

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review of this study is divided into three sections. The first section explores the issue of native and non-native English speaking teachers, where their strengths and weakness are discussed, followed by empirical studies on the two cohorts of teachers. The second section covers team teaching between NEST and non-NEST, and the models in neighboring Asian countries and Taiwan are discussed. The last section elaborates on teachers' beliefs, which include its definitions, sources and related studies.

2.1 Native and Non-Native English Speaking Teachers

The terms native English speaking teacher (NEST) and non-native English speaking teachers (non-NEST) has raised much interest in the field of education. However, the terms “native” and “non-native” have caused quite a controversy as no consensus has been reached on their definition (Kachru, 1985; Kramsch, 1998; Medgyes, 2001). Nevertheless, these terms are commonly used in the field of TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) field because of its practicality. TESOL professionals can be identified belonging to one of the cohorts. Therefore, this research adopts the definition of NEST and non-NEST provided by Medgyes (2001); a NEST's is one who speaks English as a mother language, while a non-NEST speaks English as a second language.

2.1.1 Empirical Studies on Native and Non-Native Teachers

As more and more NESTs are working in non-English speaking countries and non-NESTs are voicing their opinions in the profession (i.e., non-NEST TESOL caucus), an increasing number of studies have been conducted on the two cohorts of teachers both internationally and locally, targeting on their perceptions of themselves

and their counterpart, and their classroom practices. Reeves and Medgyes' research (1994) investigated how 198 non-NESTs from ten countries perceived themselves and in comparison with NESTs using a survey. The major finding showed that time spent in an English-speaking country, frequency of contact with native speakers, professional cooperation, and other factors influence the teachers' command of English. Language proficiency contributes to the teaching differences between NESTs and non-NESTs, which in turn, affect non-NESTs' self-image, a critical element for successful teaching. According to Reeves and Medgyes (1994), the way to salvage non-NESTs self-image is to publicly acknowledge the difference between the two cohorts' linguistic competence and non-NESTs should strive to narrow the linguistic gap.

Arva and Medgyes (2000) conducted another research which involved investigating how NESTs and Non-NESTs perceived their own teaching behaviors and those of the other cohort of teachers. Furthermore, their perceptions were compared with teaching behaviors to see if there are any discrepancies. Five Hungarian and five British teachers were involved in the study, and each was observed for one lesson and interviewed. One of the findings showed that NESTs were perceived to be less professional by non-NESTs, who think their counterparts do not prepare for their classes; however, the observations showed that NESTs are actually well-prepared in their lessons. Another interesting finding was non-NESTs reported their linguistic handicap and NESTs also commented on non-NESTs' imperfect English, which sometimes contained inappropriate usages and mistakes. Surprisingly, the observations showed that the non-NESTs were fluent in English; their proficiency level is higher than they expected.

In recent years, an escalating number of studies on the issue of native and

non-native teachers have been conducted in Taiwan. NESTs have long been hired in private institutions, but their recruitment in public schools has taken place only a few years ago. From reviewing the studies conducted on NESTs' and non-NESTs' teaching practices, it was found that these research tend to focus on a particular aspect of the practice, i.e., teachers' talk and teacher-student interaction (Chen, 2004; Lin, 2004; Wu, 2004; Yeh, 2004). Some of the findings show that non-NESTs differed from NESTs with shorter utterances and more exact-repetitions, mostly likely due to lack of linguistic competence. Other research are limited in depth because only one instrument, the questionnaire, was employed (Ting, 2000; Chen, 2004). Nevertheless, most studies did arrive on same conclusion that NESTs and Non-NESTs do teach differently. Besides the differences in teaching, NEST and non-NESTs are also compensated differently. Not only are NESTS paid twice the hourly rate of non-NESTs (NTD \$500~\$600 per hour for NESTs versus NTD \$300~\$350 per hour for non-NESTs) in cram schools, non-NESTs have to take on additional administrative work as well (Tsai, 2002). The inevitable question is, are NESTs really superior to non-NESTs?

2.1.2 Strengths and Weaknesses of Each Cohort

The truth of the matter is that the two cohorts of teachers are equally valuable, because they have different advantages and disadvantages. Inarguably, NESTs' foremost advantage is their linguistic competence, as their authentic pronunciation and vocabulary use serve as models for English learners (Barratt & Kontra, 2000; Medgyes 2001). Since learning the language includes knowing about its culture, NESTs have another advantage of being "authentic, walking, breathing resources about their cultures" (Barratt & Kontra, 2000). In addition, a NEST's presence is a motivating learning factor, forcing students to use the target language (Arva &

Medgyes, 2000). Finally, most NESTs are considered by students and fellow non-NESTs to be friendly, enthusiastic, and social, a change from conventional teaching styles students are used to.

However, NESTs are not without flaws and these weaknesses hinder their teachings (Arva & Medgyes, 2000). First of all, even though NESTs are more competent in English, most can not offer explanations to students' grammar mistakes. Secondly, NESTs feel "handicapped" to some degree as they do not speak the students' first language (Medgyes, 2001). If NESTs could explain some terms in students' native language, it could save plenty of class time. Next, NESTs have a lower level of empathy, as they have not experienced the learning process their students are undergoing. Another problem that arises from low level of empathy is NESTs' high expectation of their students. Setting unrealistic goals causes students to become frustrated and possibly give up learning. Finally, NESTs are sometimes criticized for their casual attitude in teaching; their behavior is regarded as unprofessional by their non-native colleagues and students.

The "dark side" of being non-NESTs mainly lies in their lack of linguistic competence, which contributes to feeling inferior when compared with native speakers (Medgyes, 2001). The top three most difficult components of the English language for non-NESTs are speaking, vocabulary and pronunciation (Reves & Medgyes, 1994). Moreover, non-NESTs also lack the cultural competence of English. Since most non-NESTs are not emerged in the target culture, they do not have the first hand cultural experience like NESTs.

Nevertheless, non-NESTs have many advantages in language teaching. Firstly, non-NESTs are good learning models for their students, showing students that they can achieve linguistic competency just like their teachers. The second advantage is

that non-NESTs can teach language learning strategies better than their native counterparts, because the former have the actual experience of using those strategies. What worked for non-NESTs could very well work for their students. Next, non-NESTs share their explicit language knowledge (not the same as linguistic competence) with their students. While NESTs struggle with teaching grammar, non-NESTs are most comfortable in this area. Additionally, non-NESTs anticipate and prevent language difficulties encountered by their students because the teachers have been on the same learning path before. As non-NESTs know what their students are going through, they are also more empathetic towards their learner, setting more practical and realistic goals for students. Finally, non-NESTs' knowledge of students mother tongue is a great advantage, as moderate uses of it could save a lot of time in explanation.

The issues of native and non-native English teachers have been undergoing some research in the language education domain. There are some misconceptions that NESTs are better teachers than non-NESTs. Empirical studies showed that the two cohorts of teachers have different perceptions and classroom practices differ from each other. However, these distinctions do not make either one superior than the other, in fact, both of them have different advantages and disadvantages in English teaching.

2.2 Team Teaching

2.2.1 Nature of Team Teaching

Since both NESTs and Non-NESTs have different strengths and weaknesses, they can collaborate to create an optimal learning environment that brings their advantages together. Collaborative teaching has been used since the 1960's in the United States, as a movement to promote innovative teaching (Shannon & Meath-Lang, 1992).

Teachers worked together to include special education children in regular classes and introduce interdisciplinary areas in the same class (Lawton, 1999). One form of such collaboration is through team-teaching, which involves two or more teachers in the same classroom. There are four types of team-teaching identified by Cunningham (1960, as cited by Bailey, Dale & Squire, 1992, p.22-23), as seen below:

1. *Team Leader Type*: One member has a higher status than the other in the team.
2. *Associate Type*: There is no leader and each member has the same share of power.
3. *Master Teacher/Beginning Teacher*: An experience teacher helps new teachers accustomed to the institution or the profession.
4. *Coordinated Team Type*: There is no joint responsibility, but joint planning teaching the same curriculum to different classes.

2.2.2 Team Teaching in Japan and Korea

Team teaching between NEST and non-NESTs has been spreading across the schools in Asia. In Japan, the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Programme was established in 1987, with a history of twenty years. Native university graduates are recruited to work as assistant language teacher (ALT) by teaching designated languages in Japan. Over 44,000 alumni from forty-four countries have participated and the number of participant in the 2006 program is around 6,000. The Korean Ministry of Education followed Japan's footsteps about ten years later, establishing "English Program in Korea" (EPIK) in 1995. However, only university graduates from six English speaking countries are eligible for application. The participants are recruited to teach in primary and secondary schools. In year 2006, EPIK would have recruited 240 members to join the 1,943 past participants.

Team-teaching between NESTs and non-NESTs supposedly fosters an ideal

situation for language learning because it brings the best out of the two teachers, yet studies have revealed that numerous difficulties have been found with such teaching model. Stern (1992) pointed out problems in hiring process, teacher's qualifications, and teachers' commitment. First of all, the recruitment procedure is flawed because teachers are interviewed through e-mail or by phone, rarely conducted face-to-face. It is difficult to know whether the teachers will adapt to the new environment. The second problem lies in the teachers' qualification. Although the NESTs are college graduates, the degree does not guarantee them to be a good English teacher. Lastly, it is imperative that native speakers need teacher training because they are teaching in an EFL context. Nevertheless, most foreign teachers are reluctant to participate in teacher training.

2.2.3 Team Teaching in Taiwan

In Taiwan, there are two language programs known for their team-teaching between NESTs and Non-NESTS, namely Yilan Fulbright Program and Hsin Chu City English Program.

Yilan Fulbright Program

The Yilan County Government invites young Fulbright scholars to Taiwan to team teach English with local teachers. The first group of NESTs arrived in late 2004, for a one-year length of stay. The NESTs taught twenty periods a week, with another fifteen hours located in lesson planning and other duties. Tsai and Tseng (2006) pointed out several pedagogical implications after a one-year study of the program. First, there was a difference in expectations between the two cohorts of teachers. NESTs placed themselves as teaching assistants on a learning expedition while non-NESTS expected NESTs to enlighten their professional knowledge. Secondly, the researchers urge both NESTs and non-NESTS to reflect on their weaknesses to reduce conflicts between

them. Next, the teachers need to increase time for dialogue between them to fortify the interaction model. Lastly, teacher training is necessary for both cohorts to improve the quality of teaching.

Hsin Chu City English Program

The NEST and Non-NEST team teaching in Hsiun Chu city was launched in 2001, the first in the nation to employ NESTs to teach in many of the public elementary schools. The local city government hired a private language institution to recruit, manage and train NESTs. The NESTs are required to be college graduates with a teacher's certificate, regardless of subject area from their country. First to fourth graders have one period (forty minutes) of English lesson per week, team-taught under team leader model where NEST is the head teacher. For fifth to sixth graders, they have two lessons per week, one team-taught and the other taught individually by the non-NEST.

The present study focuses on team teaching in Hsin Chu city as it has a longer history and the study serves to extend previous research in this domain. Various researchers (Lin, 2002; Chou, 2005; Luo, 2005) have pinpointed several problems with the program in Hsin Chu city. First and foremost, the qualification of NESTs' is questioned, as most are not majored in related majors and do not have teaching experiences. In addition, the NESTs pointed out the fact that their contracts were not honored by the hiring agency, leading to a high turnover rate. Students have to get used to new NESTs, who often leave after one year. Finally, NESTs and non-NESTs do not necessarily team-teach well together, most likely due to personality issues, different understandings of their respective roles under this model, lack of knowledge about their cohorts' culture and teaching beliefs. In Chou's research (2005), seventy five percent of non-NESTs agree that they need to spend much time communicating

their teaching beliefs to the other cohort in team teaching.

Team teaching is an education model that enables the collaboration two groups of language teachers, the NESTs and non-NESTs. The model is implemented in classrooms all over Asia, particularly Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan. There are two main places in Taiwan that have team teaching, Yi-Lan and Hsin Chu city. Although the latter has a longer history, there are few studies conducted on team teaching there. Therefore, more research should be conducted in team teaching to shed light to having successful teaching models.

2.3 Teachers' Beliefs

2.3.1 Definition and Characteristics of Beliefs

Numerous researchers (Calderhead, Kagan, 1992; Johnson, 1999; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Woods, 1996) view it critical to conduct studies on teachers' thinking as this understanding of cognition would help to improve teacher's professional development (Clark & Peterson, 1986). Nevertheless, Nespor (1987) has noted how relatively little research has been conducted on teacher's beliefs and various aspects of their profession (e.g., students and subject matter). Pajares (1992) gave a possible reason for the lack of attention in this area, which is likely to be attributed to the difficulties in defining the term "beliefs". There are many different understandings of its structure and conceptualizations leading him to label beliefs as "messy construct." Beliefs is disguised under aliases such as attitudes, values, perspectives, and twenty other names because of its multitude of definitions. (Pajares, 1992).

Woods (1996) defined beliefs using his "BAK" model, which stands for beliefs, assumptions and knowledge; the model describes teachers' decision-making process. Knowledge is something people hold as facts, which can be demonstrated (e.g., the

black hole). Assumption is temporary fact that is held to be true (e.g., assuming someone taking your books). Beliefs is the accepted proposition that can not be demonstrated, and people can have different beliefs (e.g., disagreeing on language policies). Borg's definition of beliefs (2001, p.1) "is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour." The overall consensus on the literature regarding beliefs is that they are tacit, unconscious propositions which people hold to be true. The study adopts Kagan's (1992, p.65) definition of teacher beliefs which are "tacit, often unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material to be taught."

There are six characteristics of beliefs listed by Nespor (1987) based on Abelson's work (1979), as illustrated in the following:

1. Existential Presumption: Beliefs are assumptions about entities' existence or its lack of. People can hold beliefs whether God or UFO exists or not.
2. Alternativity: Beliefs are conceptualizations of ideal situations that differ drastically from reality. For instance, teachers may hold the belief that an ideal classroom should be friendly and fun, though it is never achieved in their classes.
3. Affective and Evaluative aspects: Beliefs rely heavily on affective and evaluative components. These aspects determine the amount of energy teachers put in the activities and how the energy are spent. For instance, a history class teacher focus more on learning strategies instead of telling students to memorize the content.
4. Episodic storage: Beliefs are derived from personal memories and events.

Teacher's experiences as students helps to shape the environment they create in their classes.

5. Non-consensuality and unaboundedness: Beliefs tend to be organized into a belief system, which are loosely bounded without rules determining how beliefs are related to real-life situations. The system is non-consensual, meaning the beliefs may be inconsistent with one another.

2.3.2 Sources of Teachers' beliefs

There are several sources that shape teachers' beliefs. One of them is the teachers' personal life experience, which includes different forms of personal, familial and cultural understandings (Richardson, 1996). For instance, a teacher's upbringing in a certain cultures (e.g. Taiwan versus the US) could very well shape the approaches they believe to be suitable for their classes. Secondly, one's own learning experience, or as Lortie (1975) calls the "apprenticeship of observation," is another source of influence. The experience teachers had when they were once students could guide their practices. Ms. Skylark from Nespor (1987)'s study, had the idea of creating a friendly environment for her English class because she never once had a class like that when she was a child.

The next source is professional training, referring to the coursework teacher received prior to teaching. The teachers could adopt philosophies and methodologies they learned about into their own classrooms (Borg, 2003). The fourth refers to contextual factors, which has to do with social and institutional factors that surround the teacher. Richards and Lockhart (1996) point out that an established practice within a school or society dictates the type of content or teaching approaches are to be used. For instance, the Joint College Entrance Exam in Taiwan would prompt more grammatical content to be taught in senior high school than other skills, say speaking

or listening. The final source of influence comes from teachers' own teaching experience (Borg, 2003; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Tsui, 2003). A teacher may experiment with different approaches with certain groups of students to find out how well students react to them.

Borg's (2003) model of teacher cognition (see Figure 1) clearly illustrates the relationships between the sources of teachers' beliefs, their own beliefs, and classroom practices. Teachers' personal life experience directly influences their beliefs, as does schooling experience. The latter shapes teachers' perceptions during their initial professional training, another source of influence on beliefs. Furthermore, contextual factors can directly change beliefs or do so indirectly through classroom practices. Finally, there is a mutual influence between classroom practices and teacher's beliefs. What teachers believe to be true is reflected in their classroom practices, which in turn, is another source that shapes their beliefs.

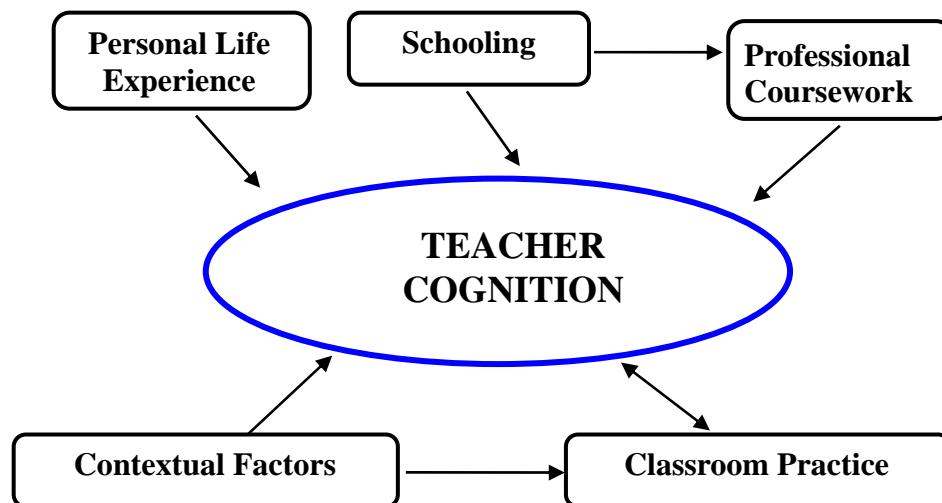


Figure 1: Borg's (2003) Model of Teacher Cognition

2.3.3 Function of Teachers' Beliefs

According to Nespor (1987), there are three main functions of teachers' beliefs, defining task and selecting cognitive strategy, facilitating memory process, and

dealing with ill-structured problems and entangled domains.

The non-consensuality, existential presumption and alternativity that make up the nature of beliefs organize the way teachers view the world and their immediate surroundings. Beliefs will define the teachers' tasks and goals, then select available strategies to achieve them. Nespor gave an example of two history teachers who had very different definitions of their tasks as teachers. While Mr. Larson viewed it as a job to make a living, Ms. Marsh saw it as a mission to improve the quality of education. As teaching takes on contrasting meanings for the two teachers, it is not surprising that they put in varying amount of dedication into the task.

The second function of beliefs is the facilitation of memory process. The affective and evaluative nature of beliefs colors teachers' memories, consequently influencing the way events are indexed and retrieved in the memory. If a teacher does not achieve the result she expected using songs with an intermediate class, then a negative feeling will be attached to that method. Next time she will decide not to use songs again for the same class, because her memory recalls the bad experience she had before. Hence, beliefs influence the way teacher learn and how they use what they learn.

The two previous uses of beliefs serve the overall function of dealing with complex and ill-defined problems. These problems often occur in the complicated and multidimensional nature of classroom situations, where knowledge is no longer adequate for teachers to make decisions. Rather, teachers rely on their beliefs to help make sense of the situation and tackle those problems. Shavelson and Stern (1981) echoed the same view, claiming that when there is no information available for teachers to make judgments, the subjective nature beliefs is most influential to teachers' decision-making.

2.3.4 Studies on NEST and Non-NEST Beliefs

Very few studies have been conducted on the similarities and differences of NEST and non-NEST beliefs. Inoi (1999) conducted a study on the differences between Japanese English Teachers (JETs) and native English teachers' (NETs) beliefs on the characteristics of good language learners (GLLs). In this study, seventy-seven junior high JETs in Japan and twelve NETs the US were surveyed. The data was then combined with Inoi's 1998 study to create a larger sample size, which tallied up to a total of 109 teachers (103 JETs and 26 NETs). Inoi looked at how teachers viewed factors such as motivation, language aptitudes, personality traits, not afraid of making mistakes, proficiency levels and language strategies of GLLs. The findings showed that both teachers shared the same belief that motivation is an important trait for students to have. On the other hand, JETs greatly emphasized positive learning aptitudes (e.g., good memory) and stable personality while NETs do not focus on those traits as much. One significant difference is that over eighty percent of NETs viewed not being afraid to speak English is an essential trait while only two percent of JETs held the same view.

Maum's (2003) surveyed forty NESTs and forty non-NESTs of ESL adult language programs in the U.S and later interviewed several of them. The researcher compared teachers' beliefs in four areas, the role of teachers' sociocultural and linguistic background in class, importance of teaching pronunciation, importance of incorporating culture into the lessons, and significance using students' native language in the classroom. The statistical analysis shows a difference between their beliefs regarding background and culture. From the qualitative analysis of the interviews, NESTs and non-NESTs differed in their beliefs about teaching due to their perceived strengths. For instance, non-NESTs stressed the inclusion of culture, while NESTs

emphasized pronunciation.

2.3.5 Influence of Teachers' Beliefs on Practices

In the past decades, research on teaching has focused on teacher behavior and its influence on student achievement to determine teaching effectiveness. Such research belong to process-product rubric, where “relationships between what teachers do in the classroom (the process of teaching) and what happens to their students (the products of learning)” is examined (Anderson, Brophy & Good, 1986, p.193). However, such type of research assumes a unidirectional relationship, which simplifies the actual interaction between teachers and students. Hence, the research paradigms have shifted to teacher's cognition, as this new line of research gives profound insight into teachers' practices (Kagan, 1992; Fang, 1996).

Clark and Peterson's (1986) model of teachers' thought and action process clearly depicts the influence of beliefs on practices (see Figure 2 below). No other models of teacher cognition have been found to directly link teachers' thought processes and teachers' behavior. The two circles represent two domains, the unobservable teachers' thought process, and teachers' actions and their observable effects. The domain of teachers' thought process include three categories (a) teacher planning (preactive and postactive thoughts); (b) teachers' interactive thoughts; and (c) teachers' beliefs and theories. The first two categories refer to teachers' thought process occurring before, after (preactive and postactive) or during the classroom (interactive). Teachers' theories and beliefs are rich sources that influence both teacher planning and their interactive thoughts, and the relationship is reciprocal too. Teachers may form new beliefs during their planning and executing decisions in the classroom.

The domain of teachers' actions also includes three categories, teachers' classroom behavior, students' classroom behavior and students' achievement. The

teachers' behavior influences students' behavior, which in turn affect their achievement. In the same reciprocal relationship, students' achievement may cause teachers to change their practices, which subsequently changes student behavior, and finally, students' achievement once again. Depending on the context teachers work in, it will impinge certain constraints and opportunities in their teaching process. They may have less or more freedom in the decisions they make depending on the conditions in their environment. As a result, teachers' thoughts and actions are both influenced by constraints and opportunities present in the context. The double arrow indicates a reciprocal relationship between the two domains. Teachers' actions are influenced by teachers' thoughts, which in turn affect teachers' actions.

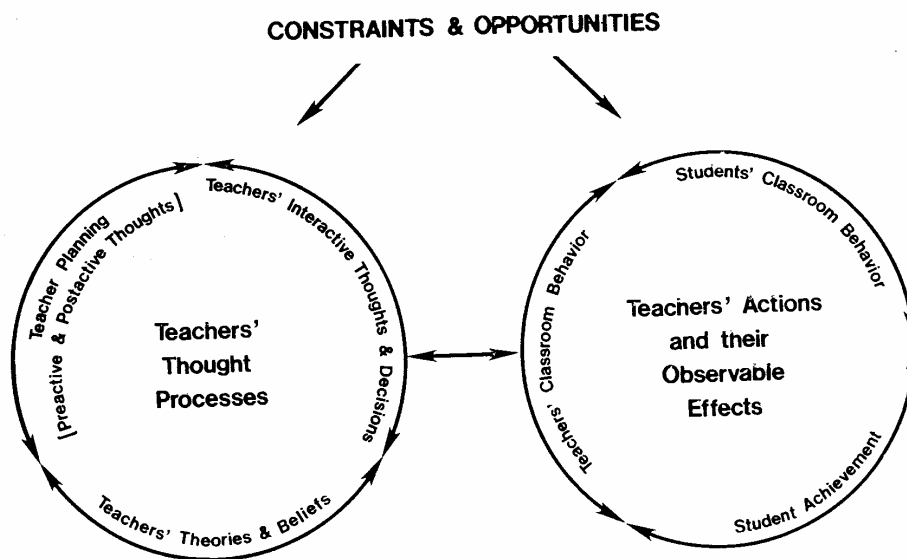


Figure 2: Clark and Peterson's (1986) Model of Teachers' Thought and Action

2.3.6 Studies on Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

There are numerous studies on influence of beliefs on teaching practices. Johnson (1992) examined the relationship of thirty ESL teachers' beliefs on reading instruction instructional practices through completing tasks and answering an inventory. It was found that out of the three approaches, skill-based approach,

rule-based approach, and function-based approaches, the last one is the most favored. The study supports the view that teachers' beliefs influence their instructions, and teachers who hold different sets of beliefs will behave differently from one another.

On the other hand, teachers do not always carry out their beliefs in their practices as they intend. In Graden (1996)'s study, six secondary foreign language teachers' beliefs and their relationship with practices were examined. Although they share the same beliefs: (a) frequent reading opportunities provided improvements for reading, (b) use of target language for instructions was optimal, (c) and that oral reading hinders reading comprehension, students' poor performance compromised the teachers' position to carry out these practices.

In Taiwan, there are several studies on English teachers' beliefs and influences on practices. Most are focused on particular aspects of teachers' practice, such as grammar, writing, and vocabulary instruction (Nien, 2002; Chen, 2004; Hsieh, 2004; Hsu, 2004; Wu, 2005). A common methodological problem with some of the studies is that no classroom observations were included, which reduces reliability (Chang, 2001; Hsu, 2004; Wu, 2005; Wu, 2003). Teachers' own account of their practices could very well deviate from actual classroom practices. In most of the studies, the research findings indicated that there are discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and practices, though varying in degrees. The sources that attribute to these discrepancies include teachers' background, contextual and classroom practices, all of which are verified by Borg's model (2003).

Teachers' beliefs refer to tacit assumptions on academic topics that teachers believe to be true. Their beliefs come from many sources, from the past experiences or from the present contextual factors. Studies show a strong correlation between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices. By probing into the teachers' beliefs,

it would help explain why teachers behave the way they do in their lessons.

2.4 Conclusion

From reviewing the previous literature, an important aspect has been found to be ignored- the understanding of NESTs and non-NESTs' teachers' beliefs in Taiwan. Although there are some studies comparing NESTs and non-NESTs teachers' beliefs, none of them are on the two cohorts of teachers in Taiwan. The studies on NESTs and NNESTs in Taiwan focus mainly on the teacher's classroom practices, and not their beliefs. However, in order to know why teachers behave the way they do in the classroom, it is pertinent to look into their beliefs. The present study is the first in Taiwan to employ a case study approach to investigate NESTs and non-NESTs teachers' beliefs and its manifestation on practices under the context of team teaching in Taiwan. Team teaching has only been in Taiwan for a few years, but the model is implemented in several cities. Therefore, more research should be ventured into team teaching to understand how to improve the quality of this type of education quality.