iatefl H *The Power of Now -*
Teaching and Learning in the Present

27th IATEFL-Hungary Annual Conference
Budapest, 6-8 October 2017

Conference Selections

Edited by
Éva Illés
Jasmina Sazdovska
Zsuzsanna Soproni

The Power of Now

- Teaching and Learning in the Present

Editors
Éva Illés
Jasmina Sazdovska
Zsuzsanna Soproni

IATEFL-Hungary,
Budapest, 2019

The Power of Now – Teaching and Learning in the Present

Kiadó: IATEFL-Hungary

Felelőskiadó: Claudia Molnár

Lektor: Árpád Farkas

Budapest, 2019

ISBN 978-615-00-5697-5

Contents

Introduction

It is our pleasure to present the fifth compilation inspired by the annual IATEFL-Hungary conference. It contains a selection of talks delivered at the 27th IATEFL-Hungary conference, which took place in Budapest, between 6–8 October, 2017. The title of the conference was *The Power of Now - Teaching and Learning in the Present*.

This volume contains five papers, one peer-reviewed and four non-peer-reviewed ones. The four non-peer-reviewed papers include an investigation into the feedback practices of four teachers of English in Hungary and Italy, an example of course design for teaching English for diplomatic purposes, the results of a small-scale survey examining teachers' attitudes towards the changes that have occurred in the use of English and its teaching, and a multi-method study on students' perceptions of native English speaker teachers. The peer-reviewed paper summarises the findings of a pilot study into the factors that teachers of English consider important when judging professionalism in different contexts. These factors include having English as first language, proficiency, having a university degree, completing a short training programme, teaching experience and membership in a teachers' association.

The editors would like to express their gratitude to the following reviewers for their contribution to the compilation: Kata Csizér, Gergely Dávid, Dorottya Holló, Edit Kontra, Péter Medgyes, Enikő Öveges and UwePohl. We are also grateful to Árpád Farkas who, yet again, proved to be an excellent proofreader.

This and all the previous conference compilations are available at https://www.iatefl.hu/node/123.

Éva Illés, Jasmina Sazdovska and Zsuzsanna Soproni

Course design: English for diplomatic purposes

Zsuzsanna Zsubrinszky

Introduction

English is the global lingua franca of international diplomacy and international business relations all over the world. Nowadays, due to globalisation, when business is conducted internationally, very often none of the interlocutors are native speakers of English and have acquired it as a second language. Thinking of students who are planning to work within the realm of diplomatic relations in the future, the English teachers at a Budapest business school have designed a course to enhance students' language skills by finding out how to approach communication in more peaceful, compassionate and effective ways (Gomes de Matos, 2001). This can be achieved by avoiding dehumanising language, handling differences constructively, focusing on agreement rather than on polemics, and avoiding pompous language. Diplomacy is a field where clear communication is crucial, and where agreements between countries can depend on the (mis)understanding of how messages are conveyed. The present paper provides varied activities used in the classroom focusing on politeness, peaceful interaction, building social relationships, assertiveness and empathy, code-switching, and negotiation. The activities can be used at any language level, from elementary to advanced; therefore, everybody can find useful aspects of language from elementary to more abstract nuances of meaning and connotation. As language is context-dependent, analyses of actual diplomatic discourse can also greatly contribute to the language learners' success.

There are now many Englishes spoken all over the world with many accents, accompanied by different styles and body language. As a result, all speakers of English (both native and non-native) are very much concerned about the efficacy of their communication, which enables them to engage linguistically in such a way that enhances rapport rather than hampers it. For representatives of a country, this challenge may become even greater as they need to be considerate and precise with language in diplomatic transactions. Whether you are a consul or an ambassador, understanding emotions and their impact on behaviour and communication can be an asset, which can lead to a successful solution of international problems.

This paper aims to link theory and practice by addressing important linguistic and sociolinguistic considerations, that is, how language can help establish harmonious communications, how it is possible to disagree and still maintain politeness and assertiveness, how compassion can lead to a better understanding of others' motives, how World Englishes presuppose respect for diversity, and finally, how cross-cultural issues interplay with language.

Diplomatic discourse

Clear communication is especially important in the field of international diplomacy, where agreements and relations between countries depend on the understanding or misunderstanding of how messages are conveyed (Friedrich, 2007). The use of language can signal a language user's desire to respect and honour human dignity on the one hand, or to offend and attack someone's self-esteem, on the other (Galtung, 1964). Yet, language users often fail to recognise the power of language and fail to choose their words carefully. Paige (2009) raises the question of whether or not a non-killing society is possible and what it would take to build such a society. She argues that languages can sadly be employed as instruments of harm by segregating and excluding those who share a different linguistic background.

When engaged in diplomatic negotiations, one's view and use of English also needs to be negotiated; therefore, expecting to find users of English around the world who use the same varieties will mean being faced with disappointment. According to Kachru and Nelson (2001), the spread of English can be modelled on three concentric circles. The Inner Circle is represented by those countries where English is spoken as a native language; the Outer Circle is comprised of those countries where English arrived via colonisation, and the Expanding Circle is formed by countries where English is used as a foreign language. The authors argue that instead of trying to come up with universal rules of what language should be, World Englishes need to be understood in their historical and social contexts.

Gomes de Matos (2001) has created a list of principles for diplomatic communication to be applied constructively, which includes the avoidance of dehumanising language, investment in handling differences constructively, emphasis on language with a potential for peace rather than language employed with a strategic agenda, focus on agreement rather than on polemics and, finally, avoidance of pompous language used to separate and hide.

Expressing appreciation, speaking warmly and briefly, and listening deeply are very beneficial to individuals in diplomatic posts, which Rosenberg (2005) calls nonviolent communication (NVC). Rosenberg (2005, p. 7) suggests a four-step process we can use when we listen to or when we want to send a message that might be hard to hear. The first step is *observation*, which is when you reflect on the message or observe the situation by using descriptive rather than evaluative language. In the second step, after making the observation, you guess the other person's *feelings* and, at the same time, identify your own feelings. The third step is about the possible *needs* or *values* that may be behind your or the other person's feelings. Finally, once the first three steps have been carried out, in Step 4, it is time to make a clear, specific *request* to the other person. Empathy is more than recognising how we feel; it is about finding the underlying need behind the feeling (Cunningham, 2009; Gill, Leu, & Morin, 2009; Rosenberg, 2005).

All the above crucial linguistic and sociolinguistic issues have been considered in designing the course for diplomatic purposes.

Course participants

The International Relations programme at Master's level was launched at a Budapest business school in 2010, but for the first time it was the academic year of 2016/2017 when the students in this course were truly international, coming from 11 different countries, such as Ecuador, Korea, Tunisia, Egypt, Japan, Serbia and Mongolia. In addition to the international students, four Hungarian students attended the course, which provided an excellent opportunity to realise the intercultural differences within the group.

Course design

The creation of peaceful social relations

ACTIVITY 1:

In Activity 1, the students were asked to find and underline examples for the five main principles of peaceful communication in an interview with Željko Janjetović, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of Bosnia-Herzegovina to Hungary, which was published in *Diplomatic Magazine*.

1) Avoidance of dehumanising language:
"Hungary is a nice country with proud people and Budapest is just wonderful."

(2) Investment in handling differences constructively:
"We continue the debate and the dialogue about all the important matters of our society. Currently an intense political discussion is ongoing about the governmental structure: whether Bosnia-Herzegovina should be a more centralised or decentralised country."

(3) Emphasis on language with a potential for peace rather than language employed with a strategic agenda:
"I'm sure that Hungarians know and understand my country much better than many others do. Bosnia-Herzegovina has always been supported by the Hungarian Government since after the war and later, and especially as we are approaching the EU."

(4) Focus on agreement rather than on polemics:
"'Consensus' is a word of great importance in my country's political vocabulary and political life in general. This is the only way to reach agreement between the different political groups for the future of our country. We have already achieved consensus in an extremely important issue: our integration to the European Union."

(5) Avoidance of pompous language used to separate and hide.
"We have to improve the economic relations of our countries, especially in this very difficult time of global financial crises. We should use the opportunities of our huge economic potentials."

As homework, students were to find and analyse an interview with a diplomat from their own countries in the same way.

World Englishes

World Englishes put the focus on using the language for a variety of functions regardless of whether the interlocutors are native or non-native speakers, or users of English as a second or foreign language. While everyone might be using the same diplomatic language, the deep beliefs about how to use it can vary greatly.

ACTIVITY 2:

Place the countries in the three concentric circles (Kachru, 1992). In the Inner Circle, put the countries where English is spoken as a native language; in the Outer Circle, put the ones where English arrived via colonisation and is spoken as a second language; finally, in the Expanding Circle, put the ones where English is spoken as a foreign language. The countries to be placed are the following: Malaysia, Brazil, Argentina, France, New Zealand, the Philippines, South Korea, Japan, the United States, England, Singapore, India, China, Jamaica and Australia.

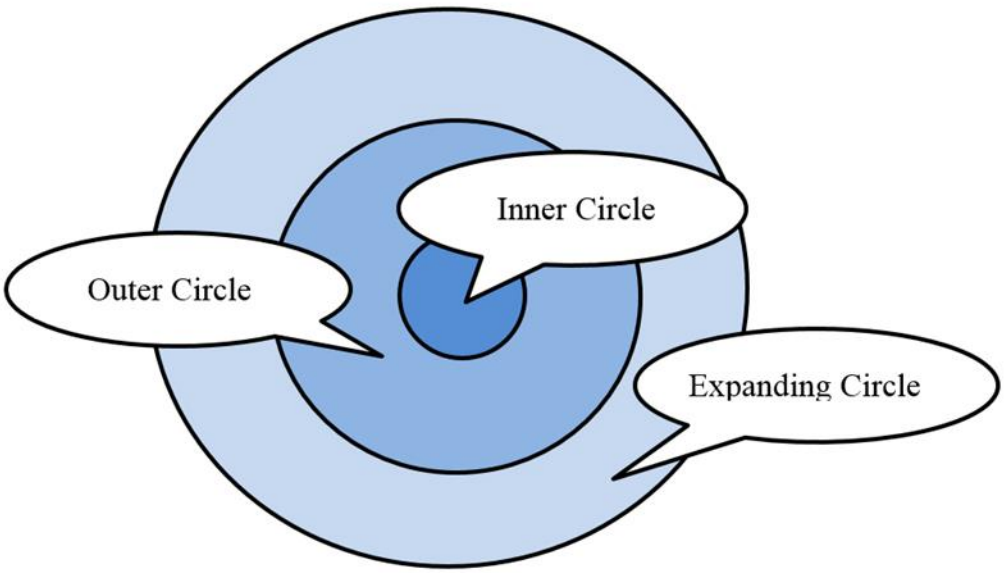

Figure 1. Kachru's (1992) model of the spread of English

As homework, students should do some research on the Internet and prepare a short presentation on their preferred varieties of English. The presentation can focus on differences in phonology, lexis or grammar.

Empathy and assertiveness

At first, it might seem that empathy and assertiveness have little in common as empathy is 'other' oriented, whereas being assertive appears to be more 'self' oriented. However, beneath the surface, both of these concepts share similar traits. For instance, both attempt to allow for the recognition of another person's thoughts and feelings, and both involve the idea of appropriateness and flexibility in manifesting empathic and assertive communication. The following activity helps students practise their observation skills without becoming judgemental.

ACTIVITY 3:

Description versus evaluation. Rewrite the evaluative statements into observation statements or vice versa.

Table 1. *Observation and evaluation*

Observation	Evaluation
Yesterday I submitted my assignment the day after it was due.	I am **horrible** at keeping deadlines.
I arrived 15 minutes after the scheduled time.	I **never** make it to a meeting on time.
I wanted to say something three times, but he kept talking.	He talks **too much all the time**.

The language of feelings and needs

In general, people have conscious control of their emotional expressions; however, they need not have awareness of their emotional state in order to express emotion. For instance, it cannot be assumed that when a second language (L2) learner uses the word disgust in English, it would mean the same thing for a first language (L1) user. Also, there is a risk of miscommunication when it comes to translating emotion words between languages; therefore, developing skills to communicate emotions in English may increase diplomatic understanding between cultural groups.

ACTIVITY 4:

Collect adjectives for positive and negative feelings and put them under the appropriate headings in the Tables 2 and 3 below.

Table 2. *Positive feelings*

Comfortable	Peaceful	Happy	Grateful	Interested
calm	relaxed	cheerful	glad	curious
confident	relieved	excited	pleased	energetic
satisfied	harmonious	affectionate	thankful	enthusiastic
secure	amicable	alive	appreciative	inspired
content	conflict-free	delighted		focused

Table 3. *Negative feelings*

Sad	Angry	Scared	Ashamed	Careful
depressed	annoyed	afraid	embarrassed	doubtful
disappointed	disgusted	anxious	guilty	hesitant
hopeless	irritated	concerned	regretful	shy
hurt	cross	frightened	deflated	unwilling
upset	vexed	nervous		

Nonviolent communication

All human behaviour stems from attempts to meet universal human needs, and conflict arises when strategies for meeting needs clash. If people can identify their own needs, the needs of others and the feelings that surround these needs, harmony can be achieved. Taking action towards fulfilling your needs means daring to express your thoughts and emotions honestly.

ACTIVITY 5:

The issue of migration divides Hungarian citizens and triggers different types of anxieties. Using Rosenberg's four-component Nonviolent Communication Model, discuss your views on migration in small groups.

Table 4. *Nonviolent communication model*

Observation	Feelings
People leave their countries behind. People travel from Africa to Europe on dinghies. People die when they cross the sea. The number of black people in Europe is increasing. Migrants are transported by bus to immigration and asylum offices.	I feel frightened and shocked by the news on TV. I feel sorry for those who have to leave their homeland. I really do not know what should be done. I myself do not feel safe in my country any more.
Needs	**Request**
I would like to understand what is going on here, why so many people are coming to Europe. I hope that the migration problem will be solved peacefully.	Those who are familiar with the causes of migration should provide trustworthy information on the situation. Will you please come up with some good ideas, which would help these people?

Diplomatic negotiations

Diplomatic negotiations typically occur in three stages: (1) pre-negotiations, (2) face-to-face negotiations and, finally, (3) the agreement. The main purpose of the first stage is to confirm that all parties are willing to meet and talk. It mainly takes place through correspondence (email) between embassies or via phone. In the second stage, negotiators clarify general principles and map out each party's expectations. The final stage is the core of the negotiation process where all the specifics are agreed upon and filled in.

ACTIVITY 6:

Role play: You are in the UN Security Council. You have your specific agenda that you're trying to get passed, and that means that you're doing anything and everything in order to get the other members of the Council on your side. Clearly state your position, which can be expressed directly or indirectly. Fill in the table with possible phrases to express your position.

Table 5. *Expressing positions*

Position	Direct	Indirect
Expressing needs	We expect… We need… We want… We must have…	We are hoping to… We would like… It is important for us to… We wish to have…
Saying 'no'	We will not… We cannot… We are unable to… That will not be acceptable…	It will be difficult for us … We are not sure that we can … We are afraid that is not possible … It is not easy for us to agree to that …

Relying on the information provided by the UN Daily News, students have chosen the following topics (September, 2016): African host countries agree on final steps on Rwandan refugees; ban to set up probe into deadly attack on UN-Syrian Arab Red Crescent aid convoy in Western Aleppo; UN health agency calls for stronger measures against Zika as Thailand confirms disease-related cases, just to name a few.

Discussion

In analysing the interview with Aleksandar Dragičević, the ambassador of Bosnia-Hercegovina to Hungary, all the five principles for peaceful communication outlined by Gomes de Matos (2001) could be detected. His Excellency has pointed out that the economy is of the utmost importance for both countries; therefore, the economic relations of the two countries have to be improved, especially in this very difficult time of global financial crises.

The interviews the students analysed at home were of varied cultural backgrounds. One of them analysed an interview made by Kim Won-jin, the South Korean Ambassador to Cambodia, in which he highlighted the four major important areas of cooperation between the two countries: agriculture, healthcare, transport and renewable energy consumption. Another student has chosen the interview with H.E. Oleg Tulea, Ambassador of the Republic of Moldova to Hungary, who proudly mentions that in 1992 Moldova joined the UN, the OSCE, and later the Council of Europe. Their main objective now is European integration, which he considers the only opportunity to develop and modernise Moldova on the basis of established models. After his visit to the US, a Tunisian student has translated Beji Caid Essebsi's (the first President of Tunisia after the revolution) interview from French into English. This interview was interesting not only from the point of view of linguistic analysis, but also from an intercultural point of view, which provided an excellent opportunity for knowledge sharing.

To acknowledge the reality and the role of World Englishes is to, in a way, endorse a view of the world according to which difference is treated as inclusive diversity, where there exists less judgement of the correctness of a variety and more consideration of its functional range. One of the presentations was about the differences between New Zealand English (NZE) and Australian English (AE) where the Ecuadorian student paid special attention to the phonological differences, for example, how AE speakers tend to position their tongue higher and more forward than NZE speakers when producing the sound /i/, and how they lengthen the /e/ or /i/ sound in words, for example, AU=check (e:), NZE=cheeck /i:/, and elsewhere, for example, *lamb*, *milk*, *liver*, *wind* and *six*.

As could be seen, a position is simply the desired outcome a party is looking to achieve through the negotiation process; however, using indirect language in stating positions may not be effective when speaking to a low-context interlocutor. On the other hand, while a speaker should be aware of whom they are speaking with and in what setting, a logical presentation of ideas should be the top priority when conducting negotiations.

Another student prepared a presentation on the New Zealand variety of English called "New Zild", which is based on British English. As a result, there are quite a few differences compared to American English. The vocabulary he collected was mainly in connection with food and eating. Just to name a few, in NZ what is called brown bread is wheat bread in the US. Or you ask for a beef patty with (hot) chips in NZ, which would mean Salisbury steak with (French) fries in the US.

By learning the language of feelings, the students have not only developed their feelings and needs literacy, but they have also learnt words valuable for their development as English communicators.

Conclusion

The activities presented in this paper show how many more opportunities and ideas can be explored in English for diplomatic purposes, which may rely on well-known elements of linguistic dynamics and open the door to many creative pedagogical practices. Although diplomacy remains in many respects a profession that professionals acquire through experience and apprenticeship, it is still important to raise future professionals' awareness of the art and techniques of peaceful persuasion and relationship management.

References

Cunningham, J. (2009). *Compassionate communication: Empathy's awakening*. Booklet presented at the Nonviolent Communication in Education workshop, Seoul, South Korea.

Friedrich, P. (2007). *Language, negotiation and peace: The use of English in conflict resolution.* London, England: Continuum.

Gill, R., Leu, L., & Morin, J. (2009). *NVC toolkit for facilitators*. Lexington, KY: Freedom Project.

Galtung, J. (1964). A structural theory of aggression. *Journal of Peace Research 1*(2), 95–119.

Gomes de Matos, F. (2001). Applying the pedagogy of positiveness to diplomatic communication. In J. Kurbalija & H. Slavik (Eds.), *Language and diplomacy* (pp. 281–287). Msida, Malta: DiploProjects.

Kachru, B. (1992). *The other tongue: English across cultures*. Champaign, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Kachru, B., & Nelson, C. (2001). World Englishes. In A. Burns and C. Coffin (Eds.), *Analysing English in a global context* (pp. 9–25). London, England: Routledge.

Paige, G. (2009). *Nonkilling global political science.* Honolulu, HI: Center for Global Nonkilling.

Rosenberg, M. B. (2005). *Nonviolent communication: A language of life.* Encinitas, CA: PuddleDancer Press.

Internet resources

http://www.diplomatamagazin.hu/ftp/qd5xr1z_dnet12-15.pdf
http://www.phnompenhpost.com/post-plus/qa-ambassador-kim-won-jin-relationship-between-cambodia-and-south-korea
http://www.diplomatamagazin.hu/ftp/bcy49ar_16-18.pdf
http://www.huffpostmaghreb.com/2018/02/01/interview-beji-caid-esseb_n_19129560.html

Appropriate evaluation: A study on oral evaluation in EFL classes in Hungary and in Italy

Viola Kremzer

Introduction

When it comes to evaluation in the classroom, the focus is often on grades, percentages and symbolic awards, such as pluses (in Hungary and in Italy), red points and small fives (only in Hungary). These formulae have a central role because they represent a picture of how a student performs in class that can be easily registered in the school system. Although nowadays the school puts these formulae forward, they provide a report only about the product of the student, without taking into consideration the effort that the student has put into achieving a particular grade. Even though a student may not perform well in terms of grades, for example, it is still possible that they have made progress, which needs to be acknowledged. There are, however, other types of oral and written evaluation which can prove beneficial in class.

Literature Review

Models of evaluation formulae

In the following, the models of evaluation used in different areas will be outlined. In doing so, I will focus on positive and negative feedback, corrective feedback, award and punishment, and the "mindsets" introduced by Dweck (2007).

Research carried out by Emmer and Stough (2001) revealed that some teachers adopted "highly structured feedback approaches" to change and develop their classroom management (p. 107), and to motivate and encourage their students. Marzano, Marzano, and Pickering (2003) talk about "three behavioral strands" that can be given by the teacher: "response opportunities, feedback, and personal regard" (p. 48). The response opportunities strand stands for positive responses and helping students. The researchers separated "personal regards" as a substantive category which represents expressions of personal interest and proximity. Their third strand is feedback which includes affirmation of correct performance (Marzano, Marzano, & Pickering, 2003, p. 48).

Ur (1996) views feedback as assessment and correction.

> Feedback given to the learners has two main distinguishable components: assessment and correction. In assessment, the learner is simply informed of how well or badly he or she performed. In correction, some specific information is provided on aspects of the learner's performance: through explanation, or provision of better or other alternatives, or through elicitation of these from the learner. (p. 110)

Chaudron (1988) states that feedback "informs learners of the accuracy of both their formal target language production and their other classroom behaviour and knowledge" (p. 133). Chaudron also distinguishes positive and negative feedback. Positive feedback can be given in the form of praise, such as *Good job!, Very good!*; or the teacher can repeat the correct response and reinforce the learner's answer. Negative feedback does not support responses from students; this is why it should be avoided. Chaudron mentions another category, namely error correction, which has different types: "explicit, implicit, correcting, helping" and others, for example, modelling correct response, which usually assumes the learners' ability to recognise the difference between the sample and their errors. Although many teachers keep using modelling as a correctional help, it is not always appropriate because repetition is not a warrant that learners will understand their mistakes (Chaudron, 1988, pp. 133–149). However, it is debated "when errors should be corrected, what kind of errors should be corrected, how errors should be corrected and who should correct learner errors" (Zhang, Zhang, & Ma, 2010, p. 307).

When practising grammar, learners should always be corrected because the focus is on accuracy. However, there are cases in which correction might be disturbing, such as in the case of fluency-focused tasks. For instance, during the presentation of a topic or oral communication with peers, the student focuses on the oral performance, and other aspects are effaced. If the teacher interrupts the student's line of thought, it may negatively affect the learner's confidence, too. However, if the mistakes are not corrected, it may lead to fossilisation. Zhang et al., (2010) studied how teachers and students conceive of corrective feedback in the case of lexical, grammatical and phonological errors. They analysed the participants' attitudes towards oral error feedback. The results show that although most of the students said that all errors should be corrected, "most teachers hold that too much error correction may make them frustrated and even lose confidence …. The differences of their opinions indicate that students need more corrective feedback than teachers expected" (Zhang et al., 2010, p. 307). Students in this study also said that explicit is preferable to implicit correction. A further finding of the study is that teachers provide different feedback formulae: "to phonological errors, teachers like to use explicit correction and metalinguistic clues; to lexical errors, teachers like to use explicit correction; to grammatical errors, metalinguistic clues are preferred" (Zhang et al., 2010, p. 307).

Williams and Burden (1997) speak about two aspects of feedback: rewards and punishments.

> Systems of rewards (or awards) and punishment (or sanctions) are set up as classroom management schemes or even whole-school discipline policies, with the result that gold stars, house points, tokens and even sweets are granted as rewards for, and, explicitly, motivators towards 'good' behaviour and learning progress. Extra homework, detention, reprimands and even physical punishment are administered as sanctions for bad behaviours of poor progress in learning and, equally implicitly, as intended motivators towards positive change. (p. 134)

Dweck (2007, 2010, 2012) approaches the topic of evaluation from a different perspective. According to her, "as educators, almost everything we say to our students sends a message. Some messages enhance students' motivation, but other messages undermine it" (Dweck, 2010, p. 6). Dweck (2012) uses the concept of "mindsets" to refer to the different beliefs about the connected human nature.

> Mindsets (or implicit theories), as psychologists have studied them, are people's lay beliefs about the nature of human attributes, such as intelligence or personality. Some people hold a fixed mindset (or an entity theory) and believe that human attributes are simply fixed traits.… In contrast, other people hold a growth mindset (or an incremental theory). (p. 615)

According to Dweck (2007), often students "expect success because they're special, not because they've worked hard" (p. 1). Teachers need to praise their students to come to understand and appreciate the importance of the effort they invest in their work. "Effort is a positive thing: It ignites their intelligence and causes it to grow" (Dweck, 2007, p. 2).

Whether it is the three kinds of behavioural strands or the different feedback types, there is no doubt that oral evaluations influence student performance and motivation.

Suggested feedback model

Despite the fact that several models have been offered to cover the topic of evaluation, none of them seems to be complete, as they do not and cannot cover all the aspects. Therefore, a model is needed which integrates correction, assessment and personal comment, and builds on Dweck's (2007) theory of mindsets, Chaudron's (1988) aspect on explicit and implicit error corrections, and Ur's (1996) view of assessment.

Table 1. *Feedback model*

FEEDBACK		
Fixed Mindset		**Growth Mindset**
Explicit	**Correction**	Implicit
Product-oriented	**Assessment**	Process-oriented
Product-oriented	**Personal Comment**	Process-oriented

According to Chaudron (1988), correction can be either explicit or implicit. On the one hand, explicit correction is less likely to promote student development because the teacher supplies the learner with the correct use. In this way, the learner does not have the need and the opportunity for self-correction and analysis. On the other hand, implicit correction makes the learner think about the correct answer and lets them find it out alone.

Assessment is also divided into two types. Product-oriented assessment focuses on and assesses what the students did, while process-oriented assessment focuses on how the student achieved the performance. The two assessment types can be divided into two further categories because they can be either negative or positive. A product-oriented assessment can be positive, for example, *Well done!* or *Good job!*, or negative, for example, *You did not do well.* On the contrary, a process-oriented assessment evaluates the work put in, as *I see you used the new expressions we learnt and You thought the topic through and composed a well-structured essay;* or *You did not use the expressions we discussed and you did not concentrate on the task.*

By personal comment I mean the personal opinion given by the teacher, which is not the same as assessment. Its main role is to encourage and motivate the learner and show interest in their knowledge or personal development. Let us take the example of an essay on a specific topic. The personal comment can be product-oriented, such as *I see you are very good at this topic.* This personal comment focuses on and praises the student's product and not their effort. Process-oriented personal comments can have a different effect on students' motivation, for example: *You worked hard on this.* (Dweck, 2007, p. 3), *I liked the way you wrote about your ideas,* or *You did not work enough with it. Why did not you put more effort into it?* The focus here is more on the process of writing the essay and on the possible development not only in language knowledge but also attitude.

The suggested model thus contains all those aspects that I would like to study in the following research on oral evaluation. I provide real-life examples of all the six types of oral evaluation formulae of the suggested model.

The study

The focus and aim of the paper

The focus of the paper is the investigation of different evaluation formulae that teachers give in lessons and the alternative utterances that could be given. The aim is to categorise the different feedback types according to the above model on feedback and test if the given evaluations can be characterised in such a way.

The context of research

In order to elicit data about evaluation, I conducted four semi-structured interviews and carried out classroom observations. The first two interviews were conducted at a secondary school in Bergamo, Italy with two EFL teachers. This school has an academic strand preparing students for technical and scientific professions. I also carried out two interviews in Hungary with EFL teachers teaching at a high and a vocational school in Pécs, Hungary.

Research questions

I analyse the data according to the following research questions:

1. How does the teacher offer feedback to students? How do they evaluate their students?
2. How can the collected data be fitted into the categories of the suggested model?

Participants

Participant A and Participant B teach at a secondary school in Italy, having different departments. The school has different academic strands, but I visited only two of them: the technical and the scientific departments (School A, School B). Participant C teaches at a high school (School C) in Pécs, Hungary, and my other Hungarian participant (D) teaches at a vocational school (School D), also in Pécs. They are all female, middle-aged English teachers who have around 20-30 years of experience in English teaching. My interviewees teach one subject, which is English as a foreign language, except for Participant D who is a history teacher, too.

I observed three English lessons with three different groups at School A, where the students were studying electronics and electro-technology in the 2nd and 3rd grades. The sizes of the groups were 18 and 22, and the groups consisted of male students only. I saw two other classes at the scientific department with students who were 3rd graders. The sizes of the groups were slightly larger: 20 and 25, and these groups were coeducational.

In Hungary, I first observed three lessons at School C. I observed 9th (17 members) and 12th graders (eight members). Finally, I observed two lessons at School D which was a double lesson with only a five-minute break in between the lessons. The students I observed at School D were 10th graders specialising in electronics and informatics; this group had 16 members (15 boys and one girl).

Data collection instruments

I decided on qualitative data collection (Dörnyei, 2007, pp. 124–162) in my research. I conducted interviews and did classroom observations. I designed semi-structured interviews, which means that I originally had four interview questions, but whenever extra questions arose in connection with a given topic, I asked further questions (Dörnyei, 2007). During the interviews, questions were asked on the topic of evaluation.

When visiting the lessons, I observed not only the techniques that the teachers used but also their behaviour and the students' performance. I also made notes of the evaluation given by the teacher.

Procedures

I asked all four participants' permission to record the interviews and told the teachers that I would be the only person who would listen to the recordings to protect their personality rights.

I also contacted the Deputy Dead of School A who agreed to the participation of her two colleagues. I sent the teachers all the interview questions beforehand in order to allow them to familiarise themselves with the topic.

On 28th and 29th January 2015, I went to Italy to conduct two interviews and visit five classes. On the first day, I observed two classes which were taught by Participant A at the high-school department of the school. After the two lessons, we went to the coffee room where no one disturbed the interview. On the second day, I observed two classes in the morning. The interview was very different in this case because it was set up in one of Participant B's lessons. She did not have extra out-of-lesson time, so the interview was conducted while her students were present and were listening to us. This allowed her to communicate with the class in connection with the questions I asked. Thus, they were also part of the interview, and their teacher found it important for the students to hear English in a different context (i.e., interview), namely English for real purposes. All students paid attention to the interview until the bell rang. I observed one more lesson right after the interview.

I had already visited School C earlier, during my teaching practice, so I was able to speak with one of the English teachers (Participant C), who gladly agreed to participate in my research. I observed two of her classes on 25th March 2015 and another lesson on 1st April 2015. After agreeing to an appointment, I conducted the interview with Participant C on 1st May 2015 after her classes.

When searching for a vocational school, I was given the advice to contact School D. After several failed attempts to contact the secretary of the school, I called the Deputy Head at the end of September and made an appointment. In the first week of the school year, I met him and the head of the school's English department. We discussed the topic and the aim of my research, and agreed on two appointments with the English teacher to do the classroom observations and to conduct the interview. I observed two lessons at this vocational school on 16th September 2015, and we conducted the interview the next day (17th September 2015) between two of her lessons.

My classroom observation scheme consisted of three points: the teachers' feedback formulae, the situation in which it was given, and noting the learners' reaction to the feedback.

During the analysis, the most important ideas were selected and emerging patterns were searched for. The answers and main elements were grouped according to the focus points, and the interviews were compared to the classroom observations. There were cases in which the teacher's statement was different from the observed patterns.

Results and discussion

Error correction

Table 2. *Collected data in the Feedback model (Correction**)***

FEEDBACK		
Fixed Mindset		**Growth Mindset**
Explicit -Yes, de "wörkd"-nek ejted (but you pronounce it as *wɜːrkd*). -correction of grammatical mistakes, such as *speaking from*** → *speaking about* -correction of pronunciation in English	**Correction**	Implicit -I wouldn't say it so.

It is debated whether teachers should correct all the mistakes (Zhang et al., 2010), or only in special cases when grammatical correctness is in the focus. I observed different error corrections during the lessons. According to the Feedback model (see Table 2), teachers used explicit correction when perceiving a mistake, without taking into consideration the type of the mistake. This means that they corrected the pronunciation, the different grammatical mistakes, or the word use automatically without giving the students the opportunity to correct themselves. This kind of correction sets a limit to the students' improvement in self-correction and self-monitoring. They may not monitor themselves in the future but only wait for the correction by the teacher, without being interested in the possible language development with the help of the self-monitoring skill.

Except for one teacher (Participant A), everyone corrected the mistakes in the case of gap filling exercises and other tasks in connection with grammar or translation. As Zhang and Xie (2014) pointed out, "corrective feedback may help prevent fossilisation, and error correction is an effective way in doing this" (p. 253). Research indicates that the lack of correction may cause fossilisation after a period of time, which should be avoided in an EFL learning situation. Thus, corrective feedback needs to support language and performance development in a way that makes students learn how to monitor themselves.

On the contrary, I heard one correction at School C which I categorised as implicit correction, namely *I wouldn't say it so*. (see Table 2). As is indicated in the Feedback model, this is implicit correction (Chaudron, 1988), which relies on the students' knowledge and self-confidence, as it does not provide the correct form and is only an indication of a mistake that is to be corrected. This gives students the opportunity to find the correct form on their own and develop a growth mindset. In the interview, Participant D mentioned that she usually says *Be careful and correct the mistakes!,* which would also support the growth and development of the student. However, she used explicit error correction forms, such as *Yes, de "wörkd"-nek ejted (but you pronounce it as wɜːrkd*).* Besides, her correction was also wrong in terms of the pronunciation of the final sound.

Another technique was also observable during some of the lessons at Schools A and C, which was ignoring a mistake in language use when students were speaking because of the focus on fluency. Teachers concentrated on the content rather than on grammar when students were producing language orally about a given topic. For example, the students were talking about healthy lifestyle in 12th grade and the teacher asked one of the students to tell the class about his habits after a discussion in pair work: [...] *I think I eat healthy* because I eat a lot of vegetables and fruit*. The student continued talking and the task was fluency-focused, so correction was not present in this situation.

Assessment

Table 3. *Collected data in the Feedback model (Assessment)*

FEEDBACK				
Fixed Mindset			**Growth Mindset**	
Product-oriented (+)	Product-oriented (-)	**Assessment**	Process-oriented (+)	Process-oriented (-)
Good. Very good. Right. Yes. Well done. ,Jó, oké. (Right, OK.) Igen, nagyon jó. (Yes, very good.) Szép volt. (It was nice.) Brava/Bravo. (Well done.) Si, si. (yes, yes.).	-Nem, ez nem helyes. (No, it's not correct.) -Non ho capito. (I didn't understand it.), there is nothing like this in English.		-Helyes, mondjad. (Right, say it.) -Cosi, si. (Like this, yes.)	-No, that's not the right way.

Expressions of praise were heard during all the lessons, and most of the time they were in the target language, such as *Good!, Very good!, Right!*. This type of assessment is positive and assesses the students' product during the lesson, for example: a correct answer. There were also situations in which even these simple feedback formulae were given in the students' and teachers' first languages (Hungarian or Italian), like *Jó, oké (Right, OK.), Igen, nagyon jó (Yes, very good), Szép volt (It was nice), Helyes, mondjad (Right, say it), Brava/Bravo. (Well done), Cosi, si (Like this, yes)*. There were only two lessons during which I did not hear any English feedback, which was at School D.

During the observation, Participant D used negative feedback, too, which was not heard in other classrooms, for example, *Nem, ez nem helyes. (No, it's not correct).* When the teacher used this feedback type, the students knew that their utterance was not correct, but they did not know how to formulate or restructure their sentence to make it correct. This feedback did not facilitate language learning because it did not provide appropriate scaffolding.

There was a situation at School A (Participant A's lesson) where immediate insecurity could be seen on the student because of the given feedback. He answered a question in connection with the Prologue (The Canterbury Tales), and the teacher's reaction was *Non ho capito (I didn't understand it), there is nothing like this in English*, which did not help the student. This feedback was only denial, a negative comment not supporting a growth mindset. The feedback made the student hesitate about the correction but, in the end, the answer was neither corrected nor finished. After this occasion, the student went passive and did not take part in the lesson. This reaction given by the student shows how feedback, especially negative feedback, influences students' performance. However, Participant A said during the interview:

> "I tend to avoid very negative feedback. Of course, there are days when there are some mistakes that are so impressive, I mean that you can't do without getting terrified by mistakes like this. But generally speaking I tend to limit this kind of reaction and I tend to say *Yes, be careful!, Are you sure?, Read it again*! or something like this."

Although there are mistakes which are "impressive", teachers need to find a way to give appropriate feedback. According to Denton (2009), "when our words and tone convey faith in children's desire and ability to do well, the children are more likely to live up to our expectations" (p. 2).

Feedback and any kind of comment should serve development, helping learners' performance or improving their knowledge. Participant C and D told me that students can also assess each other's work and give feedback on performance because it would help both parties in learning how to conduct evaluation.

Assessment usually cannot take long because of the limited time, but when the students' task is more complex and not just a short-answer exercise, the teacher needs to put emphasis on the whole process and not only on the product.

Personal comment

Table 4. *Collected data in the Feedback model*

FEEDBACK		
Fixed Mindset		**Growth Mindset**
Product-oriented	Personal Comment	Process-oriented -Hands up those who could communicate clearly [in English with a native speaker]! Wow, good, very good. Is it a good feeling? -Ne zárd le! (Don't end it yet.) I like how you think! (Student had a good idea and said just half a sentence.)

According to my experience, personal comments are not given to evaluate performance, but to provide something extra about the students' performance, attitude, or even to boost their self-esteem. They can be given when a student says something important and personal, and the teacher would like to become a partner and show interest in the topic. Three of the participants told me that these comments were important and may have helped students' performance, except for Participant B. As Participant C claimed, "there are students that tend to underestimate themselves and then you have to correct their self-estimation or their self-evaluation". As Denton (2009) puts it: "When children believe in themselves, they are more likely to work hard at learning and enjoy the process. Our language plays a central role in helping children develop this critical self-confidence" (p. 2). Participant B told me that she did not give personal comments and tried to avoid them. They discuss these issues in teacher meetings and do not intermingle them with in-class assessment. On the contrary, Participant A stated that she tends to give personal comments because "it's important for them to understand what the weak points, what the strong points are in their performances".

Although the original table (see Table 2) would include four columns, involving positive and negative comment from both fixed and growth mindset understandings, I observed only positive growth mindset personal comments, which were observed at School C. All the other teachers avoided personal comments during the lessons. Participant C asked back (*… Is it a good feeling?*) with sympathy and showing interest or encouraged the learner by revealing her thoughts in connection with the student's idea (*… I like how you think!*).

Conclusion

Giving appropriate and well-aimed feedback on the performance or on the improvement of a student is not always easy. It is often presumed that appropriate feedback is positive and encouraging, which is true, but it also matters whether students are given the opportunity to improve their critical thinking and language knowledge. The teacher may choose to let the students remain on their own level, hoping for their development by correcting them and assessing the product they present, not the process they went through.

The study offers a model of different feedback types which was generated from previous models of assessment and correction, adding an extra category (personal comment).

Considering the limitations of the research, I cannot generalise on the basis of the collected data because of the size of the sample. Besides, taking notes of the students' reaction to the given feedback was the most difficult part of the observation, and students most of the time did not show their real feelings, which set a limit to the possible findings. Conducting further interviews with the participants about their in-class performance and their answers in the interviews would reveal possible explanations for the arising contradictions.

Further research in connection with the topic of feedback affecting students' motivation is already in progress to study the possible effects of appropriate feedback on students' courage, attitude and self-monitoring.

References

Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classroom. Research on teaching and learning.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Denton, P. (2009). The power of teacher language. *Responsive Classroom*. Retrieved from https://www.responsiveclassroom.org/article/power-teacher-language

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Dweck, C. (2007). Perils and promises of praise. *ASCD Educational Leadership 65*(2)*,* 1–6.

Dweck, C. (2010). Boosting achievement with messages that motivate. *Canadian Education Association 47*(2), 6–10.

Dweck, C. (2012). Mindset and human nature: Promoting change in the middle east, the schoolyard, the racial divide, and willpower. *American Psychologist 670*(8), 614–622.

Emmer, E. T., & Stough L. M. (2001). Classroom management: A critical part of educational psychology, with implications for teacher education. *Educational Psychologist 36*(2), 103–112.

Marzano, R. J., Marzano, J. S., & Pickering D. J. (2003). *Classroom management that works. Research-based strategies for every teacher.* Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching: Practice & theory*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: A social constructivist approach*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Zhang, H., & Xie, Y. (2014). Interlanguage fossilization in Chinese EFL writing. An empirical research of 20 English major students. *Sino-US English Teaching, 11*(4), 249–258.

Zhang, Y., Zhang, L., & Ma, L. (2010). A brief analysis of corrective feedback in oral interaction. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 1*(3), 306–308.

Which English(es) to teach?

Joanna Szőke

According to some estimates, there are between 330–360 million native speakers of English and an estimated 1 billion non-native speakers (Crystal, 2006). By today, English has become the international means of communication among speakers of different first languages, which makes English a *lingua franca.* Thus, we can speak of English as a lingua franca (ELF). Although it may seem that it is just another variety of English, such as Australian English, South African English, Chinglish (Chinese English), Singlish (Singaporean English), or Hinglish (Hindi English), ELF is not "a language 'variety' (or even several 'varieties') in the traditional sense of the term" (Jenkins, 2012, p. 490). ELF is the result of having almost four times as many non-native speakers of a language as native speakers. According to Widdowson (1994), these numbers question the ownership of the language, and if the native speaker is not the sole owner of the language any more, then native speaker norms and rules are not decisive any longer. The more speakers use a language for communication from Venezuela through Hungary to South Korea, the more it becomes susceptible to changes at all linguistic levels, including pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. These changes, which are the result of non-native speakers with different linguistic backgrounds and at different levels of English trying to convey their message the most efficiently, make ELF additionally acquired for native speakers and non-native speakers alike (Jenkins, 2012), meaning that nobody can really claim ownership of it (Widdowson, 1994).

Indeed, this 'orphan' status of ELF attracts its harshest critiques, who believe that English as a Native Language (ENL) will be eventually devoured by linguistic chaos, lacking all kinds of rules, and will cause mutual unintelligibility between native and non-native speakers alike. However, Widdowson, Jenkins and everyday experience all show that since the main goal of ELF is successful and efficient communication between speakers of different first languages, it is in their interest to have a common standard they can rely on, otherwise their communicative aim will remain unfulfilled. Nonetheless, some ENL rules have already seen and will see changes in the way ELF users utilise them in their communication.

I conducted a small-scale study in the summer of 2017, asking teacher colleagues a number of questions about their attitudes towards changes they notice in the kind of English they see and hear around them, and whether they think the phonological, lexical and grammatical changes show a negative trend, or they think it is an inevitable process every language, especially English with so many native and non-native speakers, is bound to go through in its life cycle. After having received a small number of replies (N = 35) from both native and non-native English teachers, I analysed the results of this non-representative survey and presented them in a workshop at the IATEFL Hungary Conference in November 2017.

One of the aims of the study was to learn more about how language change and language variety (including the question of standard and non-standard language in the classroom) are conceived by ELT teachers. Therefore, the workshop also featured a section where teachers were able express their opinions in connection with the following five statements regarding this topic:

1. *I don't think grammatical correctness is important as long as the right message is conveyed by students.*
2. *I always tell my students to try to speak with one kind of accent, and not to mix them.*
3. *I often bring slang and non-standard forms into the classroom because it's also a natural part of the language.*
4. *I discourage my students from using slang and non-standard forms (grammar, vocabulary) because they should aspire to the standard.*
5. *I can get quite sad when I witness how language changes for the worse.*

The statements left the participants a little divided with respect to how they view the major goals of the EFL classroom. Several teachers raised the question about how much the successful conveyance of the message can change the standards language teachers present and students aim to achieve. This worry is also discussed in Jenkins (2012), where she says that most teacher training and methodology courses classify utterances which differ from the native standard as erroneous: They are interlanguage errors if "learning is still in progress, and 'fossilized' errors if it has ended" (Jenkins, 2012, p. 488). It can, for example, be frequently noticed in communication among non-native speakers that they simplify the tense structure of English, mix the types of conditionals, change the pronunciation of /θ/ and /ð/, or standardise the irregular plurals of nouns or the past forms of irregular verbs (based on my survey results).

These changes of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation can be viewed as errors; however, Seidlhofer (2011) and Jenkins (2012) remind us that these are signs of the creative use of English rather than deficient versions of native English. In other words, if we can realise and accept that language learners might have different contexts where they will use English with different needs and different priorities, commonly used ELF forms, such as the ones mentioned above, will be acceptable in an ELF environment (a list of other possible ELF forms and present changes in the language suggested by the survey participants can be seen in Table 1). As Jenkins (2009) puts it, there should be a distinction between "English learnt for international communication (ELF) and English learnt specifically for communication with English native speakers (EFL)" (pp. 202–203).

Table 1. *Changes in the language suggested by the survey participants*

Present	Future
Americanisms changing and mixing up with British English	Sounds /θ/, /ð/, and the dark l /ɬ/ unnecessary
Less vs. fewer - *less* is winning	Tense simplification; Irregular past forms will turn into regular -ed forms
Use of *be like* instead of *say* or *tell* in reported speech	Disappearance of 3rd person -s
Decreased use of question tags	The disappearance of definite and indefinite articles
(e.g., changing 'th' to 'f' or 'd')	Double negative will become acceptable
Use of stative verbs in continuous form (e.g., "*I'm loving your shirt!*")	Uncountable nouns will start to have regular plural forms
Many new slang expressions and other words coined every year (e.g., *selfie, to ship people, fake news*)	Conditionals will be based entirely on context
New verb forms are accepted (*teached vs. taught*)	Disappearance of reported speech
	Fewer idioms and phrasal verbs will be used

This attitude, that is, allowing students and teachers to focus on different needs, is still not the standard in the language teaching classroom due to several reasons. Jenkins (2009) reports that most of her survey participants (non-native speakers of English) would like to aspire to a certain native speaker model, and they express "extremely pejorative comments about the accents they perceived as furthest from native English accents" (p. 204). Some of the participants of my survey also expressed their sceptical opinion in connection with ELF, which suggests a deeper belief about the native speaker standards in the English classroom:

- *"I don't believe this is the English we should be teaching in the classroom."*
- *"A shame it's happened to a language integral to colonialism."*
- *"I do not think we should teach a lingua franca."*
- *"I think the language changes continuously and definitely not for the better."*

Despite these negative opinions, the majority of the participants acknowledged that language change is a natural process which brings about inevitable changes in all layers of language. The fact that English is the main means of communication among speakers of different native tongues only enhances and accelerates this process. Another important thing to mention in connection with the above comments is that ELF is not a language variety. As Jenkins (2012) puts it, ELF "does not fit into

existing frameworks and it makes sense to approach it from the notion of ‘communities of practice’” (p. 491). This actually means that we cannot simply say that the features above will characterise ELF as it is not one variety which we can carve out from the ENL spectrum. Instead, we might observe these changes to vary across the ELF speaking community depending on different L1 backgrounds and also to dynamically fluctuate even in one ELF speaker’s language depending on whether they acquire any new phrases, monitor their language, or whether they are under pressure at the moment of speaking.

What we can do in practice is recognise the existence of the two different purposes of students learning English and train them to meet those goals. With respect to an ELF speaker, who uses or would use their language skills in an international environment where getting the message across is a crucial requirement, teachers should analyse which skills and which language elements are necessary for that situation and which are less so, and if these speakers make mistakes in the less important or relevant areas, they should not be penalised as much as if they underperform in their crucial areas.

An ELF needs analysis and course planning activity was done in the workshop as well, where participants had to examine the situation of four students with different working backgrounds and different needs, and they had to determine which areas of language are more and less important for the students to deal with. The results of this activity can be seen in Table 2 below.

As it has been mentioned previously, the other aim of my small-scale survey was to see teachers’ attitudes towards the abstract notion of teaching the standard, in terms of using course books which present a different standard from that of the teacher; introducing non-standard forms of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation; and, finally, altering their own accent or dialect in order to make it easier for lower-level students to understand them.

First and foremost, it is imperative to discuss what is meant by “the standard.” The standard is an abstract term which defines a language variety that is treated as something to be taught in schools, to be used in the media, and to be followed by the educated public. However, it is arbitrarily determined by a chosen group of linguists and those in authority who at one point in time decide that a collection of certain features in spoken and written language will constitute the standard (Widdowson, 1994). The features which do not meet the selection criteria will be deemed non-standard language forms, thus uneducated and unintelligent, even though they might have been around for the same amount of time as the other features, and they may be as mutually intelligible as the other ones.

However, also due to the effects of globalisation and to the widespread use of the Internet, nowadays many people have the chance to express their views, no matter whether they speak or write the standard variety or not. This tendency makes it difficult to maintain one standard all over the online realm. Consequently, our students, who use the Internet on a daily basis either in the form of receiving or of

creating content, will be bombarded with a myriad of forms from standard to non-standard, and from prestigious accents and dialects to regional and less prestigious ones. This, therefore, should also be addressed somehow in the classroom in order to bring "real-world English" and "school English" closer to each other instead of widening the gap between them (Ranta, 2010).

Table 2. *Results of the needs analysis and course planning activity from the workshop*

Student	More important	Less important
RICARDO - *High-flying Italian businessman conducting business with North Americans via Skype conference calls. He sometimes flies over to meet them in person as well. Level B2+.*	understanding phone calls, functional language (phone calls and travel), understanding the North American accent, clear pronunciation	acquiring any native accent, complex grammar, essay writing skills, vocabulary not related to business and networking
YUAN - *Chinese international student studying in England for the duration of his master's degree. He's not interested in cultural things. Level B2.*	essay writing skills, paraphrasing, summarising, advanced reading, speaking (presentations and discussions), British phrases and idioms, understanding the British accent	producing the British accent, producing British colloquialisms or idioms
PETRA - *Polish senior waitress living in Glasgow, working in a hipster gourmet burger bar. Level A2.*	understanding the Scottish accent, food vocabulary, understanding regional dialects, functional language, small talk	producing the Scottish accent, British RP, complex grammar, writing and reading skills
ERIKA - *Hungarian elderly lady working at a rail cargo company doing business with Germans and French in English; her first foreign language is German. Level A2.*	understanding the French accent, email writing and telephoning functional language, specialist vocabulary	acquiring any native accent, native English idioms or phrasal verbs, complex grammar

With regards to this topic, I asked my participants whether they change their accents when they teach, if they call their students' attention to different pronunciation patterns in English, whether they use non-standard grammar or vocabulary in informal settings in the lesson, and if they draw their students' attention to non-standard grammar or vocabulary.

As far as using a different accent is concerned, it is interesting to observe that around half of the teachers in the workshop said that they change their accent. Their reasons overwhelmingly included adaptation in order to ease understanding for their students and to avoid confusion between words (changing their "non-standard vowel sounds," "being careful with the glottal stop" or "changing the speed or connected speech to be understood"). One person mentioned being specifically asked by their employer in China to speak with a more "typical" accent, in this case with Received Pronunciation (RP) (N.B. RP is not a typical accent as it is only spoken by about 3% of speakers in England).

Even if half of the workshop participants said that they do not modify their accent to be more understandable, they do draw their students' attention to different pronunciation patterns of different English varieties. Almost 90% of the teachers think that it is not just beneficial but necessary as well to introduce different accents to students because they should "realise that there is not one 'right' and 'wrong' way to pronounce English words" or because "students get exposed to different accents outside their learning environment" and "do not have the strategies to deal with" these accents. Therefore, it seems that the majority of teachers are aware of the pedagogic and real-life importance of not only showing how English can be pronounced in different ways but also how important teaching strategies to cope with different accents is. Nevertheless, most of the teachers stop at British and American differences and do not introduce any other native or non-native accents.

In terms of non-standard grammar and vocabulary use, 66% of the teachers said that they definitely use such forms among their friends, and 17% said that they may use such forms among their friends, while 86% of all participants catch themselves using non-standard forms in the classroom. Within the latter group, around half say their non-standard use is accidental; the other half reports it as intentional. Their reasons for including non-standard forms intentionally include raising awareness about "real English" and "colloquial speech patterns," something that "students may encounter" in the world outside the classroom. They also mention introducing these patterns at higher levels to prepare their students for more authentic exposure. The remaining group focuses on these forms only if they somehow come up in the lesson or in a reading or listening material.

To summarise, we can see that teachers are aware of the difference between the English which appears and is taught in course books and the English that is spoken outside of the classroom, which students encounter either in actual conversation or in songs, movies, series, and on websites. Most teachers are not only aware of these differences, but they also see the importance of introducing them in the classroom in order to equip their students with applicable, real-life skills which will make them successful communicators. That being said, at the moment these teachers mainly focus on demonstrating native accents only.

Finally, the workshop ended with a couple of questions which were planned to start a discussion among the workshop participants about their teaching preferences in the future regarding a more needs-based and ELF-centred approach, their attitudes towards language change, and towards introducing non-standard forms in the

classroom. They were mostly positive about introducing more “real-world” English into the classroom and also expressed the opinion that for those students who will most likely communicate with non-native speakers, especially in a business environment, getting the message across is more important than either acquiring a native-like accent or mastering grammar rules, idioms and phrasal verbs.

Thus, we can conclude that in the near future of English language teaching we as teachers should consider acknowledging the fact that there are two main reasons why our students learn English: an international purpose (ELF) where the successful understanding and conveying of the message is more important than the correctness of the delivery and a purpose where native-like competence is aimed at (EFL). The way we select our materials, the accents we showcase, the language forms we focus on, be it standard or non-standard, should consequently reflect these needs. Moreover, we should also equip all our students with the necessary communication skills (e.g., accommodation, circumlocution, paraphrasing) and efficient listening strategies, which help them deal with situations they might encounter outside the classroom with native and non-native speakers alike.

References

Crystal, D. (2006). English worldwide. In D. Denison & R. M. Hogg (Eds.), *A history of the English language* (pp. 420–439). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Jenkins, J. (2009). English as a lingua franca: Interpretations and attitudes. *World Englishes, 28*(2), 200–207.

Jenkins, J. (2012). English as a Lingua Franca from the classroom to the classroom. *ELT Journal, 66*(4), 486–494.

Ranta, E. (2010). English in the real world vs. English at school: Finnish English teachers and students. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 20*(2), 156–177.

Seidlhofer, B. (2011). *Understanding English as a lingua franca*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H. G. (1994). The ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly*, *28*(2), 377–389.

University students and the Native English-Speaker Teacher

László Németh

Introduction

The English language has become the lingua franca of the world, yet the predominance of the language brings along several issues concerning the way we teach and learn it. As a consequence, concepts such as ‘native-speakerism’ have arisen in the field of researching English and English Language Teaching (ELT). Native-speakerism plays a divisive role in teaching English in certain educational cultures and contexts. The pervasive nature of the native English-speaker teacher (NEST) as an English-teaching ideal is still present all over the world. This has brought up an amplitude of problems in connection with equality and political correctness within the ELT community, and those involved are still reluctant to commit to whether linguistic competence or received teacher training should be of greater importance for teaching and learning foreign languages. Note that, according to Richardson (2016), more than 80% of English teachers are non-native speakers today. One could wonder why there is such a powerful bias towards native speakers after all. Cook (1997) also claims that second-language learners tend to set out on a quest hoping to obtain a level of linguistic competence in their respective target language at which their ‘non-nativeness’ is less easily detected (pp. 35–50). Braine (2010) and Selvi (2014) report that native-speakerism exerts a profound effect on both language learning and teaching.

The notion of the native speaker fallacy goes hand in hand with native-speakerism. It revolves around the misbelief that the best or ideal English teacher is a native speaker (Phillipson, 1992; Richardson, 2016). This situation has led to non-natives being labelled as ineffective speakers who lack communicative competence. This is reflected in the dynamics of the labour-market forces where employers are still more likely to hire (often unqualified) native speakers than qualified non-native English-speaker teachers (NNESTs).

Pertaining to the native/non-native dichotomy, Medgyes (1992) describes how natives and non-natives may differ from each other. One could assume that a native speaker of English is the most appropriate example of proficient English competence, and that their presence in the classroom ought to maximise the chances of learners becoming proficient language users themselves, often with a native-like command of the English language. However, this is wishful thinking. The emphasis should be placed on natives’ foreign language knowledge and, consequently, the more proficient they are in another language (e.g., the learners’ mother tongue), the more efficient they become in the classroom (Medgyes, 1992).

On the other hand, non-native speakers might possess certain skills and abilities that native speakers usually lack – just imagine a situation where a NEST is unable to communicate in any language other than their native tongue in a classroom full of Hungarian monolingual learners. Furthermore, NNESTs are able to reflect on the target language from a different perspective and are also familiar with possible language difficulties. Thus, they may put the learners' native language into a context, which eventually yields better learning outcomes. Based on the aforementioned ideas, we can conclude that both native and non-native speakers of English have equal chances of becoming efficient teachers, but they have to find different ways to succeed. In addition, they can be regarded as equal in terms of using/abusing the language in question (Medgyes, 1992).

Graddol (2006) argues that the concept and identity of the native speaker was conceptualised by the succession of linguistic modernity. In the wake of linguistic post-modernism, profound changes occurred in the structure of ELT. Before the notions of Global English and English as a lingua franca (ELF) were introduced, native speakers had appeared crucial to language learning. This "gold standard" of language teaching is now becoming a hindrance to the spread of English as a global language (Graddol, 2006, pp. 82–85). Drawing on Richardson's (2016) argument, the recent era of language teaching could be understood as the period of the Multilingual Turn since, in a globalised world, multilingualism is bound to become the norm.

Bearing in mind the above facts, the present paper aims to provide a contemporary perspective on the native/non-native debate. Based on preliminary observations, the following assumptions were made: (1) language learners prefer NESTs to NNESTs; (2) students are likely to base the distinction on the teacher's linguistic competence; thus, teacher training is of secondary importance; and (3) students, when hearing an accent that approximates native levels, rely on intuition to a greater extent to make a final decision on the 'nativeness' of the speaker.

Research instruments

The research is comprised of the results of three individual studies: (1) a student questionnaire on how university students perceive NESTs; (2) focus-group sessions on native-speakerism; and (3) one-on-one interviews with NESTs and NNESTs. The structure and development of the questionnaire was influenced by Benke and Medgyes's (2005) study on the 'student factor'. Their meticulous scientific work not only functioned as an inspiration but also as a source-study for the survey. With regard to the findings of the student questionnaires, an interactive multi-item sheet was compiled and disseminated among the members of selected focus groups in order to seek information that would support or contradict the results of the student questionnaire. In order to complement, reflect on, or even to challenge the ideas brought up by the students, semi-structured interviews were conducted with local instructors (except for one participant with only a loose affiliation with the university where the research was conducted). A wide range of instruments was utilised in order to gain substantial research data.

Prior to being handed out, the research tools had been revised multiple times regarding their language use, objectivity and verbal protocol. Some of the constructive remarks on evaluation and presenting data were also integrated as long as they truly benefitted the work. The successive interviews were managed with care, arranged on separate occasions. In order to balance things out, four interviews were made with natives and with non-natives, respectively.

(For the original questionnaire, focus-group outline and semi-structured interviews, see Appendices A-D.)

University students' perception of NESTs

A total number of 70 students participated in the survey. They were required to give individual responses to questions concerning their previous experiences with NESTs. Prior to choosing the sample group, two simple prerequisites were drawn: (1) the respondent must have had at least one course with a NEST during their studies, and (2) the participant had to be affiliated with the university where the research was conducted, either having completed a degree in English (indirect ELT-context, e.g., Business and Administration in English), and/or learning/having learnt the language itself (direct ELT-context, e.g., English Studies).

Table 1 summarises the most relevant participant characteristics. As shown by the table, the majority of the respondents were 21/22-year-old adults. The survey, however, is not representative when it comes to the male-female gender ratio since the figures indicate a great difference. Thus, it would be impossible to draw any kind of conclusion with regard to the gender-bound peculiarities of students' perceptions within the confines of this paper. Note that the questionnaire was meant to be transparent with all age-groups and educational levels, should there be a requirement to expand the radius of the research at a later stage.

On the one hand, 55.7% of the participants encountered a NEST for the first time at least 5 years prior to completing the questionnaire. On the other hand, many of them (71.4%) claimed that they had very recent learning experiences with a native teacher (0-3 years). These students might easily be the best sources of research data as their recent encounters with native English teachers enabled them to reflect on the latest trends and perceptions of native teachers. Two students (2.8%) did not specify the number of natives that had taught them before the survey.

Table 1. *Student participant characteristics*

Question	Categories	Frequency (in numbers)	Frequency (%)	Total number (%)
What is your age?	25 or over	15	21.4	**70 (100)**
	23-24 years	12	17.1	
	21-22 years	**28**	**40**	
	19-20 years	13	18.6	
	18 or under	2	2.9	
What is your sex?	I am male.	21	30	
	I am female.	**49**	**70**	
Institution of studies:	**University**	**70**	**100**	
	College	0	0	
	Language school	0	0	
	Bilingual secondary school	0	0	
	Secondary school	0	0	
When did you first encounter a native English-speaker teacher?	10 years or more	7	10	
	8-9 years ago	6	8.6	
	6-7 years ago	14	20	
	4-5 years ago	12	17.1	
	2-3 years ago	**18**	**25.7**	
	1 year or less	9	12.9	
	Not defined	4	5.7	
How many native English teachers have you already had?	5 or more native teachers	18	25.7	
	3-4 natives	23	32.9	
	1-2 natives	**27**	**38.6**	
	Not defined	2	2.8	
How long have you been taught by native English teachers?	More than 5 years	14	20	
	4-5 years	6	8.6	
	2-3 years	24	34.3	
	1 year or less	**26**	**37.1**	

Results and discussion

It turned out that students praised native teachers for their adaptability to different educational settings and for the variety of teaching methods applied during class. Generally, their lessons were considered interactive, even though a great number of respondents (42.9%) noted that their NEST would speak most of the time during class. Being interested in students' opinion was important to the participants (48.6%), because having an open mind to teaching is an inevitable virtue of highly-skilled teaching professionals regardless of their (non-)nativeness.

The open-ended items sought to explore students' perceptions of NESTs and the pros and cons they attributed to them in the context of ELT. The first question received mixed responses as 33 participants (47.2%) claimed that their impression of their native teachers had been solely positive from the beginning. On the other hand, 26 student respondents (37.1%) stated that they had rather negative feelings towards native teachers. Only four responses (5.7%) expressed both positive and negative emotions. Seven (10%) statements did not contain useful information and, therefore, these answers have been excluded from the table.

The main ideas of the first open-ended question are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2. *Students' impressions of NESTs upon first encounters*

What was your first impression / reaction when you found out you had been assigned to a native English-speaker teacher?		
POSITIVE		**NEGATIVE**
amazed, cool, curious, delighted, excited, glad, great opportunity, happy, interesting, kind, looked forward, perfect, positively surprised, very positive	anxious but happy, happy and also nervous, indifferent, scared but excited, strange and new	afraid, anxious, difficult to understand, nervous, rigorous, scared, shocked, strict and demanding, tension, terrified, total mess, uneasy, unusual, worried
Overall statistics in numbers (%)		
33 (47.2)	**4 (5.7)**	**26 (37.1)**

Students generally preferred NESTs, which could be explained by a predisposition (a favourable view of natives), yet the 'anxiety factor' should not be ignored either. Anxiety may play a crucial role in contributing to students' negative impressions when first encountering an unknown (native) teacher. In addition, language anxiety can serve as an explanation for language failures and insufficient language-learning outcomes in the target language (Horwitz, 2001).

The second open-ended item revolved around the possible advantages and disadvantages of having NESTs as teachers. Many of the respondents (42.9%) stated that a native English-speaker had just as many upsides as downsides. Nevertheless, a significant number of answers (32.9%) indicated that being taught by a native teacher only had benefits. Conversely, in nine cases (12.9%), the received responses projected a negative view of the native teacher. Eight students (11.4%) gave no relevant information to this question.

Students generally favoured NESTs due to their "real" English knowledge. By saying this, they meant that these teachers spoke a variety of the language that reflected native-level skills. Thus, they provided an imitable source of input for students (see Participant 1, p. 13.). However, with reference to Selinker's (1972) research, only 5% of adult language learners are able to utilise native-like competence in their chosen second language. This may lead to misconceptions during the language-learning process. Students who advocated the idea of "realness" in the classroom touched upon the "Nativisation Model" echoed by Andersen (1988).

As for the drawbacks mentioned by the students, they argued that native teachers were not or were hardly able to highlight grammatical links between the two languages (i.e., English and Hungarian) and to elaborate on certain linguistic phenomena and/or language errors. Moreover, participants also reported having difficulties understanding their native teachers in the beginning. It took them a longer time and effort to get used to the yet unheard accent. Benke and Medgyes (2005) claimed that less advanced users/learners of the English language considered native teachers' accents "difficult to understand" (p. 207). Thus, these NESTs failed to maximise their 'nativeness' due to the unfamiliarity with the students' mother tongue (Medgyes, 1992).

The third question invited the participants to take their stance in the native/non-native debate. They were also expected to give a reasonable explanation for their choice. Students generally favoured NESTs (51%) due to their linguistic competence, pronunciation skills and real-life, up-to-date language knowledge. Moreover, learning with native speakers was considered "fun" many times. Only 12% of the respondents (8 people) vouched for NNESTs only. In cases where native speakers were not the main focus (27%), the idea of being taught simultaneously by a native as well as a non-native instructor was mentioned. Several participants claimed that each group had a different edge over the other:

- NESTs: a great input for authentic pronunciation and real-life use of English, however;
- NNESTs: are of key-importance regarding grammatical structures and spotting the links between the students' mother tongue (Hungarian) and the target language (English).

Seven of the participants (10%) failed to provide a clear-cut preference, and the data gained from them were not integrated when the results were tabulated.

Figure 1 presents the students' reasons for preferring native speakers.

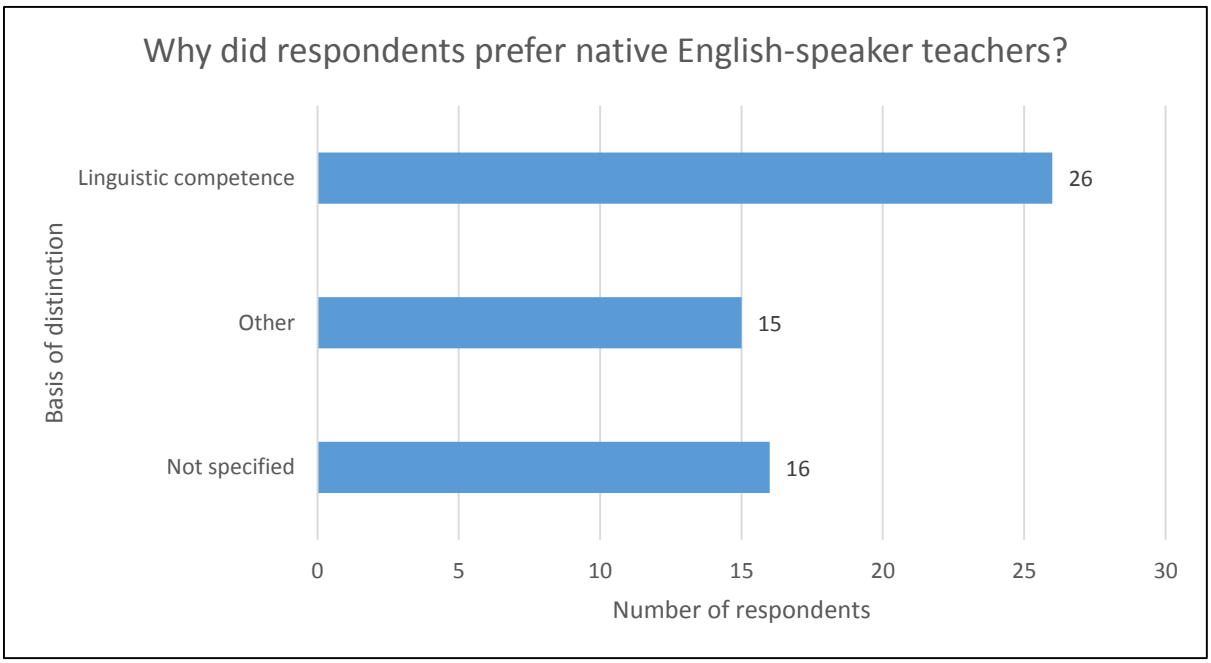

Figure 1. Bases of preference for NESTs

Twenty-six respondents (46%) stated that they favoured NESTs due to their linguistic competence (i.e., intonation and pronunciation, real-life English, mental lexicon, etc.). Most of them also mentioned that these teachers were imitable models for language learners. Fifteen participants (26%) provided other reasons for their preference (e.g., methodology, the feeling of an exciting and new class environment, etc.). Sixteen people (28%) did not specify why they preferred them.

Breaking down the results of the student questionnaires, we can conclude the following:

- Fifty-seven out of 70 participants (81.4%) welcomed the idea of being taught by NESTs – 36 people (51.4%) with a solid pro-native attitude.

- Twenty-six out of the 57 pro-native respondents (46%) claimed that they preferred their native teacher due to their linguistic competence as opposed to the categories of "Other" (26%) and "Not specified" (28%). Received training was not included among the top three most important features.

Guess the speaker: Native or non-native?

This section unveils how students relied on their listening skills and intuition in order to guess whether the teachers they could hear in the voice clips were native or non-native speakers of English.

A total number of 53 students participated in the focus-group discussions. The participant characteristics have been summarised in Table 3.

Table 3. *Focus-group students' characteristics*

		Focus group 1	Focus group 2	Focus group 3
Number of participants:		14	39	
Gender of participants:	Male Female	7 7	14 24	
Age of the participants:		18-22		
Academic year of study:		2nd-year	1st-year	
Have you ever had a native-speaker teacher?	Yes No	14 0	17 22	

The following factors were considered important when choosing the focus-group members: (1) the student had to be affiliated with the university where the research was conducted; and (2) 1st-year students were considered to be important sources of information. First-year students were crucial to the discussion as a fairly large number of them had not had a native speaker teacher before, so they were expected to rely on intuition and their preconceptions about the NEST. It was assumed that their responses would balance out the beam scale of those who had already been taught by a native teacher. In sum, 1st-year students who lacked previous encounters with natives shed a different light on the study and on the issue.

Note that Focus group 1 was designed to set the tone for the investigation, whereas Focus groups 2 and 3 drew upon the outcomes of the first group discussion.

Results and discussion

Despite the fact that many issues were discussed during the focus-group sessions as regards the present paper, the voice-clip test seemed to be the most relevant. This section elaborates on how students supported their arguments when they were asked to decide on the (non-)nativeness of the speakers in the 7–12-second recordings.

The students were carefully instructed in order to successfully complete the chart, but the speaker profiles presented below (Table 4) were unknown to them.

Table 4. *Voice-clip speaker data*

	Voice clip 1	Voice clip 2	Voice clip 3	Voice clip 4	Voice clip 5
Gender	Male	Female	Female	Male	Female
Place of origin	Hungary	Hungary	Macedonia	Hungary	Argentina
Speaker status	Non-native speaker of English				

It is generally true that students had little or no difficulty in recognising which group the first two speakers belonged to. This could be attributed to the fact that these speakers were of the same nationality as the students. According to Nádasdy (2006), learners and speakers of any foreign language naturally transfer their own habits (i.e., how they pronounce respective sounds in their mother tongue) onto the target language. In our case, detecting similar segmental and suprasegmental features was the major approach to speech recognition.

The speaker featured in Voice clip 3 might have caused some interference in the students' minds (55% to 45%) compared to the preceding voice clips. The speakers of Voice clips 4 and 5 deceived most of the students since the majority of them (81% in both cases) claimed that these people were native speakers of English.

The key determinants were all strongly linked to students' intuition underpinned by perceived linguistic competence. One could claim that intuitive decisions are the outcome of arbitrary guess-making; however, there is much more to it than common sense. It also utilises certain sensors to process external information. However, there is no clear dividing line between the significance of rational reasoning and intuitive decision-making since individuals combine these two things to reflect on certain phenomena. It is also worth mentioning that if someone relies heavily on intuition, they are very likely to develop prejudice (Matzler, Bailom, & Mooradian, 2007). Students generally listed phonological and other features of speech when they thought that the speaker was of non-native origin. In such cases, when they heard a more convincing accent which approximated that of a native speaker, they preferred going with their "gut" to provide a solid reasoning.

The results of the voice-clip test are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Students' reasoning for their decisions on the 'nativeness' of the speakers

	DECISIVE FACTORS				
	VC 1	**VC 2**	**VC 3**	**VC 4**	**VC 5**
Focus group 1	• Confidence: voice & language in use • Fluency • Intonation, over- and under-/flat articulation • Pace of speaking • Typical sounds: [ɵ] & [r] (rhotic/non-rhotic)				
Focus groups 2 & 3	• **Foreign (Hun) accent** • Harsh auditory effect • Easy compre-hension • Fluency: slow with flaws • Strange pronun-ciation (esp. stress) • Sounds: [t] [s] [ʃ]	• **Foreign (Hun / Ger) accent** • Fluency: pause to make time • Strange (over-articulated) pronun-ciation • Sounds: [a] [e] [æ] [r]	• Ambi-guous accent (could be a dialect) • **Intuition** • Use of set phrases • Rather fluent • Pronun-ciation is flat at times • Sounds: [t] [ɵ] [a] [ɛ]	• Native/-like accent • ***"Gut feeling"*** • Confident beha-viour • Very fluent & fast-paced • Pronun-ciation: sounds like a native	• Native/-like accent (RP) • **Intuitive decision** • Self-confident beha-viour • Very fluent & fast-paced
	6/47	**6/47**	**29/24**	**43/10**	**43/10**
	NATIVE / NON-NATIVE				

In many cases, the greatest importance was attributed to how certain sounds and words were uttered by the speakers. Students also ventured to detect familiar accents. A few respondents (9%) not only paid attention to the nature of accents and dialects (native or foreign), but also attempted to allocate a respective nationality to the given speaker based on segmental and suprasegmental features (e.g., intonation, prosody, stress, etc.).

Generally, female respondents were more verbose and provided more well-rounded answers to the questions. Both male and female respondents relied on the observation of speaking skills and the level of confidence shown by particular speakers.

Figure 2 demonstrates the bases on which students made a decision when the nativeness of the speaker was somewhat ambiguous.

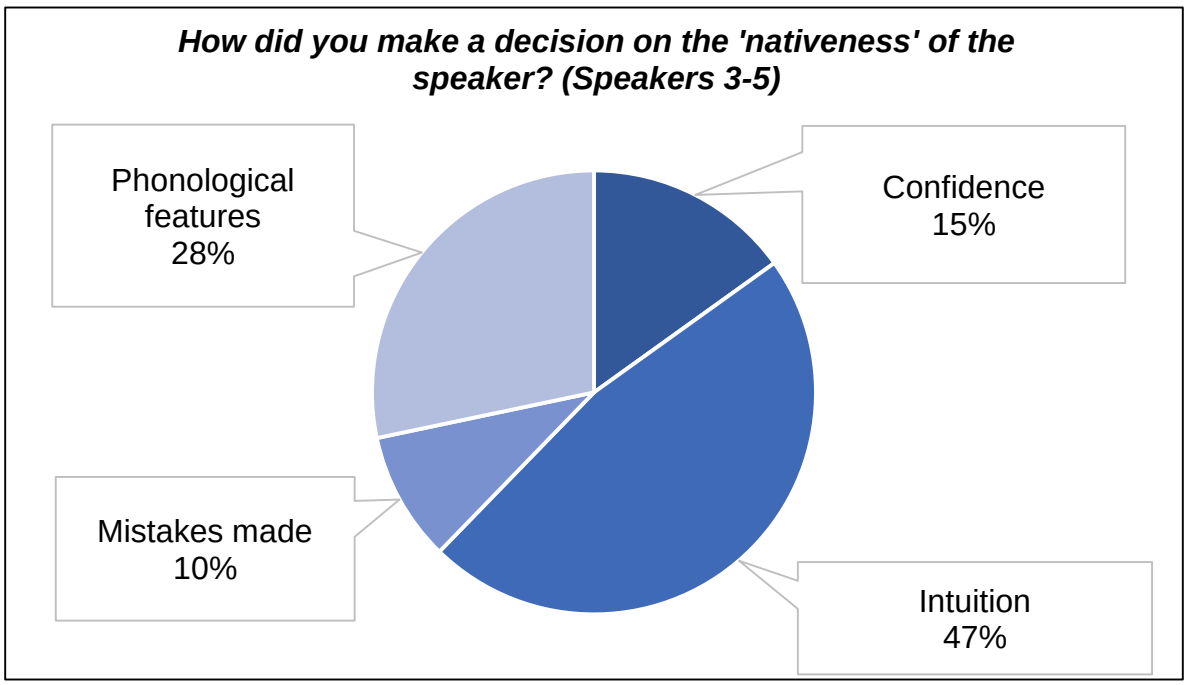

Figure 2. Bases for deciding on nativeness

Native and non-native teacher interviews

It is noteworthy that the semi-structured interviews included both language teachers as well as lecturers leading classes in English at the venue of the research. The most important participant characteristics have been compiled in Table 6.

The following factors were taken into consideration when choosing the interview participants:

- The interviewee had to be associated with ELT practices; and/or
- had to teach professional subjects within any field of study (e.g., business and administration, management, (applied) linguistics, pedagogy, etc.). As for the latter case, the most important prerequisite was English being a common means of instruction.

Table 6. *Characteristics of native and non-native teacher interviewees*

	Questions	Categories	Frequency (numbers)	Frequency (%)	Total (%)
NATIVE	*What is your sex?*	Male Female	3 1	75 25	**4 (100)**
	What age group do you belong to?	50 years or over 41-49 years 31-40 years 30 years or under	2 1 1 0	50 25 25 0	
	What sector do you work in?	Tertiary Secondary Both	3 0 1	75 0 25	
	What age range do you teach?	Adults Young adults Secondary s. students The age range varies	1 1 0 2	25 25 0 50	
	What subjects do you teach?	Language-oriented Professional subjects Both	0 2 2	0 50 50	
NON-NATIVE	*What is your sex?*	Male Female	1 3	25 75	**4 (100)**
	What age group do you belong to?	50 years or over 41-49 years 31-40 years 30 years or under	1 2 1 0	25 50 25 0	
	What sector do you work in?	Tertiary Secondary Both	3 1 0	75 25 0	
	What age range do you teach?	Adults Young adults Secondary s. students The age range varies	0 1 1 2	0 25 25 50	
	What subjects do you teach?	Language-oriented Professional subjects Both	1 1 2	25 25 50	

None of the participants was under the age of 30. Fifty percent of the respondents stated that they had had experience with a variety of age groups. The remaining four participants specialised in a single target group as follows:

- Adults: one person (12.5%)
- Young adults: two people (1-1 native/non-native, respectively; 25%)
- Secondary school students: one person (12.5%)

Most of the interviewees had experience with a number of different age groups. The ability to communicate and to lead classes in different class environments is beneficial to the teaching practice since it can develop certain adaptation skills which will enable the teacher to work well in very different class environments (Vogt & Rogalla, 2009).

Results and discussion

When it comes to student–teacher relationships, it is valid to claim that class participation and student activity is highly group-dependent for both NESTs and NNESTs. Usually, there are some students who stand out and perform the best they can, but some of them are negligent or completely indifferent to their teachers. According to non-native teachers' self-perceptions, students seem to be more open if they have to work with a teacher who shares a language with them (e.g., a mutually shared mother tongue). With only one exception, no one reported on a dissatisfactory or insufficient amount of student feedback.

It turned out during the native-teacher interviews that NESTs were not or just hardly able to differentiate between themselves and their non-native counterparts in terms of teaching skills and expertise. According to the interviewees, possible advantages and disadvantages of the NEST, as described by the interviewees, can be summarised as follows:

- **Advantages**: (1) creating a new learning environment; (2) being an imitable source of language use; (3) having an instinctive feel for the language (e.g., comprehension, implications, word use, etc.); and (4) providing accurate linguistic input for language learners to shape their accents (authentic pronunciation and intonation);

- **Disadvantages**: (1) classes led by a native teacher may seem intimidating for the students; (2) having inappropriate teaching skills (teaching methodology and practices); (3) the sub-conscious use of the English language; and (4) the lack of received English-language instruction as opposed to NNESTs.

According to *Participant 1*, one should also make a distinction between the purposes for which the language in question is used: In the case of lecturing, linguistic competence (that is, pronunciation, intonation, etc.) is not a key-determinant as long as the lecturer can make themselves understood and it does not cause language interference in the students' minds. For such purposes, students are required to have a good command of English and a satisfactory amount of previous experience using the language. When it comes to language teachers assigned to teach the language in an ELT context, the situation is somewhat different: The initial language input given by the teacher plays a decisive role in the learners' future development since "it is important for students to get as good of a native-like use of a language as possible."

Participant 2 highlighted some of the inherent fortes of using the language as a native speaker: Knowing subconsciously which word to use in certain contexts requires a great amount of practice, and this kind of knowledge is very difficult to obtain. However, this so-called 'instinctive language use' has also got its drawbacks: The choice of vocabulary and the use of grammatical structures are – for the most part – subconscious for a native speaker, whereas different structures are taught to non-native speakers, and thus they are able to use them consciously and on point.

Participant 3 brought up the importance of teacher training even though there are differences between natives and non-natives as regards received training: (1) Natives have traditionally been trained to teach multilingual groups, whilst (2) most non-natives specialise in teaching monolingual groups. The emphasis should be placed on the Self and their qualifications, extra-trainings (e.g., attending conferences, courses, workshops, etc.) instead of linguistic competence. "*A good teacher is a good teacher, native or otherwise*" (Participant 3).

Participant 4 claimed that native speakers might have the ability to create a new learning environment by bringing in unusual or unknown approaches. It is also possible that students use the language as a means to engage with the subject matter. Nevertheless, from a student point of view, intimidation is a key determinant. Native speakers can also be difficult to follow if they talk quickly, thus hindering comprehension when "*slipping into the vernacular*" (Participant 4). According to Liu (2001), students may often be frightened to speak in English when a NEST is present (p. 167).

In summary, there is an abundance of native and non-native English-speaker teachers who are in full possession of what is required to become highly proficient teachers of English or great lecturers who conduct classes in English. Received teacher training should be the major decisive factor when trying to differentiate between native and non-native teachers as they both have the ability to use/abuse the language (Medgyes, 1992).

Conclusion

Pre-research assumptions regarded the question of whether students preferred NESTs or NNESTs and whether received teacher training is of less importance than the teacher's linguistic competence. In addition, it was also presumed that students, when registering a native(-like) accent, relied on intuition to a greater extent in order to decide on the 'nativeness' of an unknown speaker.

In the questionnaires, the majority of students (51.4%) provided a clear preference for NESTs. Nevertheless, if we add the number of those favouring being taught simultaneously by both NESTs and NNESTs to the formerly indicated ratio, it will allow for more than 80% of the total (81.4%).

As for the focus-group study, it turned out during the sessions that students had a clear mental concept of what a native speaker is like in real life. These images were built on their previous learning experiences with some authentic listening material in which native speakers acted out dialogues or read out larger chunks of texts. Whenever a non-native speaker was able to perform at a native(-like) level, participants instinctively labelled them as native, yet the notion of authenticity is very much challenged by current global trends for learning English. Today, most of the English-language conversations take place between non-native speakers for the purposes of international communication. Out of the 1.5 billion speakers of English worldwide, only 375 million are native speakers (Statista.com, 2018).

Regarding the results of the NEST interviews, four out of four native teachers (100%) claimed that they made use of various teaching methods and approaches in their teaching practice. This can be attributed to the fact that, with reference to Benke and Medgyes (2005), the native teacher is an experimenting type who, besides traditional forms of teaching, tries to implement modern approaches in the classroom, thus enabling students to pick their own learning methods according to their personal learning styles and tastes.

Proving/denying the hypotheses

The initial hypotheses seem to be proven by the research results as 81.4% of the respondents favoured classes taught by NESTs; moreover, the majority of these people (51.4%) preferred solely natives. Forty-six percent of those preferring natives based their distinction on their teachers' linguistic competence as compared to the categories of "Other" (26%) and "Not specified" (28%). Regardless of students' (in)experience with native and non-native teachers, they put great emphasis on showcasing native(-like) competence when using the target language.

It was also revealed by the voice-clip tests that whenever the students encountered a speaker whose 'non-/nativeness' is somewhat ambiguous to them, they tend to rely on intuition (47%) to make accurate judgements. Apart from intuition, they also mentioned considering the speaker's confidence when using the language, their mistakes, as well as the segmental and suprasegmental features of their speech. (See Diagram 2 above.)

Limitations and further research

The research has its limitations. It was aimed at obtaining research data about the degree of involvement and the roles played by students within the native/non-native debate. Since it was carried out in only one location, the results cannot be considered generalisable, but they may provide a basis for delving in the complexity of issues interweaving the research problem.

As previously mentioned in the paper, the instruments were designed to be understandable for all age groups and educational settings, thus giving the opportunity to extend the scope of inquiry at a later stage for a more elaborate discussion of the topic.

References

Andersen, R. W. (1988). Models, processes, principles, and strategies: Second language acquisition in and out of the classroom. *Issues and Developments in English and Applied Linguistics (IDEAL), 3*, 111–138.

Benke, E., & Medgyes, P. (2005). Differences in teaching behaviour between native and non-native speaker teachers: As seen by the learners. In E. Llurda (Ed.), *Non-native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (pp. 195–209). New York, NY: Springer.

Braine, G. (2010). *Nonnative speaker English teachers: Research, pedagogy, and professional growth.* Abingdon, England: Routledge.

Cook, V. (1997). Monolingual bias in second language acquisition research. *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses, 34,* 35-50. Retrieved from http://www.viviancook.uk/Writings/Papers/MonolingualBias.htm.

Graddol, D. (2006). *English next.* London, England: British Council.

Horwitz, E. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 21*(1), 112–126. doi: 10.1017/S0267190501000071.

Liu, J. (2001). *Confessions of a non-native English-speaker professional. The CATESOL Journal, 13*(1), 53–67. Retrieved from http://www.catesoljournal.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/CJ13_liu.pdf.

Matzler, K., Bailom, F., & Mooradian, T. (2007). Intuitive decision making. *MIT Sloan Management Review, 49*, 13–15.

Medgyes, P. (1992). Native or non-native: Who's worth more? *ELT Journal, 46*(4), 340–349. doi: 10.1093/elt/46.4.340.

Nádasdy, Á. (2006). *Background to English pronunciation.* Budapest, Hungary: Nemzeti Tankönyvkiadó.

Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism.* Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Richardson S. (2016, April). *The 'native factor,' the haves and the have-nots: and why we still need to talk about this in 2016.* Paper presented at the Annual International IATEFL Conference & Exhibition, Birmingham, UK.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 10*(1-4), 209–232. doi: 10.1515/iral.1972.10.1-4.209.

Selvi, A. F. (2014). Myths and misconceptions about non-native English speakers in the TESOL (NNEST) movement. *TESOL Journal, 5*(3), 573–611. doi: 10.1002/tesj.158.

The most spoken languages worldwide (speakers and native speakers in millions. (2018). Retrieved 12th November, 2017 from https://www.statista.com/statistics/266808/the-most-spoken-languages-worldwide/

Vogt, F., & Rogalla, M. (2009). Developing adaptive teaching competency through coaching*. Teaching and Teacher Education: An International Journal of Research and Studies, 25*(8), 1051–1060. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2009.04.002.

Appendix A: Student Questionnaire Form

Dear Participant,
This questionnaire is to measure how you perceive the so-called 'Native Teacher Phenomenon,' which is a high-profile topic within the fields of ELT (English Language Teaching). By completing this survey, you will help me obtain information concerning the attitudes of students towards native-speaker teachers. The questionnaire forms an evidence base of my BA thesis in English entitled "How Do University-Aged Students Perceive Native English-Speaker Teachers?"
I am looking into how students see native English-speaker teachers and to what extent are they more efficient than non-native teachers – if they are.
Please bear in mind that you remain anonymous during the whole process, thus, your name will not be indicated in any write-ups, presentations or papers based on the results. All data collected is handled confidentially, however, I am happy to share the results with you if you like.
Completing the survey requires no more than 10-15 minutes. You may write a few words, underline / circle when stating your answers.
The deadline for submission is 3rd March 2017.
Thank you for your help.

1. What is your sex? MALE / FEMALE

2. What is your age? I am _____ years old.

3. Institution of your studies:

University / College / Language school

Secondary school / Bilingual secondary school

4. How long have you learnt (in) English?

More than 5 years / 3-5 years

1-2 years / Less than a year

5. Level of language proficiency: *Based on respective books you are currently using and/or language exams held.*

Proficient (C2) / Advanced (C1) / Upper-intermed. (B2+) / Intermediate (B2) / Pre-intermediate (B1) / Elementary (A2) / Beginner (A1)

6. When did you first encounter a NATIVE English-speaker teacher? _____

7. How many NATIVE English teachers have you already had?

5 or more native teachers / 3-4 natives

1-2 natives / I haven't had any (yet)

8. How long have you been taught by NATIVE English teachers?

More than 5 years / 4-5 years

2-3 years / 1 year or less

NATIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS

Please decide whether the following statements are typical of your NATIVE English teacher or not. Indicate your answers by circling the appropriate numbers to the questions.

(cf. *Benke-Medgyes*, 2005)

Strongly agree	-	**5**
Agree	-	4
Neither agree, nor disagree	-	3
Disagree	-	2
Strongly disagree	-	**1**

My native English-speaker teacher…

a)	… sticks more rigidly to lesson plan.	1	2	3	4	5
b)	… prepares learners / students well for exams.	1	2	3	4	5
c)	… applies pair / group work regularly in class.	1	2	3	4	5
d)	… speaks most of the time during the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
e)	… sets a great number of tests.	1	2	3	4	5
f)	… directs me towards autonomous learning.	1	2	3	4	5
g)	… uses a range of teaching styles and methods.	1	2	3	4	5
h)	… relies heavily on the course-book.	1	2	3	4	5
i)	… corrects errors consistently.	1	2	3	4	5
j)	… runs interesting classes.	1	2	3	4	5
k)	… uses ample supplementary material.	1	2	3	4	5
l)	… is interested in learners / students' opinions.	1	2	3	4	5

GIVE YOUR OWN OPINION

1. What was your first impression / reaction when you found out you had been assigned to a native English-speaker teacher? (How) have your perceptions changed throughout the course and why – please give reasons for your answers.

2. In your opinion, what may be some advantages and/or disadvantages of native English-speaker teachers in educational institutions?

3. Would you prefer being taught by a native or a non-native English-speaker teacher, why?

Appendix B: Working Sheet for the Focus-Group Sessions

Dear Student,
Thank you very much for participating in this survey. The working sheet was designed for a research carried out by me for this semester's TDK conference. By filling it out, you will largely contribute to the success of my study. The completion should not take more than 5-10 minutes altogether. Please, follow the instructions provided when stating your answers.
Please, indicate your answers to the Y/N questions by either underlining or circling your choice.
Below, you can find my contact details for further inquiry:

László NÉMETH
The University of Pannonia
nemeth.lacii@yahoo.com

1. What is your sex? MALE / FEMALE

2. What is your age? I am _____ years old.

3. Have you ever had a native English-speaker teacher? YES / NO

4. If you HAVE NOT had any native teachers so far, what are / would be your expectations towards them? (Mention at least 3 things.)

5. Which English variety would you like to master, and why? (Provide at least 3 reasons.)

British English (BrE) / American English (AmE) /
Australian English (AuE) / other, please specify: _____

6. Is there any difference – in your opinion – between being taught by a NATIVE and a NON-NATIVE teacher of English?

7. State at least 5 key-words to express your feelings towards a native (for example, British) and a non-native (for example, Hungarian) teacher of English.

- Native English teacher:
- Non-native English teacher:

8. Having heard the voice clips, please, decide whether (s)he is a native or a non-native speaker of English and then, also state what you base your distinction.

Voice-clips	Native (N) or non-native (NN)	Basis/Bases of distinction
VC 1		
VC 2		
VC 3		
VC 4		
VC 5		

Appendix C: Semi-Structured Interview Outline for NESTs

Good morning/afternoon,
First of all, let me say thank you for taking your time to participate in my research by answering some questions concerning the topic of my BA thesis in English Studies. In the main focus of my paper, there are native English teachers, and as a complement to my survey carried out with university students, I have decided to conduct interviews with native and non-native teachers, respectively, in order to have a better understanding of the issue. I would like to emphasise that the voice recordings will be used solely during the data collection process and will not be given to a third party. In my thesis, you receive complete anonymity to remain as objective as possible.
If you are ready, let us start the interview.

1. What is your sex?

2. What is your age?

3. What sector do you work in? At which faculty / department?

4. What age-range do you teach? Which year / grade are they?

5. What subjects do you teach? (language skills improvement / linguistics / professional subjects – e.g., economics, pedagogy, etc.)

6. Do you use a course-book or your own teaching materials / resources?

7. How much time do you spend preparing for your classes?

8/a. How much feedback do you get from your students and how often?

8/b. Are students actively engaged throughout your classes?

9. What is your students' behaviour / attitude towards you?

10/a. What kind of teaching methods and approaches do you use in class? (interactive, communicative, lecturing, GT method, facilitator etc.)

10/b. How much do you rely on your resources?

11. Are there any more benefits to learners being taught by a native rather than a non-native teacher? If so, what are they? If not, why?

12. Would you say that a native speaker (non-qualified) teacher is better than a qualified non-native teacher? If so, why/not?

This is the end of the interview. Thank you very much. Goodbye!

Appendix D: Semi-Structured Interview Outline for NNESTs

Good morning/afternoon,
First of all, let me say thank you for taking your time to participate in my research by answering some questions concerning the topic of my BA thesis in English Studies. In the main focus of my paper, there are native English teachers, and as a complement to my survey carried out with university students, I have decided to conduct interviews with native and non-native teachers, respectively, in order to have a better understanding of the issue. I would like to emphasise that the voice recordings will be used solely during the data collection process and will not be given to a third party. In my thesis, you receive complete anonymity to remain as objective as possible.

If you are ready, let us start the interview.

1. What is your sex?

2. What is your age?

3. What sector do you work in? At which faculty / department?

4. What age-range do you teach? Which year / grade are they?

5. What subjects do you teach? (language skills improvement / linguistics / professional subjects – e.g., economics, pedagogy, etc.)

6. Do you use a course-book or your own teaching materials / resources?

7. How much time do you spend preparing for your classes?

8/a. How much feedback do you get from your students and how often?

8/b. Are students actively engaged throughout your classes?

9. What is your students' behaviour / attitude towards you?

10/a. What kind of teaching methods and approaches do you use in class? (interactive, communicative, lecturing, GT method, facilitator etc.)

10/b. How much do you rely on your resources?

This is the end of the interview. Thank you very much. Goodbye!

Peer-reviewed paper

Nativeness versus qualifications: A pilot study

Jasmina Sazdovska and Zsuzsanna Soproni

Introduction

Within our profession of teaching English as a foreign or second language, there has long been a debate about the differences between those who are Native English Speaker Teachers (NESTs) and those who are Non-Native English Speaker Teachers (Non-NESTs). In Hungary, for example, a great deal of research has been published on the topic by Medgyes (1992, 1994, 2001, 2012, 2014, 2017). The issue is also frequently the subject of English teacher conference presentations and discussions (e.g., Reményi, 2017; Illés & Sazdovska, 2018). There are, however, very few other professions that pay so much attention to comparing and contrasting native and non-native speakers of English. The question is certainly an important one for our field in particular, since for English teachers the language itself is of central concern, yet the issue is at times controversial and somewhat divisive. It may also be argued that with such a great deal of focus being given to this debate, other issues such as gaining appropriate qualifications, professional development, and experience are perhaps not receiving sufficient consideration. In order to gain insight into what teachers consider to be important factors for their profession and how the issues of being a native speaker or being a qualified teacher figure into these factors, we decided to design and conduct an opinion survey.

This paper will first provide an overview of the main points of discussion on the NEST vs. Non-NEST topic. It will then look at some other issues that teachers may consider to be of key importance for their profession. The main part of the paper is devoted to describing the design, the pilot sample, the validation and the piloting of an online questionnaire aimed at obtaining English teachers' opinions on the importance of the following factors: having English as your first language, having a high level of proficiency in English, having a university degree in ELT, completing a short training, having teaching experience, and being a member of a teachers' association like IATEFL-Hungary. Finally, conclusions will be drawn about the design of the questionnaire and tentative inferences based on the preliminary results of the piloting.

The NEST vs. Non-NEST debate

As mentioned above, Medgyes has published widely on the issue of native and non-native English speaking teachers. This section aims to provide a very brief overview of what he and other professionals (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Ellis, 2006; Holliday, 2005; Holliday, 2009; Murray, 2003; Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Seidlhofer, 1999; Widdowson, 2003) have described as the main characteristics of NESTs and Non-NESTs. An overview of the debate is necessary for this study because it lays the groundwork for the comparison of the importance of having English as an L1 compared to other requirements for being an English teacher.

Starting with the use of English, NESTs tend to be more fluent and confident in the way they speak the language. They also use what Medgyes (1994) refers to as authentic, 'real' language and focus more on meaning rather than accuracy. Conversely, Non-NESTs are inclined to be less confident and to use more 'bookish' language. Medgyes (1994) even went as far as to say that "the Non-NEST is (more or less) handicapped in terms of a command of English" (p. 76). Non-NESTS give greater emphasis to accuracy and form since these are usually the elements that their language studies have concentrated on. Table 1 summarises the differences in the use of English of NESTs and Non-NESTs based on the work by Medgyes (1994).

Table 1. *Use of English of NESTs and Non-NESTs (Based on Medgyes, 1994)*

NESTs	Non-NESTs
Higher level of English proficiency	Lower level of English proficiency
Real language	Bookish language
More confident	Less confident
Fluency	Accuracy
Meaning	Form

It is interesting to note that this list centres on the issue of language proficiency, which is an aspect that is central to the pilot study.

When it comes to attitude towards teaching, the differences are even more evident. Based on Medgyes's (1994) conclusions, NESTs tend to be less committed to the profession. They pay less attention to homework and provide fewer tests. They are also more tolerant of language errors, particularly grammatical ones. Additionally, they frequently do not speak the first language (L1) of their learners, so translation and L1 are rarely used in the classroom. Finally, since native speakers have been exposed to the culture(s) where they acquired English as their native language, they are more inclined to include cultural aspects within their teaching practice.

On the other hand, Non-NESTs are typically more committed to their career, and give more homework and tests to their learners (Medgyes, 1994). They are more likely to correct errors and provide explicit grammatical explanations and definitions. More often than not, they speak the students' L1, so they can use translation in the classroom (Medgyes, 1994). Non-native teachers have also gone through a similar language learning process as their students, so they can provide advice on learning skills and strategies (Seidlhofer, 1999), while at the same time being more empathetic to the learners' difficulties and concerns. In terms of culture, they tend to provide less guidance than their native speaking counterparts. Table 2 provides an overview of the main points in terms of attitudes towards teaching (Medgyes, 1994).

Table 2. *Teaching attitude of NESTs and Non-NESTs (Based on Medgyes, 1994)*

NESTs	Non-NESTs
Less committed	More committed
Tolerate errors	Correct errors
Fewer tests	More tests
No L1	Uses L1
No translation	More translation
Less homework	More homework
More culture	Less culture

To sum up, NESTs' language use could serve as a model for learners, while Non-NESTs, as experienced language learners, could "provide a good learner model for imitation" and assist their learners based on their familiarity with language learning strategies (Medgyes, 1994, pp. 51–69). In the latest, third edition of the book, Medgyes maintains that in a school "there should be a good balance of NESTs and non-NESTS, who complement each other in their strengths and weaknesses" (Medgyes, 2017, p. 84).

Richardson (2016) has also pointed out the differences in employment practices. In her plenary talk at the 50th IATEFL Conference entitled *The 'native factor', the haves and the have-nots*, she points out that when it comes to job opportunities and promotions, native speaker teachers seem to enjoy certain privileges over their non-native counterparts. Some schools and institutions openly advertise openings for native speakers only or for citizens of certain countries where English is the first language. The privileges that native speaker teachers enjoy could stem from the automatic extrapolation from competent speaker to competent teacher (Seidlhofer, 1999).

All the above comparisons can be considered to be over-simplified generalisations which do not reflect the full complexity of the issue. Moreover, a paradigm shift might have taken place in English language teaching concerning the goal of language learning and teaching. The recently published *Companion volume with new descriptors to the Common European Framework for Languages: Learning,*

teaching and assessment publication (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2018) epitomises this change by replacing the idealised native speaker model that occurred in the 2001 edition of the CEFR with a model based on competent users and speakers of the target language.

In addition, splitting teachers into these two distinct groups shows the debate from a divisive and controversial aspect. In order to avoid the contentiousness and reflect the complexity of the topic, one would also need to take into consideration further aspects, such as the context in which the teachers work and the qualifications which are required for their job, not to mention the individual differences that are bound to surface when each English teacher's matrix of skills, competences and knowledge are examined.

Having in mind the differences between NESTs and Non-NESTs in terms of language use, attitude to teaching and career opportunities, it could be the case that native teachers are more suitable for certain contexts, perhaps language schools, while Non-NESTs are better qualified for teaching at state schools. One of the aims of the current research is to investigate whether such suitability of different teachers for specific contexts is indeed the case. Looking at the debate through the perspective of the context in which English is being taught and conducting research about the kinds of qualifications required for different language learning institutions could lead to a deeper understanding of the teacher attributes considered to be important for being an English teacher, apart from having English as a mother tongue. This, in turn, could provide insights into teacher profiles that are more complex, realistic, and matched for specific settings than the simple binary opposition of native and non-native English-speaking teachers.

Levels of education, types of qualifications and trainings, years of experience and proficiency in the language are all important factors that link to the discussion of teacher types and profiles. The binary native/non-native divide has always been controversial. As implied in Richardson's (2016) talk, though, the two-dimensional debate is becoming even more contentious and politicised. This is also evident in Holliday's (2009) assertions that the native/non-native distinction is political and the product of the native-speakerist ideology. Thus, a way forward in resolving the problem could be to obtain data on the views of teachers on the more detailed requirements for teaching in different contexts.

Finally, the NEST vs. Non-NEST debate is further complicated by the definition of the term native speaker of English. Seidlhofer (2011) contends that the definition of the native speaker as a stable, homogeneous and hypercorrect construct is an idealised notion. She adds that it is difficult to agree on a satisfactory definition for this elusive notion. Furthermore, Jenkins (2006) claims the following:

> … the closest I can find to a definition is that of Honey (1997), who argues that standard English is the variety used by educated native speakers and that the way to identify an educated native speaker is from their use of standard English: a circular argument indeed. (Jenkins, 2006, p. 171)

In these times of globalisation with people relocating internationally more frequently and easily than ever, the distinction between native and non-native speakers is increasingly harder to draw. Multilingualism and the use of English as a lingua franca are on the rise with growing levels of proficiency. When Medgyes started his research in this field in the early 1990s, Hungary had just come out of its political and economic transition, and many English teachers were retrained Russian teachers (Nikolov, 2000). This made the differences between NESTs and Non-NESTs more pronounced and vivid. In addition, access to English language materials was limited at the time. Today, however, with the prevalence of English in modern media, mostly the internet but also TV and films, both teachers and learners have greater exposure to authentic materials making it easier for them to increase their level of English proficiency. With a larger number of teachers completing some of their training abroad or in international institutions at home and acquiring a high level of fluency in English, thus moving along the interlanguage continuum as described in Medgyes (1994, p. 13), the differences between NESTs and Non-NESTs are becoming less salient.

Given the multifaceted nature of the debate, the current research aims to address the following research question:

What do English teachers think are the most important requirements for their profession in various contexts?

In order to conduct the study, 10 different contexts will be listed and linked to aspects such as being a native speaker of English, having a high level of proficiency in the language, holding qualifications in the field, gaining experience in teaching, doing a short teacher training course (e.g., CELTA), and being a member of a teachers' association. The selection of the contexts and the aspects was based on discussions with fellow professionals in the EFL field. The main instrument for conducting the research is an online survey. This paper discusses the piloting phase of the questionnaire used for the survey.

Methods

In order to be able to arrive at generalisable findings, the large-scale technique of opinion surveys was selected (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 84). We hoped that with the help of an online questionnaire an international group of professionals could be reached, which would substantiate the conclusions. A sufficiently large group of respondents would also make it possible for the researchers to make sub-group comparisons that easily lend themselves to generalisations about specialised professionals and specific teaching contexts. The online format was selected as a cost efficient and practical technique that facilitated data entry as well. Thus, in the long run, the online opinion survey meant the collection of statistically analysable data from a large sample.

After selecting the quantitative approach to find answers to the research questions, however, the research tool itself, the online questionnaire, had to be tested and validated before it was used for a wider sample. To pilot the questionnaire, it was first distributed to a small sample of teachers at a small, private university in Budapest and the following steps were taken. First, the draft questionnaire was tried out with three colleagues in order to see whether the "instrument in fact measures what it purports to measure" (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 133). The three colleagues were instructed to comment on whether the wording of the different questions was unambiguous and whether the structure of the questionnaire was fit for the purpose.

As a second step, the present pilot study was launched with a double aim. First, the primary aim was to further test and refine the questionnaire itself with a smaller group of respondents. Second, the study could also potentially provide useful data on the institution's teachers' views on the importance of certain requirements in different contexts of ELT.

The questionnaire itself aims to collect biographical data on respondents anonymously and elicit respondents' views on the importance of six different factors in given educational contexts. The questionnaire is not a multi-item scale in the sense that the same content area is addressed using several related and linked questions on the same issue (Dörnyei, 2002; Likert, 1932) but rather a set of questions with Likert-responses on the different contexts investigated (Clason & Dormody, 1994) so as to avoid the problem of repetition and exhaustion, which was an objective initiated by a comment made by one of the colleagues who took part in the validation process.

The final pilot questionnaire included several sections: some questions about participants' language and education background (languages spoken, qualifications, trainings), work experience (present and past type(s) and location(s) of employment, number of contact hours, subjects taught), their views (context specific Likert-type questions), their teacher association membership and their biographical information (age, gender). A section where respondents could contribute to the improvement of the questionnaire was also included at the end.

The section on respondents' views included questions in which they were to evaluate the importance of the following six aspects: 1. being a native speaker; 2. having a high proficiency in English; 3. having a university degree; 4. completing a short teacher training programme; 5. having teaching experience; and 6. being a member of a teachers' association. The evaluation involved rating the aspects on a 5-point Likert scale. The importance of the six aspects was to be rated in 10 teaching contexts:

1. Language school
2. Elementary school
3. Secondary school
4. University (higher education)
5. Teaching lower levels
6. Teaching higher levels
7. Teaching one-to-one
8. Teaching in companies
9. Administrative positions
10. Materials writing

The questionnaire was an online Google form and the figures describing the small, pilot data sample below were generated by Google. The link to the online questionnaire was sent to all the English teachers at the university and the response rate was over 90%. The questionnaire can be viewed in the following link: https://goo.gl/forms/SyNDJxjGdtOPxgDD2

Data sample

As this is a pilot study, the data sample will be described in detail. Altogether 25 participants helped us validate the questionnaire by filling it in online. All the 25 participants teach English at an international, multi-cultural business college in Budapest. Generally speaking, the pilot sample group is highly qualified and experienced in teaching with a good command of several languages. More specifically, as regards the linguistic background of the respondents, the sample appears to be quite knowledgeable: They speak very many languages at different levels. Three of the 25 respondents considered themselves bilingual; all bilinguals also speak Hungarian as a third language. Only two respondents do not speak an additional, etc. language apart from English and their mother tongue. It is not a surprise in Hungary that 12 speak German and eight out of the 25 respondents speak Russian. Table 3 illustrates the first languages of the participants.

Table 3. *First languages spoken by respondents*

First language	Number of respondents
Hungarian	21
English	2
Bulgarian	1
Macedonian	1
Total	**25**

In the sample, the largest number of teachers have an MA in teaching English as a foreign language, at 60%, while 20% had a BA and 12% hold a PhD. Respondents with a PhD degree in the sample might be over-represented as the teachers work at a university. There are two teachers with CELTA qualifications and many teachers have completed other post-graduate or further education training courses. Figure 1 shows the highest qualifications that the teachers hold. In Figures 1-4, percentage figures will be given to provide an overall impression of the pilot sample. College degree in the chart refers to four-year college degrees obtained prior to the introduction of bachelor's and master's degrees in Hungary.

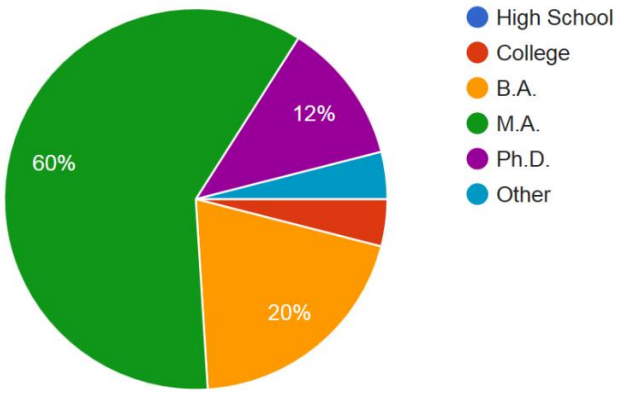

Figure 1. Level of education among respondents

Moreover, the teachers in the sample, on average, appear to be rather experienced: They have taught for an average of 11 years and eight of them have international work experience. Again, this sample is probably not fully representative as the university is an international one where English is used as the medium of instruction, and staff are diverse and internationally-minded.

In terms of age, over a third of the teachers are in their 40s with roughly a quarter being in their 30s and another quarter in their 50s. Overall, the distribution of age seems to be quite even which, as opposed to the other sample characteristics, is probably more representative. Figure 2 depicts the proportion of each age group of the participants.

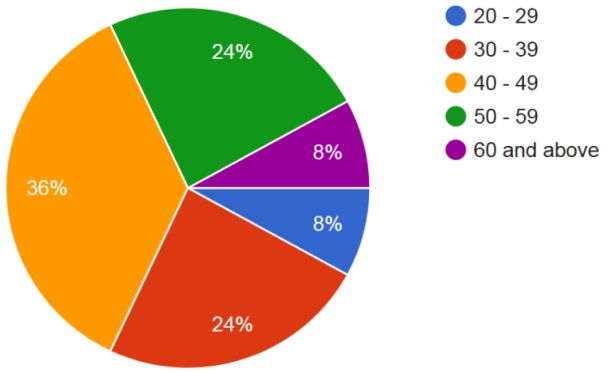

Figure 2. Age of respondents

With regards to the gender of the teachers as illustrated in Figure 3, the large majority are female, which does not seem unusual for the profession.

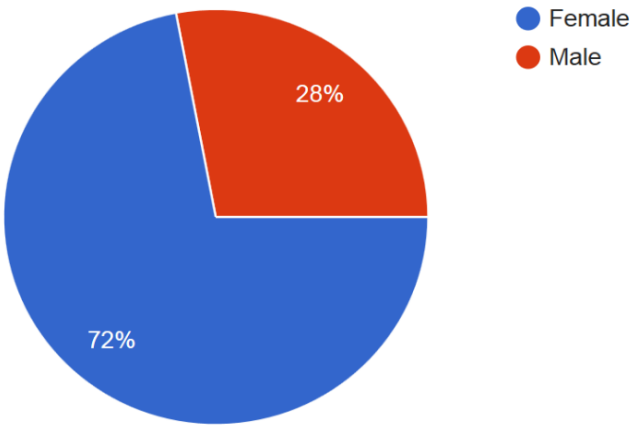

Figure 3. Gender of respondents

An interesting aspect of the sample is the number of hours that the respondents teach. As might be expected, almost half teach 9-15 hours a week, but the other half teach well over 15 hours a week with only one teacher having fewer than nine classes in one week. This might be due to the fact that most of the participants are free-lancers who need to teach at several institutions to make ends meet. Figure 4 gives exact percentages of the respondents' teaching load.

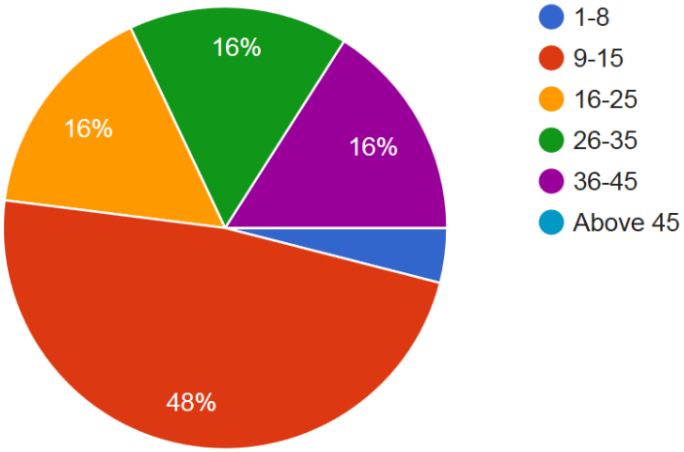

Figure 4. Average number of weekly teaching hours among respondents

By looking at Table 3 and Figures 1-4 above, we can see that the average respondent is a middle-aged woman with Hungarian as her mother tongue and a master's degree. The average weekly workload is between 9 and 15 hours, but the number of hours per week may range up to 45.

As mentioned above, the selection of participants is not entirely representative of the English teaching profession in Hungary, let alone internationally. On the whole, the sample is probably representative of higher education though, where teachers tend to have higher qualifications such as MA and PhD degrees. In terms of the number of teaching hours a week, it is quite frequent for teachers in Hungary to work at more than one institution as is the case with many free-lancers at the university. Two areas where this sample is similar to the language teacher population of Hungary are age and gender. In the sample of a recent study on the framework and efficiency of foreign language teaching (N=1,118), a similarly large proportion of teachers in public education were between 41 and 50 (Illés & Csizér, 2018, p. 161) and the majority of them were women (approximately 89%), which is an even higher proportion than in this pilot study (72%).

Results

Primary aim: Questionnaire design

The most important aim of the pilot study was to see if the questions are comprehensible for possible respondents working in similar institutions. Respondents also had the opportunity to suggest modifications (e.g., further languages, countries that were not included in the drop-down lists). As a result of the pilot study, some, mostly classical, languages were added to the list of languages in some of the questions, more specifically, Greek, old Greek, and Latin since many of the respondents had and future respondents may have studied in traditional settings where classical studies are part of their higher education programmes. Respondents also suggested that *Giving conference presentations* should be included as a specific context in the questionnaire since they experienced preference on the organisers' part to invite native-speaker presenters as plenary speakers at international conferences. Some sort *of social recognition of work* was also recommended as a possible context: Respondents believed that a context referring to *Achieving a high salary* could be added. Thus, the 10 contexts were expanded to 12 based on feedback from fellow professionals during the validation and piloting process. The researchers were aware that *Achieving a high salary* is not a specific context, but they assumed that the addition of this aspect could shed light on the prestige associated with being a native or non-native teacher of English.

Secondary aim: Teacher views

In terms of the results of the 25 participants' views on the importance of the various aspects, the first to be described will be the overall mean points on the Likert scale for all contexts combined. The average points are the highest for proficiency at 4.49 out of 5. Having a university degree in teaching English as a foreign language was the second highest at 3.88, closely followed by teaching experience at 3.77. There is a large gap of 0.85 between experience and the next requirement of the list, which is completing a short training course like CELTA. Next on the list is being a member of a teachers' association like IATEFL-Hungary, which scored 2.43. The least important aspect for all contexts was being a native speaker of English at just 2.28. The overall means are shown in Figure 5 and will be discussed later.

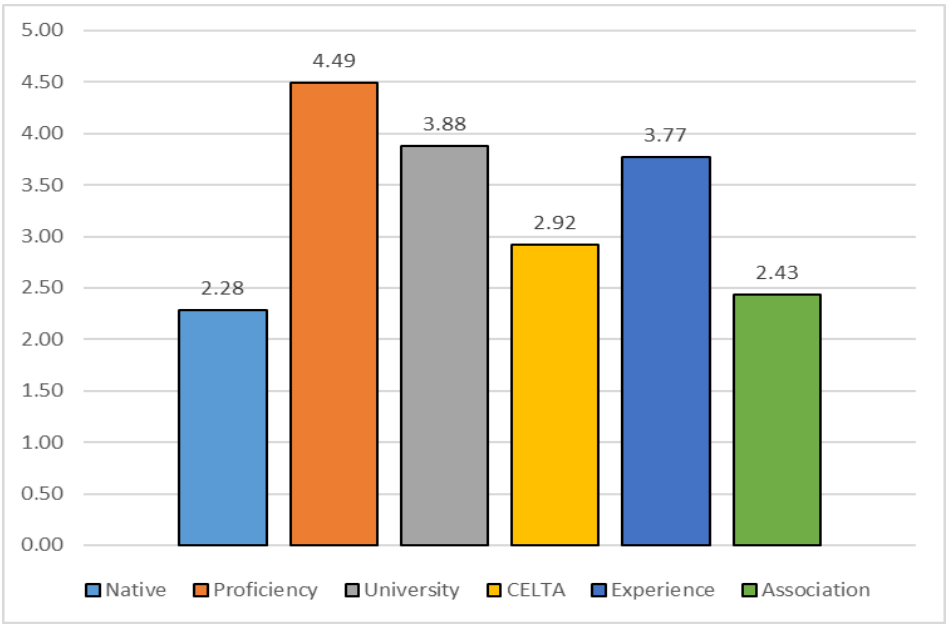

Figure 5. Overall means on the Likert scale for all contexts combined

The next section is a description of the compared results of two different contexts: Teaching English at a language school versus at a university. Apart from having completed a short training course, the average points on all requirements are higher for teaching at a university, the most significant differences being in having a university degree (0.48 difference) and having experience (0.6 difference). The comparison of these two contexts is illustrated in Figure 6.

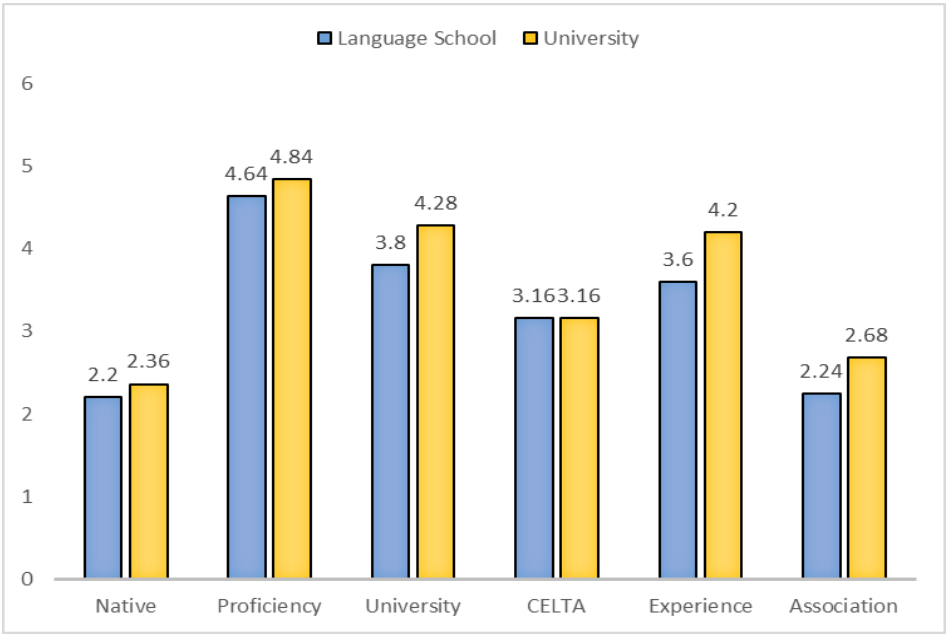

Figure 6. Comparison of results for language schools and universities

Another comparison of the ranking of the requirements for two different contexts is that of being a language school administrator or manager versus being an author of English teaching materials. In this case, all the requirements were considered of greater importance for writing teaching materials. The largest difference is in the ranking of having teaching experience, a surprising 1.76, with two other noticeable gaps in proficiency in the language (1.2) and having a university degree in teaching English (1.16). The comparison of these two situations is shown in Figure 7. The results will be discussed in the following section.

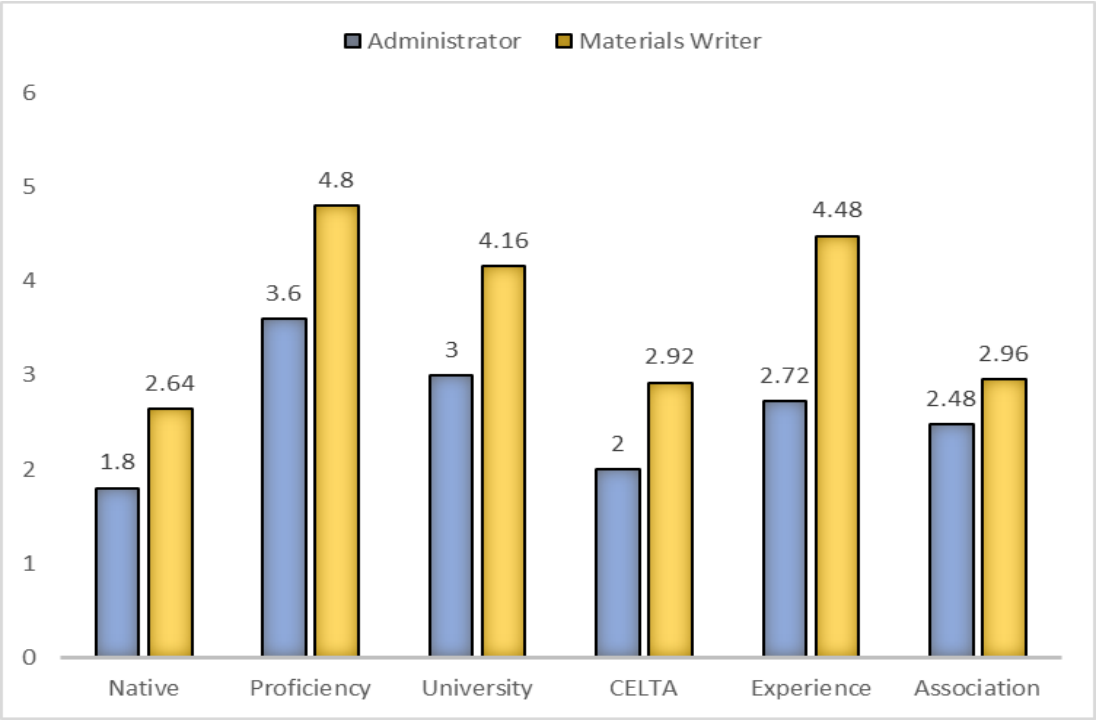

Figure 7. Comparison of results for being a school administrator versus an author of teaching materials

Discussion

The results described and illustrated in the charts above have interesting connections to the NEST/Non-NEST debate, at least as far as the small piloting sample of the 25 teachers from the university included in the study is concerned.

Firstly, looking at the overall averages, being a native speaker of English was considered to be the least important requirement for all contexts. For this particular set of teachers, it indicates that having English as a first language is not as important as being proficient in the language, having a university degree, gaining experience, completing a short training, or even being a member of a teachers'

association. In light of this, the NEST/Non-NEST debate itself seems to be not as important for the English teaching profession as factors such as having a university degree and experience. This finding deserves even more attention if the teaching context of the participants of the pilot study is taken into consideration, which is an international institution with multi-cultural students.

Secondly, the questionnaire revealed differences in teachers' views of the importance of the six requirements depending on the specific contexts and shed light on variations in the rankings of the requirements when the 10 different settings are compared (see the full list of requirements and contexts in the Methods section). This could lead to a shift from the two-dimensional NEST/Non-NEST debate to a multifaceted discussion of a larger set of qualifications that teachers consider to be important in specific settings. Based on the interpretation of the results of this pilot study, one may conclude that the 25 teachers who answered the questionnaire consider that it is more important to have a teaching degree and experience for teaching English at a university than it is for teaching at a language school. Likewise, all the listed qualifications are more important for authors of teaching materials than they are for school administrators or managers.

Comparisons of this type could lead to the drawing up of various teacher profiles suited to specific settings if applied to a larger sample of teachers that could yield reliable results. Upon completion of the piloting stage, the questionnaire will be distributed internationally to a wide group of English teachers. This could provide results to compare the views of native and non-native teachers or, for example, the views of business and general English teachers, in addition to the overall comparisons of requirements for different contexts. Hopefully, this would take the discussion from the binary native/non-native debate to a broader and deeper conversation about the different attributes of teachers and their suitedness for teaching English in a specific setting. Thus, the results of the study may lead to a dialogue on professional development and the contents of education and training programmes rather than the random happenstance of having English as one's first language.

Finally, as mentioned in the Introduction, the over-simplified NEST/Non-NEST grouping may cause controversy and generate conflicts by giving grounds for judgements based on the teachers' first languages. Native teachers have at times felt that their qualifications are not appreciated as much as their nativeness (personal communication). Conversely, non-native teachers have felt that in some countries or contexts they are at a disadvantage when it comes to employment practices. Therefore, moving the focus of the discussion to the teacher qualifications, experience and training which are necessary for particular contexts does not fuel the fire of the NEST/Non-NEST debate, but it instead aims to overcome the divisiveness that stems from the two-dimensional grouping.

Conclusion

There are two outcomes of the pilot study. First, in terms of the primary aim of testing the research instrument, the study proved that the questionnaire can be applied to a wider sample of teachers to obtain their views on the importance of various professional attributes. The modifications included adding more languages and contexts to obtain a wider set of data.

For the secondary aim of analysing the views of the participants, the following aspects were identified to be of the highest importance according to the teachers: proficiency in English (4.49), having a university degree in teaching English as a foreign language (3.88), and gaining teaching experience (3.77). Having English as a first language was considered as the least important attribute for teachers in all contexts at an average of only 2.28. Tentatively, one of the most important conclusions could be that specific attention needs to be paid to teacher education, especially to the development of English language proficiency. Additionally, particular focus needs to be given to providing trainee teachers with extensive opportunities to gain teaching experience. This finding supports the intention to shift the focus of the discussion of teacher requirements away from the native/non-native distinction, to a more comprehensive set of teacher profiles suitable for specific settings.

Our group of participants considered that for teaching at a university having a BA or MA degree and gaining experience were more important than for teaching at a language school. Similarly, for writing English teaching materials, all the attributes were rated as having a higher importance than for being a school manager. As can be seen from these two instances, the data from the questionnaire open up the opportunity for comparing teachers' views of the requirements for many different contexts. In addition, it would be possible to compare the views of different groups of teachers, for example, native and non-native teachers, business and general English teachers, teachers who have a PhD and those who do not, and so on. Such comparisons would reflect the multifaceted nature of teacher qualifications and link them to certain contexts thus providing the basis for moving away from the two-dimensional division.

It is vital to note that these results are not generalisable. Like most pilot studies, this research has limitations and the conclusions with regards to the fact that the data apply only to the small sample of the 25 teachers who participated in this first stage of the study. In the next stage, the questionnaire will be distributed to a much larger, international set of teachers in order to obtain more reliable and generalisable results.

References

Árva, V., & Medgyes, P. (2000). Natives and non-natives on video. *System, 28*(3), 355–372.

Clason, D. L., & Dormody, T. J. (1994). Analysing data measured by individual Likert-type items. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 35*(4), 31–35.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. London, New York: Routledge Falmer.

Council of Europe. (2018). *Companion volume with new descriptors to the Common European Framework for Languages: Learning, teaching and assessment publication*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Dörnyei, Z. (2002). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration and processing.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Ellis, E. M. (2006). Language learning experience as a contributor to ESOL teacher cognition. *TESL-EJ 10*(1) http://tesl-ej.org

Holliday, A. (2005). *The struggle to teach English as an international language*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Holliday, A. (2009). English as a lingua franca, non-native speakers and cosmopolitan realities. In F. Sharifian (Ed.), *English as an international language; Perspectives and pedagogical issues* (pp. 21–33). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Illés, É., & Csizér, K. (2018). A nyelvtanárok válaszai [Language teachers' responses]. In E. Öveges & K. Csizér (Eds.), *Az idegennyelv-oktatás keretei és hatékonysága 2017-2018*. [The framework and efficiency of foreign language teaching 2017-2018]. Retrieved from https://www.oktatas.hu/pub_bin/dload/sajtoszoba/nyelvoktatas_kutatasi_jelentes_2018.pdf

Illés, É., & Sazdovska, J. (2018). Guidelines for writing: "If English is not your first language…". In É. Illés & J. Sazdovska (Eds.), *Dimensions, diversity and directions in ELT* (pp. 23–33). Budapest, Hungary: IATEFL Hungary.

Jenkins, J. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching World Englishes and English as a lingua franca. *TESOL Quarterly, 40*(1), 157–181.

Likert, R. (1932). A technique for the measurement of attitudes. *Archives of Psychology*, *22*, 1–55.

Medgyes, P. (1992). Native or non-native: Who's worth more? *ELT Journal, 46*(4), 340–349.

Medgyes, P. (1994). *The non-native teacher* (1st ed.). Basingstoke, England: Macmillan.

Medgyes, P. (2001). When the teacher is a non-native speaker. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd ed., pp. 415–428). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Medgyes, P. (2012). Non-native speaker teacher. In M. Byram & A. Hu (Eds.), *Routledge encyclopaedia of language teaching and learning* (2nd ed., pp. 508–511). London & New York: Routledge.

Medgyes, P. (2012). Native speaker. In M. Byram & A. Hu (Eds.), *Routledge encyclopaedia of language teaching and learning* (2nd ed., pp. 497–500). London & New York: Routledge.

Medgyes, P. (2014). The native/nonnative conundrum revisited. In J. Horváth & P. Medgyes (Eds.), *Studies in honour of Marianne Nikolov* (pp. 176–185). Pécs, Hungary: Lingua Franca Csoport.

Medgyes, P. (2017). *The non-native teacher* (3rd ed.). Callander, Scotland: Swan Communication.

Murray, H. (2003). Swiss English teachers and Euro-English: Attitudes to a non-native variety. *Bulletin VALS-ASLA*, *77*, 147–165.

Nikolov, M. (2000). Teaching foreign languages to young learners in Hungary. In M. Nikolov & H. Curtain (Eds.), *An early start: Young learners and modern languages in Europe and beyond* (pp. 29–40). Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe.

Öveges, E., & Csizér, K. (Eds.) (2018). *Az idegennyelv-oktatás keretei és hatékonysága 2017-2018. [The framework and efficiency of foreign language teaching 2017-2018].* Retrieved from https://www.oktatas.hu/pub_bin/dload/sajtoszoba/nyelvoktatas_kutatasi_jelentes_2018.pdf

Reményi, A. A. (2017). Native-speakerism as an obstacle to teacher mobility in the EU: Interviews with Hungarian teachers of English. In É. Illés & J. Sazdovska (Eds.), *Looking forward, looking back* (pp. 90–106). Budapest, Hungary: IATEFL Hungary.

Reves, T., & Medgyes, P. (1994). The non-native English speaking EFL/ESL teacher's self-image: An international survey. *System, 22*(3), 353–367.

Richardson, S. (2016, April). *The 'native factor', the haves and the have-nots.* 50th Paper presented at the 50th Annual International IATEFL Conference and Exhibition. Birmingham, UK.

Seidlhofer, B. (1999). Double standards: Teacher education in the Expanding Circle. *World Englishes*, *18*(2), 233–245.

Widdowson, H. G. (2003). *Defining issues in English language teaching.* Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

iatefl H *The Power of Now -*
Teaching and Learning in the Present

27th IATEFL-Hungary Annual Conference
Budapest, 6-8 October 2017

Conference Selections

Edited by Éva Illés, Jasmina Sazdovska and Zsuzsanna Soproni

The Power of Now – Teaching and Learning in the Present is a compilation comprising a selection of papers presented at the 27th IATEFL-Hungary Conference, held in Budapest, 6-8 October, 2017. The volume covers topics including oral feedback on student performance in class, designing a course for English for diplomatic purposes and a discussion on which English(es) to teach. There are also two papers dealing with views on native English speaking teachers. One paper investigates student views of NESTs while the other looks at teacher opinions on the topic.