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## ESL Students' Attitudes Toward Native- and Nonnative-Speaking Instructors' Accents

- In teaching English as a Second Language (ESL), different treatment may be given to native-speaking and nonnative-speaking instructors by administrators and students. This article explores the attitudes of ESL students toward native English teachers and nonnative English teachers. After listening to audiotaped passages read by three native English speakers and three nonnative English speakers, participants completed an attitude survey on each variety. The results indicate that student attitudes toward teachers with different varieties of English is not correlated with whether a speaker's accent is native or nonnative, but instead is correlated with the perception of whether the speaker is native or not. The results also suggest that student familiarity with an accent may be a primary factor in its perception as native or nonnative. Implications for administrators, nonnative-speaking English language educators, and students are discussed.

### Introduction

The concept of the "native speaker," how it is defined, and how it is relevant to the language teaching profession are important sociopolitical issues in the field of ESL. The construct of the native speaker (NS) is an important one because discriminatory hiring practices may occur based upon an individual's status as a native or nonnative speaker (NNS) of English (Thomas, 1999; Canagarajah, 1999; Liu, 1999a). One can find job postings that specify native speaker status as a requirement for employment, or see language program brochures promoting native speaker instructors. The fact that such bias against nonnative-speaking language teachers occurs is a concern for the field of language teaching, and has led to a formal statement against discriminatory practices by the international TESOL organization. This statement is a resolution against "employment decisions in this profession which are based solely upon the criterion that an individual is or is not a native speaker of English" (Appendix A).

No consensus yet exists on defining who is or what constitutes a native speaker of a language, (Davies, 1991; Canagarajah, 1999). Cook (1999), for example, labels the "indisputable element" in any definition of the term na-

tive speaker as “the language learnt first” (p. 187). This definition, however, is itself not a simple one to apply and is subject to interpretation in that it does not account for a potentially limitless set of linguistic, contextual, and personal variables. A study by Liu (1999b), for example, reports on English language teaching professionals who describe themselves as either native speakers or nonnative speakers, based not necessarily on the “language learnt first,” but rather on a variety of factors. Among these are the linguistic environment of their formative years, the status of English in their home country as either an official language or a foreign language, the length of exposure to English, their age of acquisition, and their cultural identity.

Cook (1999) analyzes the qualities and attributes of the language one learns in childhood as contrasted with the features present in a language learned later in life. Cook’s discussion compares the linguistic knowledge base (e.g., proficiency and expertise) of the native speaker with that of the nonnative speaker. Although an individual may be a native speaker of the language he or she first learns, other characteristics exist which describe how well he or she actually uses the language. The knowledge of linguistic rules, range of language skills, creativity of language use, and so on, will vary from individual to individual, regardless of native speaker status. In the end, Cook calls for the focus in language teaching to be on the development of multi-competent language users rather than on imitative native speakers.

A second issue in the NS/NNS debate is the relevance of the construct of native speaker to language teaching. It is becoming increasingly apparent as the 21<sup>st</sup> century begins that this construct—particularly as it concerns English language teaching—has lost much of its validity. Aided by the work of Kachru, Canagarajah, Pennycook, Phillipson, and other language teaching researchers and professionals, there is increasing awareness in the ESL field that the assumed superiority of the construct of the native speaker does not adequately account for the realities of language teaching and learning. The image of the idealized native speaker, Canagarajah (1999) notes, is

based on the view that the language of the native speaker is superior and/or normative irrespective of the diverse contexts of communication; that the corruption of the language can be arrested by the prescriptive role of the native speaker teacher, and that language acquisition is conditioned (in behaviorist terms) by the dialect of the teacher to which the student is exposed (p. 80).

While in some contexts native speaker status has long been held to be the optimal (and sometimes sole) criterion for entrance to the English language teaching profession, Phillipson’s (1992) discussion of the “native speaker fallacy” sums up the weakness of this position. Indeed, it is evident that non-native speakers not only can and do possess the same professional attributes and qualifications as native speakers, but they can further contribute to a healthy learning environment by displaying great sensitivity to the needs of L2 learners and serve as more realistic role models than native speakers (Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999).

In English language teaching, the NS/NNS dichotomy becomes a concern with the elevation in some instances of the native speaker to a status

superior to that of the nonnative speaker. Today, English language teaching is a field strengthened by promoting the development of highly trained, dedicated professionals. It is a field whose members are encouraged to meet rigorous standards of qualification, and not one whose members are qualified merely by their status as native speakers. However much TESOL has advanced as a professional discipline, native speakers still retain an advantage over their nonnative speaker counterparts in the eyes of some administrators and students. Therefore, NNS professionals may face discrimination when attempting to gain employment, in both ESL and EFL contexts.

Awareness of this state of affairs is, however, being heightened by professional organizations and a growing body of research. For example, the formation of the Nonnative English Speakers in TESOL Caucus in 1998 and the special theme issue addressing the concerns of nonnative language educators, published in November 2001 by *The CATESOL Journal*, demonstrate the profession's attention to this concern. Research in the field of language teaching also reflects the increasing attention given to the issues faced by NNS educators. One area of investigation has been the perception of nonnative English-speaking teachers, as seen through their own eyes and the eyes of their students. In a study that investigated the manner in which attitudes regarding NS and NNS language teachers affect the roles of NNS teachers in the language classroom, Tang (1997) surveyed a group of NNS English language teachers to investigate their perceptions of both native and nonnative-speaking teachers. The study explored the NNS teachers' perceptions of their English proficiency and their view of the advantages and disadvantages of both NS and NNS teachers for the language learner. On the whole, the nonnative-speaking teachers judged NS teachers as having superior skills in the areas typically associated with fluency (speaking, pronunciation, and listening), whereas NNS educators were associated with accuracy-oriented skills (vocabulary and reading).

While some in language teaching prefer NS language teachers as models for instruction, Tang relates her findings to the growing body of research that highlights the benefits to be gained from NNS teachers. The instructors in the study, for example, describe what they saw as the advantages to their status as NNS educators. They reported that their ability to use the students' first language (L1) was a valuable instructional tool, and they perceived that their own language learning experiences enabled them to relate better to the challenges facing their students.

Research also shows that a language teacher may be perceived to be a NNS on the basis of one or more features. Some NS/NNS research has investigated how physical appearance is related to student attitudes toward NNS teachers. Amin (1997) investigated NNS teachers' perceptions of how they were viewed by their students. The teachers, all "visible minority" women living in Canada, expressed views on how being nonwhite influenced their relations with students. These teachers felt that some students equate only white people with native English speakers, believe only native speakers know "real" English, and see only whites as "real" Canadians. From this study, it appears that the teacher's race may be linked with negative perceptions of the language skills of NNS instructors.

The impact of students' views and teachers' perceptions is significant, Amin states. First, the students' investment in learning English may decrease if they are learning from someone they perceive to be inadequate; some students may question, challenge, and attempt to discredit the nonwhite NNS teacher. The teacher's professional qualifications may be subordinated to the effort and energy expended toward establishing an identity as a teacher, thereby decreasing his or her effectiveness as a language teacher.

While racial characteristics may in some instances shape students' attitudes toward NNS teachers, these perceptions may also be influenced by the presence of an accent in the speech of an instructor. Research in this area has investigated the ability of foreign students to detect an accent in different varieties of English, and the extent to which accent influences student attitudes toward teachers. Alford and Strother (1990) explored the attitudes of nonnative speakers toward regional American accents. The second language (L2) students in this study could, in fact, perceive regional accents, and they also attributed positive and negative characteristics (in areas such as intelligence, professionalism, sincerity, patience, and so on) to the speakers on the basis of pronunciation and intonation. Kanayama (2001) expanded the scope of such accent-related research to include nonnative varieties of English. Her study investigated Japanese ESL students' ability to perceive language accents and explored student attitudes toward four varieties of English: two native English varieties (Standard American English [SAE] and African-American Vernacular English [AAVE]) and two nonnative varieties of English (spoken by a native Japanese speaker and a native Korean speaker). The results indicated that the ESL students responded most favorably to the SAE accent and least favorably to the AAVE accent. Kanayama found a positive correlation between students' length of residency in the US and amount of education and greater acceptance of the nonstandard accents.

In an effort to contribute to a better understanding of the role of the NNS teacher in language teaching, the present study investigated the extent to which the presence or absence of a teacher's accent impacted student perception of the speaker as a language teacher. The specific research questions were (a) whether students discerned native speaker accents from nonnative speaker accents, (b) whether students held more favorable attitudes toward teachers they perceived to be native speakers than nonnative speakers, and (c) what students perceived to be the advantages of learning English from both native and nonnative teachers.

## Methods

### *Participants*

The participants were 56 intermediate and high intermediate students of academic and vocational ESL as categorized by their class level placement (level two in a three-level program) in a community college in Southern California. The students came from three native language backgrounds: Spanish ( $n = 47$ ), Korean ( $n = 8$ ), and Vietnamese ( $n = 1$ ). The high number of native Spanish speakers is not uncommon in community colleges in the particular region of Southern California where the research was conducted.

### ***Instruments***

Student attitudes toward language varieties were elicited through audiotaped passages reflecting the speech of six female speakers of English, about whom students completed an attitude survey questionnaire (Appendix B) after listening to each speech sample. The language prompt consisted of the speakers reading a script related to an English grammar lesson (Appendix C). A scripted passage was used in order to control for content, syntax, and word choice as variables.

The teachers represented six varieties of English: one native speaker each of Standard American English (the variety typically spoken by a native of Southern California), a southern US variety of English (spoken by a native of New Orleans), and British English (a native of Manchester). One nonnative English speaker represented each of the following varieties of English: Portuguese, Japanese, and German. All of the speakers used on the tape recordings were female in order to eliminate any gender-based attributes. The taped segments ranged in length from 1 min 10 s, to 1 min 33 s, with an average length of 1 min 18 s.

Whereas it is difficult, if not impossible, to quantify the strength of any particular accent, native speaker baseline data was collected in order to verify that the accents selected by the researchers were, in fact, able to be categorized as either native or nonnative varieties of English. Further, if an accent was judged to be nonnative, it was rated in terms of English proficiency as evidenced by degree of accent (see Procedures).

The ESL student participants completed the attitude questionnaire on each speaker by selecting one best response for each of the questions. The response choices were designed to reflect student attitudes toward each speaker, ranging from positive to negative, on the issues of teacher education and training, experience, teacher likability, teaching expertise, desirability as a teacher, empathy for students, and overall teaching ability. One question asked for a discrete response naming which language skill the student would prefer to learn from that teacher. A final question asked the student to identify the teacher as a native or nonnative speaker of English.

A separate form collected biographical data on each student (Appendix D). This instrument sought background information such as native country and length of time studying English as well as experience with native and nonnative English teachers. In addition, this instrument sought student opinion on the advantages of learning English from both native and nonnative speakers.

### **Procedures**

A group of native English speakers ( $n = 13$ ) was used to provide baseline data for the student attitude ratings. None of the native speakers were ESL teachers. The native speakers listened to the six audiotaped passages presented in random order and rated the speakers on a five-point scale, with a score of one indicating the lowest nonnative speaker proficiency, a score of four the highest nonnative speaker proficiency, and a score of five indicating



a native English speaker. On this instrument, the SAE speaker had a mean rating of 5.0, the southern US speaker a mean of 5.0, and the British English speaker a mean of 4.9. Among the NNS audiotaped passages, the Portuguese speaker received a mean rating of 3.9, the Japanese speaker a mean of 3.7, and the German speaker a mean score of 3.4.

Based on the NS data, we concluded that the audiotaped passages, in fact, depicted accents, and we gave the treatment to the ESL students. We informed them that their opinions were being sought on how different English speakers sounded, but we did not provide them with any specifics about the research questions. Prior to playing the audiotaped scripts for the participants, we reviewed the attitude questionnaire with the students in order to clarify the meaning of any unknown vocabulary or confusing questions. The tapes were then presented in random order to each of three intact groups ( $n = 24$ ,  $n = 20$ ,  $n = 12$ ). While listening to the tapes, the students indicated their impression of each speaker based on her voice characteristics. After completing the survey on the sixth speaker, the students completed the biographical data form.

## Results

### *Student Identification of Native and Nonnative Speakers*

In answer to the first research question, the results indicate that these ESL students were not, in fact, able to distinguish NS accents from NNS accents with a high degree of accuracy. Unlike the native speaker control group, which was able to identify native versus nonnative English speakers with nearly 100% accuracy, the ESL students were unable in all six taped samples to make correct judgments with any degree of certainty. The SAE speaker was judged to be a native speaker by 70% of the respondents. No other native speaker, however, was judged accurately even half of the time. The southern US accent was judged as native by 39% of the respondents, the British speaker by 27%. The Portuguese speaker was rated as a native English speaker by 40% of the participants and the Japanese speaker by 30%, while the German speaker was viewed as native in only 5% of the samples.

Thus, while the native speaker control group was able to identify the three native English speakers with 97% accuracy (38 out of 39 instances), the English learners were able to do so correctly less than half of the time (45%). In fact, only the SAE speaker was rated ahead of all three NNS speakers, and the speaker from Brazil was rated as native more often than both the southern US and British English speakers. The British English speaker was judged to be native at a level greater than only the German speaker.

### *Student Attitudes Toward Native and Nonnative Varieties of English*

The second research question investigated whether student attitudes toward the teachers would vary according to their perceived status as NSs or NNSs. An analysis of the questionnaire responses indicates that this is the case. A Pearson correlation was performed on the data for the six speakers to determine if the students' perceptions of each speaker as a NS or NNS correlated, either positively or negatively, with the attitude ratings (Table 1). The

high positive correlations clearly indicate that the higher the native speaker score a speaker received, the higher her attitude ratings were. As an example, a teacher who was perceived as a NS was seen as having a higher level of education and training than a perceived NNS. This correlation coefficient was .888.

**Table 1**  
**High Positive Correlation Coefficients**  
**Perceived Native Speaker/Nonnative Speaker Status**

Study Listening/Speaking/Pronunciation	.972
Likability	.910
Competence as English Teacher	.910
Empathy with L2 Students	.898
Desire as Teacher	.896
Experience	.892
Education/Training	.888
Degree of Learning	.881

A second Pearson correlation investigated the relationship between a speaker's actual status as a native or nonnative speaker and student attitudes toward her (Table 2). The results provide additional support for the finding that the students' perceptions of a teacher as a NS or a NNS, rather than the speaker's actual language status, determined the attitudes that the students held about the teacher. Thus, there was a low correlation between whether a speaker was, in reality, a NS and, for example, the level of education and training ascribed to that speaker. This correlation coefficient was .262.

**Table 2**  
**Low Positive Correlation Coefficients**  
**Actual Native Speaker/Nonnative Speaker Status**

Degree of Learning	.241
Experience	.256
Education/Training	.262
Desire as Teacher	.295
Competence as English Teacher	.342
Likability	.358
Empathy with L2 Students	.425
Study Listening/Speaking/Pronunciation	.427

In addition to the questions that elicited attitude ratings on a positive-negative scale, one question asked students to select which of the language skills they would prefer to be taught by each teacher. Following Tang (1997), in which NNS teachers viewed themselves as superior at teaching accuracy skills rather than fluency skills, it was hypothesized that ESL students, too, would prefer a NS teacher for fluency and a NNS for accuracy. The data par-



tially supported this view. The students did, in fact, indicate a preference for a NS instructor when learning the fluency skills.

That is, the rank order in which the speakers were judged to be native correlated with the students' desire to study listening and speaking or pronunciation (fluency) from them. The respondents indicated 34% of the time that they would prefer to be taught listening or speaking and pronunciation from the SAE speaker. For the Portuguese speaker, whose NS score was second only to the SAE speaker, the percentage was 22%. The southern US speaker, the British English speaker, and the Japanese speaker were each chosen by 16% of the respondents as a preferred oral skills instructor, while the German speaker was selected by only 7% of the students. The Pearson correlation coefficient for perceived NS status and desire to select a teacher for the fluency skills was .972.

However, this pattern did not appear for the accuracy skills of writing and grammar, meaning that no preference was shown for a NNS when the language focus is on accuracy rather than fluency. The southern US speaker was chosen for grammar instruction by 46% of the students. The choice of learning grammar from the Portuguese and Japanese speakers was made by 38%, from the SAE speaker 36%, from the British speaker by 34%, and from the German speaker 18%.

#### *Student Perceived Advantages of NS/NNS Teachers*

In addition to the data collected for quantitative analysis, students also answered two open-ended questions on the advantages of having NS and NNS instructors. The questions did not solicit the disadvantages of studying from each type of teacher in an effort to avoid leading respondents into the dichotomous position of equating a NS teacher with positive traits and a NNS teacher with negative traits. Instead, the participants were asked to cite the advantages of learning English from both types of teachers.

The most frequently cited advantage of native English-speaking teachers was their superior pronunciation. As one respondent succinctly stated, "There aren't better teachers than native ones to teach you how to pronounce." Said another, "You also learn how to speak fluently." Another representative response was, "I could learn exact pronunciation from a native English speaker." Or, "It's easier to learn it [language] from a native speaker because other teacher (nonnative) you can notice his/her accent." Considering the students' general inability to correctly identify speakers' accents as native or nonnative, however, these comments may reflect stereotypical beliefs and assumptions about the supremacy of native teachers.

Such commonly held assumptions might also underlie a similar finding, which related to the perceived communicative competence of native speakers: "They know the language perfectly" and "Who better knows the language?" Other comments centered on native teachers' ability to transmit culture to their students. Several students made responses similar to these: "The advantages about learning English from a native English speaker are that you could know their culture and know some phrases that only in English are said"; "I can learn customs of the USA"; "You can learn things [words,

ways to speak] that they [Americans] usually say.” What these comments about culture do not take into account, however, is that cultural knowledge is based largely on familiarity with a culture rather than on native language ability. As such, a native English speaker from outside the US (such as England) or a distinctly different geographic region within the US (such as the South) teaching in Southern California would likely lack some of the same cultural knowledge as would a teacher from Japan.

The respondents also had the opportunity to cite advantages of nonnative English-speaking teachers. A common theme was what might be termed the “empathy” factor. That is, students were aware that the NNS instructor has experienced many of the same difficulties in learning a second language as the students themselves. Several students commented this way: “Maybe this teacher can understand my problems with my second language because this teacher had the same situation.” And, “They give you techniques how to learn it better and how they learned it, so it can be easier for you like it was for them.”

The nonnative speaker teacher was also seen as a source of motivation for some, as when one student said, “You know that if that person could reach that level of the language, you can do it too.” Others saw a more symbiotic relationship between the NNS teacher and L2 student: “You can learn easily, because sometimes we can learn together.” It was also mentioned that NNS teachers in some cases have the ability to use translation to their advantage since a native speaker of a student’s language can immediately translate vocabulary when necessary.

### **Discussion**

The data in this study were collected in an attempt to shed light on the questions of whether ESL students can distinguish native from nonnative varieties of English, whether students’ attitudes toward teachers vary according to a perceived native or nonnative accent, and what they believe are the advantages of learning English from both native and nonnative teachers. An insightful finding revealed by the data was that the participants were in most instances unable to discern a native English speaker from a nonnative English speaker. In this study, students listened to six different voices, both native English and nonnative, reflecting a variety of accents. When asked to identify the native speakers, the fact that the students were able to identify only the SAE variety (common in Southern California) correctly, indicates that for English language learners any accent may lead them to assume nonnative speaker status. Thus, the data suggest that an accent in general may be a marked form in the minds of L2 learners.

The data also showed that there was a straight correlation between what students considered to be native-speaking accents and favorable teacher traits such as a high level of training and education, greater teaching experience, and excellence in teaching. The higher the rating of a perceived native English speaker’s accent, the more educated, experienced, and skilled she was considered to be. The data also showed that students prefer to study listening, speaking, and pronunciation from native speakers.

One interpretation of this finding is that learner exposure to and familiarity with any variety of English leads to more favorable responses for that accent. In this instance, the two speakers who received the most favorable ratings were the SAE and the Portuguese speakers, who reflected language varieties that were familiar to the student participants. As mentioned, the SAE variety is common in Southern California, where the study was carried out, so it would be familiar to the students due to exposure outside the ESL classroom. Also, in this case, all of the respondents themselves were students of an ESL teacher from Brazil (not the speaker used in the study). Additionally, a great majority of the students (82%) spoke Spanish as a first language, and the locale of the community college from which the participants were drawn contains a sizeable Spanish-speaking population. Therefore, due to the students' familiarity with a Latin accent, both from their peers and in the community, they may have preferred it or considered it (consciously or unconsciously) to be natural.

At the other extreme, the nonnative English speaker from Germany was rated as a native English speaker in an extremely small percentage of responses (5%), and consistently had more negative ratings than the other speakers in all areas. A German accent is relatively uncommon in Southern California; indeed, this may have been the first time respondents were exposed to such an accent. As noted, the German accent was judged the "heaviest" by the native speaker control group, so it stands to reason that the L2 learners would have detected the speaker's pronunciation weaknesses more easily. Her less favorable ratings, then, might have resulted from her clear identification as a NNS. This result also lends support to the notion that, when considering degrees of accent and pronunciation intelligibility, there may be a lower limit of what would be an acceptable standard for an English teacher.

When relating the findings of the quantitative data and the students' answers to the open-ended questions, a few generalizations can be made. First, since the speakers of southern US and British English were considered by a majority of respondents to be nonnative speakers, it is clear that it was not whether an accent is native or nonnative that was important. Rather, the presence of any accent appears to have cast doubt in the learners' minds as to whether a speaker was native or not. It seems, then, that any native English accent with which second language learners have had little or no contact is likely to be considered nonnative.

It is important to address the limitations of the present study. As mentioned, the subjects' daily exposure to SAE and Latin-accented English may have contributed to the favorable ratings for those speakers. Further study is necessary to explore the effects of other native varieties of English (e.g., eastern US, Australian, Irish), as well as additional nonnative speaker varieties (e.g., Indian, French, Arabic). Also, a student population less heavily dominated by a single language background (in this case Spanish) would increase the generalizability of the findings. It may be that students from a particular linguistic background would be better able (or less able) to discern the presence or absence of language accents. A heterogeneous student population would, therefore, provide a more balanced picture.

In addition, a similar study conducted in a region of the US or in another country where a language variety other than SAE is the norm, or such a study conducted in an EFL context, may yield different results. On the other hand, such replications may confirm that exposure to and familiarity with an accent is the key variable, rather than the presence or absence of such an accent. If this proves to be the case, then an administrator in charge of hiring language instructors should consider a NNS teacher's accent to be a short-term issue, and one in which any student discomfort would likely pass with increased exposure and familiarity.

It would also be beneficial if a replication of this study were to be carried out in which the speakers do not read verbatim from a script, but instead generate identical or similar content (from an outline, for example). In doing this, the content would be held relatively constant, but grammatical idiosyncrasies that may influence a student's attitude would be allowed to surface. Further, a study that would more accurately demonstrate the true weight students place on accent would include videotaped teaching segments. In this way, other variables such as physical appearance, personality, and teaching style could mitigate or accentuate pronunciation differences.

Perhaps the strongest measure, though, of the effect of the NNS teacher on students would be revealed by a qualitative study in which in-depth interviews are carried out with students who have had actual classroom experience with NNS teachers. This technique would also be valuable in investigating how student attitudes toward NNS instructors change with increased classroom contact. Qualitative research involving NS and NNS teachers, students, and administrators would reveal the personal stories regarding this important issue and help promote a clearer understanding of the role of the nonnative speaker in language teaching.

### **Conclusion**

While the specifics of this research will not apply in every ESL or EFL context, it is hoped that this study will help raise the awareness of educators and administrators to an important issue in the field of ESL. Despite the findings of this research, which suggest that students are more critical of teachers with nonstandard varieties of English, students should be encouraged to see that a teacher is more than his or her voice. A teacher's effectiveness is determined by his or her theoretical knowledge base, practical experience, and interpersonal skills. It therefore becomes the responsibility of language program administrators and classroom teachers to educate students on the characteristics and value of good teaching above and beyond the presence or absence of an accent. Student bias against instructors with accents might be eliminated if an effort is made to highlight to L2 learners the positive attributes of NNS teachers.

It is also clear that while students may equate the lack of a discernable accent with superior teaching, program administrators must not use the NS/NNS distinction as a sole or blanket criterion in making hiring decisions. An administrator who would not discriminate against a speaker of British or Australian English must be no less open minded when presented with a quali-

fied teacher who comes from Brazil or Japan. This fact was perhaps best summed up by one of the students who stated, "For both [native and nonnative speaker teachers], in my opinion, if they have many experiences and other ways of teaching English, it is very good."

### Authors

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**Appendix A**  
**A TESOL Statement on Nonnative Speakers of**  
**English and Hiring Practices**

Whereas TESOL is an international association concerned with the teaching of English to speakers of other languages and composed of professionals who are both active and nonnative speakers of English, and

Whereas employment decisions in this profession which are based solely upon the criterion that an individual is or is not a native speaker of English discriminate against well qualified individuals, especially when they are made in the absence of any defensible criteria, and

Whereas such decisions, not based on sound criteria, must therefore be in contradiction to sound linguistic research and pedagogical practice,

Therefore be it resolved that the Exclusive Board of TESOL shall make every effort to prevent such discrimination in the employment support structures operated by TESOL and its own practices, and

Therefore be it further resolved that the Executive Board of TESOL shall instruct the committee on Professional Standards (and such other TESOL bodies as the Board sees fit to involve) to work towards the creation and publication of minimal language proficiency standards that may be applied to all ESOL teachers without reference to the nativeness of their English.

This resolution is moved by the Sociopolitical Concerns Committee, having been drafted by the Employment Issues Sub-committee and endorsed by the committee of the whole.

The Sociopolitical Concerns Committee urges that, should this resolution be duly passed, the Executive Board establish a deadline by which the actions herein mandated are to be implemented.

October 1991



## Appendix B Opinion Questionnaire

Directions: You will hear a brief recorded language lesson given by six English as a Second Language teachers. Listen to the tapes and answer the questions that follow. Circle the letter which best expresses your opinion about the question.

1. I think this speaker has \_\_\_\_\_ years of language teaching, education, and training.
  - a. 5 or more
  - b. 3 to 4
  - c. 1 to 2
  - d. No formal education or training
2. I think this speaker has \_\_\_\_\_ years language teaching experience.
  - a. over 10
  - b. 8 to 10
  - c. 4 to 7
  - d. 0 to 3
3. I think that this teacher's students \_\_\_\_\_
  - a. like her very much
  - b. like her
  - c. don't really like her very much
  - d. dislike her
4. I think that I would learn \_\_\_\_\_ from this teacher.
  - a. a lot of English
  - b. some English
  - c. not much English
  - d. very little English
5. I would hire this teacher to give me private English lessons.
  - a. Yes, definitely
  - b. Probably
  - c. Maybe
  - d. No
6. I would most like to study this language skill from THIS teacher.
  - a. Reading
  - b. Listening and speaking/pronunciation
  - c. Writing
  - d. Grammar
  - e. I wouldn't like to study English from this teacher
7. I think this teacher understands the problems of her second language students \_\_\_\_\_ .
  - a. very much
  - b. somewhat
  - c. only a little
  - d. not at all
8. I think this teacher is \_\_\_\_\_



- a. excellent
  - b. better than average
  - c. average
  - d. below average
9. I think this teacher is a native speaker of English.
- a. Yes
  - b. No
  - c. I don't know

### **Appendix C** **Scripted Grammar Lesson**

Good morning, class. In today's grammar lesson we are going to take a look at another very common verb form that is used in English. It is the present progressive. This verb tense is very simple to form, and its common meaning is very easy to use. We'll see, though, that there are some less common—but still important—uses for present progressive.

Okay, let's start with the form of the present progressive. It's easy. The present progressive is made by using the verb BE, followed by the base form of another verb plus ING.

BE verb, remember, changes depending on the sentence subject that you are using. For example, we say I *AM*, but YOU *ARE*. The third person form of BE is IS if the subject is singular, and ARE if the subject is plural. So we have HE IS, SHE IS, and IT IS. Names of people and objects can be singular subjects, too. MIKE IS, ANNA IS. Plural subjects would be something like THE DOGS ARE or THE STUDENT AND THE TEACHER ARE.

Moving to the other half of the present progressive form, what do we mean by base form of the verb plus ING? The base form is the form that we find in the dictionary. It's the simple form. It doesn't have tense, like past tense, and it doesn't have number, like a plural form. It's the plain verb. Examples would be TALK, WRITE, SLEEP, COOK, and so on.

If we put these parts together, then, we have the fully formed present progressive tense. I AM WRITING A LETTER, YOU ARE COOKING BREAKFAST, THE DOGS ARE SLEEPING OUTSIDE, THE STUDENT AND THE TEACHER ARE TALKING IN THE CLASSROOM.

**Appendix D**  
**Student Information**

1. What English class level are you? 1 2 3
2. What country are you from? \_\_\_\_\_
3. How long have you been studying English? (Example: 2 years, 4 months)  
\_\_\_\_\_ years \_\_\_\_\_ months
4. How long have you been studying English **in the United States**? (Example: 0 years, 8 months)  
\_\_\_\_\_ years \_\_\_\_\_ months
5. Have you ever studied English while living in England, Australia, New Zealand, or Canada?  
Yes No
6. Have you ever studied English from a native speaker of your language?  
Yes No
7. Have you ever studied English from a native speaker of English?  
Yes No
8. Have you ever studied English from a non-native speaker of English who is NOT from your country? (Example: You studied English from a native speaker of French.)  
Yes No
9. Please write three or four sentences in answer to **both** of the following questions:
  - a. The **advantages/good things** about learning English from a **native English speaker** are...
  - b. The **advantages/good things** about learning English from a **non-native English speaker** are...
10. Circle either A or B.
  - a. I want my English to someday be like the language of a native speaker of English.
  - b. I want someday to speak English very well.