' perceptions. In Chapter 5 when answering Q seven, 67.1 percent of the students laid emphasis on teachers' qualifications, be they native or non-native (cf. Chapter 5, Table 5.8). About one quarter of the administrators (23.8 percent) were undecided, while 14.3 percent showed disagreement with the statement. All these responses indicate the role of teachers' qualifications. Figure 7.17 illustrates the point further.

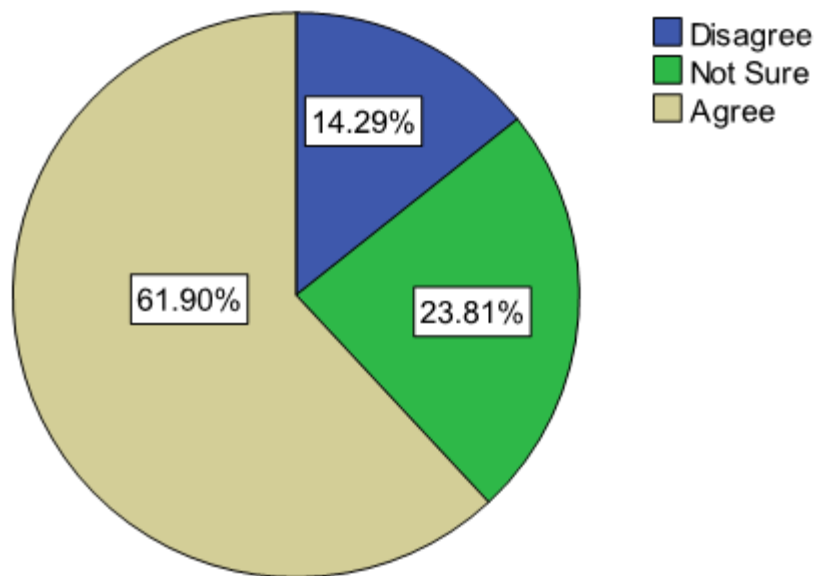


Figure 7.17: Qualified NNSETs Teach English as well as NSETs (Q 23)

Interestingly, as the results of Q23 and Q3 reveal (see Table 7.11above), administrators are constantly in a dilemma whether to choose qualified NNSETs or NSETs regardless of their qualification. Based on the responses given to Q23, majority of administrators think that when NNSETs are qualified they can teach as well as their native counterparts. However, commercially, as shown in notices and advertisements pertaining to Job offers they (administrators) consider NSETs as a profitable asset and it is evident from the responses given to Q3 above. These paradoxical clash of pedagogical principles on the one hand and commercial interests of the administrators on the other have been manifested in the ideas of Wattson and Punjaporn (2009, p. 24) who state:

There is, however, a conflict between the educational principle of equality between NESTs and non-NESTs and commercial realities (Ille , 1991). Institutions offering English language programs often promote themselves as employing NESTs and advertisements for teaching position often require that applicants are native speakers (e.g., Clark & Paran 2007; Liu 1999; Mckay 2002; Medgyes 1994) implying that NESTs are preferable in some way. Why should educational institutions often prefer NESTs while educational principle indicates no such

preference? The reason for the commercial preference for NESTs appears to be that, despite the academic arguments and evidence, there is still a broad social acceptance of the native speaker model (Pacek, 2005; Thornbury, 2006).

Finally, the results of Q 25 (*Whether my students are taught by NSETs or NNSETs makes no difference to me*) show that for the majority of the respondents (47.6 percent), there is a difference as to who teaches the EFL learners; only a third (33.3 percent) opine that it makes no difference whether the students are taught by an NSET or NNSET (Figure 7.18).

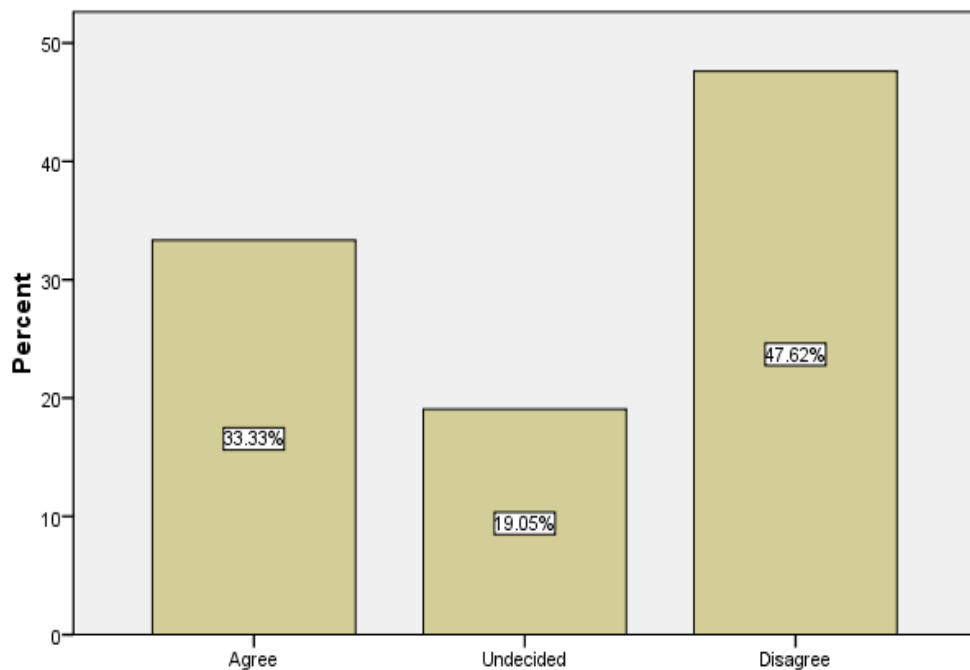


Figure 7.18: Students being Taught by NSETs or NNSETs Make no Difference (Q25).

7.3 Conclusion

The study revealed to some extent the beliefs of administrators regarding NSETS and NNSETs in relation to their teaching, as well as aspects to be considered when hiring them. Although there was a marked leaning towards the former category (NSETs), the

administrators considered the learning experience of NNSETs (Q17- agreement of 71%) as a positive point which could compensate for their weaknesses. Besides that, over 90 % (Q:18) of the administrators believed that the cooperation and collaboration of the two groups may enhance the overall proficiency of young EFL Iranian learners. From the viewpoint of the administrators, the qualifications of the EFL teachers (Q:23 – agreement of 61.9 %) were more significant than their nationality (for further information, please refer to Appendix J) . Based on the overall results, we may conclude that the reason for administrators' not hiring NNSETs was not due to the teachers' nationality. To the administrators, like the other parties involved, it appears that the poor qualifications of the non-native English teachers were a matter of concern.

CHAPTER EIGHT: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the results and findings discussed in the preceding chapters. It also contains recommendations for future studies and highlights the practical and theoretical implications of the findings for policy makers involved in training and hiring EFL/ESL teachers. This will be followed by a description of the limitations of the research. The chapter closes with a brief conclusion to the study.

As stated earlier in Chapter 1 (introduction) and Chapter 2 (review of literature), this research consisted of two phases: the experimental phase and the survey parts. With keeping the two phases of study in mind, Chapter 3 viewed the methodology of the study. Chapter 4 reported on Phase 1, which investigated the assessment of the oral performance of young Iranian EFL learners taught by NSETs and NNSETs. The findings of phase one of the study were discussed in relation to the first null hypothesis: *There are no significant differences between the oral scores of young Iranian EFL learners whose English teachers are native versus those who are non-native in terms of their (the learners') performance in oral skills.*

Chapters 5, 6 and 7 have been allocated to Phase 2 of the study which attempted to shed light on Research Questions 2, 3 and 4, respectively. Throughout these three chapters, learners' perceptions of NSETs and NNSETs, teachers' self perceptions regarding their strengths and weaknesses, and language institute administrators' viewpoints concerning the two types of the teachers were discussed in relation to the relevant research question and hypotheses. Therefore, in Chapter 5, *the hypothesis which says 'Learners do not perceive any differences between the types of teachers (native speakers of English versus non-native speakers of English) teaching them*

English’ was discussed. However, due to qualitative nature of data pertaining to teachers’ self-perceptions, meaning lack of related hypothesis, in Chapter 6, addressing research question three, *‘What are the self- perceptions of EFL teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English regarding their own weaknesses and strengths?’* was considered, whereas in chapter 7 the hypothesis which claims *that ‘School administrators see no differences between the two types of the teachers teaching English to their EFL learners’* was tested.

8.2 Students Scores in the Oral Test

The first research question of the study was, “What are the differences in the performance (oral scores) of young Iranian learners taught by native and non-native speakers of English?” To address this question, a sample of young EFL learners were taught by two types of teachers : 3 natives (NSETs) and 3 non-native speakers of English. They (the learners) were then given a semi-direct oral test. The test comprised three tasks: answering questions, describing pictures and making presentations. It was administered to the participants in a language laboratory; the participants’ scores were subsequently collected and analyzed. Several conclusions were drawn from this analysis, as described below.

In general, students taught by NSETs obtained better results than those taught by NNSETs. This was evident from a comparison of the mean scores of the two groups of the learners taught by NSETs and NNSETs (ranging from 82.09 to 68.93, respectively, as shown in Table 4.1). This means that the oral performance of learners taught by NNSETs was moderately good, but the other group performed better. The better achievement of the learners taught by NSETs supports Mahboob (2003:32) who said, “NSETs are praised for their oral skills, cultural knowledge and large vocabulary.” The results were also in congruence with the findings of Cheung (2002) and Mahboob

(2004) which showed the better capability of NSETs in terms of teaching the oral skills (listening and speaking).

Among the three tasks mentioned above, namely answering questions, describing pictures and making presentations, it was found that the last task (making presentations) was most easily handled by all the participants; both groups obtained better scores in this task compared to the marks they got from Tasks 1 and 2. This was probably because making presentations was more tangible or concrete to the learners. The better performance of the two groups in this task ratifies Piaget's (1972) ideas which "classified students of these ages (10-11)... as being in the 'Concrete Operational Stage' - thinking in concrete terms; these students have difficulty with abstract concepts" (cited in Pennington 2009, p. 1). These views, as well as the findings of this study, suggest that students within these ages (10- 13) will gain better knowledge of English if the instructors present the materials in a tangible way, preferably in context.

However, the results of this study run counter to those of Medgyes (1994), Arva & Medgyes (2000) and Moussu (2006), who stipulated that grammar was the domain of NNSETs. But the means of the grammatical errors of the EFL learners taught by NSETs and NNSETs proved them wrong: the learners taught by NSETs had a mean of 7.04 whereas those taught by NNSETs had a mean of 10.33 (A smaller mean indicates fewer grammatical errors.). It must be stated, however, that in this case the teaching context was not one where pure grammar was being taught.

The role of experience was also highlighted in this study, meaning that in both groups students of the teachers who had greater work experience performed better than those who were taught by less experienced teachers (cf. 4.3). This is in line with the ideas of Canagarajah (2005) who compared and contrasted experienced and non-experienced teachers as "novice and expert" and Davis (2001) who indicates that

“Experienced teachers know how to “read” the classroom like a football quarterback reads the defense (p.5).”

In terms of fluency and pronunciation, learners taught by NSETs performed better than those taught by NNSETs. This was proved experimentally: students who were supervised by NSETs had fewer mid-clause pauses than those taught by NNSETs. The ratio of pauses was 40.75 percent to 59.25 percent, respectively. The pauses were measured during a process where learners recounted a simple – picture story entitled ‘A Typical Day in Bob’s Life’ (See Appendix: G). However, the gist of the matter is that the overall results of Phase 1 support the fact that the learners taught by NSETs performed better, implying that in terms of teaching oral skills to young Iranian EFL learners, this category of teachers were more effective than NNSETs. This appears to justify the learners’ perceptions and wishes.

8.3 Students’ Perceptions

To address Research Question 2 “*What are the perceptions of EFL learners regarding teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English?*”, 213 students out of 483 learners who had been exposed to the two categories of teachers were selected based on simple random sampling to respond to a closed-ended questionnaire (Chapter 5 and Appendix A). These students were mainly similar, in terms of aspects such as age and gender’, to the 90 participants who underwent the ‘treatment’.

The results of the questionnaire highlighted some new elements which were not studied previously. Generally speaking, in most of their responses to the questionnaire, the participants showed their preference for NSETs. This is evident in the responses given to Q2, Q6 and Q8 (see Chapter 5) whereby the tolerance (almost 50 percent agreement), familiarity of NSETs with the learners’ mother tongue (56.3 percent agreement) and the superiority of NSETs in terms of teaching EFL (almost 42 percent

agreement) were considered. The pattern of these responses run counter to previous findings of Moussu (2002 and 2006) who stipulated that to some extent learners' attitudes towards NSETs were more positive. However, the responses given to Q6 pertaining to the role of the learners' mother tongue proved that NSETs who were qualified and familiar with the learners' mother tongue were more successful than those who did not know the learners' L1. This idea is in harmony with the results of this study discussed in Chapter 4 (cf. 4.3) and also with Medgyes (1994:348-349) who claims, "the ideal NSET is one who has achieved a high degree of proficiency in the learners' mother tongue" (cf. Chapter 5- Q6).

In contrast to the positive attitude of the learners towards NSETs, a great number of the respondents showed a lack of preference for local Iranian English teachers. This is evident from the responses given to Q9 (*I can learn English from an Iranian English teacher*) and Q16 (*I understand my teacher better when he is an Iranian English teacher than being an NSET*): almost half the respondents (46.5 percent) disagreed with both the statements. This result is in direct opposition to Fox's (1992) conclusion which claimed that students who had experienced NSETs would show a positive attitude toward NSETs. Despite the fact that the questionnaire did not require text responses from the respondents on their perceptions of NSETs and / or NNSETs, more than half of the participants have earnestly asked the authorities to give the participants the chance to go for classes taught by NSETs. These requests were often written at the end of their closed-ended questionnaires.

The central finding came out of Q7 which states, "*I do not care where my English teacher is from as long as he is qualified and experienced.*" More than two thirds of the participants (67.1 percent) announced their agreement in this regard, meaning that it was the qualifications and experience of the English teachers which were important, not

their nationality. However, their responses also show that the lack of preference for NNSETs was most probably due to their (the NNSETs') lack of qualifications. Perhaps from the learners' points of view, NNSETs were not well trained, both pedagogically and in terms of overall knowledge of the target language.

In terms of teachers' accents (Q4 and Q5), participants preferred to have teachers who had an American accent (53.1 percent) rather than a British one (less than 20 percent). This implies, as Graddol (2006) claims, the British can no longer claim ownership of English.

The majority of the participants agreed that knowledge of the English language was significant in order to obtain good jobs or go abroad (Q24 and Q25). More than three quarters of the students (77.5 percent) agreed that *Learning English will help us get a good job* (Q24), and more than 80 percent declared that it was important to know the language in order to go abroad (Q25). These responses support the idea of Crystal (2003:1) who considered English as a "global language", meaning that it is used dominantly in important domains such as science, business, aviation and navigation.

Several conclusions can be drawn from the results of this part of the study:

- a) First, not all of the participants hold negative attitudes towards NNSETs.

However, as the results show, about 50 percent or more perceived NNSETs to be disadvantaged in the spoken form of the language, including pronunciation, accent and fluency. This idea is in agreement with Medgyes (1994), who claimed that although NNSETs were good models of the target language for the learners, they were greatly handicapped in terms of vocabulary, fluency and pronunciation.

- b) Second, to the learners, NSETs have the edge over their non-native colleagues; however, this is not because of their (the teachers') ethnicity, as the results of Q7

show. The problem is grounded in the pedagogical weaknesses of Iranian English teachers who could not meet the needs of the learners when teaching the target language. These results convey important messages to the authorities involved in teaching, training and hiring practices.

- c) Third, NSETs could be more successful if they knew the mother tongue of the learners, and NNSETs who were well-trained and more native-like could be ideal instructors.
- d) Finally, as shown in Appendix H (Analysis of learners' questionnaire), there were fewer participants in the 'undecided' group, meaning that the participants both understood the statements in the questionnaire and responded to these carefully. This shows the questionnaire was fairly valid from the viewpoints of both internal and external validity.

8.4 Teachers' Self-perceptions

The third research question pertained to the teachers' self-perceptions: *"What are the perceptions of teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English regarding their own weaknesses and strengths?"* To address this question, three aspects of the two groups of teachers were considered: (i) their demographic information, (ii) their perspectives regarding the issue of discrimination between the two categories (N and NNSETs), and (iii) their general beliefs regarding their strengths and weaknesses. To get the necessary data, a validated open-ended questionnaire comprising three parts that corresponded with the three aspects mentioned above was distributed to 50 self-selected English teachers: 36 of them returned completed questionnaires to the researcher.

8.4.1 Teachers' Demographic Information

The teachers belonged to different institutes, schools and universities and held various degrees from BA to PhD in English. They also had work experience ranging from 5 to 25 years. Eight of the teachers identified themselves as NSETs while the remaining 28 were NNSETs. They came from various nationalities; among them, two were from India and trilingual, knowing Bengali, Hindi and English. The majority of the teachers were males (20), 14 females ; however, two of the participants did not disclose their gender.

8.4.2 Teachers' Perspectives on Discrimination Between NSETs And NNSETs

The second part of the questionnaire discussed the issue of discrimination between the two groups of teachers, namely, NSETs and NNSETs, and the teachers' perspectives regarding this issue. The overall results showed that 13 respondents (36.2 percent) out of 36 believed they were discriminated in one way or another by stakeholders in the teaching context such as the administrators and students, whereas 63.88 percent denied the point. Two of the NSETs confirmed that some of their non-native colleagues were discriminated against, and suggested that both categories of teachers should cooperate with each other and try to eradicate discrimination, if it existed. Out of the 36 respondents, seven stated that discrimination (*by principals of the school or colleagues*) seriously bothered them; however, the rest (29) either denied it or felt it was tolerable. For instance, one NNSET said, "I do hear that some of the students don't like me since their previous English teacher was a native speaker of English." Some of the NSETs said that they tried to reduce such tensions. One NSET mentioned, "I try to convince them (the students) that NNSETs are also capable of teaching EFL if knowledgeable." The best recognized solution for the issue proposed by both parties was laying emphasis

on cooperation and collaboration between them when teaching EFL learners. However, since most of the NSETs have recently left the country, the issue of NSETs/NNSETs and the notion of discrimination may no longer be a matter of concern. In fact, in this study NSETs were considered as a means to an end to enquire into the probable weaknesses of NNSETs.

8.4.3 Teachers' Self-Perceptions

Regarding the third research question, namely, inquiring into the teachers' general beliefs about their weaknesses and strengths, 12 open-ended questions were presented to the respondents. The issue has been discussed in Chapter 6 in detail (cf.6.4.). The findings show that NSETs were more comfortable teaching all subjects except translation, test preparation courses such as TOEFL and grammar, test administration and understanding learners' needs and educational problems. They also preferred to teach students at the lower levels. Indeed, as shown by the findings to research question one of this study, the performance of the students taught by NSETs were much better in comparison with the performance of the learners taught by NNSETs. This finding runs counter to Llurda's (2005) study, where the teacher educators recommended that NNSETs were better at teaching lower level classes.

The overall responses of the respondents, particularly the answers given to Q12 of this questionnaire, proved that NNSETs were less confident than their native counterparts. This means that the credit given to NSETs concerning their capability in teaching language parts is much higher than that given to NNSETs (cf.6.4.- Table 6.15).

Q2 "*What do you think are the advantages of native speaking English teachers?*" and Q11 "*What are the advantages of non-native speaking English teachers?*" were

designed to obtain the self-perceptions of the two parties, NSETs and NNSETs, in relation to the merits of the two groups of teachers. More than two thirds (67 percent) of the overall participants gave priority to the linguistic competence of the NSETs. The pronunciation of NSETs and their familiarity with the cultural aspects of the target language stood second and third, respectively. This perspective was from the self-perception of the NSETs. One of the NSETs, for instance, said, “NSETs have the advantage of sounding natural which most EFL learners prefer, as well as having good accent, pronunciation, intonation and a wide range of vocabulary not mentioned in the textbooks.” NNSETs, too, had repeatedly laid emphasis on the good accent and pronunciation of their native counterparts.

The superiority of the NNSETs was perceived to be mainly in understanding learners’ problems (46.6 percent). Familiarity with learners’ mother tongue and their command of teaching grammar were the second and the third choices selected respectively by the respondents. One NNSET, for instance, said, “We can have a better understanding of the weaknesses of the students since we are familiar with the differences of their L1 and L2.” Another local teacher said, “We can help the students in grammar and reading (since) we have also the same experience in this regard.” These findings support the results of a study conducted by Tang (1997). In his study, Tang found that NNSETs were considered as problem solvers who observed the rule of accuracy, especially when teaching grammar.

Concerning Q1 which asks the teachers “*What makes an EFL teacher a good EFL instructor?*”, 27 out of 36 respondents (75 percent) laid emphasis on qualifications and pedagogical aspects of language. Pronunciation and pragmatic use of language stood second; the third rank went to motivation and experience of the teachers. All these

commonly accepted phenomena were confirmed by Phillipson (1996); Medgyes (1994); Astor (2000) and Davis (2001).

About 50 percent of the respondents voted for using L1 when teaching English (Q4); they believed L1 could be helpful for teaching abstract phenomena and also compensate for the poor knowledge of the target language (English) among NNSETs.

Regarding the selection of ideal teachers of English (Q5 & Q6), 60 percent of the instructors in both categories emphasized the qualifications of the teachers rather than their nationality. The respondents also emphasized that NSETs could be ideal teachers provided they knew the mother tongue of the learners, and that NNSETs could be more effective teachers if they were native-like. This idea matches that of Medgyes' (1994). However, it is quite evident that no one can find any ideal English teachers since all English teachers whether natives or non-natives have merits and demerits of their own.

Q3 deals with the disadvantages of NNSETs. Respondents firmly stated the inappropriateness of NNSETs in terms of pronunciation (53 percent) and language usage/use (47 percent). These notions are commonly accepted by all experts of the field including Nayar (1994) and Tang (1997). Concerning weaknesses, the NNSETs admitted that their foreign accents, lack of self-confidence (which supports the findings of Reves and Medgyes, (1994) and having little knowledge of American or British culture were definite weaknesses. These ideas are supported by Cheung's (2002) and Mahboob's (2004) findings.

The NSETs' perceptions of the weaknesses of their non-native counterparts are summarized below:

Six out of eight (75 percent) stated that the main demerits of Iranian English teachers were pronunciation and lack of knowledge of the English language. One NSET

mentioned that “NNSETs are weak in vocabulary, reading comprehension, pronunciation, accent, general knowledge (of English), speaking and pragmatics.”

Her perspectives were verified by the responses to Q12 which asks the participants, *“If both native and non-native speaking English teachers are equally qualified, who can teach listening, speaking, reading, writing, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and young learners better? Consider the teaching of each language part separately.”* The majority of the respondents believed that NSETs were better in teaching all parts of the target language except grammar, which is usually the domain of NNSETs (Table 8.1).

Table 8.1: Responses as to who is a better Teacher of the Various Parts of English Language (Q12)

Listening & Speaking		Reading		Writing		Pronunciation		Vocabulary		Grammar		Teaching Lower Levels	
N	NN	N	NN	N	NN	N	NN	N	NN	N	NN	N	NN
85%	15%	58%	42%	60%	40%	94%	6%	59%	41%	23%	77%	56%	44%

N= NSETs

NN= NNSETs

Despite the fact that NNSETs outnumbered their native colleagues (28 in comparison with 8), they (NNSETs) voted against themselves, meaning they had less confidence than their native counterparts in teaching almost all the subjects. These results are in line with the learners’ perceptions regarding the qualifications and ethnicity of their teachers (Chapter 5: Q7). More than two thirds of the students (67.1 percent) claimed that when their teachers were qualified, their nationality was a non-issue. This idea is also parallel to the administrators’ beliefs presented in Chapter 7 (Q23). The administrators also emphasized the qualification of the teachers rather than their nationalities. This finding is supported by Medgyes (1994), who claimed that although NNSETs might be good models for EFL learners, they were greatly handicapped in terms of vocabulary, fluency and pronunciation.

The overall findings of this study indicate that Iranian English teachers are, on the whole, neither satisfied with their job nor qualified to teach EFL learners. The two issues, namely, teachers' job satisfaction and their poor linguistic competence (as shown in Table 8.1 above) will be briefly described below.

8.4.3.1 Teachers' Job Satisfaction

Teachers' job satisfaction was studied based on their interview responses (cf. 1.6.2). As mentioned earlier, when asked if they were satisfied with their salary, 35 out of 40 (87.5 percent) local Iranian English teachers (NNSETs) expressed their dissatisfaction, claiming they could not make ends meet; many of them had perforce to depend on additional work hours and part-time jobs. Thus, scheduling of classes was difficult. Apparently, in Iran, NNSETs were often exhausted when they arrived for classes, especially when these were in the afternoon or evening.

8.4.3.2 Teachers' Linguistic Competence

Workshops were held to solve problems related to teachers' linguistic incompetence, but the outcome of these in-service sessions were not very desirable. It appears that there were some flaws during the initial training of the teachers at teaching training colleges, implying that some fundamental steps should be taken to remedy these flaws during the initial stages of teacher training, both from the viewpoints of pedagogy and the English language proficiency of English teachers.

8.5 Administrators Beliefs Regarding NSETs and NNSETs

To answer the final research question of the study, that is, "*What are the beliefs of school administrators regarding the EFL teachers who are native and non-native speakers of English?*", a validated, closed-ended questionnaire comprising 25 items was

distributed to 21 headmasters of private language institutes. Chapter 7 contains the full analysis of the data; this chapter will summarize only the significant points of this analysis.

Be that as it may, the overall views of administrators of private language institutes concur both with learners' perceptions pertaining to NSETs and NNSETs as well as teachers' self-perceptions regarding their strengths and weaknesses.

More than half the administrators (57.1 percent) recognized NNSETs as problem solvers who could themselves be good models for EFL learners learning English as a foreign language (Qs 24 and 20, respectively). A large majority of the administrators (71.4 percent) also acknowledged that the teaching/learning experience of this category of teachers (NNSETs) was a positive point that could balance some of their shortcomings (Q17).

On the other hand, almost three quarters of the administrators (71.4 percent) considered the native accent of the NSETs as a positive point (Q21); their fluency and knowledge of language use (Q15) were also mentioned as positive points by more than half the administrators (57.1 percent). Besides that, 52.4 percent of the administrators claimed that NSETs were commercially advantageous for the institutes (Q7). More than half the administrators (57.1 percent) asserted that parents preferred to send their children to classes taught by NSETs (Q2). The same percentage of administrators also indicated that NSETs could teach the target language better than their non-native counterparts (Q1).

However, most of the administrators (71.4 percent) firmly emphasized the qualifications of both groups of teachers (Q5). This finding supports the belief of the researcher that qualified teachers are made not born. More than 90 percent of the administrators stressed on the cooperation between both categories of teachers (Q18);

interestingly, none disagreed with the concept. Finally, as the responses given to Q23 indicate, it was the qualifications of the teachers which were significant to the administrators, not their ethnicity (61.9 percent of them agreed with the statement). This is strongly in agreement with the learners' perceptions (Q7) where almost the same percentage of respondents (61.7 percent) laid emphasis on the qualifications of the teachers rather than their ethnicity.

All in all, like the learners and the teachers, the administrators generally did not appear to believe in the dichotomy of NSETs and NNSETs; instead, they seemed to think that each category of teachers had their own merits and demerits when teaching different dimensions of language. As such, the two groups could be equally effective (Medgyes : 1994, cited in Yung, 2006), and their merits and demerits could balance each other.

8.6 Summary of Results

The aims of this study were:

- to identify the differences between the oral scores of the learners taught by NSETs and those taught by NNSETs
- to investigate the learners' perceptions of NSETs and / or NNSETs
- to examine the self-perceptions of the teachers regarding their own merits and demerits, and,
- to discover the administrators' perceptions of NSETs /NNSETs.

To pursue these goals, 348 students, 36 teachers and 21 administrators were selected as the participants of the study. Data was obtained from these participants via oral tests, questionnaires and interviews. The analysis of the data led to the following conclusions:

- a) The analysis of the overall scores of the participants and the ratio of mid-clause pauses produced by EFL learners while recounting simple narratives showed that the learners taught by NSETs outperformed those taught by NNSETs (cf. 4.3). However, learners taught by NNSETs also obtained moderate results.
- b) Surprisingly, learners taught by NSETs produced more acceptable utterances than those who were supervised by NNSETs even in terms of grammar, which is commonly believed to be in the domain of NNSETs (cf.4.3.3: Table 4.8).
- c) The findings revealed that learners within the 11-12 age range learnt tangible phenomena better than abstract ones. (The students' final examination results showed that learners handled the presentation task better than answering questions or describing pictures.) This finding coincides with Piaget's (1972) idea which states that the young learn more effectively through tangible rather than abstract phenomena.
- d) Enumerating the mid-clause pauses of the students through retelling picture-stories indicated that learners taught by NSETs had fewer mid-clause pauses than those taught by NNSETs. This shows that the learners taught by NSETs exhibited better performance in terms of fluency and accuracy (See Chapter 4.3- Table 4.9).
- e) Contrary to the results of the study conducted by Llurda (2005) who recommended that it was more appropriate that NNSETs teach lower-level classes, the findings of this study proved that beginners taught by NSETs got better results than those taught by NNSETs (The mean of native group: 82 – The mean of non-native group:69).
- f) The responses in the learners' questionnaires indicated that they showed a greater partiality for NSETs; however, this does not mean that the learners'

partiality for their expatriate teachers was merely because of their nationality. In fact, about two thirds of the learners (60.1 percent) believed that NSETs were better in terms of their qualifications, linguistic competence and pronunciation. (*See responses to Q1, Q18 and Q4 in Chapter 5 [cf. 5.2.1]-Appendix A.*) As a result, the responses given to these three statements illustrate the central findings of the study in hand.

- g) The overall results of Phase 1 and Phase 2 of the study proved that NNSETs were neither motivated nor ready to motivate their students in their classrooms. This is quite evident from their self perceptions. (*See Q 10 in Appendix A.*)
- h) The lack of motivation on the part of the NNSETs was probably due to their insufficient salary which caused them to be overworked with the additional hours they had to teach and the part-time work they had to do in order to obtain extra income, leaving them little time to study or prepare for their classes. This conclusion is based on the results of an interview conducted with at least 40 teachers. In these interviews, 87.5 percent of the respondents implied that they had to take on heavier teaching loads in order to earn enough. Of course, this simple structured interview was not a part of this study and that was conducted by the researcher during the academic year of 2006-2007 and the venue of the interview was in a provincial city (Yazd) in Iran.
- i) Based on the result of the teachers' questionnaire, and as is evident particularly from the responses given to Q12 (*See table 8.1*), NNSETs felt less confident in teaching almost all subjects except grammar. This supports Arva and Medgyes (2000) who claim that NSETs use real language more confidently than their non-native counterparts when they are teaching the target language.

- j) On the other hand, NSETs, based on the overall self-perceptions of the two groups of teachers, were comfortable to teach all subjects except grammar, translation and test administration, the tasks which are normally in the domain of NNSETs. (*Please refer to Table 8.1 and figure 7.9 for further information.*)
- k) Contrary to the initial assumption of the study that NNSETs might have been faced with intolerable discrimination, the findings of this investigation showed that the situation was not very critical and was tolerable.
- l) Cooperation between the two groups of teachers was highly sought for by all the participants, especially the administrators, 90.5 % of whom supported this idea. They believed that this could be beneficial for both NSETs and NNSETs. (*Please see Chapter 7- Figure 7.15*) The notion of cooperation was also supported by Liu (1999).
- m) Based on the stakeholders' perceptions, it seems the dichotomy of the EFL teachers into NSETs and NNSETs is irrelevant. To them (learners, teachers and administrators), whatever the arguments for and against NSETs and NNSETs, other issues related to professionalism, such as qualification and English proficiency of the teachers, are more important than being or not being a native speaker in determining effective teachers. This idea supports Watson Todd's (2009) position in this regard.
- n) It was shown in this study that certain courses such as oral skills, pronunciation and vocabulary are better to be taught by NSETs (cf.6.4- Table 6.15), whereas teaching grammar, evaluation courses, TOEFL test, translation courses, and some other language components is in the domain of NNSETs. In other words NSETs should be commissioned to teach mostly conversational courses, whereas the NNSETs had to deal with everything else including grammar.

Consequently, institutions offering English language program should consider the aforementioned points when selecting EFL teachers for teaching specific courses.

The overall results of this study are reminiscent of Canagarajah's (2005) belief who says:

English-teaching proficiency must be seen as a 'plural system' that abandons the notion of native versus nonnative speakers and adopts instead the distinction between, for example, 'novice and expert' teachers (Canagarajah, 2005, p.xxvii). "Astor(2000) also held similar ideas. He states, "a good teacher' can no longer be a NSET or a NNSET but can only be an educated person who masters a combination of linguistics, pedagogical, and methodological skills (Astor, 2000) matching a given context at a given time and for a given purpose (cited in Moussu, 2006:173).

8.7 Implications of the Study

As discussed earlier (cf. 2.3), Phillipson (1992:185) touched upon the concepts of "linguistic imperialism" and "native speaker fallacy" while restating the tenet presented at the Uganda Conference (1961) that "The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker." Medgyes (1994) focused on the issue of NNSETs and called the aforementioned tenet into doubt by claiming that despite their potential linguistic barriers, NNSETs had certain qualities that NSETs were deprived of. Canagarajah (1999a) also challenged the term "Native Speaker", which had been introduced by Chomsky (1986). He claimed that in this modern world, where people are usually the native speakers of more than one language, there is no sense in having the concept (of native speaker of English) at all. Braine (1999a) and Kamhi–Stein ((Ed.)2004) confirmed the existence of the two groups of NSETs and NNSETs, but recommended cooperation between both.

As has been established, issues related to NSETs and NNSETs form the subject of much controversy. The results of the present study have practical and theoretical implications that may contribute towards the debates over the matter. Practically, it will

help policy makers dealing with issues related to teacher training colleges make better-informed decisions. Being aware of the results of this study will help the authorities consider the weaknesses and strengths of the NNSETs and exploit these to produce well-educated and better-qualified teachers. Such awareness will enable the authorities in charge to take concrete steps for better planning of teacher training centers and establish appropriate workshops and in-service classes. This will be beneficial for teachers and administrators, as well as EFL learners. In other words, the results can contribute towards the formation of criteria for practitioners, administrators, and private language institutes to make appropriate decisions in terms of the employment and deployment of EFL teachers. The practical implication of this study will help those who are in charge of teacher education colleges to educate more competent teachers who can play a crucial role in helping learners become proficient in the language. In line with the educating of local Iranian English teachers which seems to be a long term project or a time consuming one, those who are accountable for human resources or teachers employment can temporarily take importing NSETs into consideration for the enhancement of learners English proficiency, meaning to compensate for the present status of unsatisfactory English teaching in the country.

Theoretically, this study reveals the expectations of a group of Iranian foreign language learners. It will also help the teachers to see their own merits and demerits, and to reveal their wants and wishes. This may in turn help the EFL teachers adjust themselves to their educational settings. It may also remind the English institutes offering various English courses that some courses will be taught by NSETs better than NNSETs and the other way round. Another contribution of this study is that it paves the way for teachers to cope with the issue of discrimination if and when it arises. Furthermore, they (the teachers) may become aware of the fact that if the two parties

involved in TEFL cooperate with one another, they can balance the weaknesses and strengths of each other and solve any problems which may arise.

While the present study reveals the current situation of TEFL in Iran and makes the status of NNETs clear, the findings should neither be overestimated nor underestimated. More data should be gathered from a larger population and in different contexts in order to shed more light on the issue of NSETs and NNETs.

This study has been conducted to evaluate the oral performance of female EFL learners taught by NSETs and NNETs and to see the perspectives of three main stakeholders (the learners, the teachers and administrators) regarding the issue of NSETs/ NNETs. Other studies need to be conducted to investigate the performance of male learners when they are taught oral skills or other language skills by the two groups of the teachers involved.

The sample which was selected for this study was within the age range of 11-13. However, studies in other contexts wherein English is taught as a second or foreign language are also crucial. Therefore, the results of this study might be considered as preliminary criteria for other researchers who are willing to do the research in the K12 context (See Maum, 2003, for instance), or at the tertiary level (See Liu, 2005). Also, the site and sample size of this study was rather limited; other researchers, therefore, should conduct studies in other areas with larger samples.

8.8 Recommendations

Taking into consideration the various perceptions and perspectives of the stakeholders (learners, teachers, and administrators of private language institutions), recommendations can be made that would be relevant to the Government of Iran

(specifically, the Ministry of Education), curriculum designers and others involved in the process of teaching and training EFL teachers.

In order to meet the expectations of the teachers and enhance job-satisfaction amongst them, government officials are accountable for allocating sufficient funds to be paid to the teachers to satisfy their needs as well as support teacher education colleges to teach and educate qualified English teachers. Based on the findings of this study, it is suggested that those who are in charge of teacher training colleges or teacher education programs take the following into consideration:

- a) As Crystal (2003) claim, English is no longer the language of just a small number of people living on the island in the North Sea. Varieties of Englishes are spoken throughout the world. Therefore, it is necessary for all student teachers to become familiar with 'World Englishes'. This issue can be addressed either as a module, a separate class or a specific workshop (Eguiguren, 2000; Llurda, 2004). To achieve the goal, those in charge of teacher training centers can invite successful NSETs and NNSETs to discuss global English or world Englishes with the teacher trainees.
- b) Supplementary help in terms of writing and pronunciation may be needed; therefore, workshops on these subjects should be scheduled for NNSETs and student teachers.
- c) Due to the important role of experience in the hiring of ESL teachers, teacher education centers should give specific attention to the teaching experience of their student teachers.
- d) Those responsible for training English teachers should know that nowadays, mass media including websites, the World Wide Web, and technology can play significant roles in educational settings. Therefore, professional development is

critical for English language teachers. It enables the teachers to enhance their expertise, and makes them more marketable.

- e) Teacher training centers should help their trainees learn language holistically, as an entity and not part by part. As Widdowson (1990) believes, teaching just the form or structure of the language is insufficient. The learners should know how to use the language when the time arises. Therefore, the student teachers, too, should know how to use the language and how to help their future learners in this regard.
- f) Teacher education programs should be scheduled appropriately to help future teachers become aware of the fact that there are differences in teaching EFL, ESL, ESP and General English, meaning teaching should be based on the context of situation and the learners' needs. To gain proper knowledge, as stated by Moussu (2006:177), "Braine (2005) and Canagarajah (2005), among others, are excellent sources of information about the EFL context."
- g) To make the best use of qualified and experienced NSETs, it is quite rational to engage them in consultations on teaching procedures. It may pave the way for EFL learners and teachers to become familiar with the cultural aspects of the target language.
- h) In the short run, as the results of this study have indicated, there is an urgent need for policy makers in the department of education to schedule workshops or in-service classes that can disseminate relevant information and provide training in ways that can enhance the teaching practices of the NNSETs.
- i) When authorities think that importing qualified NSETs is costly and, politically, rather sensitive, teaching and training qualified NNSETs should be a matter of priority. Accordingly, to arrive at a desirable conclusion, there is a need to

provide up-to-date text-books, revise the existing curriculum and improve teacher education practices in the relevant institutions.

- j) Due to the notion of “convenience sampling” proposed by Creswell (2008), in this study young female EFL learners were studied. Other researchers may use the findings of this study as the preliminary stage of their work and consider other issues such as age and gender.

8.9 Limitations of the Study

The study was conducted in two provinces, namely Yazd and partially in Tehran. Initially, established language institutes located in Yazd were supposed to provide the respondents for Phase 1 and Phase 2 of the study, but due to the insufficient number of participants responding to learners’ questionnaires, the researcher was forced to select two international schools in Tehran. This was deemed to be acceptable as the students in these two schools were very similar to the main participants of the study, and had been exposed to the two types of teachers (NSETs and NNSETs). In other words, these participants were qualified to join the pool of learner respondents. However, since the treatment was conducted in private language institutes, the results of the study cannot be generalized to public schools. Furthermore, just the oral skill (mainly spoken form of English) was considered, meaning that if the other skills such as listening, reading, writing or grammar had been considered, the results might have been different. Definitely, listening is a part of oral skill which could have been measured separately, but it wasn’t. However, the lack of measurement of listening comprehension may be considered as a part of limitation of the study. It is hoped that other potential researchers who may choose to conduct similar studies take listening comprehension into consideration. Moreover, no concrete data in the form of scores were obtained when administrating the pre-test to compare the pre-test and post-test results (cf.3.8.1).

Therefore, caution might be exercised when interpreting the result of phase one i.e. the experimental part. Finally, since the study was site-bound and sample sizes were not very large, it is not possible to generalize the results to a larger population.

8.10 Conclusion

This chapter has briefly summarized the research objectives and overall results of the study. In line with this, the perceptions and perspectives of several stakeholders in the educational enterprise (learners, teachers and administrators) have been viewed in relation to NSETs/NNSETs, aided by theories that have been presented in the theoretical framework (Chapter 2). The practical and theoretical implications of the study have also been highlighted, and recommendations made to improve the TEFL situation in Iran, especially in terms of educating NNSETs. Finally, the limitations of the study have been delineated.

This thesis has tried to highlight previous findings related to the concepts of NSETs and NNSETs. It has also attempted to fill the probable gaps that have existed along the way. This was done by investigating critical issues related to the teaching practices of NSETs and NNSETs in Iran. The discrepancies that existed between or among the stakeholders have been clarified. Consequently, the researcher believes that the results of the present work contribute to a better understanding of the NSETs and NNSETs' debate that has attracted a lot of researchers in recent years. Much of the research has attempted to caution against the employment of NSETs in many contexts and to argue in favor of NNSETs. However, the results of this study show that where qualifications of the NNSETs are very low and where students find it difficult to get the language knowledge they want from their teachers, NSET can be a valuable asset. The results of the study also show that in the present state of affairs, NNSETs can do no more than develop the grammatical knowledge of the students based on their own views and self-

assessment, and that they need more and more in-service training to develop their qualifications and enhance their self-confidence as EFL teachers. An implication of the present study is that, ideally, a combination of native and nonnative teachers in academic organizations can make a richer environment where one teacher (NSET) has more to contribute from the language aspect and the other (NNSET) has more to share in terms of socio-cultural understanding. Consequently, it is hoped that the results will prove useful to all involved in English language learning, teacher training and teacher hiring practices.

While the present study reveals some significant points in terms of teaching oral skills to young Iranian EFL learners and inquires into the perceptions of EFL learners, teachers, headmasters and language institute administrators with regard to NSETs and NNSETs and their qualifications, the findings should neither be overestimated nor underestimated. Gathering data from a larger population and in different contexts may shed more light on the issue of NSETs and NNSETs.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: LEARNERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire regarding native English teachers & Iranian English teachers

1. Date.....
2. Country of origin.....
3. Age:
4. Gender: (a) male [] (b) female []

Note: NATIVE speaking English teachers: English teachers (American or British...) whose mother tongue is English.

5. Have you experienced NATIVE and Iranian English teachers during your experience of learning English?

a) Yes [] b) No []

Please express your opinion on the following statements, about your English teachers in general by circling the numbers that correspond to your preference:

1. Agree 2. Not sure 3. Disagree

Your identity will always be kept either anonymous or confidential.

		A g r e e	N o t S u r e	D i s a g r e e
1	Iranian English teachers give learners better opportunities to participate in classroom activities.	1	2	3
2	NATIVE speaking English teachers can tolerate our mistakes better than Iranian English teachers.	1	2	3
3	I am learning English to enable me to go to the US or to the UK.	1	2	3
4	English foreign language teachers should all speak with a perfect American accent.	1	2	3
5	English foreign language teachers should all speak with a perfect British English accent.	1	2	3
6	Native speaking English teachers who are familiar with the learners' mother tongue can teach English better.	1	2	3
7	I do not care where my English teacher is from as long as he/she is qualified and experienced.	1	2	3
8	To learn English well, I need to have a teacher who is a NATIVE speaking English teacher.	1	2	3
9	I can only learn English from an Iranian English teacher.	1	2	3
10	Iranian English teachers motivate me more than NATIVE speaking English teachers in the classroom.	1	2	3
11	Iranian English teachers can help me to solve my concerns in English better.	1	2	3
12	Iranian English teachers have difficulties understanding and responding to students' questions.	1	2	3
13	Only NATIVE speaking English teachers know about American or British culture better than the Iranian English teachers.	1	2	3
14	I am concerned about the difference in English knowledge between NATIVE and Iranian English teachers.	1	2	3
15	Iranian English teachers can help me familiarize myself better to the new American culture very well.	1	2	3
16	I understand my teacher better when he is Iranian English teacher than being NATIVE speaking English teacher.	1	2	3
17	If I could choose a NATIVE speaking English teacher, I would do	1	2	3

18	NATIVE speaking English teachers can teach oral communication skills better than Iranian English teachers.	1	2	3
19	Iranian English teachers can teach reading and writing skills to young English foreign language learners better than American or British... English teachers.	1	2	3
20	My NATIVE speaking English teacher uses modern educational tools (like computer, tape recorder ...) better than my Iranian speaking English teacher.	1	2	3
21	American or British... English teachers can be a good model for young foreign learners of English.	1	2	3
22	Iranian English teacher can be a good model for young English foreign language learners.	1	2	3
23	I encourage my friends to take English classes from NATIVE (American or British...) English teachers.	1	2	3
24	Learning English will help us get a good job.	1	2	3
25	Learning English will help us go abroad.	1	2	3

Borrowed from Moussu, (2006) but revised to suit the participants

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

APPENDIX B: NSETS AND NNSETS' QUESTIONNAIRE:

Please answer the following questions with brief comments wherever necessary.

Your identity will always be kept either anonymous or confidential.

NSETs= English teachers whose mother tongue is English

NNSETs= English teachers whose mother tongue isn't English

EFL= English as a foreign language

ESL= English as a second language

I: Background information. Please answer the following question about yourself.

1. In which country were you born?
- Gender: a) male [] b) female []
2. What is your first language?
3. Do you consider yourself a :
 - a) Native speaker of English
 - b) Non- native speaker of English
4. What is your highest degree?
5. Where do you teach now?
6. Do you teach English as a:
 - a) Second language [] b) Foreign language []
7. How long have you taught English?

II: Your experience in this school or private language institute

8. Do students in this school or institute make discriminatory comments about NNSETs?

a) yes ☐ b) no ☐

9. If yes, how do you respond to such comments?

.....
.....

10. Do you feel that you are being discriminated against in any way by principals of
institutes or colleagues?

4) Yes ☐ No ☐

12. My experience as an EFL teacher in this school or institute has been positive
so far

1) strongly **agree** ☐

2) agree ☐

3) not sure ☐

4) disagree ☐

5) strongly **disagree** ☐

13. Collaboration between native and nonnative EFL instructors is strongly
encouraged in this school. a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

III. General beliefs about ESL teaching: Please answer very briefly.

1. In your opinion, what makes an EFL teacher a good EFL instructor?

.....
.....
.....

2. What do you think are the advantages of native speaking English teachers?

.....

.....

.....

3. What do you think are the serious weaknesses of NNSETs?

.....

.....

4. Does the use of L1 help NNSETs teach English easier? Pls. explain.

.....

.....

5. Are NSETs ideal teachers? If yes, on what condition?

.....

.....

6. Can a NNSET be an ideal English teacher? If yes, on what condition?

.....

.....

7. If it was possible for you to change your job, what would you do in this regard?

.....

.....

8. Who may help the EFL learners better to solve their problems pedagogically native or nonnative speaking English teachers? Why?

.....

.....

9. Generally speaking, it is assumed that N and NNSETs are not the same. Based on your idea, what are the differences?

.....

.....

10. Do you think some private language institutes give priority to NSET regardless of his or her qualifications?

.....

.....

11. What are the advantages of non-native speaking English teachers?

.....

.....

12. If both native and non-native speaking English teachers are qualified who can teach 'Listening' 'speaking', 'reading', 'writing', 'pronunciation', vocabulary and grammar better? Consider teaching each language part separately.....

.....

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

APPENDIX C: ADMINISTRATORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Administrators' opinions regarding native and non-native speaking English teachers

Degree: Nationality:

Major: Age:

Please circle a number next to each statement to express your opinion regarding the issue of NATIVE/NON-NATIVE speaking English teachers.

NSETs= English teachers whose mother tongue is English

NNSETs= English teachers whose mother tongue is the same as learners' mother tongue

1. Agree 2. Not sure 3. Disagree

Your identity will always be kept either anonymous or confidential.

		A g r e	N o t S u r e	D i s a g r e
1	NATIVE speaking English teachers are really successful in teaching English as a foreign language.	1	2	3
2	I think that parents prefer that their children be taught by NATIVE speaking English teachers.	1	2	3
3	Advertisements captioned, "Only NATIVE speakers can apply" are good for attracting potential applicants.	1	2	3
4	Native speaking English teachers are very flexible in their approach to teaching.	1	2	3
5	All NATIVE speaking English teachers are well-trained and qualified.	1	2	3
6	NATIVE speaking English teachers are generally paid less than NON-NATIVE speaking English teachers.	1	2	3
7	Private language schools that have employed NATIVE speaking English teachers are commercially more successful than others that have no NATIVE speaking English teachers.	1	2	3
8	NATIVE speaking English teachers have pedagogically better knowledge of teaching English than their NON-NATIVE counterparts.	1	2	3
9	<i>As EFL learners claim</i> , NON-NATIVE speaking English teachers place more emphasis on a theoretical approach rather than a practical	1	2	3

		A g r e e	N o t S u r e	D i s a g r e e
	approach			
10	NATIVE speaking English teachers usually make the best use of audio visual aids, when teaching.	1	2	3
11	Classroom preparedness is better among NON-NATIVE speaking English teachers.	1	2	3
12	NATIVE speaking English teachers can help the learners to solve their language-related problems.	1	2	3
13	NATIVE speaking English teachers can perform better than their NON-NATIVE counterparts in terms of administering tests.	1	2	3
14	NON- NATIVE speaking English teachers make the best use of handouts, worksheets and short texts.	1	2	3
15	NATIVE speaking English teachers speak more clearly than their NON-NATIVE counterparts.	1	2	3
16	Employing NATIVE speaking English teachers is socially prestigious.	1	2	3
17	The learning experience of NON-NATIVE speaking English teachers can be considered as a positive point to balance some of their shortcomings.	1	2	3
18	We strongly encourage collaboration between NATIVE and NON-NATIVE speaking English teachers.	1	2	3
19	Students in our English program often seem disappointed if they see that their EFL teacher is a NON-NATIVE speaking English teacher.	1	2	3

		A g r e e	N o t S u r e	D i s a g r e e
20	NNSETs are often perceived by their students as good role models	1	2	3
21	Most EFL students think their EFL teachers should have a native accent.	1	2	3
22	NON-NATIVE speaking English teachers can help students cope with cultural adjustments to English-speaking countries better than NATIVE speaking English teachers.	1	2	3
23	Qualified NON-NATIVE speaking English teachers can teach English just as well as NSETs.	1	2	3
24	<i>As EFL learners declare</i> , NON-NATIVE speaking English teachers often have difficulties responding to students' questions.	1	2	3
25	Whether my students are taught by NSETs or NNSETs makes no difference to me.	1	2	3

Thank you very much for your cooperation

Borrowed from Moussu, (2006) but revised to suit the participants

APPENDIX D: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Student Participant Consent packet

Letter to the parents of potential participants (Informed Consent)

Date:

Dear parents,

My name is Hossein Ali Majlesifard and I am a doctoral student of faculty of languages and linguistics at the University of Malaya. I am writing to get your permission regarding the informed consent of your daughter's participation in a research I am conducting for my doctoral dissertation. The focus of my research is to study the effectiveness of native versus non-native speaking English teachers in terms of teaching oral skills to young EFL learners. Besides, the perceptions and beliefs that the students have of their native and nonnative speaking English teachers will be considered. The purpose of this study is on the one hand to see the efficiency of the two aforementioned groups of teachers in teaching English to young Iranian English foreign language learners and on the other hand to inquire if learners' perceptions are like what other experts and researchers think about such teachers.

Procedure: For collecting data, two quizzes will be given during the semester and scores recorded. A questionnaire will be submitted to the children to see their attitudes and perceptions regarding the English class, English teachers, etc.

Time: The classes will be held during summer, three days per week, each day one session of a hundred minutes, and the allocated time will be fifty sessions of one hundred minutes- Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday Just in the morning. As a voluntary participant, your daughter is free to stop participation at any time. The data collected

during the study will be recorded and used in the dissertation and also be kept open to other researchers. However, your daughter's identity will always be kept either anonymous or confidential.

There are no known risks with this study.

Student's name:.....

Parent(s)' name.....

Please sign this consent form if you wish.

Sincerely,

Hossein Ali Majlesi Fard

hmajlesy@yahoo.com

Doctoral student

University of Malaya

APPENDIX E: LESSON PLANNING

However, flexibility of the teachers regarding the implementation of the plan can be considered as an important aspect of planning. Kyriacou, (1991, p. 21) states, "a change in our original plan would be appropriate to ensure that the pupils' needs were being met." Consequently, our plan was subject matter of change; therefore, after covering the preliminary stages, i.e., applying the rules of TPR (for at least 2 weeks: three sessions of 100 minutes per week), the suggested plan of the treatment was considered as the follows:

Sources: A= New Parade 1&2 B= On your Mark-Introductory

L=Listening S=Speaking R=Reading D=Writing

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
1	Starting out	Aims:	Learners are supposed to become familiar with the issue of greeting and some other small talks.
		L	They listen to the teacher and the song broadcasted by the tape recorder. They understand classroom language a little bit.
		S	They learn how to say "Hello" and "Good bye" and introduce oneself. They sing the "Hello Song" after the tape; try to do role –playing.
		R	-----

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
		W	Nothing is written at least during the first five or six sessions. The teacher mostly draws stick figures to present the lesson. The learners only follow the procedure of commanding and actions. Based on the teacher's command, they draw and color the objects known to them.
		Materials needed:	Tape recorder, chalk, crayon, board, charts, real objects, tape recorder etc.
2	My class	Aims	Review of the materials taught during the first session (Warm up period) Learners should practice the points mentioned before through role- playing, choral singing in a friendly situation free from anxiety and stress.
		L	Learners, basically listen to the authentic utterances broadcasted by the tape recorders or produced by the teacher for correct pronunciation.
		S	They try to repeat the points after the tape or the teacher, play the game, do choral singing such as "hello song"; "What color is it?"
		R	-----
		W	No specific writing – Learners draw and color the pictures named by the instructor or act according to the teacher's command.

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
		Materials needed	The same materials used during the previous session plus Film Episode
3	My family:	Aims:	Students are to learn and practice subjects such as 'family tree' by listening to the tape broadcasted by the cassette player. They should learn the terms such as "brother", "father", used for members of family.
		L	They listen to the songs and chant and sometimes listen to their instructors before practicing anything just for learning the correct pronunciation. They listen to the alphabet song too in the hope that later on they can make better progress in speaking and reading.
		S	They cooperate with the teachers and repeat the song mostly in the form of choral singing. They talk to their classmates through role playing and sometimes take the role in dialogue
		R	They look at the alphabet while they are listening to the alphabet song.
		W	They act based on the teacher's command. Make a poster and circle the numbers after the tape.
		Materials needed	Textbook, pictures, and realia besides audio visual aids

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
4	My body:	Aims:	Initially, warm up period will be considered. After the end of this session, students should know the terms used for body parts such as" hand", "face", "nose"...etc. (of course through the context)
		L	They listen to the body song, the teacher, and later on to their classmates while they are repeating the new words or the songs. (The materials are supposed to be taught through the context.)
		S	After listening to the song, they repeat the song together; repeat the terms after their teachers or the tapes for pronunciation. Teacher points to the body parts and students name those specific parts individually or in group. Students will do that in turn.
		R	Not yet, instead, they play the game and while listening to the alphabet sounds they perfectly follow the reading procedures of the alphabets through silent reading. That is done by the help of the EFL teacher.
		W	After listening to the tape or the teacher, they color body parts. The first pattern "I can." will be presented to the learners; they look at the pattern only.

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
		Materials needed	The same materials used in previous session, but another Episode Film would be assigned for the varieties.
5	Review: (Units 1,2&3)	Aims:	To have a glance at all the materials taught to the learners during previous sessions. To give an oral test to the learners for the assessment of the outcome of the learners. Three reasons are behind the assessment of the overall knowledge of the learners in terms of English oral skills: a) To find both our weaknesses and theirs as well b) To determine the appropriateness of the materials and do any revisions if needed.
6	My clothes:	Aims:	Students are supposed to study and become familiar with their favorite clothes and favorite color(s). Three new verbs (wear, help and hang up) should be presented during the teaching procedures. They should learn names of the clothes too.
		L	Initially, the teacher teaches the concepts related to clothes, and then learners listen to tape and circle the pictures of the clothes available in their textbooks.
		S	Learners repeat some patterns after their teacher. They sing a song prepared by 'Shelley Ann Vernon' in group. Through team work, they discuss some topics

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
			about types of clothes created either by the teachers or the learners with one another. Notice: The team-work is under the care of the teacher.
		R	From now on, when the students listen to the instructors or the tapes, they may follow the written materials and have a glance at them. They look at the pictures of the clothes and read their equivalence in writing. They follow their teachers while she is reading short stories written in Peter and his book.
		W	Till yet, learners are not going to focus on writing skill. Believing that this skill is very boring and sophisticated for the learners, the instructor may postpone it for a while at least two or three weeks.
		Materials needed	When teaching, the teacher can use his or learners' clothes as realia. He can also use pictures, charts flash cards, and slides which have been arranged in advance and can be projected on the screen.
7	My house:	Aims:	After the warm up period and reviewing the points discussed during the previous session, learners are supposed to learn the name of the different rooms in a house. They are to learn the name of some geometrical shapes and the Arabic numbers (0-9) too.

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
		L	Students listen to the tape and the teacher as well. Before they do any actions, they listen to the teacher's command.
		S	Students are to repeat their parts; follow the process of commanding and action, meaning they do what the teacher ask them to do. They also participate in choral singing. They talk about their houses and name the objects seen in the pictures in turn. They say what it is according to the pictures shown to the learners.
		R	They should read the statements, or the simple patterns or words seen in the lesson. They may read a short story named Rose Mary Border.
		W	They count the objects and write the numbers too. They color the shapes, make a house and play with the shapes
		Materials needed	The picture of the house , charts flash cards, small bits and pieces needed for making objects, rooms of the houses, textbooks comprised of pictures for performing the projects
8	Animals :	Aims:	At the beginning, the teacher deals with warm up period and the review of previous lesson. The stage of "view" comprised of naming a few animals comes

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
			next. So, at the end of this session learners are supposed to become familiar with the names of animals, their sounds and their shapes based on whatever shown in the pictures or broadcasted by the tape respectively.
		L	Students listen to the tape and the teacher while introducing the animals. They watch and listen to a film Episode related to the animals and the ways the animals live, eat and perform activities such as singing, swimming and flying. That might motivate them
		S	The students talk about animals, repeat the songs broadcasted by the tape and discuss the animal activities with their classmates. They count the animals which are shown in pictures. They say what the animals are doing.
		R	They start to read some simple patterns after the teacher or the tape. They follow their teacher when reading short stories named Peter and his book.
		W	They pay little attention to writing skills. But activities such as coloring, drawing the pictures doing some projects related to animals will receive full attention.

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
		Materials needed	Text book comprised of the picture of animals, Film Episode, tape recorder, charts, booklets including the animals shape ,etc.
9	Review:(Units 4,5&6)	Aims:	To have a general overview related to previous lessons (My house, my clothes and animals) Some role playing, team-work will be involved. Oral activities such as questions and answers and class discussion will be common among the groups. Of course, such projects will be directed and controlled by the instructors mostly through commanding and actions.
10	My birthday	Aims:	It is generally accepted that culture is a part of language. From now on, we try to attract the learners' attention to the concept of culture .So birthday celebration should be touched upon culturally. They are supposed to learn the name of the foods served during the birthday parties
		L	Students listen to 'happy birthday' song. They also listen to questions such as "how old is John?" or "What day is your birthday?","What do you have?"What do you want?"
		S	They sing the 'happy birthday' song together after the tape. They answer to the above questions; repeat some

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
			words or patterns such as 'I want a.....
		R	Students read or follow the written materials broadcasted by the tape. They read short story named Mary and her basket too.
		W	Writing receives little attention. Students only do some actions related to the birthday parties; write the days of the week and circle some specific food named by the tape.
		Materials needed	Cassette player, Film Episode (4) pictures, realia of different varieties, text book , charts video tape, board and markers for drawing stick figures or writing specific terms
11	My toys Part:	Aims:	During the warm up period, the instructor will make the students have a glance at the materials presented to class during the preceding session. Next, we will start the main stage called the 'view stage' based on which, learners will become familiar with the English concepts of toys. In other words, they learn the name of the toys in English.
		L	Students listen, point to the toys and say the name of the toys in English after the instructor. They listen to the song broadcasted by the tape. They listen to the

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
			tape and circle the picture of that specific term heard from the tape.
		S	Students are encouraged to repeat the names of the toys after the tapes or the teachers. They count and practice reading numbers from 11-20, and sing the song chorally.
		R	With regard to reading, learners read the names of the toys after their teachers or the cassette player. Sometimes, they read short stories related to the subject matter of their booklet or the textbook.
		W	According to the teacher's command, they write the name of the toys and try to write the numbers (11-20) orthographically.
		Materials needed	As usual tape recorder, booklet, crayon, real objects and pictures of the toys are needed.
12	My toys: part 2	Aims:	Students are supposed to become more familiar with race games and while doing the games, they are encouraged to communicate in English and use English words, phrases simple sentences related to the toys and the games.
		L	They listen to their teacher, the tapes and upon a time watch and listen to the game(s) broadcasting on screen.

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
		S	They ask each other questions such as 'what color that toy car is' or 'how many blocks there are on the table' or use imperative sentences such as 'Make a graph.' Or 'Count the toys on the desk.' Etc.
		R	Sometimes, they read or repeat the new terms when needed.
		W	Very little homework should be done by the learners.
		Materials needed	We need the same audio visual aids and realia used in previous session.
13	Having Fun	Aims:	Hereafter, learners are supposed to learn more complex patterns. For instance, short sentences initiated with 'this is' and 'that is' and their plural forms would be presented to the learners.'
		L	Learners are supposed to listen to their teachers and the songs broadcasted by the tape.
		S	They repeat the patterns after the teacher and repeat the words for the sounds. Name the funs and the hobbies as well. Yes/no or even "Wh." questions may be practiced in abundant. Through commanding and action or communicatively of course, in context.
		R	When the teacher or the tape present the points they may follow the written forms and have a glance at

Textbook: New Parade 1			
Sessions	New lessons	Details:	Explanations:
			them to match the phonological and orthographic form of the patterns.
		W	They may write or practice the alphabets and write some simple patterns related to the lesson e.g.: Skating, Jumping, throwing, flying, kicking, catching, and so on
		Materials needed	The same materials used in preceding sessions are needed. Besides, some instruments necessary for doing the games e.g. skipping rope. These materials should be prepared and used as real objects to promote the intelligibility of the learners.
14	Review: all units esp. units (7,8 &9)	Aims:	An overall review of the materials (textbook 1) covered till then will be considered. A test will be administered to the learners to examine the overall knowledge gained by the learners during the last sessions. The aims behind such a quiz are to help the teacher to see his own weaknesses and inquire that of the learners as well. That may help the instructor to view remedial classes when needed.
Textbook: New Parade 2			
15	This is my class	Aims:	Learners are supposed to study the following points: ‘Greeting’, ‘the name of

Textbook: New Parade 1				
Sessions	Lessons	New	Details:	Explanations:
				colors' used in different pictures and 'the numbers' used for counting objects.
			L	They listen to "Hello Song", and the song named "One, two, I'm tying my shoe!" They may also listen to points broadcasted by the tape for pronunciation.
			S	They repeat patterns and the songs after the tape or the teacher. They may act out the songs in smaller group.
			R	Students read those specific points determined by the teachers and follow the written points when the cassette player is on.
			W	They fill in the blanks brought in their textbooks and finish some incomplete sentences according to the text.
			Materials needed	Tape recorder, chalk and board, charts, pictures, glue and crayons in different colors are needed.
16	On the playground		Aims:	Initially, the teacher will touch upon the warm up period by using small talks based

Textbook: New Parade 1				
Sessions	Lessons	New	Details:	Explanations:
				on the learned materials. Concerning the "view period", learners will become familiar with some English terms and expressions related to types of sports such as jumping rope, sliding down the slide, hiding under a bench etc. Again here, numbers and prepositions will be considered.
			L	Students listen to the teachers and the tapes. They listen to a selected story book and listen to a simple film Episode.
			S	They repeat the words after the tapes and participate in choral singing and communicate with their classmates.
			R	They read some patterns according to the teacher's command.
			W	They fill in the blanks according to the teacher's instruction, circle the pictures based on what they hear from the tape, and do some specific homework.

Textbook: New Parade 1				
Sessions	Lessons	New	Details:	Explanations:
			Materials needed	Students have the opportunity to use the instruments (balls, racket, rope, etc) which are available in the playground. Keeping the teacher's company, EFL learners can go there and learn some English terms while playing.
17		This is our house.	Aims:	Students will be exposed to warm up period as usual. Later on, they will become aware of the English terms used for different rooms. Moreover, they will discuss about the objects and where they should be placed in the house. They are supposed to follow simple communication in English.
			L	Initially, they listen, point and say. They listen to the song too.
			S	Each student is encouraged to talk about his or her house. In other words members of the group can discuss the points with each other.
			R	They read some simple paragraphs each comprised of two sentences. The aim of

Textbook: New Parade 1				
Sessions	Lessons	New	Details:	Explanations:
				reading here is to understand the general idea of the paragraphs. A few new words may be presented in this part.
			W	In this part, learners should be able to write and practice both Yes/No questions and "Wh" questions as well. They should fill in the blanks and circle the pictures or do other activities that may receive full attention in this part.
			Materials needed	For teaching procedures different pictures of different houses are needed. The pictures of the household utensil are needed too. Charts, chalk and board, crayon and markers should be available too.
18	Review (Units 1-3)		Aims:	During this session, the teacher assesses the overall knowledge of the learners gained during the teaching learning procedure. The reasons behind this assessment are: i) to see the amount of knowledge the learners have gained during the course of instruction, and ii) to

Textbook: New Parade 1				
Sessions	Lessons	New	Details:	Explanations:
				highlight the weaknesses of teaching learning procedures.
19	My Community		Aims:	In this lesson, students learn how to give the address of public places. Such places are: "video shop", "movie theater", "bank", "restaurant", "supermarket", "post office", police station etc. Besides, the position of such places will be determined by the use of appropriate prepositions such as "by", "next to", "beside", "across", etc.
			L	Students listen to the teacher and the tape especially for the sound.
			S	They talk about the public places located in their city. Through telegraphic utterances, they ask each other simple questions related to the public places.
			R	They read the materials written in their textbooks and follow their teachers' command. Besides, they read a short-picture story consisting of 2 or 3 sentences.
			W	According to the picture, they fill in the blanks. They may write a few simple

Textbook: New Parade 1				
Sessions	Lessons	New	Details:	Explanations:
				sentences related to some public places in their own city.
			Materials needed	A map of a street based on which the teacher and the students can collaborate with one another and locate a specific place on the map. Materials needed for this procedure are: glue , charts, crayons etc.
20	Workers		Aims:	Again as usual, the English teacher covers the warm up period and repeat the main points discussed during the previous session. Then, both the teacher and the students may have a small talk about people's profession and the place where they work.
			L	They listen to the teacher and the tape while singing a song. They listen to a new listening game presented by Vernon (online).
			S	They talk about their fathers' job. Learners talk about their favorite job too. For the learners communication is important not the form.

Textbook: New Parade 1				
Sessions	Lessons	New	Details:	Explanations:
			R	They read the materials presented by the teacher and read a story from a story book. They follow some materials written in the book while broadcasted by the tape.
			W	They give complete answers to the yes/ no questions and "wh." questions. Based on people's photo they determine people's career. By drawing lines, they match written terms with the pictures.
			Materials	Photos related to the people and the place they work. Maps of a city on which one can locate public places such as cinemas, theaters, post office, police station etc.
21	My day		Aims:	After, having a glance at the main points taught to the students during the last session, the teacher might help the students learn the daily activities which one does in a typical day. Concepts such as eating, watching TV, brushing one's teeth, taking a bath and going to bed will receive full attention.

		L	Learners listen to the teacher while presenting the activities and listen to the songs broadcasted by the tape.
		S	Learners talk to each other regarding the daily activities. They tell the times based on the pictures of the clocks drawn on the board. They tell the times while the teacher write down the times in number.
		R	The students read small passages and a story selected for them to be touched upon in class.
		W	They practice reading and writing and draw the parts of the clocks according to the pictures shown on the board. They match the daily activities based on the appropriate time.
		Materials needed:	A clock, tape recorder, pictures based on which the teacher can show or tell the time. Realia such as markers, chalk and board are needed too.
22	Food	Aims:	The teacher covers the warm up period. Later on, he presents the name of different types of food to the learners. Learners are expected to learn the name of meals, drinks

			and desserts.
		L	They listen to the tape and the teacher too.
		S	The learners take part in class activities and participate in team work and class discussion. After learning the name of the food, they talk about their favorite food. They learn how to order their favorite food when needed.
		R	They read some dialogues, and read a short story selected by the teacher.
		W	They listen to the teacher and write the name of the food. They share with their partners and make a menu. They do a puzzle and set the table (orthographically).
		Materials needed:	Menu, pictures of a table on which different types of food are placed. Other realia mentioned before.
23,24	At the zoo	Aims	During this session students are supposed to learn the name of animals living in the zoo. To do this, they may visit the zoo located in the neighborhood.
		L	They may listen to the animals' sound and listen to the song broadcasted by the tape recorder.

		S	One may imitate the sound of an animal and another student name that animal. When in the zoo, the learners have a chance to talk about the animals in English. They may talk about the size of the animals too.
		R	They listen to the teacher or to the tape and simultaneously read the written form accordingly on their textbooks. The learners may make a chart upon a time.
		W	They may be exposed to some yes/no questions, and then answer to the questions either by 'yes' or 'no'.
		Materials needed:	Zoo when there is one in the neighborhood, animals' pictures, animals' songs recorded on the tape. Charts, chalk and board are needed too.
25	Review of lessons 1,2, &3	Aims:	The teacher wants to be sure that the learners have learned the materials taught to them during the three sessions. Additionally, the teacher may give a test to the learners to see his and their weaknesses regarding the overall materials of the previous covered during the three chapters.
26	celebrations	Aims:	Students are to learn the name of the

			<p>seasons, months and specific occasions occurred during the year. The occasions will be taken into considerations culturally and they may be compared with one another. It means the celebrations which are religious-bound such as that of the western and eastern (Christianity and the Islamic ones).</p>
		L	<p>They listen to the songs broadcasted by the tape or repeat what the teacher says for instance, naming the months of the year.</p>
		S	<p>Learners, based on the teachers' command, may participate in team-work and talk to each other about vacations and holidays too. They may sing the song of 'Happy birthday' chorally.</p>
		R	<p>They may read the short paragraphs written in their text books or study the points when necessary.</p>
		W	<p>They will write the name of favorite celebrations and write sentences comprised of frequency adverbs. They look, read and write about celebrations shown in the pictures.</p>
		Materials	<p>In addition to the textbook, pictures,</p>

		needed:	charts, tape recorder, markers and chalk and board are needed.
27	Review of the text book	Aims	Having administered a test related to the textbook II, the teacher assesses the learners' oral skill and sees whether the learners have achieved the goal or some remedial classes are needed.

From now on, there is a shift from 'New Parade textbook' (used as a preliminary) to another textbook called 'On Your Mark'. It is of interest to note that in all sessions at least ten to twelve minutes is allocated to warm up period. In addition to that, the teachers are supposed to use some listening games, speaking games and short stories prepared by Shelley Vernon (these materials are available on line for whoever needed, but it is a matter of taste and the instructors are allowed to select the supplementary materials on their own).

Session No:	New lesson	Details	Explanations:
28	Starting out	Aims:	To say " Hello" and " Good Bye" - To introduce oneself – To understand classroom language
29- Unit:1	What is your name?	Aims:	To greet and respond to greetings; to spell one's name aloud; to learn three digit numbers and to use imperative sentences and the

			alphabets –The focus should be on the integration of form and function.
		Voc & Gr:	They are supposed to learn new words. They should be able to name the objects around them. What's....? / It's.....or What are.....? They are..... Grammar should be taught unconsciously.
		L & S	Listening: Identifying classroom objects- Speaking: Asking and answering questions giving personal information – e.g. spelling some terms/
		R& W	Reading: Reading some simple dialogue in which people are introduced by their first and last Name. Writing: Via writing first and last name of people, students are supposed to become familiar with foreign name – Initiating people's names with capital letter will be emphasized.
30: Unit:2	What is it?	Aims:	To understand and use singular and plural form of pronouns and nouns– To identify classroom objects – To use and repeat numbers for e.g. seven digit telephone

			number -To tell where things are – To introduce oneself and others
		Voc & Gr:	Learning new words. The verb to be: Singular / Plural; Singular and plural nouns – prepositions such as: in , on , under
		L & S	Listening: Using sentences about locations of things – speaking: introducing themselves, checking information speaking should be very life-like.
		R & W	Reading: Preparing an ID card – Writing: Filling out an ID card – Using capital letters appropriately where needed.
31: Unit: 3	At school:	Aims:	To identify places and people at school – To use numbers orthographically -To understand and say addresses and phone numbers
		Voc & Gr:	Learning new words. Using the verb to be in statements and “wh.” Questions and short form answers
		L & S	Listening : Identifying phone Numbers and Addresses – Speaking : Asking for and giving personal information especially when they are making a call

		R & W	Reading: Reading short stories written about personal information – Writing: Filling out an ID card; The instructor may ask them to write a very simple ‘CV’ of themselves – Not more than 3 or 4 sentences.
32:Review	Review (units 1-3)	Aims	To have an overall glance at the three previous chapters, namely chapter 1, 2&3. To see the weaknesses of the learners if there are any. To revise and modify the content of materials
33: Unit 4	At home:	Aims:	To identify family relationships – To name the rooms of their house or their apartment - To talk about families
		Voc & Gr:	Learning new words. Subject Pronouns/Possessive Adjectives; The verb Be: Yes/No Questions (All should be taught unconsciously, mainly through the context.
		L & S	Listening: Understanding family tree and its usage – Speaking : Asking for and Giving information about families

		R & W	Reading: A narrative paragraph about a family - Writing: Filling out a family's information Card; A narrative about oneself and one's family - Using Punctuation Marks
34: Unit 5	What time do you have lunch?	Aims:	To identify their time table– To tell time – To talk about daily routines
		Voc & Gr:	Learning new words. Simple present tense : Do, and Have
		L & S	Listening: Identifying time based on digital and analog watches and telling the time in English- Listening to the tape Speaking: Asking for and Giving information about Schedules, time table of their classes
		R & W	Reading: A Narrative about a class schedule Writing: A narrative about a class schedule
35: Unit 6	Weekend	Aims:	To talk about weekly activities – To name the day of the week – To identify the parts of the day – To talk about what one always or never does

		Voc & Gr:	Learning new words Simple present tense - Simple present tense with time expressions
		L & S	Listening: Identifying days of the week – Listening to the song broadcasted by the tape recorder Speaking: Asking for and giving information about the time table of the class – Making a suggestion and answering to it
		R & W	Reading : A Narrative about class activities during a week or a day Writing: A weekly Schedule - Students are supposed to write a narrative about activities done in their classes daily or weekly.
36: Review	Review: (Units 4, 5 & 6)	Aims:	To have an overall glance at chapter 4, 5, & 6 To evaluate the amount of success of the learners regarding the materials which have been taught or learned.
37:Unit 7	What's the matter?	Aims:	To say how one feels – To name the parts of the body To talk about health problems – To say what

			one can and can't do
		Voc & Gr	Learning new words. Can/can't; Yes/No questions and short answers
		L & S	Listening: Listening and understanding the details of a health care when listening to the tape– Listening to the tape and the teacher for the sound Speaking: Asking for and giving information about health care – Learners may have group discussion
		R& W	Reading: A narrative about visiting a doctor Writing: A medical form – Learners try to learn how to fill out a medical form according to the sample printed in their textbooks.
38: Unit 8	What would you like?	Aims	To identify fast- food items – To specify the ingredients of the food – To say prices of different types of food – To read a menu and try how to order the food – To talk about food likes and dislikes
		Voc & Gr:	Students are due to learn the new words. A/an, or some; - Simple present Tense:

			Yes/No questions and short answers (Grammar should be taught unconsciously.)
		L & S	Listening: Students are supposed to identify the food's name based on a menu Speaking: Learners try to order a food type according to their wishes.
		R & W	Reading: They should read a fast food Menu. Writing: They should be helped to learn how to order their favorite food at a restaurant They are to learn how to use a period(.) when giving the prices
39: Unit 9:	Is the library near here?	Aims	To identify community buildings – To name locations To read maps – To read signs – To follow directions – To give directions
		Voc & Gr:	Learners will learn the new words presented by the instructor. And , or – Imperatives (They learn how to make an order.)
		L & S	Listening: Listening to the tapes and

			<p>following directions</p> <p>Speaking : Asking for and giving addresses and directions</p>
		R & W	<p>Reading: In case of reading, learners learn how to follow directions through the process of reading.</p> <p>Writing: Learners learn how to draw a map or how to deal with directions from home to school.</p>
40: Review:	Review (Units 7-9)	Aims:	The teacher try to assess learners' progress to see to what extent learners have gained knowledge regarding the previous 3 chapters.
41: Unit: 10	What do they do?	Aims:	<p>To identify people's occupation – To name work places – To talk about likes and dislikes – To give reasons for choosing an occupation</p>
		Voc & Gr:	<p>Learners are supposed to learn new words- through the contexts.</p> <p>Verb + infinitive; why / because patterns.</p> <p>These structures should be taught unconsciously and indirectly.</p>

		L & S:	<p>Listening: Learners should identify people's occupations.</p> <p>Speaking: Asking for and giving information about people's occupations</p>
		R & W	<p>Reading: A narrative about occupations – Reading a short story</p> <p>Writing: Filling out a chart about occupations – A narrative about occupations. Joining simple sentences by using conjunctions such as and, but, and because, etc</p>
42: Unit:11	What are you doing?	Aims:	<p>To talk about free-time and daily activities – To say what one is doing now – To say what others are doing now.</p>
		Voc & Gr:	<p>Learners are due to learn some new words, of course through the context.</p> <p>Present progressive Tense: Information questions; Present Progressive Tense: Yes/No questions</p>
		L & S	<p>Listening: Learners should identify free- time activities-leisure.</p> <p>Speaking: Learners should be capable of</p>

			describing people's free- time and their hobbies.
		R & W	<p>Reading: They read a letter to a friend and a short story related to subject matter of free-time activities.</p> <p>Writing: They are expected to write a very simple letter to a friend. The instructor should teach the learner how the learners start the letters with greeting and end it with closing.</p>
43: Unit: 12	This jacket is too big.	Aims:	To identify clothes items – To describe clothing by size and color – To define pictures and talk about clothes preferences
		Voc & Gr:	<p>Learners are supposed to learn new words related to the size and the color of the clothes.</p> <p>Demonstrative Adjectives; Adjectives</p>
		L & S	<p>Listening: Learners should learn and identify people's clothes via listening to the tapes or their instructors.</p> <p>Speaking: Dramatizing a shopping procedure – Giving information about clothes items when students are talking about clothes items</p>
		R & W	Reading: They will read a catalogue page.

			Writing: They may write about clothes and their favorite color.
44: Review	Review (Units 10-12)	Aims:	The teacher tries to have a look at the previous 3 chapters and assess the overall knowledge of the learners regarding what they have learnt in chapters 10- 12. Learners are asked to recount simple-picture stories based on the pictures shown to them.
45 & 46	Oral test:	Aims:	To assess the overall knowledge of all six groups of learners in terms of learning language oral skills/ based on a semi-direct oral test. Additionally, learners are supposed to be tested in terms of a dimension of fluency, meaning the inappropriate mid-clause pauses.

Two sessions of 100 minutes have been allocated for administrating the final exam.

APPENDIX F: SEMI-DIRECT ORAL TEST

Semi – direct oral test (Give complete answer.)

Listen to the tape and answer the questions based on the clues given.

آزمون شفاهی : به سوالات پاسخ کامل بدهید.

بخش اول: پرسش و پاسخ

به سوالات زیر پاسخ شفاهی دهید. هر سوال یک مرتبه از طریق دستگاه شفاها پخش

می شود و شما برای پاسخ شفاهی هر سوال 8 ثانیه فرصت دارید:

1. I am John. What is your name..... ?
2. I am from Shiraz, in Iran. Where do you come from?
3. I study at Kenedy School. Where do you study?
4. We usually go to the seaside at the weekend. What do you do at weekends?
.....
5. I want to buy a book? Where can I buy it?
6. Those men are teachers. Do you know where they work?
.....
7. When people are hungry where do they usually go?
8. Today is Thursday. What day is tomorrow?

Part two: Look at the pictures and say what they do.


بخش دوم:


توصیف عکس :

به عکس ها نگاه کنید و شفاها بگویید که افراد داخل عکس به چه کاری مشغول هستند. جمله های خویش را با
..... She, They, He آغاز کنید.


Example: I get up at six o'clock every day.

Daily Routines







a. ----- at 6:30.




b. ----- at 7:00.




c. --- school --- 7:30.




d. ----- lunch - at 11:20.




e. --- home --- 3:10.



f. ----- at 5:00



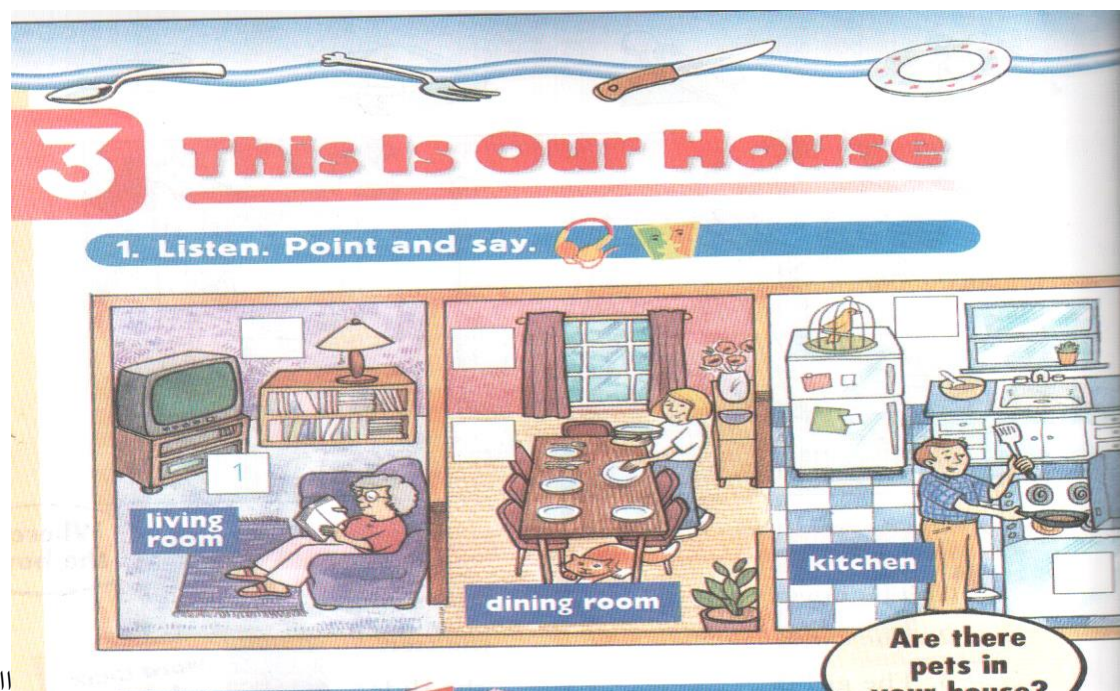
g. ----- 6:15.



h. ----- at 10:00.

Part three: A

This is the picture of our house. Imagine your house and based on the clues given present your house or apartment (orally) as it is.



لف: این تصویر خانه ماست. خانه ویا آپارتمان خویش را در ذهن خود مجسم کرده و در 4 جمله راجع به آن

(محل ، اندازه ، تعداد اتاق ها و نام اتاق ها) توصیف نمایید

Example: Our house is on Kashani street.

1. Your house is on.....
2. Size (large or small).....
3. Number of rooms.....
4. Name of the rooms.....

B: Describe your family members Based on the clues given.

ب: خانواده خویش را توصیف کرده و شفاها مشاغل آنها را بیان کنید :

Example: I am from a large/small family.

1. Number of people

2. Your father's job

3. Your mother's job

4. Number of brother(s) and sister(s).....

Good Luck

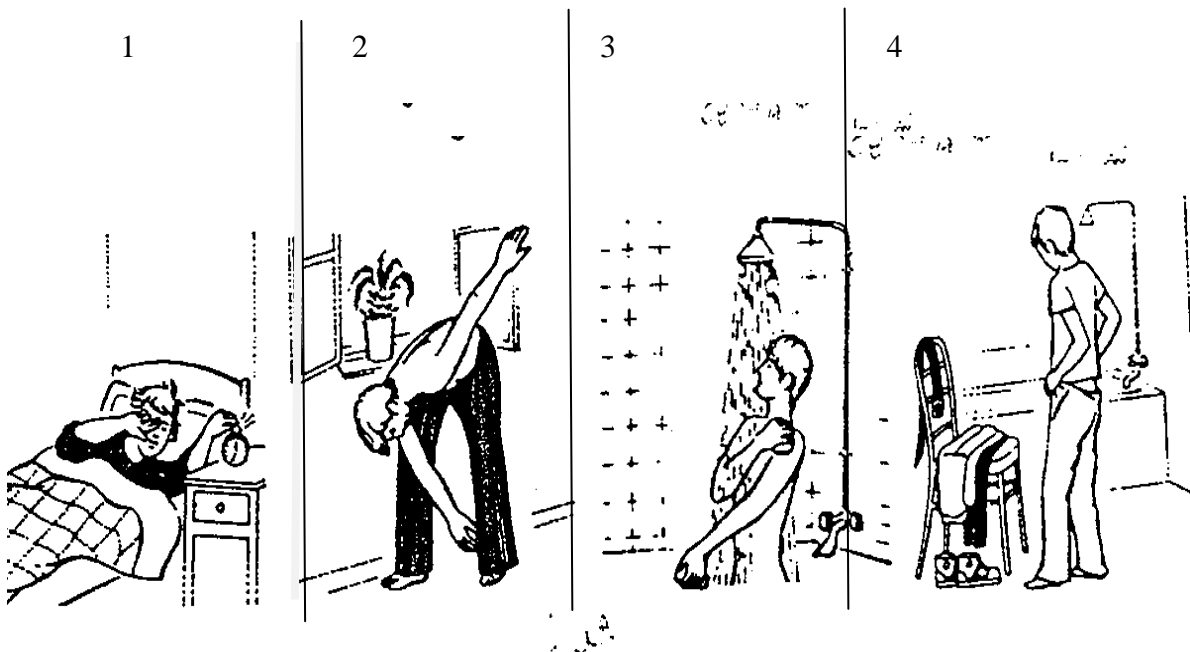
APPENDIX G: SIMPLE-PICTURE STORY

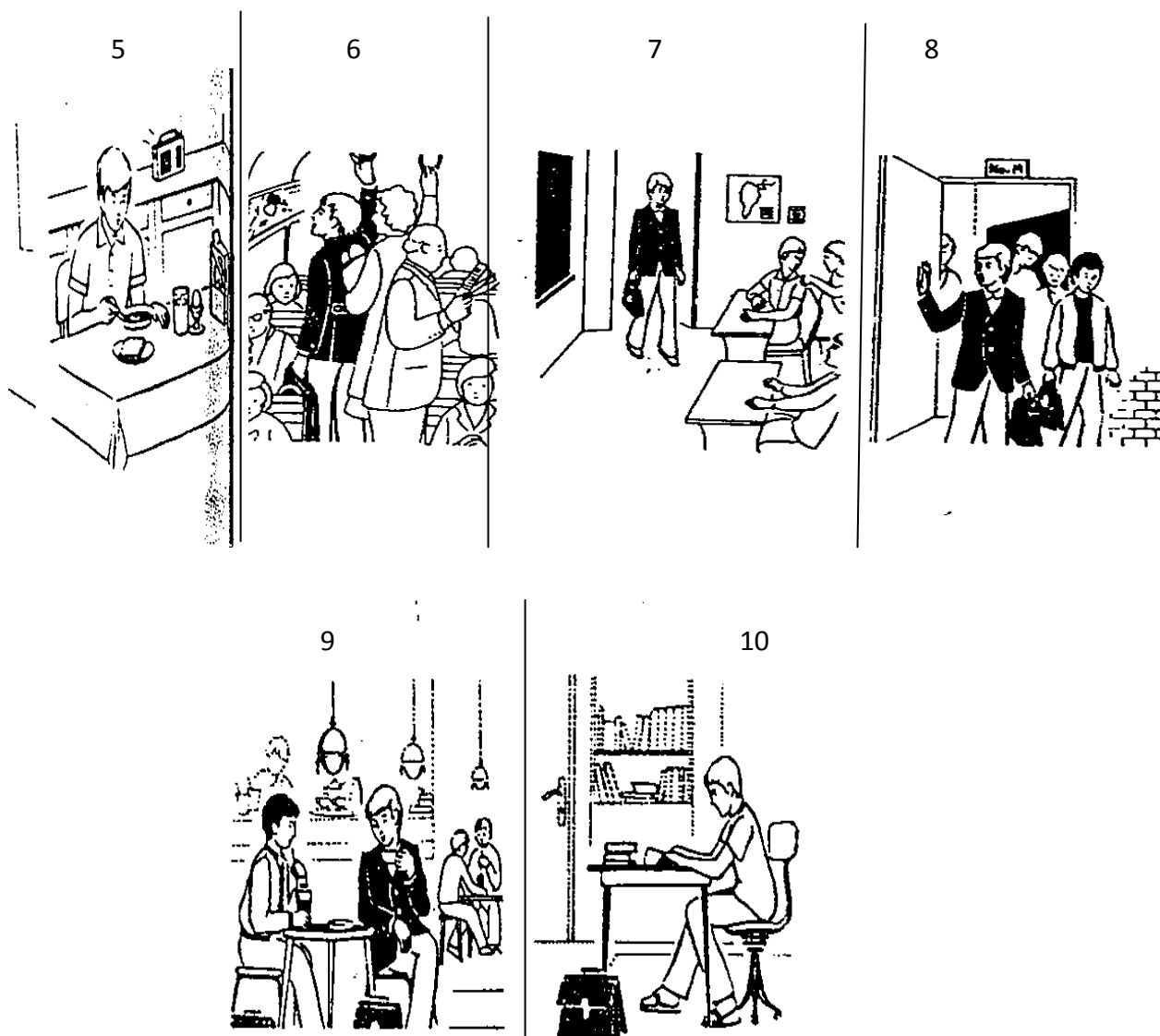
Spend two minutes to study the picture story which shows ‘**A Typical Day in Bob’s Life**’. Then reconstruct and tell the story to someone who cannot see the picture in six minutes.

Example:

The alarm clock rings at seven a.m. every morning and Bob wakes up soon.

He jumps out of the bed, and does exercises for ten minutes.....





Adopted from senior high school Iranian English textbook Manoochehri & Esterin (1980, p. 56)

APPENDIX H: ANALYSIS OF LEARNERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Table. H : shows the data analysis of learners' questionnaire

No	Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Mean	Median	Mode	Std deviation
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent				
Q1	63	29.6	66	31.0	84	39.4	2.0986	2.0000	3.00	.82682
Q2	105	49.5	56	26.3	52	24.4	1.7512	2.0000	1.00	.82363
Q3	70	32.9	55	25.8	88	41.3	2.0845	2.0000	3.00	.85913
Q4	113	53.1	65	30.5	35	16.4	1.6338	1.0000	1.00	.75059
Q5	41	19.2	84	39.4	88	41.3	2.2207	2.0000	3.00	.74804
Q6	120	56.3	48	22.5	45	21.1	1.6479	1.0000	1.00	.80854
Q7	143	67.1	38	17.8	32	15.0	1.4789	1.0000	1.00	.74338
Q8	89	41.8	65	30.5	59	27.7	1.8592	2.0000	1.00	.82352
Q9	48	22.5	66	31.0	99	46.5	2.2394	2.0000	3.00	.79737
Q10	57	26.8	52	24.4	104	48.8	2.2207	2.0000	3.00	.84292
Q11	62	29.1	71	33.3	80	37.6	2.0845	2.0000	3.00	.81402
Q12	73	34.3	67	31.5	73	34.3	2.0000	2.0000	1.00	.82987
Q13	66	31.0	77	36.2	70	32.9	2.0188	2.0000	2.00	.80072
Q14	63	29.6	101	47.4	49	23.0	1.9343	2.0000	2.00	.72385
Q15	45	21.1	56	26.3	112	52.6	2.3146	3.0000	3.00	.80072
Q16	45	21.1	63	29.6	105	49.3	2.2817	2.0000	3.00	.79235
Q17	125	58.7	49	23.0	39	18.3	1.5962	1.0000	1.00	.78090
Q18	128	60.1	50	23.5	35	16.4	1.5634	1.0000	1.00	.79235
Q19	40	18.8	75	35.2	98	46.0	2.2723	2.0000	3.00	.75924
Q20	75	35.2	79	37.0	59	27.7	1.9249	2.0000	2.00	.79146
Q21	132	62.0	53	24.9	28	13.1	1.5117	1.0000	1.00	.71777
Q22	60	28.2	97	45.5	56	26.3	1.9812	2.0000	2.00	.73947
Q23	100	46.9	79	37.1	34	16.0	1.6901	2.0000	1.00	.73185
Q24	165	77.5	29	13.6	19	8.9	1.3146	1.0000	1.00	.62918
Q25	173	81.2	22	10.3	18	8.5	1.2723	1.0000	1.00	.60737

APPENDIX I: ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Table I shows the data analysis of teachers' questionnaire

Question 1: What in your opinion makes an EFL teacher a good EFL instructor?						
	Knowledge Methodology	Qualification, Knowledge. Of L1 & L2.	Fluency, pronunciation.	motivation intimacy	Experience	Pragmatics
	19	8	7	6	5	3
Question 2: what do you think are the advantages of Native speaking English Teachers?						
	Pronunciation	Fluency	Linguistic competence	culture	Command of L	Expression
	15	12	6	6	5	5
Question 3: What do you think are the serious weaknesses of NNSETs?						
	Weak in pron.	Lack of knowledge	Lack of L use	Lack of culture	Authenticity & fluency	confidence
	14	9	8	5	5	1
Question 4: Does the use of L1 help NNSETs teach English easier? Pls. explain:						
	Useful	Harmful	+teaching abstract	+teaching beginners	+translation	+weak teachers
	8	8	6	4	3	3
Question 5: Are NSETs ideal teachers? If yes, in what condition?						
	Yes,if Qualified	Yes if know L1 of learners	No not at all	yes		
	10	8	8	5		

Question 6: Can a NNSET be an ideal English teacher? If yes, on what conditions?													
	Yes,if qualified		Yes		If exposed to		No		No difference				
	19		5		4		3		2				
Question 7: if it was possible for you to change your job, What would you do in this regard?													
	Again teaching		translator		Manager		business		tourism				
	14		3		3		3		1				
Question 8: Who may help the EFL learners better to solve their problems pedagogically-N/NNSETs?													
	NNSETs		NSETs		No difference		competent		collaboration				
	15		11		8		6		2				
Question 9: Generally speaking, it is assumed that N and NNSETs are not the same. What are their differences?													
	Fluency & accuracy .N		Pronunciation .N		Cultural...N		Idiom N		Understanding Problem (NN)		t.GR (NN)		
	12		9		8		6		4		2		
Question 10: Do you think some private language institutes give priority to NSET regardless of his or her Qualifications?													
	Discrimination. against NN		No discrimination.		No idea		Maybe						
	22.		6		4		2						
Question 11: What are the advantages of NNSETs?													
	Problem solving (CA)		Familiar with Ss		+Gr.		+Learners needs		intimacy		trained		
	10		7		5		4		2		2		
Question 12: If both N and NNSETs are qualified who can teach L, S,R,W, Pro, Voc & Gr better?													
Listening &Speaking		Reading		Writing		Pronunciation		Voc.		Gr.		Lower Level	
N	NN	N	NN	N	NN	N	NN	N	NN	N	NN	N	NN
24	4	19	14	18	12	29	2	17	12	6	20	5	4

APPENDIX J: ANALYSIS OF ADMINISTRATORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Qs	Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Mean	Median	Mode
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%			
1	12	57.1	4	19.0	5	23.8	1.66	1	1
2	12	57.1	6	28.6	3	14.3	1.57	1	1
3	14	66.7	4	19.0	3	14.3	1.47	1	1
4	7	33.3	6	28.6	8	38.1	2.04	2	3
5	3	14.3	3	14.3	15	71.4	2.57	3	3
6	1	4.8	4	19.0	16	76.2	2.71	3	3
7	11	52.4	5	23.8	5	23.8	1.71	1	1
8	6	28.6	5	23.8	10	47.6	2.19	2	3
9	7	33.3	5	23.8	9	42.9	2.09	2	3
10	8	38.1	7	33.3	6	28.6	1.90	2	1
11	7	33.3	10	47.6	4	19.0	1.8	2	2
12	3	14.3	8	38.1	10	47.6	2.33	2	3
13	3	14.3	5	23.81	13	61.9	2.33	2	3
14	8	38.1	8	38.1	5	23.81	1.85	2	1
15	12	57.1	4	19.0	5	23.8	1.66	1	1
16	12	57.1	3	14.3	6	28.6	1.71	1	1
17	15	71.4	3	14.3	3	14.3	1.42	1	1
18	19	90.5	2	9.5	00	00.00	1.09	1	1
19	2	9.5	5	23.8	14	66.7	2.57	3	3
20	12	57.1	2	9.5	7	33.3	1.76	1	1
21	15	71.4	3	14.3	3	14.3	1.42	1	1
22	3	14.3	6	28.6	12	57.1	2.42	3	3
23	13	61.9	5	23.8	3	14.3	1.52	1	1
24	6	28.6	3	14.3	12	57.1	2.28	3	3
25	7	33.3	4	19.0	10	47.6	2.14	2	3

APPENDIX K: STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE (MOUSSU, 2006)

- **NATIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS** are teachers whose **first (native)** language is English.
- **NONNATIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS** are teachers who learned English in addition to their first language.

I. YOUR ENGLISH TEACHER. Please answer the following questions about your teacher in *this class*.

1. What country is your English teacher from? _____
2. Your English teacher is (please put an X in the space corresponding to your answer):
 - i. ____ a NATIVE speaker of English
 - ii. ____ a NONNATIVE speaker of English
 - iii. ____ not sure
3. Would you encourage a friend to take a class with THIS English teacher?

(a) ____yes (b) ____ no (c) ____ not sure

Please answer the following questions about **YOUR ENGLISH TEACHER AND THIS CLASS** by FILLING IN the numbers that correspond to your feelings, according to the following scale:

1: strongly **DISAGREE** 2: disagree 3: not sure 4: agree 5: strongly **AGREE**

This is an example		©	@	•	©
	strongly DISAGREE	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	strongly AGREE
4. My English teacher is a good English teacher	©	©	@	©	©
5. I would enjoy taking another class with this English teacher	©	©	@	©	©
6. I am learning a lot of English with this teacher	©	©	@	©	©
7. My English teacher is the kind of teacher I expected to have here	©	©	@	©	©
8. My English teacher is an ideal teacher for me	©	©	@	©	©
9. My English teacher explains difficult concepts well	©	©	@	©	©

10. My English teacher is able to simplify difficult material so I can understand it	©	©	@	©	©
11. My English teacher teaches in a manner that helps me learn	©	©	@	©	©

¹³ The English version of the student questionnaire is provided here. Translations are available upon request.

	strongly DISAGREE	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	strongly AGREE
12. My English teacher motivates me to do my best to learn English		©	@	©	©
13. My English teacher is a good example of the ideal English	©	©	@	©	©
14. My English teacher looks like a Native speaker of English	©	©	@	©	©
15. My English teacher looks like a typical American person	©	©	@	©	©
16. My English teacher knows the English grammar very well	©	©	@	©	©
17. My English teacher rarely makes grammar mistakes when he/she writes	©	©	@	©	©
18. My English teacher rarely makes grammar mistakes when he/she speaks	©	©	@	©	©
19. My English teacher explains grammar rules very clearly	©	©	@	©	©
20. I understand what my English teacher is saying without a problem	©	©	@	©	©
21. The English pronunciation of my English teacher is good	©	©	@	©	©
22. I understand my English teacher's pronunciation easily	©	©	@	©	©
23. English teachers should all speak with a perfect American accent	©	©	@	©	©
24. NATIVE English speakers make the best English teachers	©	©	@	©	©
25. I can learn English just as well from a NONNATFVE English teacher as from a NATIVE English teacher	©	©	@	©	©
26. I don't care where my teacher is from, as long as he/she is a good teacher for me	©	©	@	©	©

27. What do you think makes a "good" English teacher? Please explain in the lines below. _____

II. BACKGROUND INFORMATION. Please answer the following questions about yourself.

28. Name of country from where you came: _____
29. Name of city/town/village where you were born: _____
30. Birth date (day/month/year): _____ / _____ / _____
31. First language(s): _____
32. Gender: (a) __ male (b) __ female
33. Name of school/ IEP where you are studying right now: _____
34. Subject of this class (grammar, reading, etc.): _____
35. Level of this English course (please choose one option): _____

(a)___ beginner (b) ___intermediate (c) advanced

36. Including your current teacher,

- how many NATIVE English teachers have you had while learning English in the U.S.? _____

- how many NONNATIVE English teachers have you had while learning English in the U.S.? _____

37. Do you intend to leave the United States after you finish your studies in this school?

(a) ___ yes (b)___ no (c)___ not sure

38. Your most important reason for learning English is (choose **ONLY ONE** answer):
to go to an English-speaking school or IEP

___ to get a better job in your country

___ to live in the U.S.

___ because English is very important in today's society

___ because you like the English language and culture very much

___ because you are a U.S. citizen or immigrant

___ for fun and personal pleasure

___ for other reasons (please explain): _____

39. The overall grade you expect to receive in this class is:

___ very high (A+, A, or A-) (90%-100%)

___ high (B+, B, or B-) (80%-89%)

___ average (C+, C, or C-) (70%-79%)

___ low (D+ D, or D-) (60%-69%)

___ fail (E or F) (below 60%)

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP!

