

CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHERS' PEDAGOGICAL BELIEFS AND SELF-
REPORTED IMPLEMENTATION OF STANDARDS-BASED, LEARNER-
CENTERED INSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES

by

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I.

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DEDICATION

This is dedicated to Mitch whose love and constant support has made finishing this dissertation a reality and to my mother and late father for giving me the confidence to believe that anything is possible with determination and hard work.

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ABSTRACT

CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHERS' PEDAGOGICAL BELIEFS AND SELF-REPORTED IMPLEMENTATION OF STANDARDS-BASED, LEARNER-CENTERED INSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES

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George Mason University, 2014

Dissertation Director: Dr. Marjorie Hall Haley

Current trends in foreign/world language education in the United States include the application of the Standards for Foreign Language Learning (currently World Readiness Standards for Learning Languages) in learner-centered instructional practices. Recognized nationally as the benchmark for what language learners should know and be able to do, these standards are also part of the ACTFL/NCATE (currently ACTFL/CAEP) Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers. Both sets of standards are used as guiding documents for federally funded professional development programs for critical need language teachers that include Chinese.

The recent growth in Chinese language programs has resulted in a shortage of qualified teachers within the United States. To fill the void, school districts have relied on guest teacher programs or have directly recruited teachers from abroad themselves. Although highly proficient in the target language and possessing a deep understanding of

their home cultures, international teachers may be unfamiliar with the cultural context of education in U.S. schools that includes implementing standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

This mixed-methods study investigated the pedagogical beliefs and the self-reported instructional practices of Chinese language teachers to determine the extent to which their beliefs and practices aligned with standard-based, learner-centered instruction. The participants attended at least one federally funded, standards-based professional development program and were teaching Chinese in a U.S. classroom at the time of this research. Qualitative and quantitative data were collected from 71 Chinese language teachers from across the United States who completed a survey. Additionally, there were 17 teachers who participated in telephone interviews and four teachers who took part in seven classroom observations.

The findings indicated the participants had knowledge of and the ability to implement the SFLL in learner-centered activities and assessments. However, the frequency with which they applied the five domains of the SFLL varied, indicating areas of alignment and incongruence between their pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices. Further analysis revealed the participants were acutely aware of the differences in their home cultures of education and those where they now teach. These differences related to four commonly shared challenges: classroom management, student motivation, use of the target language, and teacher-student relations. The investigation of these challenges and how their beliefs and practices diverged included constructs such as teacher agency, identity, and cognition. As such, different cultural contexts of education

should be valued and considered a legitimate mitigating factor between language teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their application of standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

I. INTRODUCTION

In the post-September 11, 2001 era, the focus of K-12 public education within the United States has expanded from preparing students to be citizens of a democracy to preparing them for global citizenship with the ability to navigate through language barriers and cultural differences. This preparation includes the knowledge and skills necessary to develop global perspectives of national security and local economies (Committee for Economic Development [CED], 2006). So important are these global perspectives that in the United States, awareness of national and international security has led to the creation of the National Security Language Initiative (NSLI). Introduced by President George W. Bush in 2006, the NSLI has been a sustained, collaborative effort by the Secretaries of State, Education, Defense, and the Director of National Intelligence. This inter-agency initiative has made foreign language education a national priority by recognizing that “foreign language skills are essential to engaging foreign governments and peoples, especially in critical world regions, to promote understanding, convey respect for other cultures, and encourage reform” (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Postsecondary Education [DOE], 2008, p. 1). According to the NSLI, critical need languages (CNLs) include Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Russian, and the families of Indic, Persian, and Turkic languages. The goals of the NSLI include increasing the

number of students studying CNLs, the number of advanced level speakers of CNLs in the United States, and the number of CNL teachers available to teach in U.S. schools (DOE, 2008).

Since the founding of the NSLI, a rapid increase in demand for CNL teachers has resulted in a shortage of qualified teachers within the United States. School districts have actively recruited CNL teachers from other countries to fill the void (Asia Society, 2005, 2010; CED, 2006). The Asia Society has focused specifically on the shortage of Chinese (i.e., Mandarin) language teachers for K-12 and post-secondary education within the United States. Their 2010 report noted that there are several programs that recruit guest teachers from China to teach Mandarin in U.S. schools, including those sponsored by the College Board, the Fulbright Teacher Exchange Program, and the Office of Chinese Language Council International, also known as Hanban. As a result of this recruitment, a total of 449 guest teachers were placed in U.S. schools between 2006 and 2010 (Asia Society, 2010). International teachers are in high demand because they are proficient in foreign/world languages and have a deep understanding of their home cultures. However, many may be unfamiliar with the cultural context of U.S. schools, including Western pedagogical methods and approaches that place the learner at the center of standards-based instruction (Asia Society, 2005, 2010). To facilitate their transition to standards-based, learner-centered instruction in U.S. schools, several agencies, both private and public, have begun to offer professional development to international teachers who have been recruited to teach critical need languages in the United States.

CNL Professional Development

The growth in programs that provide professional development to pre-service, in-service, and would-be CNL teachers has been facilitated through various federal initiatives (CED, 2006; DOE, 2008). This dissertation study will focus on one such initiative, STARTALK, because the researcher had access to Chinese language teachers who had attended STARTALK teacher programs from 2007 to 2011. This access was the result of her work on the administrative and research team for the STARTALK Summer Institutes that were held at George Mason University (GMU) between 2008 and 2011.

STARTALK. In 2007, the NSLI began funding both student and teacher programs for increasing the number of CNL speakers within the United States. These programs have been funded through federal grants under the STARTALK name. The STARTALK teacher professional development programs typically occur during the summer and are held at educational institutions across the United States. They may vary in content, but each program follows a template based on two sets of nationally recognized standards, the Standards for Foreign Language Learning (SFL) and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers.

Standards for Foreign Language Learning. The SFL were first developed in 1996 through the National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project (NSFLEP). Although they are not intended to be curriculum standards, they are widely used as guidelines for the development of curriculum and the delivery of foreign/world language

instruction. The five domains of the SFL focus language teaching and learning on (1) the development of communicative skills; (2) the understanding of the products, practices, and perspectives of other cultures; (3) the connection of language study with other content areas; (4) the comparison of other cultures to one's own; and (5) the extension of language study beyond the classroom to the local communities. Under these five domains, foreign/world language instruction no longer seeks to teach language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) in isolation. Rather, foreign/world language instruction emphasizes the integration of language skills in order to engage learners with interpreting, presenting, and sharing information in communicative events that mirror real-life language usage.

In the fall of 2013, these standards were “refreshed” based upon the 2011 report *A Decade of Foreign Language Standards: Impact, Influence, and Future Directions*. They are now referred to as the World Readiness Standards for Foreign Languages. According to the 2011 report, recommendations for updated descriptions of the SFL came from within the foreign/world language, particularly for the Connections and Communities Standards. Complete descriptions can be accessed from:

[http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/World-](http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/World-ReadinessStandardsforLearningLanguages.pdf)

[ReadinessStandardsforLearningLanguages.pdf](http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/World-ReadinessStandardsforLearningLanguages.pdf). The request reflects educational innovations including the Common Core Standards and recent publications on 21st century skills for the global environment. However, because the present study was conducted using the previous descriptions of the five domains and the prior name (i.e.

Standards for Foreign Language Learning), the SFL will be the term used throughout this dissertation.

Standards for foreign language teachers. The ACTFL/NCATE Standards were developed in 2002 by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). These standards have been widely accepted by the field of foreign/world language teacher education. Teacher preparation programs use these standards to establish benchmarks in courses that comprise K-12 initial foreign/world language teacher licensure programs. These benchmarks include the ability to use the SFL to meet the diverse needs of today's language learners by developing the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to foster communicative proficiency and cultural competence using standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

It is important to note that in July 2013, NCATE consolidated with the other large U.S. accreditation institution called the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC). This consolidation has resulted in the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP), the new and exclusive U.S. accreditation organization for educator preparation programs. In December 2013, an updated version of the ACTFL/NCATE Standards was approved by CAEP to form the ACTFL/CAEP Standards of 2013. In this study, the acronym ACTFL/NCATE is retained because teacher preparation programs are in transition and continue to align with those earlier standards until 2016. In addition, the

language from the set of standards established in 2002 was used in developing several of the survey items and interview questions.

Standards and STARTALK. Recognizing that the majority of prior educational experiences of CNL teachers have occurred primarily in teacher-centered classrooms, the STARTALK teacher programs are designed to provide attendees with theoretical, practical, and experiential knowledge of standards-based, learner-centered instruction. Teachers who attend STARTALK workshops gain knowledge of the SFL and practice implementing them by creating and delivering learner-centered activities and assessments that are aligned with the ACTFL/NCATE Standards. To facilitate theory-to-practice, STARTALK teacher programs are often aligned with STARTALK student programs. A common model for a STARTALK teacher program begins with teachers attending several days of interactive workshops, either online or in person, followed by several days observing and teaching K-12 students who are attending a STARTALK student program. Although the majority of these institutes provide exceptional professional development to CNL teachers, the question of their preparedness for the realities and the ease or difficulty with which they transition into U.S. classrooms remains largely unanswered.

Statement of the Problem

In the current educational environment of standards-based, learner-centered instruction, it is important that today's teachers be able to implement these practices while addressing the diverse needs of their students. This is particularly true for Chinese

language teachers who, as Ging (1994) and Schrier (1994) note, are often responsible for creating and growing Chinese language programs in the schools where they teach. If Chinese language teachers are not successful in their acculturation into U.S. schools, they may alienate themselves from their students, resulting in declined enrollments and eventual program elimination (Asia Society, 2005, 2010; Ging, 1994; Schrier, 1994). At a time when the growth of CNL programs in U.S. schools is imperative to our national security (DOE, 2008) and our nation's economic growth (CED, 2006), it is incumbent upon educational researchers to investigate the progress that CNL teachers make toward standards-based, learner-centered instruction. This study examined a segment of that progress by investigating the pedagogical beliefs of Chinese language teachers and their self-reported implementation of standards-based, learner-centered instruction in their classroom practices.

Purpose of the Study

Preparing international language teachers for standards-based, learner-centered instruction has presented new challenges for teacher educators, school administrators, language department supervisors, and faculty members (Asia Society, 2005, 2010). Teachers, even those with prior pedagogical training, have already established a set of preconceived notions of what teaching and learning will look like in their classrooms (Allen, 2008; Borg, 2003; Lacorte, 2005; Wagner, 1991; Zhan, 2008). Zhan's work with teachers in China has revealed that these preconceived notions about teaching and learning are inculcated over time through experiential and cultural influences. Although

there have been some empirical findings from U.S. studies regarding the relationship between foreign/world language teacher beliefs and their classroom practices (Allen, 2002, 2008; Lacorte, 2005), the research that specifically investigates CNL teachers in the United States is in its nascent stage.

The purpose of this study is to contribute to the body of research in the field of foreign/world language education that is used by teacher education programs and for teacher professional learning. It will inform the field of the relevant issues surrounding the complex transition that international teachers make as they begin to teach in U.S. schools. To narrow the gap that exists between the theories connected to teachers' pedagogical beliefs and the theories connected to standards-based, learner-centered instruction a better understanding of teacher beliefs and practice is needed (Allen, 2008; Borg, 2003; Lacorte, 2005; Wagner, 1991). The findings from this study will fill a current void in the literature by providing empirical evidence of the progress that CNL teachers make toward standards-based, learner-centered instruction. It will do so by identifying trends in the self-reported data on teacher beliefs and instructional practices gathered through an online survey, teacher interviews, and data obtained from classroom observations. The goal is to examine these trends in terms of the tenets of standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

This research will be of particular interest to teacher educators who have participated in or have hosted a STARTALK teacher program. Although this study is not an evaluation of STARTALK teacher programs, the findings will provide these teacher

educators with empirical evidence on teacher beliefs and perceptions as they relate to standards-based, learner-centered instruction. It is also believed that the findings from this study will be relevant to a broader audience. The results and implications will be of value to teacher educators who work with CNL teachers. The few studies that have examined how language teachers adopt standards-based, learner-centered instruction (Allen, 2002, 2008; Lacorte, 2005) have indicated that challenges are not limited by language taught. Therefore, this study will also be of potential interest to teacher educators who are preparing teachers from within the United States and around the globe in their respective programs to teach U.S. students.

Research Questions

This research investigated Chinese language teachers' self-reported pedagogical beliefs and perceptions of implementing standards-based, learner-centered instruction by asking the following questions:

1. How do the self-reported pedagogical beliefs of the Chinese language teachers in this study reflect standards-based, learner-centered instruction?
2. How do the self-reported and observed instructional practices of the Chinese language teachers in this study reflect standards-based, learner-centered instruction?
3. In what ways are the pedagogical beliefs of the teachers in this study congruent and incongruent with their instructional practices?

Relevance of the Study

This study is designed to employ qualitative and quantitative research methods to address important areas in foreign/world language education within the context of the changes that have taken place in the last two decades. These changes involve multiple areas, including the creation of two new sets of standards—the first for language learners, and the second for the preparation of language teachers; a pedagogical paradigm shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered instruction; the inclusion of culturally, linguistically, and cognitively diverse learners in foreign/world language classrooms; technological advances that are changing regularly and rapidly; and the current agenda to grow the nation’s language capacity in languages that traditionally have not been offered in U.S. schools. Of particular relevance to this study is how these changes have presented new challenges in preparing Chinese language teachers to implement standards-based, learner-centered instructional practices that meet the diverse needs of today’s language learners

Limitations of the Study

Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2006) note that limitations should be stated explicitly so that the reader can decide to what extent they affect the results. There are three noteworthy limitations to this study.

First, this investigation was limited to a subset of Chinese language teachers who currently teach in various teaching environments within the United States and who have attended at least one STARTALK teacher program between 2007 and 2011. With this

consideration, generalizing the results of this research should be done cautiously, taking into consideration the sociocultural backgrounds of the teachers and the cultures of education from which their beliefs, knowledge, and assumptions about teaching and learning languages were initially formed. Another consideration is that the teachers in this study may have already questioned their classroom practices by electing to attend a professional development workshop on standards-based, learner-centered instruction. Therefore, they may represent a unique group of teachers seeking to improve their instructional practices.

A second limitation of this study is that the data were from the self-reported responses that the 71 participants provided on the online survey and the self-reported responses of 17 teachers who participated in short telephone interviews. With regard to using self-reported data with teacher education research, Fang (1996) states that self-reported data are not reliable unless it is accompanied by classroom observations. To address Fang's call for classroom observations to support self-reported survey data, eight observations with four K-16 Chinese language teachers were conducted. These observations also presented limitations.

There were several local Chinese language teachers who were willing to participate in classroom observations. Although their willingness was greatly appreciated, permission from their school districts and school administrators still had to be obtained. Months were spent on this process. One major local school district declined any access, stating that they conduct classroom research "in-house" through their own

assessment/research team. Another school district strictly upheld their deadline for classroom research applications to June 1, which had already passed by the time the proposal for this research received approval. A third local school district did not respond to the research application for several months. Their eventual reply declined access with no particular reason given. This is unfortunately reflective of the current reality of educational research where many school districts are undertaking their own research in an effort to establish and protect their ownership of any studies conducted in their classrooms.

These limitations may affect the generalizability of the results of this study. However, the data collected to answer the research questions were viable and part of a comprehensive mixed-methods study. Maxwell (2005) notes that although qualitative sampling techniques and sample sizes do not provide the kinds of “precise extrapolation of results to define populations that probability sampling allows” (p. 116), the results from qualitative studies may apply to other similar situations or contexts. Readers are encouraged to apply the results from this study to situations and contexts that they deem to be similar.

Definitions of Terms

There are several key terms used throughout this dissertation. They are defined here in order to provide uniformity in how readers interpret them.

Advanced Placement Language Courses: Offered in secondary (9-12) schools, these courses offer the possibility of earning college credit depending upon national examination scores and requirements of individual colleges (NSFLEP, 1999).

Communicative Competence: Defining this construct, Canale and Swain (1980) note that communicative competence encompasses four other competencies. These four include the ability to accurately apply the rules of grammar (grammatical/linguistic competence) during oral and written discourse (discourse competence); the social rules for culturally appropriate use of language (sociolinguistic competence); and the strategies necessary to communicate (strategic competence) when there is a breakdown in grammatical/linguistic competence, discourse competence, and/or sociolinguistic competence.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): The methods, curricula, goals, and processes for teaching languages that focus on the appropriate/functional use of language for a wide variety of social situations and interactions (Savignon, 1991).

Critical Needs Languages (CNLs): Defined by the National Language Security Initiative as languages that are critical to the economic competitiveness and security interests of the United States. They include Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Russian, Korean, and the families of Indic, Persian, and Turkic languages (DOE, 2008).

Learner Diversity: Includes students from racially, ethnically, culturally, and linguistically diverse families and communities with various socioeconomic levels. For this research, learner diversity also includes the recognition that

students process information differently (cognitive diversity) and that what constitutes intelligence varies across cultures and societies (Gardner, 1983; Moll & González, 2004; Sternberg, 2007).

Foreign Language Immersion Programs: Intensive elementary (K-8) language programs that teach several, and, in some models, almost all subjects in the target language. Most immersion models teach at least language arts in English (NSFLEP, 1999).

Foreign Language in the Elementary School (FLES) Programs: Less intensive elementary (K-8) language programs that provide instruction in the target language for designated periods of time (e.g., 30 minutes twice per week). Curriculum is often thematic in nature and includes vocabulary and concepts from the content curriculum by grade level (NSFLEP, 1999).

Foreign Language Experience and Exploratory (FLEX) Programs: Elementary (K-8) programs that permit students to experience several languages before selecting a language for further study. These programs vary from before/after school programs to half-year courses offered in grades 6-8 (NSFLEP, 1999).

International Baccalaureate Programs: Secondary (9-12) programs that prepare students for an international diploma that is earned through the successful completion of specified coursework and/or passing scores on a national examination (NSFLEP, 1999).

Learner-centered language instruction: Instructional practices that focus on functional-language use, or language used in typical, real-life situations. Students may work

alone or in groups depending on the communicative purpose of the activity. The instructor refrains from constant correction of student utterances in favor of error correction when questions arise. Evaluation of student learning involves the instructor, peers, and/or self-evaluation (National Capital Language Resource Center, 2004). <http://www.ncrlrc.org/essentials/whatteach/models.htm>

Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTLs): Languages other than French, German, and Spanish. They tend to be languages that the United States has associated with current economic, strategic, and/or cultural interests (NSFLEP, 1999).

Modes of Communication: Related to the Standards for Foreign Language Learning, the three modes of communication reflect how languages are used in real-life circumstances. These circumstances include the real-time negotiation of meaning between individuals communicating in the language (interpersonal mode), the culturally appropriate interpretation of written or spoken language when the writer or speaker is not available to negotiate meaning in real-time (interpretive mode), and the presentational mode, that involves the creation of oral or written messages to be shared with a larger audience where no direct opportunity for negotiation of meaning is available between the presenter and the audience (NSFLEP, 1999).

Pedagogical Beliefs: The beliefs that one holds about the nature of teaching and learning (Pajares, 1992).

Secondary School Foreign Language Programs: These program models vary but often include novice (Levels I & II), intermediate (Levels II & III), and advanced

(Levels IV-V) courses. Curriculum typically includes grammar and syntax, cultures, and literatures associated with the target language (NSFLEP, 1999).

Standards-based language instruction: Language instruction that utilizes the five domains of Standards for Foreign Language Teaching (SFLT). These domains include developing communicative skills (Communication); studying the products, practices, and perspectives of other cultures (Cultures); connecting foreign language study to other content areas (Connections); making cultural and linguistic comparisons to one's own (Comparisons); and extending language study beyond the classroom (Communities).

Teacher-centered language instruction: Instructional practices that focus on language forms and structures with emphasis on the instructor's linguistic knowledge. Oral and written discourse is generally instructor-led with frequent monitoring and correcting of errors in student utterances. Students are expected to work alone, completing exercises on discrete grammar points (National Capital Language Resource Center, 2004). <http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/whateach/models.htm>.

Summary

This chapter situates the present study within the current context of foreign/world language education that includes the recent increase of Chinese language programs in K-16 U.S. schools. To meet the demand for Chinese language teachers, many school districts have recruited teachers from abroad. It is imperative that these international teachers acculturate to Western cultures of education, including standards-based, learner-

centered instruction as they are often tasked with creating curriculum and increasing enrollments in their respective programs. This study analyzed qualitative and quantitative data to investigate the pedagogical beliefs and self-reported practices of Chinese language teachers who had attended at least one standards-based federally funded professional development program and who were teaching Chinese in a U.S. classroom at the time they participated in this research. The findings presented in this dissertation fill a gap in the literature on the transition that international teachers experience as they begin to teach in U.S. schools. The next chapter presents the theoretical framework that supports this study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are four main areas of scholarship that support the theoretical framework for this study. The first area of scholarship is standards-based, learner-centered instruction, which includes the subcategories for the Standards for Foreign Language Learning (SFL) and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers (ACTFL/NCATE Standards) that were briefly introduced in Chapter One. It also includes a subcategory for the instructional methods and strategies that have been associated with standards-based, learner-centered foreign/world language instruction that focuses on building communicative competence. The second major area of scholarship is the literature on language teacher pedagogical beliefs. This literature review will introduce additional factors that contribute to teacher beliefs based upon Borg's (2003) theoretical framework for language teacher cognition. The third pillar for this theoretical framework is the research that has investigated the relationship between language teacher beliefs and classroom practices. The fourth major body of literature that informs this study is the cultural context of language education. This area includes the cultural contexts (i.e., purpose) for learning languages and the instructional and assessment practices that are viewed as valuable in a given cultural context. It also

considers how these cultural contexts influence language teacher pedagogical beliefs and classroom practices.

It should be noted that these four areas of scholarship are not isolated pillars of this framework. Rather, it is their interrelationships that provide the theoretical and empirical support for a study that identifies areas where the Chinese teacher participants' self-reported beliefs and instructional practices are congruent with standards-based, learner-centered instruction as well as areas where they are incongruent. The interrelationships of this theoretical framework are illustrated in Figure 1.

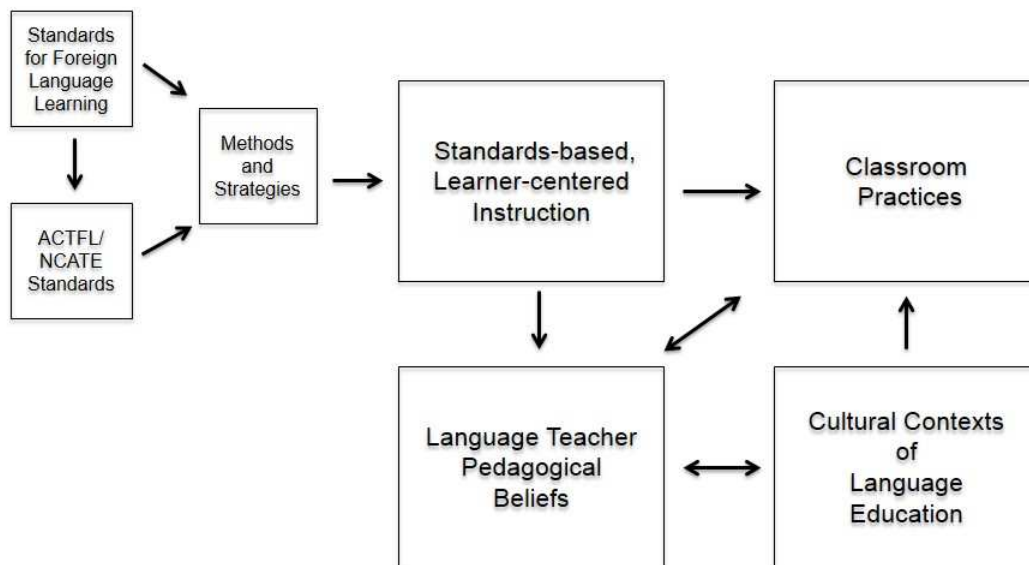


Figure 1. Theoretical framework.

A discussion of this theoretical framework begins with an explanation of the relationships between the SFLL, the ACTFL/NCATE Standards, and teaching methods and strategies that are associated with standards-based, learner-centered language instruction. An example of how these standards influence professional development opportunities for Chinese language teachers, such as STARTALK, is also provided. A review of the literature on teacher pedagogical beliefs that support Borg's model follows, providing an understanding of the symbiotic relationship between language teacher beliefs and their classroom practices. The final section of this literature review illustrates the relationships between language teacher pedagogical beliefs and standards-based, learner-centered instruction within the cultural contexts of language education. This includes several national studies that have examined the ways in which language teachers in the United States have adopted standards-based, learner-centered instruction in their practice. It also includes international studies that have investigated the influence of cultural contexts of language education and the adoption of communicative language teaching methods and strategies in China. These studies on the cultural contexts of communicative language teaching also provide an understanding of the personal schooling experiences of the Chinese language teachers who participated in this study.

Standards-based, Learner-centered Language Instruction

There are several sets of standards within the field of foreign/world language education that address the different stages of teacher development. The first set is the Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers that was developed by the

National Foreign Language Standards Collaborative. This collaborative included the American Council on The Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). The ACTFL/NCATE Standards are used for the initial preparation of language teachers and the accreditation of language teacher education programs. The second set of standards is the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC). The INTASC Standards apply to newly licensed teachers during their first three years of teaching and represent various content areas, including foreign/world languages. The third set of standards is the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS). These standards apply to a wide variety of content areas and are used to certify experienced teachers who have met a rigorous set of benchmarks. Several scholars (Ingold & Wang, 2010; Shrum & Fox, 2005) have noted that these nationally recognized sets of standards are well aligned with one another, creating continuity throughout the professional lives of language teachers.

In addition to standards for the initial preparation and the ongoing development of foreign/world language teachers, there is also a set of nationally recognized standards for foreign/world language learners. The Standards for Foreign Language Learning (SFL) are used extensively within the United States as a set of guidelines for what K-12 language learners should know and be able to do as a result of their language study.

This literature review focuses on the SFL and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards because it supports a study that investigated the beliefs and instructional practices related to the SFL by Chinese language teachers who have attended at least one STARTALK

professional development program. STARTALK Teacher Programs may vary in their content and structure, but they must be aligned with the SFL and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards.

SFL

In 1996, the National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project (NSFLEP) published the first set of foreign/world language standards that serve as a set of guidelines, broadly defining the communicative competence that K-12 language learners should be able to develop as a result of their language study. The original set of SFL was published in 1996 and has since been updated twice. The second publication in 1999 included language-specific applications in Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, and the Classical languages. The third edition was published in 2006 and includes standards for Arabic. The executive summary for these standards may be viewed at <http://www.actfl.org/i4a/pages/index.cfm?pageid=3324>

The SFL is composed of five categories, commonly known as the 5Cs: Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities. The 5Cs provide guidelines for learning languages and as a result have influenced the teaching of languages, using practices that focus on developing interpretive, presentational, and interpersonal communicative skills (Communication); studying the products, practices, and perspectives of various cultures (Cultures); connecting foreign language study to other content areas (Connections); comparing the target language and cultures to one's own (Comparisons); and extending language study beyond the classroom to the local

community (Communities). As a result of the SFLL, teaching the four skill areas (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) in isolation through the transmission of knowledge from teacher to student has been replaced with instructional practices that integrate the four skill areas into three distinct modes of communication. The interpretive mode provides the learner with opportunities to interpret meaning from a wide variety of texts (i.e., advertisements, newspapers, menus, song lyrics, literary texts) in the target language. The presentational mode allows learners to share information orally or in writing with a larger audience. The interpersonal mode focuses on one-to-one communication on topics that mirror real-life use of the language (NSFLEP, 1999).

In addition to writing the 5Cs, members of NSFLEP note that language learning should be viewed as a complex “fabric” whose “weave” includes the intersection of each of the 5Cs with the following curricular elements: the language system, cultural knowledge, communication strategies, critical thinking skills, learning strategies, other subject areas, and technology (NSFLEP, 1999; Shrum & Glisan, 2005). By weaving curricular elements into the 5Cs, language teachers can extend their instructional practices beyond activities that focus on grammatical competence, such as the memorization of vocabulary and grammatical forms, to include opportunities for language learners “to explore, develop, and use communication strategies, learning strategies, critical thinking skills, and skill in technology, as well as the appropriate elements of the language system and culture” (NSFLEP, 1999, p. 32). Fostering communicative competence using the SFLL as a guide places additional responsibility on

the learner and requires a shift in the language teacher's role. To prepare for this shift, many language teacher education programs implement the ACTFL/NCATE Standards throughout their coursework for initial teacher preparation.

ACTFL/NCATE Standards

In 2002, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) approved the Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers. As noted earlier, these standards were developed by NCATE and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). They are commonly referred to as the ACTFL/NCATE Standards. These standards were updated in 2013 and are now referred to as the ACTFL/CAEP Standards. However, for the purposes of this research, which was conducted before these revisions, the 2002 standards are referred to as the ACTFL/NCATE Standards.

The ACTFL/NCATE Standards have been widely adopted by universities for initial language teacher preparation programs that meet state licensure requirements. The benchmarks for preparing would-be teachers to be reflective, professional practitioners who are capable of effectively implementing the SFLL in their teaching and assessment practices are outlined in six domains. These include: (1) language, linguistics, comparisons; (2) cultures, literatures, cross-disciplinary concepts; (3) language acquisition theories and instructional practices; (4) integration of standards into curriculum and instruction; (5) assessment of language and cultures; and (6) professionalism. According to these domains, language teacher preparation programs

should include opportunities for pre-service teachers to learn about the varieties that exist among the target language and the cultures where the target language is spoken; integrate knowledge of other disciplines into their instruction; identify distinct viewpoints accessible only through the target language; plan lessons that incorporate the SFL using a variety of instructional and assessment practices that meet the diverse needs of language learners; and create a plan for on-going professional development (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages/National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education [ACTFL/NCATE], 2002). These standards are available at <http://www.actfl.org/professional-development/actfl-caep>.

Neither the SFL nor the ACTFL/NCATE Standards prescribe specific methods or strategies for teaching standards-based lessons. Nevertheless, the theoretical foundation of these two sets of standards is based upon decades of second language acquisition (SLA) research that has contributed to the methods and strategies used to develop foreign/world language curriculum and instruction. The next section provides a historical summary of the relationship among SLA, methods and strategies, and the SFL.

Methods and Strategies

The terms “method” and “strategy” as they relate to classroom practices are often used interchangeably. However, Hadley (2001), calling upon the work of Westphal (1979), determined that “method” was the theoretical-philosophical basis for curriculum development and that “strategy” refers to an instructional activity that takes place within

the classroom. To understand how these distinct terms are currently used interchangeably and how they relate to the SFL and ACTFL/NCATE Standards, it is necessary to review a brief historical perspective of language teaching methods and strategies within the United States.

Language teaching methods from the 1940s through the 1960s were defined as research-based theories and models of what constituted effective instructional strategies (Wagner, 1991). These methods were based upon second language acquisition (SLA) theories that focused on building grammatical and linguistic competence and were fairly simplistic, making it relatively easy to define and attach patterns of teaching to a particular method (Wagner, 1991; Wong, 2006). During this time, the influence of behavioral psychology became prominent in the language classroom with the Audio-Lingual Method that reached the height of its popularity during the 1950s (Bruner, 1990; Wong, 2006). Bruner notes that the influence of behaviorism in linguistics and psychology resulted in the objective view that language acquisition was a learned behavior accomplished through habit formation. Strategies related to this method included stimulus-response pattern drills to develop second language skills in the prescribed order of listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Shrum & Glisan, 2005). Language learners memorized dialogues and received immediate, explicit error correction from the instructor.

The work of linguist Noam Chomsky (1965) challenged behaviorism with respect to language learning, as did other scholars (e.g., Jerome Bruner, George Miller) during

the 1950s, which sought to replace behaviorism with a subjective understanding of the human mind. The Cognitive Revolution, as it became known, was a time when “psychology joined forces with anthropology and linguistics, philosophy and history, and even with the discipline of law...to bring the mind back into the human sciences after a long cold winter of objectivism” (Bruner, 1990, p. 3). Second language acquisition research was significantly impacted by the Cognitive Revolution through paradigmatic shifts also occurring in the fields of linguistics and psychology (Wong, 2006). Chomsky’s theory of the language acquisition device (LAD) led to several nativist approaches to language learning, including the Cognitive Code Method in the 1960s. The theory that the LAD provided the grammatical hardwiring for language learning in all humans provided the theoretical framework for the Cognitive Code Method. Using this method, language instructors introduced a carefully prescribed sequence of grammar rules in the learners’ native language (L1) followed by meaningful, communicative exercises in the target language (L2) (Shrum & Glisan, 2005).

Cognitive theories about learning languages that emerged in the 1970s included defining the complex notion of communicative competence. As noted in the definition of terms in Chapter One, defining communicative competence encompasses the strategies used in developing four other competencies. Language learners are taught how to apply strategies for learning the rules of grammar (grammatical/linguistic competence); strategies for applying grammar rules in oral and written discourse (discourse competence); strategies for appropriately navigating the nuances of language and culture

(sociolinguistic competence); and strategies for communicating effectively when there is a lapse or breakdown with the previous three competencies (strategic competence).

The complex notion of communicative competence calls upon the work of Chomsky (1965) on grammatical/linguistic competence; the scholarship of Habermas (1970), Halliday (1976), Hymes (2001), and Savignon (1972) on the relationship between grammatical competence and communicative competence; and the distinctions made between grammatical competence, communicative competence, and sociolinguistic competence by Campbell and Wales (1970), Canale and Swain (1980), and Hymes (2001). Through these decades of scholarship, it was determined that developing curriculum and delivering classroom instruction that focused on the development of communicative competence could not be sufficiently addressed by one method or set of strategies (Savignon, 1972; Wagner, 1991). The ease of identifying specific methods to classroom practice (i.e., strategies) that prevailed in the 1940s through 1960s as noted by Wagner (1991) and Wong (2006) became increasingly more difficult during the 1970s and subsequent decades.

As scholars, researchers, and teachers shifted their focus from developing grammatical competence to building communicative competence, the development of new methods under the umbrella of “communicative approaches” was based on what Wagner (1991) calls “the new age of theories of social interaction and learning” (p. 289). The recognition that one’s native language (L1) is first acquired socially and then learned academically led to the notion that second (and subsequent) languages (L2) should be

learned in the same manner. Two methods and strategies that emerged during this time were Total Physical Response (TPR) (Asher, 1972) and Natural Approach (Krashen, 1982; Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Shrum and Glisan (2005) note that both TPR and the Natural Approach use strategies that allow the learner time to acquire the language through physically responding to commands (TPR) and through creative, communicative practice of the language with limited error correction by the teacher (Natural Approach). When teachers do provide error correction using TPR and/or the Natural Approach, Shrum and Glisan state that it is often done through modeling the correct grammatical or syntactic form.

The research on second language acquisition during the 1980s and 1990s continued to focus on the development of communicative competence and included the scholarship of Canale and Swain (1980) and Krashen (1982) on strategic competence and language acquisition, respectively. The development of strategic competence requires curriculum and instruction that provide language learners with opportunities to hear vocabulary in real-life contexts and make sense of grammar constructs through a wide range of sociolinguistic functions (such as asking for directions or ordering food in a restaurant). As language learners develop proficiency, they also should be provided with opportunities to demonstrate what they know and can do with a language through performance-based assessments (Canale & Swain). During this time, terms such as comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982; Hatch, 1984) and comprehensible output (Swain, 1985) emerged in SLA literature.

According to Krashen (1982), the input provided during instruction (i.e., reading or speaking), whether from the teacher or instructional materials, does not need to be grammatically sequenced but should be interesting and slightly beyond the learner's current level of competence. Krashen refers to this as $i + 1$ in his input hypothesis, where " i " refers to the learner's current level of competence and " 1 " refers to the next level of competence. According to Hatch (1983), comprehensible input provided by the instructor should include: the use of slower rates of speech; the use of high frequency vocabulary; the progression from simple syntax to more complex utterances; the provision of guided choices for answering dialogic questions; and the repetition of common, real-life scenarios for language use. In addition to providing comprehensible input, Krashen noted that learners should have access to a learning environment with low anxiety and very few requirements to produce language before they are ready to do so.

The emphasis that Krashen (1982) placed on input as a necessary and sufficient means for language acquisition has been debated by Swain (1985), who found that learners also need ample opportunities to produce output (i.e., speaking and writing) to fully develop communicative competence. In her research, Swain noted that learners were able to identify gaps between grammatical/linguistic competence and discourse competence when given opportunities to produce output. Furthermore, she found that over time, learners were able to develop automaticity, the ability to speak without having to first analyze what they want to communicate.

Curriculum and instructional practices that focus on building communicative competence include the adoption and adaptation of previous methods and strategies with the purpose of providing comprehensible input in the target language and opportunities for learners to produce comprehensible output. Shrum and Glisan (2005) note that while there are no specific methods and strategies associated with proficiency-driven curriculum and instruction, there is a distinct change in the role of the language teacher.

The shift in curriculum and instruction during the 1980s and 1990s from the development of grammatical competence to the development of communicative competence through performance-based instructional activities and assessments is significant. It requires a shift in the role of the teacher from leading traditional teacher-centered vocabulary and grammar drills toward facilitating language learning through communicative activities that are of interest to the learner and that allow for spontaneous, unrehearsed social interactions that mirror authentic, real-life situations (Canale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1983). To implement these communicative activities in a language classroom, Canale and Swain (1980) quote Morrow (1977), who says that the teacher must be willing to “take on an activating role as the instigator of situations which allow students to develop communicative skills” (p. 33). One of the challenges with the shift toward learner-centered language instruction is that it often requires cognitive changes within teachers, requiring them to re-define their roles in learner-centered classrooms.

The paradigm shift from teacher-centered to standards-based learner-centered foreign/world language instruction has taken place within this historical context of

language pedagogy and body of SLA research. It is within this context that the SFLL and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards were conceptualized, written, and revised. Since the introduction of these standards, the foreign/world language profession within the United States has, with few exceptions, accepted these sets of standards as the guiding benchmarks for teaching and learning languages within the United States (Shrum & Fox, 2005). More recently, the SFLL and ACTFL/NCATE Standards have been used as the theoretical foundation for foreign/world language professional development initiatives and programs that seek to provide teachers with learning experiences that foster the development and implementation of standards-based, learner-centered pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices. One such professional development program for critical need language (CNL) teachers is STARTALK.

Standards-Based Professional Development: STARTALK

STARTALK programs for critical need languages began during summer 2007 as a result of federal funding through the NSLI. These programs have been facilitated and managed by the National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) housed at the University of Maryland, College Park. The NFLC (*n.d.a*) describe the STARTALK mission as:

To increase the number of Americans learning, speaking, and teaching critical need foreign languages by offering students (K–16) and teachers of these languages, creative and engaging summer experiences that strive to exemplify best practices in language education and in language teacher development, forming an extensive community of practice that seeks continuous improvement

in such criteria as outcomes-driven program design, standards-based curriculum planning, learner-centered approaches, excellence in selection and development of materials, and meaningful assessment of outcomes.

To accomplish this mission, STARTALK teacher programs are required to use the original curriculum template that included six “can-do” statements aligned with the SFLL and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards (NFLC, *n.d.b*). These six statements are now referred to as STARTALK Endorsed Principles for Effective Teaching and Learning. As a result of STARTALK teacher programs, participants should be able to (1) implement a standards-based and thematically organized curriculum; (2) facilitate a learner-centered classroom; (3) use the target language and provide comprehensible input for instruction; (4) integrate culture, content, and language in a world language classroom; (5) adapt and use age-appropriate authentic materials; and (6) conduct performance-based assessments. The importance of aligning STARTALK teacher programs with the SFLL and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards is the result of the rapid increase in demand to offer critical need languages in U.S. schools. Creating new programs for critical need languages includes staffing classrooms with highly qualified teachers.

Highly Qualified Language Teachers

The shortage of qualified critical need language teachers, and particularly Chinese language teachers, within the United States has been well documented (i.e., Asia Society, 2005, 2010; Ingold & Wang, 2010). In 2005, the shortage of highly qualified Chinese language teachers was considered a major roadblock to building Chinese language

programs within the United States. The term “highly qualified” relates to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 2001 that is commonly known as No Child Left Behind (NCLB). The “highly qualified” designation requires K-12 public school teachers in content areas, including languages, to have a bachelor’s degree, subject matter competency, and a state certification or teaching license in their content area. In 2010, the Asia Society noted that even when prospective Chinese language teachers with content area competence (i.e., language and cultures) and a bachelor’s degree are successfully recruited, either domestically or internationally, there are still challenges in providing clear pathways to state certification or licensure.

Traditional routes to initial teacher licensure have been through teacher education programs located at post-secondary institutions that are accredited by organizations such as NCATE. These routes often include a prescribed curriculum consisting of required coursework to build linguistic and pedagogical knowledge, passing scores on language proficiency exams, and completion of a student-teaching practicum-internship. The primary investigators for STARTALK, Ingold and Wang (2010), note that given the increased demand for CNL teachers and the recruitment of potential teachers from outside of the United States, these traditional routes may no longer suffice; they state that required coursework may no longer meet the diverse needs of international and domestic would-be teachers, and the lack of qualified master teachers presents challenges for placing teacher-candidates in state mandated internships.

The Asia Society (2005) noted that prospective language teachers have different preparation needs depending on their linguistic backgrounds. For example, heritage speakers of the language raised or educated in the United States will likely have strong English skills and a familiarity with Western cultures of education but may need coursework in language pedagogy and Chinese grammar, literature, and cultures. International teachers recruited through programs sponsored by the College Board, the Fulbright Teacher Exchange Program, or the Chinese Ministry of Education (Hanban) are likely fluent in the target language and cultures but may need to develop their English language skills and ability to deliver standards-based, learner-centered instruction in the cultural context of U.S. classrooms. In addition to having diverse needs, there are inherent challenges within the current teacher preparation system. These challenges include the lack of flexibility within the current system to accommodate the increasingly diverse pool of potential Chinese language teachers, the lack of master teachers with whom teacher candidates can work during practicum and internships, and the lack of university faculty who have experience in Chinese language pedagogy (Asia Society, 2010).

Recognizing that these challenges have greatly affected the pipeline of highly qualified critical need language teachers has prompted scholars (Ingold & Wang, 2010; Kwoh, 2007) to question the adequacy of the current teacher supply system. They note that teacher certification is a core aspect of the current system and is in need of revision within and between state lines. Although foreign/world language teacher certification

programs vary greatly from state to state, many are currently based on outdated requirements that were established when languages were limited to Latin, French, German, and Spanish and offered primarily through Secondary School Foreign Language Program models. The conversation on how best to revise the current language teacher supply system includes alternative routes to certification (ARCs), particularly for critical need language teachers (Asia Society, 2010; Ingold & Wang, 2010; Kwoh, 2007).

The National Center for Alternative Certification (NCAC) notes that ARCs are most successful when local school districts, state departments of education, certification agencies, and institutions of higher education collaborate to create flexible and accessible processes that align coursework and other certification requirements for teacher preparation with a candidate's background, knowledge, and skills. A common approach to making accessible certification programs that cater to the diverse needs of prospective international Chinese language teachers is to provide these programs during the summer. Evidence of this type of collaboration has occurred in several of the STARTALK Chinese teacher programs. Since 2007, there have been 48 STARTALK Chinese teacher programs held during the summer that have served as direct gateways to either traditional or alternative certification programs. (It should be noted that there have been more than 48 STARTALK Chinese teacher programs offered since 2007, but not all have directly served as a gateway to a certification program).

Improvements in the gateways to traditional and alternative certification programs are a necessity to the critical need language teacher supply system. However, access to

teacher preparation and professional development does not ensure teacher success in the classroom. The influence of language teacher professional coursework, whether initial teacher preparation or on-going professional development, on instructional decisions and practices has been debated in the literature (Freeman, 1993; Kagan, 1992; Wilbur, 2007). These debates have included the extent to which professional coursework influences the pedagogical beliefs and classroom practices of language teachers (Borg, 2003) and the difficulty in defining and studying the cognitive dimension of teaching that includes what teachers believe, think, and know (Borg, 2003; Pajares, 1992).

Teacher Beliefs and Instructional Practices

Preparing international language teachers for standards-based, learner-centered instruction has presented new challenges with consideration to the current Chinese language teacher supply system (Asia Society, 2005, 2010). Teachers, even those with prior pedagogical training, have already established a set of beliefs about what teaching and learning will look like in their classrooms (Allen, 2008; Lacorte, 2005; Wagner, 1991; Zhan, 2008). Zhan's work with teachers in China has revealed that these preconceived notions about teaching and learning are inculcated over time through experiential and cultural influences. Although there have been several studies that have investigated foreign/world language use of the SFL (Allen, 2002, 2008) and the relationship between their pedagogical beliefs and classroom practices (Bell, 2005; Kissau, Algozzine & Yon, 2013; Kissau, Yon & Algozzine, 2011; Lacorte, 2005), the research that specifically investigates CNL teachers in the United States has just begun to

emerge in the literature. For this study, the literature review focuses on empirical evidence that supports the connections between language teacher beliefs, their prior schooling, professional coursework, classroom practices, contextual factors, and the culture of education in China, where most of the recruiting of Chinese language teachers occurs.

Language Teacher Pedagogical Beliefs

Pajares (1992) reviewed the robust body of literature on teacher pedagogical beliefs that has sought to understand the relationships between teacher beliefs, their pedagogical decisions, and their instructional practices. In his review, Pajares postulated that “teacher beliefs” is a “messy construct” largely because researchers have yet to agree upon a definition of the term and have not established systematic programs of research. The unobservable nature of cognitive domains and the multiplicity of definitions that have emerged (Connelly, Clandinin, & He, 1997; Nespor, 1987; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Pajares, 1992; Richards, 1998; Shulman 1986; Woods, 1996) are the result of studies that have sought to separate beliefs from other cognitive structures, such as knowledge and assumptions. Research on the pedagogical beliefs of foreign/world language teachers gained momentum during the 1990s. Borg (2003) has reviewed this literature as part of the development of his model for language teacher cognition.

In his review of the literature specific to foreign/world language teacher pedagogical beliefs, Borg (2003) states that this research includes foreign/world language programs around the globe, including English as a second language (ESL) and English as

a foreign language (EFL). Borg concurs with Pajares (1992) and finds that the lack of replication or systematic research on teacher beliefs is due to the multiplicity of terms and definitions. For example, Richards (1998) defines the nature of language teacher belief systems as the “information, attitudes, values expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom” (p. 66). Other researchers have investigated the construct of teacher beliefs within the current paradigm of teaching language for communicative competence.

Woods (1996) notes that a teacher’s belief system includes beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge, which he refers to as BAK. He defines “beliefs” as propositions for which there are no conventionally accepted facts; assumptions as the temporary acceptance of conventional facts; and knowledge as conventionally accepted facts. Woods states that the distinction between beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge has become increasingly blurred when considering their influence on the decision-making process of teachers. He recommends that researchers view these concepts on a “spectrum of meaning, even though they have been treated as separate entities in the literature” (p. 195). For example, Anderson (1983) made the distinction between the types of knowledge (i.e., declarative or procedural) that influence instructional practices.

According to Anderson (1983), there is a difference between declarative knowledge (or the factual knowledge) of the subject matter and procedural knowledge, which refers to knowledge of how to apply declarative knowledge in various contexts. However, Woods (1996) finds these distinctions to be less pronounced with the

instructional practices of language teachers. He posits that the nature of teaching languages under the current paradigm of developing communicative competence includes both the declarative knowledge of the linguistic system and procedural knowledge of how to communicate as well as the sociolinguistic knowledge one needs in order to use the language in various social and cultural settings. Based on his work with ESL teachers, Woods proposes that BAK (beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge) are not individual elements associated with the instructional decisions that language teachers make. Rather, they represent complex relationships of mental processes that include teacher knowledge (i.e., declarative, procedural, social) as well as the beliefs and assumptions that teachers hold about teaching and learning.

In addition to the literature on defining the unobservable domains of the cognitive processes of teachers, Vélez-Rendón (2002) reviewed the literature on foreign/world language teacher education in order to understand how it contributes to teacher knowledge. She included prior reviews by Bernhardt and Hammadou (1987), who noted that becoming a foreign/world language teacher is unique from becoming a teacher in other content areas because of the nature of the subject matter. Language teachers, particularly under the new paradigm of teaching language for communicative competence, are required to use a medium for instruction (i.e., the language) that their students have yet to understand. Other scholars such as Freeman and Johnson (1998) found that the few research-based publications on teacher education in *TESOL Quarterly* between 1980 and 1997 focused on investigating the effects of teacher instruction on

student outcomes, commonly known as the process-product model of teacher education. The lack of research on language teacher beliefs led Freeman and Johnson to propose a new framework for language teacher education that includes three domains: (1) the view of teacher as learner; (2) the social context of teaching; and (3) the pedagogical process over time. Another important consideration for studying the relationship between teacher beliefs and their professional coursework includes reflective practice.

Freeman and Richards (1996) believe that language teachers should engage in reflective practices that include critical self-examinations of their own educational experiences in order to gain an understanding of their personal beliefs, assumptions, and attitudes about teaching and learning. Richards (1998) adds that the inclusion of critical self-reflection should serve as a means to improve classroom practices and the impact these practices have on student learning. Borg (2003) agrees that reflective practice is an important component of teacher cognition and further states that critical reflection on personal learning experiences should occur early in teacher education programs to allow for the development of personal theories about their own pedagogical beliefs. Calling upon findings from previous scholars (Almarza, 1996; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Sendan & Roberts, 1998), Borg posits that the lack of such critical reflection early in the professional lives of language teachers may diminish the impact to which new pedagogical knowledge acquired through professional coursework affects their beliefs and practices. However, he cautions that it is inappropriate to view teacher cognition as a simple process of acquiring and aggregating new knowledge and ideas.

The call by Pajares (1992) and Borg (2003) for the standardization of terms and a systematic agenda for studying the unobservable cognitive dimensions resulted in Borg's conceptualization of a model for studying language teacher cognition. In developing his model, Borg focused on the following four questions: (1) What do teachers have cognitions about? (2) How do these cognitions develop? (3) How do they interact with teacher learning? and (4) How do they interact with classroom practice? His model answers these questions by offering the concept of teacher cognition, which he defines as the collection of teacher psychological constructs. His model shows the relationships between these psychological constructs and teachers' prior schooling, professional coursework, classroom practices, and other contextual factors that may affect the extent to which their pedagogical beliefs reflect their instructional practices.

The use of Borg's (2003) model has been widespread throughout the field of SLA research and foreign/world language teacher education research. A review of the 112 references to Borg's model that were found using ProQuest Research Library identified the use of this model in 21 studies with foreign/world language teachers, 24 studies with ESL teachers, 29 studies with EFL teachers, 16 studies with both foreign/world language and ESL teachers, and 22 theoretical publications. Considered a comprehensive model by scholars conducting research related to language teacher beliefs (i.e., Bell, 2005; Kissau, Algozzine & Yon, 2013), the present study uses Borg's Model for Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching, as shown in Figure 2, as the theoretical framework for studying the self-reported pedagogical beliefs and practices of Chinese language teachers.

Borg's Model for Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching

Borg's model for teacher cognition evolved from both mainstream research on teacher beliefs and the literature specific to the mental processes of language teachers. As depicted in Figure 2, Borg's model includes four central constructs that emerged from the research as he sought to answer his four guiding questions. This model also indicates their relationships to teacher cognition and the influences they have on one another. An explanation of these constructs and their relationships with one another and teacher cognition is provided next.

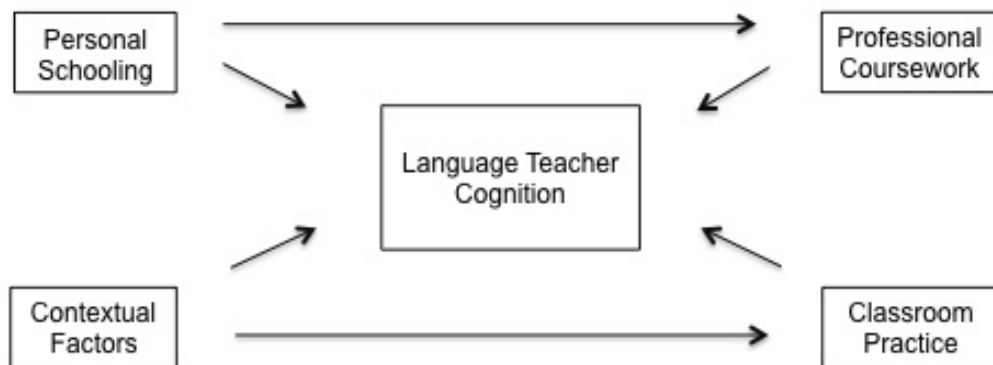


Figure 2. Borg's (2003) Model for Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching.

Personal Schooling

The findings from prior research on teacher cognition support the idea that personal experiences as a student influence and inform teacher cognition about teaching

and learning. Nespor (1987) found that beliefs are related to critical incidents in one's personal life that are stored in episodic memory. How strongly one holds beliefs can influence instructional decisions (Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers, 1997). For example, even when language teachers believe that implementing methods and strategies that emphasize communicative language teaching is important, beliefs about the effectiveness of grammar-focused instruction that was part of personal schooling experiences may have a stronger influence on their final instructional decisions. Borg's model indicates that in addition to influencing teacher cognition, personal schooling also influences the impact of professional coursework.

Professional Coursework

Borg notes that the research on the influence of teacher education on teacher cognition has yielded mixed results. Kagan's (1992) synthesis of research findings indicated that the influence is not significant. However, studies in the late 1990s indicated that the ways in which teachers master the content of their professional coursework is affected by their own beliefs about teaching and learning (Richards, Ho, & Giblin, 1996) and that new information gained through teacher education may affect teacher cognition at a structural level (Sendan & Roberts, 1998). For example, teachers may reflect upon new knowledge in complex, non-linear ways that may foster a clearer organization of their personal pedagogical theories into thematic clusters using terminology from the professional discourse provided in their coursework. However, as Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) state the influence of professional coursework on teacher

cognition also depends upon teacher critical reflection. In their research, Cabaroglu and Roberts found that the earlier that teachers are able to critically reflect on their pre-existing pedagogical beliefs, the more likely their coursework will influence any changes in those beliefs. This is important because pedagogical beliefs have consistently emerged as one of the more powerful influences on classroom practices.

Classroom Practice

The literature on the classroom practices of teachers has indicated a symbiotic relationship between what teachers do and what they think, believe, and know. Although there is a plethora of findings that have identified other factors that influence teacher practices, Borg (2003) notes that teacher cognition greatly influences what they ultimately do in the classroom. Many of these studies have sought to identify the precursors or antecedents of effective decisions and to describe effective decision-making procedures. Other studies have focused less on the technical aspects of the decision-making processes in favor of a more holistic approach to understanding teacher decisions. This holistic approach may include affective, moral, or emotional factors. Borg concludes that while the literature on teacher practice is robust, a change in teacher behavior does not necessarily reflect cognitive change nor does a cognitive change guarantee an adjustment in what teachers do in their classrooms. The nature of this symbiotic relationship between teacher cognition and practice is further complicated by contextual factors.

Contextual Factors

In a review of the literature on language teacher cognition, Borg (2003) found that there are social, psychological, and environmental realities related to the school, the school district, and the greater society that affect the extent to which instructional practices reflect pedagogical beliefs. These exigencies that affect the realities of what takes place in a classroom often include school/department policy, curriculum mandates, principal requirements, class size, classroom layout, availability of resources, colleagues, and parents/guardians (Borg, 2003). In a study with EFL teachers in Hong Kong, Richards, Li, and Tang (1998) also identified contextual factors such as teacher proficiency in the target language; student proficiency in the target language; student motivation; pressure to prepare students for standardized tests; pressure to conform to methods and strategies used by more experienced teachers; and the resistance of students to new ways of language learning (i.e., communicative language teaching approaches). These contextual factors significantly affected instructional decisions and classroom practices of the 18 teachers in their longitudinal study. The extent to which these contextual factors affect decision making and instructional practices may also be mitigated by years of teaching experience and the cultural contexts of language education.

The research of Golombek (1998), Woods (1996), and Breen (1991, 2001) has produced results that support the relationship between teacher experience, teacher cognition, and classroom practices. Golombek found that teacher pedagogical principles

are influenced by their personal practical knowledge (PPK). The development of PPK is a complex, non-linear process that includes the teachers' experiences as students, as teachers, and as people who are members of a larger educational community. The teachers' PPK then serves as a filter through which they respond to the exigencies of a given teaching situation. This filter is not static, as new experiences contribute to a teacher's overall cognition. In addition, research with ESL teachers in Canada on teacher planning and decision making by Woods found that the decision-making process involves more than immediate contextual factors. Decisions about instruction also include influences from a teacher's professional life as a whole. According to Woods, personal schooling, professional coursework, and teaching experiences contribute to the beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge (BAK) that teachers hold toward language pedagogy. Further research by Breen sought to gain an understanding of language teachers' pedagogy and the social contexts for language learning. These studies have shown that pedagogical principles are connected to sets of practices that are distinct from one another and that teachers working in similar cultural contexts of education may share sets of pedagogical principles.

Borg (2003) includes these studies in his review of the literature. This indicates his recognition that cultural contexts of education do influence what teachers know and do, even though they are not explicitly illustrated in his model. The present study examines the cultural context of language education in China with the purpose of expanding Borg's model to include cultural contexts of education as a mitigating factor

for the adoption of new educational innovations, such as standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

Cultural Context of Language Education in China

The literature from the social and cognitive sciences includes arguments concerning the nature of knowledge (i.e., epistemology) and beliefs about teaching and learning (i.e., pedagogy). Cognitive anthropologists Quinn and Holland (1987) argue that knowledge is shared among cultural group members and is organized into “cultural models” that influence how members interpret their experiences. These cultural models also play a tacit role in the development of cultural identity, related to what Watson-Gegeo (2004) calls “indigenous and local epistemology” (p. 335).

The study of local epistemologies with regard to language pedagogy includes both the individual and the social groups to which the individual belongs (Coleman, 1996). Coleman (1996) and Crookes (1997) propose that individuals are products of, as well as producers of, the cultures that influence their teaching and learning. Coleman argues, “we are all, as unique individuals, nevertheless at the same time members of interlocking and overlapping communities and social systems...to different degrees we influence the other members of each of those communities, just as we in turn are influenced by them” (p. 13).

Hu (2002), Zhan (2008), and Zhao (2009) have written that in China, education has been perceived as a way to cultivate people and strengthen the country. These scholars state that the purpose of education in the People’s Republic of China (PRC) is to

promote moral growth through the accumulation of knowledge that favors the collective rather than the individual. Hu and Zhao believe that the underlying assumptions of a Chinese culture of education are based upon Confucian traditions of social mobility through a utilitarian system of education that requires a deep commitment to learning.

In China, social mobility has largely depended upon passing national examinations that Zhao (2009) says date back to 605 AD during the Sui Dynasty. So critical are these national examinations that Zhao says regardless of a student's performance during the 12 years of formal education, fate lies in the scores on the national exam. Preparing students for these examinations is of the utmost importance for teachers and has determined the content and methods of instruction for much of China's history. These examinations include sections on Chinese language and literature, mathematics, and English. The English section focuses on vocabulary and discrete grammar forms (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Hu, 2002; Zhao, 2009). Therefore, the compulsory study of English as a foreign language (EFL) in China has historically been to prepare students for these high-stakes examinations (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Hu, 2002; Zhan, 2008; Zhao, 2009). However, recent political, economic, and social developments have begun to change the purpose of studying English in the PRC.

In the last decade, China has sought to increase its visibility and position around the globe. Joining the World Trade Organization in 2001 and hosting the Summer Olympic Games in 2008 are examples of China's desire to become part of the global economy. Zhan (2008) notes, "all over Asia the English language appears to have

become more important than ever before” (p. 54). Accordingly, the teaching of English for communicative proficiency has taken on a new urgency and has led to the call for methods associated with communicative language teaching (CLT).

In 2001, the Ministry of Education in China issued a new set of standards for teaching English. The English Language Curriculum Standards (ELCS) includes a syllabus that is intended to improve students’ English language proficiency using methods associated with CLT. Although CLT had been introduced and promoted throughout China since the late 1980s (Hu, 2002), the use of CLT became mandatory with the implementation of the ELCS. Nevertheless, the high-stakes English examinations in China continue to serve as gatekeepers to educational and economic pathways within the PRC (Zhao, 2009) and continue to drive curriculum and instruction, despite the new focus on developing proficiency as set forth by the ELCS.

Several scholars (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Hu, 2002; Gu & Schweisfurth, 2006) have argued that the purposes for studying English in China are incompatible with the theoretical foundations of CLT, resulting in various degrees of adoption and adaptation of CLT by Chinese EFL teachers. For example, Burnaby and Sun (1989) conducted a study with 24 EFL teachers from China that sought to identify teacher beliefs and practices in implementing communicative teaching methods within the context of English language education in China. Their findings indicated that although the teachers agreed that English proficiency is needed in order to provide ample comprehensible input during CLT lessons, they were not motivated to improve their own

English communication skills. The teachers stated that the best use of instructional time was to present content that would prepare their students for standardized exams. As a result, they placed higher value on improving their knowledge related to discrete grammar and reading comprehension than on improving their English proficiency. The general belief held by the teachers in this study was that CLT was appropriate for students who are planning to study or live abroad, but not for preparing them for standardized English exams.

A follow-up study in 1993 conducted by Anderson questioned the appropriateness and practicality of CLT for teaching English in China. Anderson stated that several factors impeded the adoption of CLT, including the lack of authentic materials in English, the value placed on teacher-centered approaches, large class sizes, and the fact that students in China study English in order to pass high-stakes, standardized exams. These early publications on the challenges related to implementing CLT in China have shown incongruence between the cultures of education and the theoretical foundations of CLT. Since the implementation of the ELCS in 2001, several other studies and literature reviews (Gu & Schweisfurth, 2006; Zhan, 2008; Zhao, 2009) have concluded similar findings. Of particular interest is Hu's (2002) detailed explanation of Chinese cultures of learning.

Hu (2002) carefully examined what he calls "the top down movement to reform English language teaching (ELT) in the People's Republic of China (PRC) since the 1980s" (p. 93). He argues,

CLT has failed to make the expected impact on ELT in the PRC partly because some of its most important tenets and practices clash with the expectations of teaching and learning that are deep rooted in the Chinese culture of learning.
(p.94)

Hu says that the Chinese culture of learning includes a whole set of expectations, attitudes, beliefs, values, perceptions, preferences, experiences, and behaviors that relate to teaching and learning. He notes that the culture of learning in China discourages individuality in favor of the collective and places value on the accumulation of knowledge by the “learn to use philosophy,” which contradicts the “learn by using” approach promoted by CLT. It should be noted that the “learn to use philosophy” should not imply that learners are passive.

Hu’s (2002) work with Chinese EFL students addresses a common misconception that Chinese students do not think critically when studying English. He notes that while the Chinese culture of learning may be summarized by “The Four Rs” of receive, repeat, review, and reproduce, there is a mental activeness associated with teaching and learning in China that is often misrepresented and misunderstood as rote memorization. Hu states,

Chinese learners do not learn by rote memorization more than Western students...Students are not encouraged to engage in mechanical memorization. Instead, they are encouraged to memorize with understanding, that is, to memorize what is understood and to understand through memorization. (p. 101)

The notion that the Chinese culture of learning places emphasis on mental activity is also supported by the work of Cortazzi and Jin (1996), who believe that reducing the Chinese culture of learning to “The Four Rs”, may lead Western teachers to view Chinese learners as being passive. Comments from the 105 Chinese EFL university students in their study denied the notion of a passive Chinese learner by openly stating, “We are active in our minds. We are thinking all the time” (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996, p. 198). The implications from their study include a proposal for a synergy between cultures of learning that can be accomplished by raising a conscious awareness of the differences between cultures of learning and a mutual respect for the various expectations held toward teaching and learning.

The inclusion of the literature on the adoption of CLT for teaching EFL in China serves the purpose of providing an understanding of the cultural and educational backgrounds of the majority of teachers who participated in this study. Cultural differences regarding teacher beliefs about teaching and learning and the various cultural contexts of studying languages are becoming more prevalent as U.S. schools seek to hire international teachers for their foreign/world language programs. As such, the inclusion of cultures of education as a mitigating factor in Borg’s Model for Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching is appropriate given these current realities in the Chinese language teacher supply system. Nevertheless, the idea to expand Borg’s model does include the threat of cultural reductionism and cultural imperialism.

Cultural Reductionism and Cultural Imperialism

The oversimplification or generalization of cultures of education is an important consideration for the present study as it expands Borg's (2003) model to include cultures of education as a mitigating factor in teacher cognition. Hu (2002) posits that the Chinese cultures of learning are arguably one of the most important constraints for the adoption of Western educational innovations in China. However, he warns, "It is dangerous to generalize about the cultural behavior of any social group, especially a society as huge and complex as the Chinese one" (p. 96). At the same time, it is through understanding the history and cultures of any given society that we find the underlying purposes for language study. The theoretical foundations for how languages are taught and learned are also embedded within those purposes. According to Hu, the task for the researcher is to use generalizations carefully and with the recognition of their intent (2002). In addition to the threat of cultural reductionism in the present study, cultural imperialism is also a risk.

The question of whether CLT is appropriate for EFL students preparing for standardized examinations in China has been debated in the literature (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Hu, 2002; Gu & Schweisfurth, 2006). Holliday (2001) notes that the problem with investigating issues related to the adoption of educational innovations occurs when the recipients of the innovation are regarded as deficient in either their knowledge or skills. According to Holliday (2001), one can find evidence of cultural imperialism by examining how the recipients of the innovation are "perceived,

accommodated, and managed” (p. 171). Holliday warns that a common assumption is that international teachers have a deficit in their instructional practices that the educational innovation can rectify. It is recommended that the knowledge and experiences that have roots in teachers’ personal schooling and home cultures of education be valued in terms of what these language teachers bring to their classrooms.

The acknowledgement of both cultural reductionism and cultural imperialism in the present study serves as evidence that the purpose of this research was not to devalue other cultures of education or to employ a deficit model in analyzing responses from the Chinese language teachers who participated in this study. Rather, it was to identify areas where their self-reported pedagogical beliefs about standards-based, learner-centered instruction were congruent with their instructional practices. Understanding the cultures of education in China is a necessary pillar of this literature review. Not only does it provide an understanding of the learning experiences of the teachers who participated in this study, but it also addresses common misconceptions regarding Chinese teachers and their students.

The studies that investigated the adoption of CLT in China shed light on the complex relationship between teachers’ personal schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors, and classroom practices. In addition, they provide the foundation from which to review the literature conducted in the United States regarding the adoption of standards-based, learner-centered instruction and the studies that have sought to understand teacher beliefs and classroom practices.

U.S. Studies on Language Teacher Beliefs and Classroom Practices

In 2011, Phillips and Abbott reported that an extensive keyword search of the SFLL using multiple databases yielded 167 references where the standards were a principal focus (i.e., the SFLL were in the title or were a main topic in the reference). These references included books, book chapters, articles, and dissertations. Yet, there has been a dearth of research that has specifically focused on foreign/world language teacher pedagogical beliefs and practices related to the adoption of standards-based (i.e., SFLL), learner-centered instruction within the United States. This review of the literature will focus on nine studies that directly support the present investigation.

Allen (2002, 2008)

In a study by Allen (2002), 613 foreign language teachers from three mid-western states reported that on average, they were “somewhat” familiar with the SFLL. Using the survey data, Allen reported that teacher beliefs differed based upon the following factors: their membership with professional organizations; where they taught (urban/rural); number of years teaching the language; gender; highest degree earned; and whether they taught in a private or public school. Allen’s follow-up case study (2008) with one French teacher who had 29 years of teaching experience found that the theoretical foundations of educational innovations such as standards-based, learner-centered instruction and teacher beliefs about teaching and learning languages are, in some cases, incongruent. According to Allen, “Unless teachers’ own theories of learning match the theories upon which the innovation is based, it is not likely that the teachers will implement the change in a

manner that is consistent with the innovation's theoretical framework" (p. 45). Allen posits that this incongruence explains, in part, why some teachers only partially adopt the SFL or are reluctant to adopt them at all.

Lacorte (2005)

Lacorte (2005) conducted a study with five high school Spanish language teachers in order to better understand the relationship between teacher beliefs and their classroom instructional practices. Lacorte's research examines how the teachers interacted with students and how they maintained student focus during their transitions between activities. Through observations, interviews, and recorded audio of classroom instruction during one full academic year, Lacorte concluded,

Many teachers of Spanish and other languages in the USA nowadays may find themselves trying to reconcile, on the one hand, recommendations from current pedagogic trends about learner-centered instruction, creativity, and meaningful communication, and individual differences and diversity in the classroom; and on the other, issues related to previous experiences learning or teaching the FL or L2, management and discipline within the classroom, high ratio of students to teachers, students' lack of cultural awareness, lack of quality materials, inadequate in-service training, etc. (p. 397)

She states that the findings from her study provide evidence that what language teachers do in their classrooms is influenced by both internal factors (i.e., teacher beliefs) and external factors (e.g., class size).

Salomone (1998)

Salomone (1998) found that teaching grammar for communicative language use poses challenges for international teaching assistants (ITAs), many of whom have had personal language learning experiences in grammar-focused classrooms in their home countries. Data were collected during a 15-week semester with 30 teaching assistants (TAs) using surveys, group interviews, teaching journals, and critiques of videotaped lessons. Salomone identified themes related to grammar that were cross-cultural in nature and included ITAs' frequent mention of their students' apathy toward learning, lack of English grammar knowledge, and behavioral issues. She also identified differences in how the ITAs and their students perceived teacher and student roles. Salomone states that the ITAs "seemed to believe that university students in their homelands would be better prepared and more motivated" (p. 558). As a result of this study, Salomone recommends that ITAs receive professional development that includes the cultural differences between educational systems and strategies and techniques for coping with these differences.

Antón (1999)

Antón's (1999) comparative case study research examined the discourse between teacher and student in both a learner-centered classroom and a teacher-centered classroom to identify what she terms "the communicative moves" that teachers use to effectively engage learners in communicative activities. Antón suggests that certain communicative moves are indicative of learner-centered instruction and include the

transfer of responsibility of student learning from teacher to student. The researcher collected data by observing introductory-level college courses in French and Italian during a 15-week semester. Data analysis focused on (1) the teachers' conscious inclusion of grammatical forms during formal instruction; (2) teacher feedback on student errors; (3) teacher choice of turn-taking allocation; and (4) the teachers' use of instructional strategies to accommodate the students' learning preferences. The findings indicated that discourse in a learner-centered classroom provides opportunities for teachers and students to negotiate various dimensions of language learning, including semantic meaning, content from other disciplines, and classroom behavior during learner-centered activities. Antón posits that it is this negotiation initiated by the teacher that contributes to an environment conducive to communicative language learning. In contrast to the discourse that promotes learner-centered instruction, Antón notes that when a teacher believes that s/he is the possessor of the linguistic and cultural knowledge that students need to acquire, the focus is on the transfer of this knowledge from teacher to student. Further, Antón acknowledged that in the teacher-centered classroom she observed, the teacher more notably dominated the discourse with students, resulting in rare opportunities for negotiation to occur between the teacher and student or between individual students.

Hall Haley and Ferro (2011)

If adopting standards-based, learner-centered instructional strategies is difficult for language teachers who have been educated in the U.S., it follows logically that these

challenges are exacerbated for international language teachers who are not familiar with the cultural context of U.S. schools. Hall Haley and Ferro (2011) conducted their study with participants from a 2009 STARTALK Summer Institute for Arabic and Chinese teachers (STSI). This STARTALK teacher program provided two weeks of professional development in a blended environment that included on-site interactive workshops, experiences teaching students enrolled in Chinese and Arabic summer language camps, and an online community of practice where the teachers created unit plans and participated in asynchronous discussions on various topics.

The participants consisted of 10 Chinese and six Arabic language teachers and investigated the teacher perceptions of U.S. schools, U.S. students, and their roles as language teachers in U.S. classrooms. Data were collected using pre-post institute online surveys and by extracting the postings from the online asynchronous discussions. During the online discussions, the teachers were explicitly asked to discuss their perceptions of U.S. schools, U.S. students, and their perceived roles as language teachers in U.S. classrooms.

The findings indicated that the participants were acutely aware of the cultural contexts of language education that they had experienced in their home countries, which included China, Taiwan, Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Syria, and the Republic of Sudan. They noted similarities and differences, not only between their home countries and the U.S., but also between and among their home countries. The teachers were also aware that differences in the expectations that they hold for their U.S. students and the expectations

that their U.S. students hold for their teachers are cultural and can lead to challenges when implementing learner-centered instruction. These challenges include, but are not limited to, classroom management, teacher-student use of the target language, student motivation, and issues of teacher-student power and authority related to the transition toward a learner-centered classroom.

Hall Haley and Alsweel (2012)

In 2012, Hall Haley and Alsweel conducted a follow-up study to the research published by Hall Haley and Ferro in 2011. The 2012 investigation yielded participants from a three-week STARTALK teacher program that took place during summer 2011. This summer institute provided critical methodological training in transitioning teachers to learner-centered instruction for millennial language learners. Two significant components of the institute were the inclusion of master teachers in each target language represented by the participants (Arabic, Chinese, and Russian) and the creation and maintenance of an actual online learning community that provided rich insight into cultural and educational influences that shaped and informed these teachers' attitudes and dispositions about teaching and learning. There were 11 participants in this study: four Arabic language teachers, five Chinese language teachers, and two Russian teachers. Data collection from this study included pre-post institute surveys, small group interviews, and responses to asynchronous discussion that were posted on the institute's Ning, an online platform for creating customized social networks.

Findings from this study were consistent with those from Hall Haley and Ferro (2011). First, the Arabic, Chinese, and Russian teacher participants in this investigation openly noted that their own language learning experiences were in teacher-centered EFL classrooms where mastery of grammar and memorization of vocabulary were the main focus. They were also aware that these experiences influenced their perceptions of U.S. schools and U.S. students. Second, these teachers readily acknowledged the importance of understanding the needs of millennial language learners and actively engaged in meaningful ways to plan lessons and provide assessments that strengthened their teaching.

In addition to these findings, the researchers noted that some of the participants began the summer institute with negative perceptions about teaching U.S. students. Their views changed as a result of engaging in the workshop activities, working with a master teacher (who was fluent in the target language), actively participating in the online learning community, and ultimately conducting teaching demonstrations with students enrolled in local STARTALK student programs. This study also found that introducing the teacher participants to an online learning community was challenging in that many were not familiar with the technology. However, the teachers were able to communicate in either English or their target languages and were further supported by master teachers during the online activities and discussions. Since many critical need language teachers can sometimes feel isolated in their schools or school districts (Ging 1994; Schrier,

1994), the online community provided a way for teachers to share ideas, resources, and build strong communities of practice.

Kissau, Yon & Algozzine (2011) and Kissau, Algozzine & Yon (2013)

Two recent studies have investigated the pedagogical beliefs held by international and domestic foreign/world language teachers (Kissau, Yon, & Algozzine, 2011) and differences between foreign language teacher pedagogical beliefs; these differences are based upon the teachers' years of teaching; amount of professional coursework related to second language pedagogy; target language taught; and language program model (i.e., traditional elementary/secondary or immersion) in which the participants teach (Kissau, Algozzine, & Yon, 2013). The results and findings from each of these studies provide insight to pedagogical beliefs specific to Chinese language teachers.

The purpose of the 2011 study was to investigate the differences in pedagogical beliefs that may contribute to the challenges that international foreign/world language teachers encounter and to determine ways to support their transition into U.S. schools. The participants included 136 domestic teachers and 86 international teachers who were teaching Spanish, French, German, Chinese, Japanese, Latin, or Portuguese in a K-12 U.S. classroom. Of the 86 international teachers, seven were from Asia. Data were collected using a survey with all 222 participants. The survey contained 50 items that measured teacher beliefs on the following five sub-scales: (1) Use of the target language and exposure to target language cultures during instruction; (2) Teaching strategies including the use of technology; (3) Individual student interests and learning strategies;

(4) Assessing student learning and emphasis on grammar instruction; and (5) SLA theories related to student anxiety and error correction. Individual follow-up interviews were conducted with a volunteer sample of 14 teachers, two of which were Chinese language teachers. To strengthen the reliability of the answers provided by the teachers in the follow-up interviews, the researchers also interviewed seven supervisors. These supervisors included five specialists who oversee language education in their respective school districts and two immersion school principals. Interview questions focused on challenges the teachers encountered in their classrooms, whether these challenges differed for other groups of foreign/world language teachers, and suggestions for additional support.

The results from the survey data indicated no statistically significant differences between the beliefs of domestic and international foreign/world language teachers in four of the five sub-scales. The researchers report that there was a significant difference in teacher beliefs related to SLA theories. The international teachers believed less strongly in the need to reduce learner anxiety and the importance of not over-correcting student errors (Kissau, Yon, & Algozzine, 2011). The results from the interview data were more revealing, providing evidence that Chinese language teachers struggle more than their international peers in their transition to teaching in U.S. schools.

This research found that there are three areas of concern specific to teachers from China. They include dramatic cultural differences between Eastern and Western cultures with respect to teaching methodology, student-teacher relations, and parental

involvement. The Chinese teachers and supervisors who were interviewed made several references to challenges related to managing learner-centered activities, with establishing mutual respect and expectations between teachers and students, and with the level and type of engagement between parents and teachers. Implications of this study include the recognition that international language teachers do in fact encounter challenges unique to them, yet they have a wealth of benefits to offer their U.S. students. These challenges have the potential to create larger issues related to the different expectations that teachers and their students have toward language learning and may result in students dropping language courses from their schedules. Therefore, it is imperative to provide professional coursework, professional development opportunities, and ongoing administrative support that addresses these particular challenges (Kissau, Yon, & Algozzine, 2011).

The follow-up study published in 2013 expanded upon the 2011 study and sought differences in foreign/world language teacher pedagogical beliefs based upon the teachers' years of experience, professional coursework, and teaching program model. The researchers used the same data set but created subgroups of the participants using demographic data. The survey results showed that there were no statistically significant differences between subgroups on the five sub-scales for pedagogical beliefs. However, even though all groups shared similar beliefs related to assessment/grammar instruction and SLA/anxiety/error correction, their beliefs on these two sub-scales were not as strong. Interview results were also similar to those of the 2011 study with a few

differences between groups based upon years teaching and professional coursework.

There were no notable differences in beliefs based upon language program model.

The more experienced teachers that were interviewed held stronger beliefs toward the importance of grammar instruction and the use of more traditional, teacher-centered methods and strategies than the less-experienced teachers. The teachers with fewer years of teaching experience had beliefs that were more aligned with the SFL and the use of methods and strategies related to communicative language teaching but pleaded for more training in classroom management. Additionally, less-experienced teachers openly asked for more instructional strategies that align with their beliefs. The researchers noted that these findings indicate that the current realities of teaching in U.S. classrooms pose problems for the more inexperienced teachers, which may affect their ability to implement instructional practices that reflect their beliefs.

Sun (2012)

Sun's (2012) case study was conducted with a native Chinese language teacher who was teaching Chinese as a foreign/world language in an all-girls' public high school in New Zealand. It builds upon the call made by Breen (2001) and Borg (2003) for cross-cultural studies with K-12 language teachers that seek a better understanding of the factors that shape instructional practices. The purpose of this study was to investigate the personal practical knowledge (PPK) of an immigrant Chinese language teacher who was teaching Chinese as a foreign/world language in a New Zealand secondary school in order to examine the influence of native educational traditions (i.e., home culture of

education) on the teacher's PPK and instructional practices in a Western educational context. Data collection occurred over a 10-week period and included personal interviews, video-recorded non-participant classroom observations, field notes, lesson plans, and other relevant teaching materials.

Findings from this study support what Sun (2012) describes as the “virtuoso teacher in Confucian-heritage culture of China” (p. 765). In China, the focus is on teaching and the teacher's performance rather than on student learning. Like an actor on stage, this performance includes carefully selected models of the content that are presented to the students with clear explanations of what they are expected to learn and how they are expected to learn it. In general, learners are asked to perform the same tasks at the same time, creating uniform attention and concentration. The teacher in this case study noted that she carefully plans her lessons so that “everything goes smoothly...and [is] on the right track” (p. 763). She readily acknowledged that as an immigrant teacher, she is an outsider and must therefore quickly earn both acceptance and trust from her students. Using this trust, she is able to establish a “qi-field” or a classroom environment that is conducive to learning. Inside the qi-field, students are willing to practice together, without disruptions, thus allowing the lesson to progress smoothly.

Sun stated that the Chinese virtuoso teaching model is often viewed adversely through Western lenses. To Western educators who advocate for communicative language teaching approaches, this model seems to lack experiential learning that fosters

creativity, self-expression, and personal interpretation (Sun, 2012). They may also view memorization as rote learning. Cortazzi and Jin (1996) note that this is actually a misconception, as memorizing in Chinese cultures of learning includes analysis, reproduction, and recitation. Sun states that in order to integrate immigrant teachers into local cultures of education, it is necessary to learn what they know and believe and how they adapt to new, diverse teaching contexts throughout their professional lives. Implications from this research include the need for additional cross-cultural studies, as immigrant teachers are becoming an important part of the teaching force in foreign/world language education as well as other subject areas.

Expanding Borg's Model for Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching

The present investigation into Chinese language teacher beliefs and practices builds upon prior research and addresses the current dearth of research that focuses on critical need language teachers. As indicated in Figure 3, the present study expands Borg's model to include the cultural contexts of education of Chinese language teachers in order to better understand the alignment between their pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices related to standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

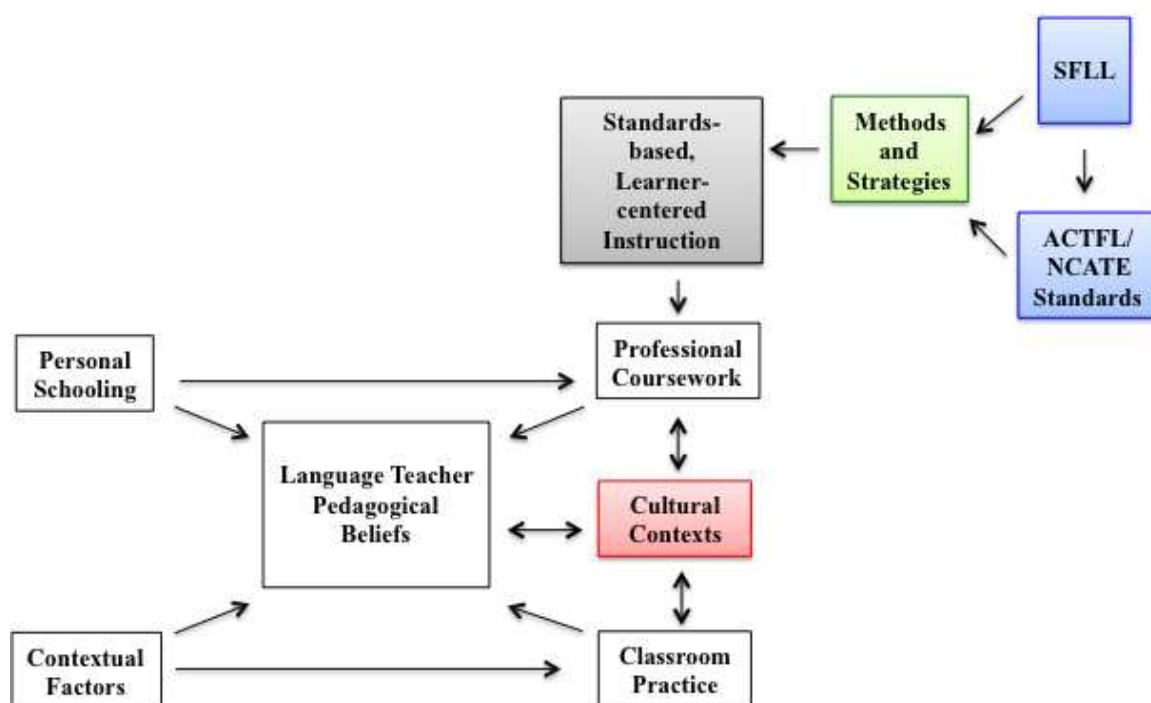


Figure 3. Expanding Borg's Model for Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching.

This expanded model places cultural contexts of education as a mitigating factor between standards-based, learner-centered instruction and their pedagogical beliefs. As this literature review has shown, the notion that language teachers receive educational innovations such as standards-based, learner-centered instruction through filters shaped by their home cultures of education is an important consideration when studying teacher pedagogical beliefs. This is particularly true for language teachers that are recruited from a culture of education that is vastly different from the culture of education where they are expected to teach effectively. This is the current reality for Chinese language teachers that are recruited from abroad to teach in U.S. schools.

As Borg's Model for Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching illustrates, the development of teacher cognition occurs over the professional lives of teachers (Richardson, 1996) and is influenced by their personal schooling, professional coursework, and contextual factors that present external and internal demands on their classroom practices. In addition, these cultural contexts of education become part of teachers' personal practical knowledge (Golombek, 1998) that serves as a filter through which new experiences in both teaching and learning are received. This includes how teachers receive professional coursework on standards-based, learner-centered instruction and the extent to which they implement practices associated with standards-based, learner-centered instruction in their classrooms. Although there has been a growing body of literature on language teacher beliefs and classroom practices, there is a dearth of research that specifically investigates language teacher beliefs and classroom practices related to standards-based, learner-centered. The present study contributes to this growing body of research.

Summary

This review of the literature provides the theoretical framework that supports the present study. It situates the findings from this research within the field of foreign/world language teacher education, the scholarship on teacher cognition and the emerging body of literature on the cross-cultural educational experiences of international teachers. The next chapter provides details of the methods utilized to recruit participants, to collect and

store data, and for data analysis. It also contains sections on validity and reliability as well as the subjectivity of the researcher.

III. METHODS

This study used a triangulation mixed-methods design (Creswell, 2005) that included collecting and analyzing quantitative and qualitative data. Creswell provides three alternatives for mixed-methods designs: an exploratory model, an explanatory model, and a triangulation model. He states that researchers select the triangulation design when the direct comparison of both qualitative and quantitative data is necessary to better understand a problem or phenomenon. In this model of mixed-methods research, direct comparison of data provides triangulation of the data sources. The researcher collects data simultaneously, gives equal weight (i.e., priority) to both qualitative and quantitative data, and compares the results from at least two data sources to determine whether they yield similar or dissimilar results (Creswell).

Although these mixed-methods design models provide structure and uniformity for researchers, Greene (2007) notes that research designs prescribe specific sequences of data collection and that set priorities for quantitative and qualitative data analysis often “give only passing attention to the many other dimensions of differences that are inherently part of social inquiry” (p. 15). These other dimensions of differences may include more than one discipline-specific philosophy and set of theories as well as differences in personal experiences, education, values, and beliefs. To better

accommodate these differences, Greene recommends integrative data analysis techniques that include “planned stopping points” where the researcher intentionally seeks ways in which one method of analysis (i.e., qualitative or quantitative) might inform the other.

The combination of Creswell’s (2005) triangulation mixed-methods design and Greene’s (2007) integrative data analysis techniques aligned with the purpose of this mixed-methods study, which was to investigate pedagogical beliefs that Chinese language teachers hold toward implementing standards-based, learner-centered instruction. To do so, three sources of data were collected, including an online survey, telephone interviews, and classroom observations. The goal of this research was to identify areas where the teachers’ self-reported beliefs and instructional practices reflect standards-based, learner-centered instruction, with the purpose of informing world language teacher-educators of the areas in which their beliefs and self-reported practices converge and diverge.

Participants

The participants for this study consisted of 71 K-16 Chinese language teachers from across the United States who completed the online survey; 17 teachers from the mid-Atlantic Region who completed telephone interviews; and four teachers who participated in classroom observations. The Chinese language teachers in this study comprised a purposeful, criterion-based sample. Patton (1990) and Creswell (2005) note that a common reason for conducting qualitative inquiry is to gain a better understanding of a central phenomenon. This often leads the researcher to intentionally recruit

individuals who are able to provide information related to that phenomenon. In addition, Patton suggests the use of criterion-based samples “whenever it is necessary to include all cases that meet some criterion” (p. 183). There were two criteria for participant selection in this research. The following identifies the criteria.

Selection Criteria

The first criterion for participants in this study was that they must have attended at least one STARTALK teacher program between 2007 and 2011. This criterion ensured that the participants in this study experienced at least one professional development program that was aligned to the SFL and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards. The second criterion was that participants had to be currently teaching Chinese in a K-16 classroom in the United States. This criterion was necessary to ensure that participants were able to answer the survey and interview items about the activities used with their students in class.

There were two techniques employed to recruit teachers who met these criteria. The first was used to recruit teachers for the online surveys, and the second was used to recruit teachers for the interviews and observations. These techniques will be discussed in the next section.

Recruitment of Participants for the Online Survey

The participants for the online survey were recruited by email from a pool of 986 Chinese language teachers who had attended one of the 49 STARTALK teacher

programs that took place in 2011. These STARTALK programs are supervised by the National Foreign Language Center (NFLC), located at the University of Maryland, College Park. Due to research restrictions set forth by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Maryland, the researcher could not directly recruit the Chinese language teachers. Instead, recruitment for the online survey was facilitated through the voluntary assistance of the 49 program directors. Prior to emailing the teacher program directors, written permission was received (Appendix A) from Dr. Catherine Ingold, Executive Director of the National Foreign Language Center and Principal Investigator of STARTALK.

The recruitment of program directors was conducted through three rounds of emails between November 2011 and January 2012 using form letters approved by the IRB at GMU (Appendix B). The recruitment emails resulted in 23 of the 49 program directors offering to assist in the recruitment of the teachers who attended their respective 2011 STARTALK teacher programs. This subset of programs hosted 398 Chinese language teachers and represented 18 states, with several programs from California, Virginia, and Colorado. The size of these teacher programs varied; there were as many as 55 Chinese language teachers in one of the larger 2011 STARTALK teacher programs and as few as five in a program that hosted teachers from several of the critical need languages.

To recruit teachers, this researcher emailed the 23 program directors the IRB-approved “Initial Teacher Recruitment Email” (Appendix C) and the “Second Teacher

Recruitment Email” (Appendix D). They were asked to forward the first email directly to the Chinese language teachers who attended their programs. After two weeks, the directors were asked to send the second teacher recruitment email. To motivate teacher participation for the online survey and increase the response return rate, the recruitment emails included information on how to enter a raffle for one of five \$50.00 gift certificates to a popular online company upon completing the online survey. Funding for the raffle was provided through a dissertation completion fellowship received in fall 2011. After the three rounds of recruitment for the online survey between November 2011 and early February 2012, there were 71 teachers who had completed, at least in part, the online survey.

Creswell (2005) defines survey response return rates as “the percentage of questionnaires that participants return to the researcher” (p. 367). Researchers may or may not include the number of incomplete surveys as part of their response rate. The American Association for Public Opinion Research (2000) states that the inclusion of partially completed surveys depends upon the objectives of the survey and whether participants were given the option to skip individual items on the survey. For this survey, participants were not required to answer each individual survey item. Although 100 teachers consented to completing the survey, the number of responses to the three types of items (closed response, open response, and demographic) varied. The descriptive statistics for the survey item responses are provided in Table 1.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of Survey Response Items

Item Type	<i>n (items)</i>	Descriptive Statistics of Responses		
		Median	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Closed Response Items/	13	68.00	68.50	1.99
Open Response Items	7	56.50	51.83	12.95
Demographic Items	14	69.00	68.78	1.42

These descriptive statistics indicate similar average response rates for the closed-response items and the demographic items. As expected, there was a lower response rate and larger standard deviation for the open-response items. Dillman (2009) notes that lower response rates for open-response items can be explained by the higher likelihood that respondents will skip these items on a survey because they require additional time and thought. In addition to the expectation that participants are less likely to respond to open-response items, there is also the consideration that the majority of the teachers in this study were non-native speakers of English with varying levels of English proficiency.

Historically, survey studies in educational journals have reported response return rates of 50 percent or more (Creswell, 2005). However, a study conducted by Kaplowitz, Hadlock, and Levine (2004) with more than 19,000 Michigan State University students found that the response rate for web surveys using only email to recruit participants to be 20%. When one considers that the Chinese language teachers who participated in this study were born and educated outside of the United States, primarily in countries where

English is not the official language (see “Participant demographics” in Chapter Four), the response rate of 18% is reasonable.

Recruitment for Interviews and Observations

Participants for telephone interviews and observations were K-16 Chinese language teachers who were teaching Chinese in a public, private, and/or heritage language school in the mid-Atlantic area. These participants were from a pool of teachers with whom I had developed a professional relationship as their instructor in the graduate licensure program or as a member of the administrative team for the GMU STARTALK teacher programs they had attended. Glesne (2006) notes that in qualitative inquiry, the relationship between the researcher and participant depends upon rapport and subjectivity. Researcher subjectivity will be addressed as a sub-section of data analysis; however, it is important to discuss one potential issue with rapport concerning the participant interviews and observations here.

One of the concerns with asking participants with whom a researcher has already established a rapport (i.e., willingness to cooperate) is that the participants may over-identify with the researcher (Glesne, 2006). Their responses to interview questions or behaviors during observations may be contrived to meet what they perceive the researcher wants or expects from them. There is also the consideration of cultural differences. Wang (1995) found that the Chinese participants in his study seemed eager to help him with his research but were more reluctant to provide any personal information. Glesne notes that the role of the researcher is to learn how to develop

culturally appropriate ways to maintain rapport while avoiding more personal relationships that may lead to contrived responses or behaviors. For this study, I selected participants for interviews and classroom observations with whom I had a strong professional rapport. This rapport was initiated by them having taken graduate courses that I taught in a foreign/world language teacher licensure program between 2008 and 2010.

The recruitment of practicing K-16 Chinese language teachers for the interviews and observations was initiated through an informal email sent to 23 teachers. Once the teachers responded positively to my initial request for their participation, I followed up with the IRB-approved “Initial Email Teacher Recruitment Interview and Observation” (Appendix E). Initially, the goal was to interview and observe five to seven teachers, and I was able to secure consent from seven teachers very quickly. Unfortunately, gaining permission and access to their classrooms from the local school districts proved to be more challenging. For three of the teachers, I worked diligently for several months with their local school districts, only to be ultimately denied access due to the fact that those districts now conduct (and protect) the research done in their classrooms.

In total, 18 teachers indicated their willingness to participate in the interviews. This was rather fortuitous as early analysis of the online survey data revealed that the responses to the open-ended items were not as robust as anticipated. Because the interview questions mirrored the open-ended survey items, I expanded the data collection to include interviews with 17 of the 18 teachers who responded. One teacher was not

included in the results of this study because she is currently teaching Chinese at an International School in India and did not meet the criterion of currently teaching in a U.S. school. These interviews provided robust data that complemented the data from the closed-items on the online survey. I also conducted observations with the four teachers with whom I was able to obtain the necessary site permissions from their respective schools and districts. Copies of the site permissions are not included in the list of appendices in order to maintain the confidentiality of their identities. These seven observations included two consecutive observations with three of the teachers and one observation with the fourth teacher. Each observation ranged from 30 to 90 minutes and represented a breadth of educational environments. They included a public elementary school, a public high school, a private high school, and a local community college. These observations will be discussed in detail in the next section.

Data Collection Methods

The recruitment of teachers and the collection of data began after I received the required approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at GMU. The IRB waived the requirement to have participant signatures on the consent forms. For the online survey, participants had to read and accept the online consent form (Appendix F) in order to access the survey items. For the telephone interviews and observations, I emailed participants the IRB-approved consent form (Appendix G) and brought a paper copy with me to the four classroom observations.

Materials

There were four data collection instruments for this study: an online survey; a demographic questionnaire used for participants who completed the telephone interviews; an interview protocol; and field notes from classroom observations.

Online survey. The 34-item survey (Appendix H) was created using the online platform, SurveyMonkey. The final version of this instrument contained 13 closed-ended items, seven open-ended items, and 14 demographic items. Items related to general pedagogical beliefs were adapted from the Teacher Beliefs Interview (TBI) that was developed by Luft and Roehrig (2007). I obtained written permission from Dr. Julie Luft (Appendix I) to adapt the items from her instrument for use in this study. Survey items for the inquiry of beliefs and practices specific to language pedagogy were developed using the ACTFL/NCATE Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers (2002). The demographic questions were adapted from the 2009 STARTALK Teacher Program Survey (Sugarman & Malone, 2009). Permission to use these items was not required, as they are considered public domain.

The survey was developed under the tutelage of a tenured professor who teaches a doctoral-level survey course at GMU. During the development phase, it was pilot-tested on two occasions with Chinese language teachers from a school district in New England and with teachers working for the Confucius Institute at GMU. Teachers who participated in the pilot tests were selected because they would not later be part of the study's sample. The pilot tests provided insight into the interpretation and

comprehensibility of the survey items. Because the participants in this study were mostly English language learners, sensitivity toward their level of confidence using English to respond to the survey items was of utmost importance. Revisions were made after each pilot test based upon feedback from the test sample participants.

Validity of survey. The validity of the survey developed for this study lies in the overall validity and reliability of the TBI and the content validity of the items developed using the nationally recognized ACTFL/NCATE Standards. The developers of the TBI, Luft and Roehrig, have published the validity and reliability of their instrument (2007). They state that the research on the development of the TBI spanned five years and included more than 100 pre-service, induction, and in-service teachers. During this five-year period, they report the use of an iterative process that included several teams of researchers that employed both quantitative and qualitative methods in order to ascertain the content validity of the survey items and the inter-rater reliability of the maps they developed for teacher profiles. Luft and Roehrig report an internal consistency of the survey of 0.70 using Cronbach alpha. The validity of survey items that I developed using the ACTFL/NCATE Standards will be addressed next.

In constructing the survey items for the inquiry of teacher beliefs and practices specific to language pedagogy, I referred to the six STARTALK Endorsed Principles for Effective Teaching and Learning that are required for STARTALK teacher program (NFLC, *n.d.b*) and aligned to the ACTFL/NCATE Standards. These six statements are to: (1) implement a standards-based and thematically organized curriculum; (2) facilitate

a student-centered classroom; (3) use the target language and provide comprehensible input for instruction; (4) integrate culture, content, and language in a world language classroom; (5) adapt and use age-appropriate authentic materials; and (6) conduct performance-based assessments. Once the survey items were created, content validity was obtained following generally acceptable research practices.

Creswell (2005) notes that content validity is the extent to which the items on the instrument are a good representation of all possible items regarding the content or skills being investigated. He further notes that the evidence needed to substantiate content validity of such questions is to have a panel of experts or judges identify whether the items are valid. For this survey, the panel of experts included two professors—one an expert in educational surveys, and the other an expert in language teacher education—and a doctoral student who is both a native speaker of Chinese and someone who has worked extensively with the ACTFL/NCATE Standards.

Interview protocol. The telephone interview protocol (Appendix J) centered on the teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their classroom practices in teaching Chinese to K-16 students in a U.S. setting. The interviews were semi-structured. The teachers were asked each question in the sequence that appears on the interview protocol. However, there were times when I had to clarify a question and other times when follow-up questions were necessary in order for a teacher to clarify a response. Teachers were also encouraged to expand upon their beliefs and classroom practices beyond the interview

questions. Each interview took approximately 20 minutes and was recorded using a digital recorder.

Demographic questionnaire. Prior to conducting the telephone interviews, I emailed the interviewees an electronic demographic questionnaire to complete and return. The 14 demographic questions were identical to those used in the online survey. As noted earlier in this chapter, these questions were adapted from the 2009 STARTALK Teacher Program Survey (Sugarman & Malone, 2009).

Classroom observation field notes form. This data collection instrument (Appendix K) was designed to collect field notes during the two classroom observations that were conducted with four teachers. It included a checklist of items adapted from Lin (2010), which provided consistency during the eight observations. It is important to note that I did not focus on this checklist during the observations. Instead, I wrote copious notes about what I observed in each classroom and used my field notes to serve as evidence as I reviewed the items on the checklist.

Data Collection Procedures

Data collection procedures for this study included collecting and storing data electronically, with the exception of the observational field notes that were collected on paper using the classroom observation field notes form. The online survey, digitally recorded telephone interviews, and demographic questionnaires were stored electronically on my personal computer, with back-up files stored remotely on Jungle Disk, a private online storage space. The IRB at GMU waived the requirement for

signatures on consent forms for the online survey, the interviews, and the classroom observations. Therefore, it was not necessary to collect or store consent forms for this study.

Online Surveys

A total of 130 to 150 Chinese language teachers who had attended at least one STARTALK teacher program between 2007 and 2011 were expected to participate in this study by completing the online survey. After three rounds of recruitment emails, 71 teachers responded to at least some of the survey items. The collection and storage of the raw data from the online survey was done using the online survey tool, SurveyMonkey.

Interviews

There were 18 teachers who responded to my recruitment email for the telephone interviews. These teachers were then sent an electronic copy of the consent form for their records and asked to provide a date and time for the interview. All interviews were conducted by telephone or by a popular online voice-over-internet-protocol service. The interviews were recorded using a digital recorder. After each interview, I uploaded the digital file to my password-protected personal computer and then erased it from the recorder. A professional transcription company was used to transcribe each digital interview file to a MS Word document. Once I received the transcripts, I verified each one by listening to the interview in its entirety. The verified transcripts were then stored on my personal computer.

Demographic questionnaires. Teachers who participated in the telephone interviews also completed an electronic version of the demographic questions used in the online survey. Once a date and time was agreed upon for the interview, I emailed the teacher the demographic questionnaire and asked him/her to complete and return it by email prior to the interview. The completed questionnaires were then saved on my personal computer.

Classroom Observations

There were four teachers who participated in the classroom observations. Three of the teachers were observed twice on the same day, but with different groups of students. These observations lasted between 30 and 90 minutes, depending on the language program model. The fourth teacher taught at a community college and was not available for two consecutive observations. She was observed once teaching a two hour and twenty minute class.

Observation settings. Observations for this study included four different classroom settings and three language program models. All settings were located in the mid-Atlantic Region. One setting took place in an elementary classroom located in a suburban public school. The school had recently incorporated the Foreign Language Elementary School (FLES) program model into its curriculum. The second setting was in a suburban public high school that follows a traditional world language curriculum with courses based upon language level and purpose (e.g., I-IV, Advanced Placement). Another high school—a private K-12 school located in a more rural setting—was also

part of this research. However, it follows a world language curriculum similar to that used in the public high school in this study. The final classroom setting was located at a community college. The curriculum for these courses followed a common post-secondary model that separates courses by language level (i.e., beginning or intermediate) and by skill (i.e., conversation, reading, or writing).

Data Analysis

Data analysis involved both qualitative and quantitative procedures, with the purpose of identifying areas where the teachers' self-reported beliefs and instructional practices reflect standards-based, learner-centered instruction and areas where they diverge. The descriptive data from the 14 demographic questions on the online survey and the demographic questionnaires from the teachers who completed telephone interviews were analyzed using SPSS version 18. Frequency reports (frequency percentages) were used to describe the participants for the online survey and telephone interviews. Descriptive statistics were also run to analyze the 13 closed-item responses on the survey.

The use of means and standard deviations with ordinal data has long been argued in the literature (Knapp, 1990). This is because parametric testing of mean scores assumes there is homogeneity of variance, which is not generally the case with ordinal data. It is important to note that this study did not employ parametric testing. The use of mean scores was limited to better understand the central tendency of the participants' survey responses. Survey items that asked teachers to rank frequency or importance

included assigned values to each category (i.e. 1 = never and 4 = most of the time; 1 = not important and 4 = essential). Additionally, the initial plan for data analysis was to employ a non-parametric chi-square test (i.e. Pearson's chi-square test of association) to compare groups of teachers based on two or more categories where a normal distribution of scores cannot be assumed.

Dimitrov (2008) notes that the chi-square test for association is useful for research questions that seek to determine possible associations between two categorical variables. The purpose was to identify over/under-represented sub-groups of teachers' beliefs and practices (i.e. those that were identified as standards-based and learner-centered) based upon their teacher education/pedagogical training, number of years teaching in the United States, and language program model. However, the use of chi-square test for association relied upon categorizing teachers' beliefs and practices using rubrics created by the researcher. These rubrics were to be used to analyze the open-response survey items.

The initial plan for analyzing the seven open-response items on the surveys included the use of rubrics that were adapted from the teacher profiles developed by Luft and Roehrig (2007) and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards. The idea was to categorize the teachers' responses as teacher-centered (TC), transitional (T), or learner-centered (LC), based upon the criteria and examples provided on the rubrics. To do so, I assembled a team of two other researchers who are familiar with standards-based, learner-centered world language instruction and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards. Our goal was to categorize approximately half of the participant responses using the rubrics in order to

establish an 80 percent inter-rater reliability (IRR) for the rubrics. After three sessions (each lasting between approximately three hours), the research team was able to achieve an IRR of only 40 to 50 percent. To address this issue, I consulted with a tenured professor who teaches doctoral courses in both qualitative and mixed-methods research.

During this consultation, I noted that the research team had several very rich conversations about what each category should look like and how difficult it was to rate the teacher responses because they were too complex to “fit” in a category. The professor shared the work of sociologist William F. Whyte (1984) who did participant-action research with villages in South America to determine where the villagers’ behavior fell on a continuum from competitive to cooperative. What he found was that there were really two multilevel dimensions to their behaviors—not a continuum. Their behavior was too complex to “fit” on a continuum. It was through this conversation that I realized that the teachers in my study were much like the communities in Whyte’s research. The pedagogical beliefs and classroom practices of my participants were too complex to fit in the categories on my rubrics. I had to consider the possibility of complex dimensions.

To identify these complex dimensions, I used Greene’s (2007) approach of combining methods purposefully for understanding complex data rather than to fall into the trap of trying to achieve simple agreement (i.e., triangulation) at the expense of distorting the realities of the teachers in my study. The qualitative data from the open-ended responses on the survey and from the telephone interview transcripts were analyzed using codes and themes that represented both what I expected to find (etic) and

those that emerged from the words of the participants (emic). Due to the large size of the data set, I used Hyper Research software to identify the most prevalent codes and to help collapse and expand codes and themes as necessary.

Data from the classroom observations were analyzed using emic and etic coding processes. As noted earlier, I sought to identify dimensions of differences among the teachers with the understanding that these differences might include more than one set of theories as well as differences in their personal experiences, education, values, and beliefs. To better accommodate these differences, I planned an integrative analysis of the data sets (i.e., surveys, interviews, observations) with planned stopping points to reflect upon what each method of analysis and each data set revealed.

Reliability

Reliability checks were conducted on each of the three data collection instruments: the online survey, the telephone interviews, and the field notes from classroom observations. These checks are explained in the next section. In addition, researcher bias will also be addressed in this section because, as Maxwell (2005) notes, “the researcher *is* an instrument of the research. Rather than treat my personal knowledge and experiences as a language learner, language teacher, and teacher educator as biases that need to be eliminated, I will explain how they were used as a valuable component of the data analysis.

Online Survey

Creswell (2005) notes that there are several factors that may yield unreliable data from various forms of instruments, including tests and surveys. These factors include test/survey items that are unclear or ambiguous, non-standardized administration of the instrument, and participants who are fatigued or nervous. As noted earlier, the online survey used in this research was constructed using valid and reliable sources (i.e., the TBI and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards). The survey was pilot-tested twice with Chinese language teachers in order to identify and revise items that were unclear or ambiguous. Administration of the survey was done entirely online. Participants were not required to disclose any identifying information. To reduce the likelihood of fatigue or nervousness, participants were allowed to take the survey when they had the time to do so. While taking the survey, participants were allowed to skip items and revise their responses before exiting.

Interviews and Classroom Observations

Participant checks were conducted on both the interview data and the data collected during the classroom observations. Participants were sent the transcripts of their interviews via email to ensure that their responses to the questions were accurately portrayed. They were given the opportunity to make changes to clarify or deepen their responses. If they requested any changes, these were reflected in the final data analysis. Similar participant checks were conducted with the field notes from the classroom observations. Rather than send the raw data, I summarized my field notes and sent these

to the teachers for their comments and feedback. Again, any requests for changes were made prior to final data analysis.

Researcher Subjectivity

My interest in studying the beliefs that Chinese language teachers hold toward teaching and learning and comparing these beliefs to their classroom practices stems from my own experiences as a language instructor, language teacher educator, and researcher. Prior to studying standards-based, learner-centered instruction, I did as Lortie (1975) found in his research. I taught Spanish, employing the very methods that were used by the instructors I had while earning my Bachelor of Arts in Modern Languages, Spanish. These methods primarily consisted of memorizing dialogues (Audio-Lingual Method) and mastering Spanish grammar (Cognitive Code Method). It was not until I earned my Master of Arts in Curriculum and Instruction that I learned and recognized the benefits of communicative methods that were both standards-based and learner-centered. As I began to employ more communicative approaches in my teaching involving a wide variety of K-16 classrooms, I began to see the results in student learning. It was then that my pedagogical beliefs changed. Reflecting upon these experiences, I realize that changes in pedagogical beliefs occur over time and applying these beliefs in classroom practices is fraught with challenges related to the realities of today's K-16 classrooms. With these experiences, I am empathetic to the challenges that teachers in this study encounter in their classrooms.

In addition to the four years I taught Spanish in various K-16 environments, my research interests also stem from my work as an instructor in a foreign/world language teacher licensure program and as an administrator and presenter for an annual professional development program designed specifically for K-16 Arabic and Chinese language teachers. Most of the Chinese teachers in my classrooms and in the professional development program were part of international cohorts of pre-service teachers sponsored by the Chinese Ministry of Education. Over time, I noted that their eagerness toward studying standards-based, learner-centered instruction was often replaced with their apprehension and trepidation after they completed their first practicum in a U.S. school. Research that I co-conducted in 2009 and 2010 revealed that their concerns included student behavior, classroom management, administrative duties, and communication with other faculty, administrators, and parents. Intrigued by how these teachers reacted to the cultural context of U.S. schools, I became interested in studying Chinese language teacher transition into U.S. schools. This interest led to the literature on cultural contexts of education and the importance of recognizing and valuing the different beliefs and experiences that international teachers bring to U.S. classrooms.

Having these professional experiences has greatly contributed to my knowledge and expertise on the topic of language teacher pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices. However, it was important that I assumed “empathetic neutrality” (Patton, 2002) in order to avoid becoming too involved or too distant, particularly with the telephone interviews and classroom observations. As stated earlier in this chapter, I also

had to consider the cultural differences between the Chinese language teachers and me in this study. It was critical that I develop culturally appropriate ways to maintain rapport while avoiding more personal relationships that may lead to contrived responses or behaviors. As Patton suggests, “the investigator’s commitment is to understand the world as it unfolds, be true to complexities and multiple perspectives as they emerge, and be balanced in reporting both confirmatory and disconfirming evidence with regard to any conclusion offered” (p. 51). To ensure impartiality throughout this study, I regularly practiced critical reflection, which included writing several brief, reflective memos during data analysis to capture my reactions and emotions. These memos were used as part of the results and implications of this study. More details on their use are provided in the following chapters.

Summary

This chapter presented the processes involved with recruitment, data collection, and data analysis for this mixed-methods study. It also addressed issues of validity and reliability as well as the researcher’s subjectivity. The next chapter presents the data analysis results and findings as they relate to the study’s three research questions.

IV. RESULTS

The results from this mixed-methods study are derived from data collected through an online survey, individual interviews, and classroom observations. This research investigated Chinese language teachers' self-reported pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices to determine how they reflected standards-based, learner-centered instruction. Figure 4 illustrates the triangulation of the three sources of data towards the two central areas of investigation.

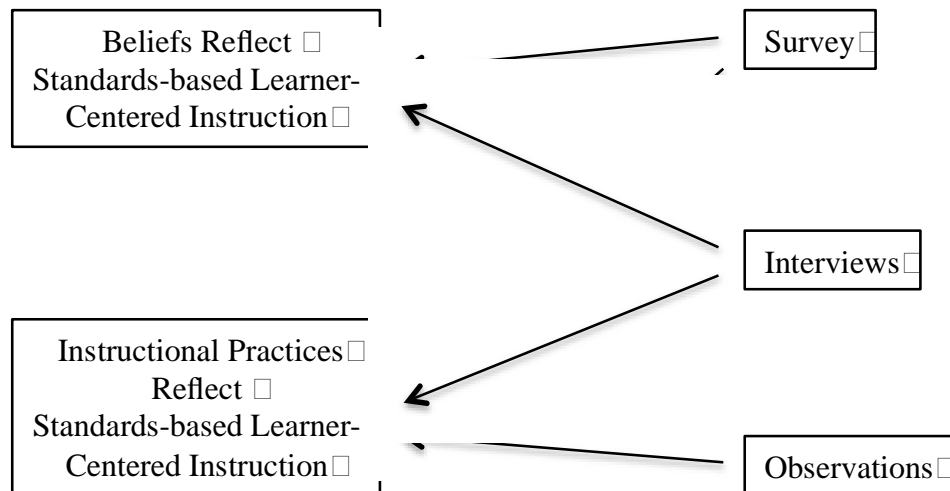


Figure 4. Triangulation of data in the Ferro study.

This research recognizes that the mental processes of teachers are complex. As such it would be inappropriate to view the relationship between language teacher beliefs and practices as a linear process of first acquiring new knowledge about standards-based, learner-centered instruction and then applying this knowledge during classroom instruction. Rather, it uses the model developed by Borg (2003) that illustrates the relationship between language teacher cognition and classroom practice that involve personal schooling, professional coursework, and contextual factors that occur within the school environment. Additionally, this study places value on the cultures of language learning from where the majority of the participants received their education. The acknowledgement that the purposes for language study may vary across cultures means that the pedagogical beliefs and practices of language teachers in this study have been influenced by their cultures of education that are vastly different from the culture of education where they now teach. Therefore, the findings presented here should not be interpreted as deficits in their knowledge and/or behaviors. With these two caveats in mind, the quantitative and qualitative data were used to inform answers to these research questions:

1. How do the self-reported pedagogical beliefs of the Chinese language teachers in this study reflect standards-based, learner-centered instruction?
2. How do the self-reported and observed instructional practices of the Chinese language teachers in this study reflect standards-based, learner-centered instruction?

3. In what ways are the pedagogical beliefs of the teachers in this study congruent and incongruent with their self-reported instructional practices?

The findings for each question are presented after a thorough summary of the participant demography.

Participant Demography

This section on participant demography is significantly more detailed than what one would find in most research studies. This is due to the nature of this study that expands Borg's model of teacher cognition. This model recognizes that teacher cognition, including their pedagogical beliefs, occurs over the course of one's professional life and is influenced by their experiences as students, knowledge gained from professional coursework, reflection on their classroom practices and social, psychological, and environmental exigencies. It is therefore important to understand the professional lives and educational experiences of the teachers who participated in this study. The following subsections summarize the demography of the participants who completed the online survey, the short interviews, and the classroom observations. Descriptive summaries of the seven classroom observations are also provided at the end of this section.

Survey Participants

The online survey included 14 items on demography. The 70 responses to the item on gender indicated the participants were primarily female teachers (n=66). They

represented 18 states, with the highest frequency of participants living in California (n=13), Washington (n=9), Massachusetts (n=8), and Virginia (n=8). It was interesting to learn that 65% of the 71 participants indicated that they have been living in the United States for more than ten years (n=46). It was expected that with the recent growth in Chinese language programs within the United States that most of the teachers would have resided here for less than four years. There were 10 participants (14.1%) who responded with “5-9 years,” 12 participants (16.9%) who responded “1-4 years” and 2 participants (2.8%) who responded “less than one year.” The high percentage of teachers in this study who have been here for ten or more years indicates that recruiting Chinese language teachers from within the United States is a significant channel in the teacher supply system.

The data from the 67 respondents to the survey item related to “time teaching Chinese in the United States” were more indicative of the recent growth of Chinese language programs in U.S. schools. There were 41% who responded with the category “1-4 years” (n=29) and an additional 22% (n=16) responding with “less than one year.” Of the remaining 22 participants who responded to this item, 18% (n=13) have been teaching in Chinese in a U.S. school for five to nine years and 13% (n=9) have been teaching for more than 10 years.

Additional frequencies related to the participants’ age, country of origin, and location of primary, secondary and post-secondary educational experiences are provided in Table 2.

Table 2
Teacher Demography: Survey Participants

Demography	Frequency	Frequency Percentage
Age	Teachers (N=69)	
20-29 years	15	21.1
30-39 years	12	16.9
40-49 years	31	43.7
50-59 years	10	14.1
60-69 years	0	0.0
70+ years	1	1.4
Country of Origin	Teachers (N = 69)	
Hong Kong	2	2.8
PRC-Mainland China	36	50.7
Taiwan	21	29.6
Singapore	1	1.4
United States	6	8.5
Other (Germany, Japan, Malaysia)	3	4.3
K-12 Education	Teachers (N = 71)	
Hong Kong	1	2.8
PRC-Mainland China	36	50.7
Taiwan	19	26.8
Singapore	1	1.4
United States	10	14.1
Other (Germany, Japan, Malaysia)	3	4.3
PRC-Mainland China Grades K-8 and United States Grades 9-12	1	1.4
Post-Secondary Education	Teachers (N=71)	
	Multiple Responses Permitted	
Hong Kong	0	0.0
PRC-Mainland China	36	50.7
Taiwan	13	18.3
Singapore	0	1.4
United States	42	59.1
Canada	1	1.4
Japan	1	1.4
United Kingdom	2	2.8

The two largest age groups represented in this study were teachers between 20-39 years of age (38%) and between 40-49 years of age (44%). Responses to the demographic item for their country of origin supported several pre-study assumptions about Chinese language teachers in U.S. schools. True to my expectations, the majority of the teachers (n=36) were born in the People's Republic of China (PRC) or Taiwan (n=21), where they also completed most of their primary and secondary education. The survey item that asked where they completed their post-secondary education allowed for multiple responses, recognizing that international educational experiences often occur at the post-secondary level. There were 49 teachers who reported completing all or part of their post-secondary education in the PRC or Taiwan. Interestingly, there were 42 teachers who reported all or part of their post-secondary education was completed in the United States. This number was higher than expected and demonstrates an unexpected finding that tests the over-generalized perception that Chinese language teachers lack knowledge and experience with Western cultures of education. The implications of these teachers having educational experiences within the cultural contexts of post-secondary education in the United States will be revisited in the findings and discussion related to standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

The demographic survey included an item for the teachers to report their current teaching positions by selecting from a list of options. Multiple responses were permitted for this item because it is likely that teachers hold multiple positions when they are not able to secure full-time employment. The frequencies are provided in Table 3.

Table 3
Survey Participants' Current Teaching Position

Program	Frequency	Frequency Percentage
Teachers (N=71) Multiple Responses Permitted		
Public School	50	70.4
Pre-Kindergarten	3	4.2
Grades K-5	14	19.7
Grades 6-8	10	14.1
Grades 9-12	23	32.4
Private/Parochial (non-heritage)	26	36.6
Pre-Kindergarten	5	7.0
Grades K-5	10	14.1
Grades 6-8	4	5.6
Grades 9-12	7	9.8
Heritage Language Schools	19	26.7
Pre-Kindergarten	3	4.2
Grades K-5	5	7.0
Grades 6-8	4	5.6
Grades 9-12	7	9.8
Other:		
Heritage After-School/Weekend Programs	3	4.2
Community College	0	0.0
College-University Undergraduate	8	11.3
Adult Education (non-degree)	5	4.3
Private Tutoring: In Person	8	11.3
Private Tutoring: Online	1	1.4

The most frequent responses were “Public School K-5” (n=14), “Public School 6-8” (n=10), “Public School 9-12” (n=23), and “Private/Parochial K-5” (n=10). It should be noted that 50 of the participants (70%) reported teaching in public PK-12 schools that

require teachers to hold a teaching license or state certification. This will be discussed further with the results on professional coursework. Overall, the data indicate that the teachers in this study have had a broad range of present teaching experiences in U.S. schools.

Responses were also collected on items related to the teachers' education and their pedagogical training. Of the 70 participants who responded to the item on the highest degree earned, 28% (n=20) noted a bachelor degree, 68% (n=48) indicated a master degree, and 3% (n=2) noted a doctorate as the highest degree earned. These degrees included "education with a focus on languages" (n=28) and "language and literature" (n=25). Approximately 42% (n= 30) of the participants indicated that they have taken methods courses for teaching languages at a university. Another 67% (n=48) noted that they have attended workshops and/or conference sessions that focused on language pedagogy. When asked if they held a teaching license or teaching certificate to teach Chinese in the United States, 51% (n=36) responded "yes", 21% (n=15) responded "not yet, but I am working on my certification now", 13% (n=9) responded "not yet, but I do plan to become certified", and 14% (n=10) responded "no."

The data on the professional coursework of the teachers in this study show that more than 70% of the participants either currently hold a state license to teach Chinese or they are currently in a licensure program. This number is encouraging and most likely reflects current licensure requirements for teaching in public PK-12 U.S. schools. It is interesting to note that this percentage aligns with the 70% of the participants who stated

they are currently working in a PK-12 public school. It must be noted that the teachers were allowed to select multiple responses for the questions regarding their education and pedagogical training. Although there is the possibility that a participant who stated s/he holds a degree in education with a focus on languages may have also responded that s/he has taken methods courses for language teaching at the university, the high percentage of teachers who are licensed (51%), have taken methodology courses at a university (42%), and/or have attended a conference session/workshop on language pedagogy (67%) indicates that the majority of the participants who completed the survey had some exposure to current pedagogical trends in language education, including standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

In addition to the data collected on the participants' education and pedagogical training, there were 71 teachers who responded to the survey item on the years they attended a STARTALK Teacher Program, and the number of programs they attended in each year. As stated earlier, the purpose for using criterion-based sampling techniques in this study was to ensure the participants have attended at least one professional development program aligned to the SFLL and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards. Because STARTALK Teacher Programs are aligned with both sets of nationally recognized standards, these programs served as viable pool of potential participants.

This study is not an evaluation of STARTALK Teacher Programs; however, it is clear that the Chinese language teachers who completed the survey increased their participation in STARTALK between 2007-2011. In 2007 there were 8% in attendance,

9% in 2008, 18% in 2009, 35% in 2010, and 85% in attendance in 2011. There was also an increase in the number of teachers who attended more than one STARTALK Teacher Program each year. In 2007, there was only one participant (1.4%) who attended more than one STARTALK Teacher Program. By 2010, this number grew to 11 teachers, or 15%. This indicates that there is a growing demand for professional development programs that align to the SFL and the ACTFL/NCATE standards. Although the STARTALK Teacher Programs vary in content and delivery, these data provide evidence that the majority of the teachers who completed the survey have a growing interest in programs such as STARTALK that may also provide alternate/additional pathways to licensure.

Interview Participants

There were 17 Chinese language teachers, one male and 16 female, who participated in the short interviews. They collectively represent six states (Florida, Massachusetts, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, and Virginia), with ten currently living in Virginia. The length of time that they have been living in the United States varied. Eight of the teachers have been living here more than 10 years and six have been here between 1-4 years. The remaining three participants have been here between 5-9 years. Before each interview, participants were emailed the 14 demographic questions from the online survey. The descriptive statistics on age, country of origin, and location of primary, secondary, and post-secondary educational experiences are provided in Table 4.

Table 4
Teacher Demography for Interview Participants

Demography	Frequency	Frequency Percentage
Age	Teachers (N=17)	
20-29 years	7	41.2
30-39 years	3	17.6
40-49 years	4	23.5
50-59 years	3	17
Country of Origin	Teachers (N = 17)	
PRC-Mainland China	12	70.6
Taiwan	4	23.5
Malaysia	1	5.9
K-12 Education	Teachers (N =17)	
PRC-Mainland China	12	70.6
Taiwan	3	11.8
Singapore	1	5.9
United States	1	5.9
Post-Secondary Education	Teachers (N=17)	
	Multiple Responses Permitted	
PRC-Mainland China	11	60.4
Taiwan	2	11.8
Singapore	2	11.8
United States	13	76.4
Japan	1	5.9

There were several differences as well as similarities between the demography of the participants in the online survey and the participants in the short interviews. The interview participants were on average much younger with 41% between 20-29 years of age (as opposed to the 21% of the survey participants in this age group). The percentage of teachers between 30-39 years of age was similar to the survey participants at 18 %.

However, only 23% were between 40-49 years of age as opposed to the 44% of the survey participants. As with the survey participants, the majority (71%) of the teachers who participated in the short interviews had been born in the People's Republic of China (PRC) where they also completed the most of their primary and secondary schooling. Another difference between the participants in the online survey and those in the short interviews was in the percentage that had completed the majority of their post-secondary education in the United States. Unlike the 42% of survey participants who completed their post-secondary education here in the United States, 76% of the participants in the interview reported the same. This high percentage was expected because most of the teachers interviewed for this study knew the researcher because she worked as a methods instructor in a licensure program where they were enrolled. As with the survey demographic data, it was anticipated that the majority of teachers in this study would be from the PRC or Taiwan and that the majority of their K-12 educational experiences would have occurred in those countries with greater variability in the location where they completed their post-secondary education. The demography data from the interview participants support those assumptions.

The current teaching positions of the interview participants are provided in Table 5. Participants were allowed multiple responses to this item because, as noted earlier, critical need language teachers may teach in multiple venues when full-time positions are not available with one school or program model. There were 40 responses from the 17 participants. Similar to the responses from the survey participants, the majority (59%) of

the teachers interviewed indicated they worked in K-12 public schools with private or parochial non-heritage schools representing 41% of their responses. There was one teacher currently teaching beginning Chinese language courses at a community college and one teacher currently teaching 100-300 level courses at a four-year university.

Table 5
Interview Participants' Current Teaching Positions

Program	Frequency	Frequency Percentage
Teachers (N=17) Multiple Responses Permitted		
Public School	10	58.8
Grades K-5	3	17.6
Grades 6-8	1	5.9
Grades 9-12	6	35.3
Private/Parochial (non-heritage)	7	41.1
Pre-Kindergarten	2	11.8
Grades K-5	2	11.8
Grades 6-8	1	5.9
Grades 9-12	2	11.8
Heritage Language Schools	1	5.9
Grades 6-8	1	5.9
Other:		
Heritage After-School/Weekend Programs	1	5.9
Community College	1	5.9
College-University Undergraduate	1	5.9
Adult Education (non-degree)	1	5.9

As noted in demography of the survey participants, teaching in public K-12 settings requires that teachers either be licensed or certified or are actively seeking certification through traditional or alternative teacher education programs. With 59% of the responses from the teachers who took part in the short interviews indicating they are currently teaching in public schools, it can be assumed that these teachers have had professional coursework in language teacher pedagogy. This assumption was confirmed by the participants' responses to the survey questions on their education and pedagogical training.

Data collected on the highest degree earned showed that there were 18% (n=3) having completed a bachelor degree, 71% (n=12) having earned a master degree, and 11% (n=2) having completed a doctorate. These degrees included "education with a focus on languages" (n=11) and "language and literature" (n=6). Approximately 82% (n= 14) of the participants indicated that they have taken methods courses for teaching languages at a university. Another 65% (n=11) noted that they have attended workshops and/or conference sessions that focused on language pedagogy. There were 13 participants (72%) who indicated they are certified to teach Chinese in the United States. This was not a surprise as many of the participants had taken methods courses in a licensure program where the researcher was an instructor. There were three participants who stated they are currently working towards their certification. As noted with the survey responses, this high percentage is encouraging and is most likely indicative of the

59% of the interview participants who are teaching in a public school setting that requires a teaching license.

Lastly, there were several teachers who indicated their participation in one or more of the STARTALK Teacher Programs held between 2007 and 2011. As noted with the demography responses from the online survey, the interview participants indicated an increase in the number of STARTALK Teacher Programs they attended between 2007 and 2011. For example, only one of the 17 teachers attended a program in 2007. In the next two years, this number increased to six and nine respectively. There was a drop in attendance in 2010, with four participants indicating their attendance; but in 2011, this number increased to ten. These numbers support the growing popularity of these federally funded professional development programs for critical need language teachers and the desire of these teachers to participate in professional development programs aligned to the SFLL and ACTFL/NCATE Standards.

Observation Participants and Summary of Lessons Observed

There were four teachers who participated in seven classroom observations. Three of the teachers were observed twice in the same day. The fourth teacher was observed only once, but the length of the observation was comparable to the others. Each of these teachers was assigned a pseudonym for this research. The teacher demographics along with a brief description of the school, classroom environment, and lesson are provided next.

Karen. Karen was born in the PRC, which is where she completed the majority of her K-12 education. Her post-secondary education was split between the PRC (baccalaureate) and the United States, where she was completing a Master in Education at the time of this study. She is between 40-49 years of age. She was observed teaching two high school Chinese Level 1 classes in a private K-12 school in a suburb of Washington, DC. Enrollment at the school at the time of the observation was approximately 500 students, with a student-teacher ratio of 16:1. The school uses a Quaker-based holistic curriculum model for developing the students' cognitive and spiritual growth. This was Karen's first year teaching at this school, although she has been teaching in the United States between 5-9 years.

Her small classroom had desks arranged in rows. Karen's desk was located at the back of the room, next to her computer and LCD projector. The room was decorated with colorful posters, photos, and maps of China. There were also posters with common classroom questions in Pinyin (the official phonetic system for transcribing Chinese characters using the Roman alphabet). The students had been studying about the Chinese Lantern Festival. On the day of the observation, Karen took her students to one of the dormitory lounges that had couches, four large round tables, and a kitchen area to teach them how to make a traditional Chinese dessert called *tang yuan*. Two 50-minute classes were observed with 14 and 12 students in each class respectively.

Karen began the lesson with a PowerPoint presentation where she used both Chinese and English to review the Lantern Festival and how it connects to the Lunar

Festival. She introduced new vocabulary words related to the festival and asked the students to repeat them several times. She concluded the presentation with three riddles, similar to what would be found inside a Chinese lantern. She stated that one traditional dessert eaten during the Lantern Festival is Tang Yuan. She shared her childhood memories of making these around a table with her female family members and friends, chatting about things of interest. She called her students around the tables in the room and provided instructions in both English and Chinese for how make the paste and then roll the balls that would later be boiled in water. At the end of the lesson, she asked the students what additional ingredients they would add to flavor their own version of this traditional Chinese dessert. The homework was for students to interview someone from any country that celebrates the Lantern Festival to find out how different Asian cultures celebrate this festival.

Jane. Jane has been living in the United States for over 10 years, but has been teaching Chinese for less than one year in the FLES program at her current school. Prior to this, she taught for two years at a public high school. She was born in the PRC. Like Karen, she was also between 40-49 years of age at the time of the observation, completed all of her K-12 education in China, and earned a bachelor degree there. Jane was observed teaching Chinese in a FLES program at an elementary school in a suburb of Washington DC. This was the first year this school district was offering Chinese and Jane's first year teaching a FLES program curriculum. Prior to this, she had two years of

experience teaching at a public high school. At the time of the observation, Jane held a state certification to teach K-12 Chinese.

Jane's classroom was decorated with colorful cultural posters, Chinese words and phrases in Pinyin, and several areas where she displayed student work. Student desks were arranged in groups of six that form a rectangle. There was a laptop and LCD in the center of the room that was also equipped with an electronic, interactive white board (SMART Board). The teaching materials and supplies were very well organized in labeled bins on shelves around the room. In this room, two 30-minute classes were observed. The first class had 25 students with three students who were also assigned a special education teacher to accommodate learning or emotional disabilities during this inclusion language class. The second class had 22 students. Jane noted that there were two students with learning disabilities for whom she created an individualized education plan, but who did not have a special education teacher present during her class. Her lesson plan was to informally assess student knowledge and use of vocabulary and sentence structures related to the human body. To do so, she had organized several learning centers around her classroom. The learning centers, or stations, included a variety of activities where students could demonstrate their knowledge of vocabulary and use of simple sentences by role-playing a visit to the doctor's office, playing Simon Says, labeling parts of the body on a paper monster, and individually completing a vocabulary game on one of the four classroom computers.

Jane began her lesson in English by reviewing the learning objectives that were written on the board. She followed her established routine for beginning her classes by asking a few students to use the SMART Board to manipulate words and phrases to write (in Pinyin) the day, date and weather in Chinese. Next, she asked a few students to help her create a paper person by identifying the parts of the body. After this review of the vocabulary, she introduced the students to the learning centers and instructed them to visit at least three of these stations during the remainder of the class. As the students visited the learning centers, Jane provided assistance, particularly with some of the more challenging stations. At the end of the lesson, Jane asked two students to do a role-play of a visit to the doctor's office. She then played a game of Simon Says with the whole class before they lined up to leave the room.

Teri. Teri was born in Taiwan just over 50 years ago. She completed all of her K-12 and most of her post-secondary education there. She has been living in the United States for over 10 years, during which she completed the requirements for a state teaching license and earned a Master of Education. She has also been teaching in U.S. schools for over 10 years and was teaching in a public high school in a small school district near Washington DC at the time of her observation. Recently, Teri started a doctoral program in education leadership. Her goal is to be a school principal.

Teri has her own classroom in an older school building (1950s) that enrolls between 700-800 students. Her classroom is decorated with murals on the walls that were painted by students. In addition, Teri has several posters with common phrases in

Pinyin and cultural photos, maps and other visuals from China and Taiwan. On the day of the observation, the desks were arranged in two rows that form a U-shape. In the center was a table with a laptop, LCD and overhead projector for transparencies. There was also a SMART board with large speakers on each side. Teri's desk was located in the front of the classroom and faced a large window. In the rest of the classroom, there were a few large tables with stacks of workbooks, Chinese-English dictionaries and three computers for student use. Two 90-minute observations were conducted. The first was a Level II class with 20 students and the second was a Level I class with 27 students.

The lesson for these observed classes was to prepare students for the upcoming oral examinations. The oral exams consisted of a short monologue (given by each individual student) and a short interview between two students. The students were given a list of five topics/themes that they have learned this year and that could be on their oral examination. They were advised to prepare something for every topic, although only two would be selected at the time of the exam, one for the monologue and the second for the interview. In this lesson, the students worked in groups to develop their ideas, a vocabulary list, and several sentences and questions related to each topic. They were encouraged to use all the materials available in the classroom in order to complete the note-taking sheet that Teri had prepared to guide them through the process.

Teri began each class by using English to explain the review activity. Students counted in Chinese from one to five to form groups. Each group was assigned a "starting topic" to investigate and complete the note-taking sheet. Every 10-15 minutes, Teri

asked the students to switch topics. Topics for the Level I class included transportation, Chinese food, celebrating Spring Festival, daily routines, and school schedules. Topics for the Level II were very similar and included school schedules, extracurricular activities and hobbies, clothing for different activities and events, traveling abroad, and healthy eating. At the end of each class, Teri called on individual students to answer her questions related to each topic. The homework was to study these note-taking sheets in preparation for the oral exams.

Dani. Dani was born in the PRC. At the time of her observation, she was between 50-59 years of age. All of her K-12 educational experiences occurred in China, but like the other teachers who were observed she completed post-secondary degrees in both the PRC and the United States, where she earned a doctorate in comparative literature. She has been living and teaching Chinese in the United States for over 10 years. At the time she participated in this study, she was teaching in two very different settings. During the day, Dani taught at a K-12 private-parochial school. Two evenings a week, she taught introductory Chinese courses at a community college located in the greater Washington, DC area. She was observed teaching a Level I class that met once per week from 6:00-8:20 in the evening.

The classroom had a permanent arrangement that consisted of 5 rows of narrow tables that were fixed to the floor. There was a computer and LCD projector in the room that was also equipped with wall mounted speakers. Because this is a shared classroom at a community college, there were no Chinese posters or other language/cultural

decorations. On the night of the observation, there were six students present in a class that had ten students enrolled (i.e. four students were absent). One of the six students present was a heritage speaker who was taking the course to meet his degree requirements for foreign languages. Three students were “true beginners” that had not taken any Chinese courses prior to this one. The other two students present during the observation were not true beginners, having had some Chinese language instruction prior to this class. The lesson plan for this observation included a review of the vocabulary related to college disciplines/fields of study, typical college courses and discussing daily schedules. It also included a review of daily routines in order to introduce a new sentence structure for stating that two things are occurring at the same time. Dani’s preparation materials included a PowerPoint presentation and a handout she provided to the students that reviewed previously learned vocabulary. During a discussion with Dani during a scheduled break, she indicated that when she introduces new vocabulary she provides both the Pinyin for pronunciation and the Chinese character. However, for review sheets such as this, she uses only the Chinese characters.

The class began with basic greetings in Chinese. Dani handed out the worksheet with vocabulary and then circulated the room giving students the chance to practice with her directly by answering her questions. For the next activity, Dani used a PowerPoint presentation that contained various photos that served as prompts for introducing the new sentence structure. For example, one slide had a photo of a woman working on the computer and a baby taking a nap in another room. Dani modeled how to say that both of

these things are going on at the same time. She then called on students to practice this structure using additional photos that she provided in the PowerPoint. During this activity, an impromptu question occurred regarding a student's recent trip to Singapore. This led to a discussion about the difference between the Chinese phrases "to be able to do an activity—in general" and "to be able to do an activity as a result of learning." The students then used this structure to ask the student who traveled to Singapore additional questions about his trip. Dani provided vocabulary and language structures to express nationalities. The class discussed some of the more common ethnic groups in China (such as the Han) and learned that there are over 100 ethnic groups currently in existence. After this unplanned discussion, the lesson continued with a final activity that served as a review of daily routines, class schedules, major fields of study, and the new structure for stating how two activities are occurring simultaneously. Students worked in pairs, asking and answering questions to one another while Dani once again circulated the classroom, offering each pair individualized feedback. The lesson ended with a reminder of the homework assignment that was to complete a series of written activities using the new grammatical structure. These descriptions of the classroom instructors and the summary of the lessons observed will be included in the following section on the research findings.

Findings

The findings presented here are based upon the quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data analysis consisted of frequency of responses for the closed survey items. Qualitative data analysis consisted of coding and categorizing interview

transcripts using Hyper Research. Etic and emic codes were based upon the researcher's knowledge and experiences working with Chinese language teachers and the participants' own words as they emerged from the interview data. The initial code list included 133 codes (see Appendix L) that were later collapsed into 124 codes. These codes were then filtered into 12 categories provided in Appendix M. Additionally, the data from the open response items on the online survey were analyzed using text analysis software provided by SurveyMonkey. This analysis identified high frequency words. The open responses were then coded (by hand) using new and previously identified codes from the interview data. Lastly, the findings include summaries of the field notes from classroom observations, and research memos written after coding each interview transcript. Due to the large quantity of data collected, it was imperative to organize it according to the manner in which it related to the research questions.

The need to organize the data led to the construction of a research design matrix. The matrix is provided in Appendix N and shows the purpose for each research question, the data collected to answer each question, and the methodologies employed during analysis. It is important to note that data analysis yielded more information than initially anticipated. This was due in part to the complexity of implementing standards-based, learner-centered instruction in what was for most of the participants, a different culture of education from which they themselves were educated. For example, it was not anticipated that the participants would explicitly relate their beliefs about standards-based, learner-centered instruction directly to their own language learning experiences in

their home countries. Nevertheless, the focus of analysis remained on answering the three research questions. Although it is common practice to present quantitative and qualitative findings separately, the nature of this study and the data collected were such that following a linear format would not provide a complete picture of the pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices of the participants. Therefore, quantitative and qualitative findings will be presented in terms of their relevance to answering each research question.

Research Question 1

How do the self-reported pedagogical beliefs of the Chinese language teachers in this study reflect standards-based, learner-centered instruction?

As noted in the research design matrix, the purpose of this question was to gain an understanding of the teachers' pedagogical beliefs. Several facets of the participants' beliefs were extrapolated from the data. As self-reported, they are:

1. Knowledge of SFL and learner-centered instruction
2. Attitudes and impact of standards-based, learner-centered instruction
3. Beliefs about teacher-centered instruction
4. Beliefs about the teacher's role in a language classroom
5. Beliefs about how students learn best
6. Decisions for planning standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

These six facets for understanding how the participants' beliefs are aligned with standards-based, learner-centered instruction are presented in the following subsections.

It is important to recall the difference between knowledge and beliefs made by Woods (1996) who defined knowledge as conventionally accepted facts and beliefs as propositions for which there are no conventionally accepted facts. Woods cautioned that these concepts should be viewed on a “spectrum of meaning” as they can become blurred when investigating their influence on instructional decisions. Therefore, it is important to note that the findings for knowledge and beliefs are presented separately here; however, the intention is not to view them as separate cognitive domains, but to facilitate the presentation of the study’s results.

Knowledge of SFLL and Learner-centered Instruction

The first three items on the survey instrument asked the teachers to describe their knowledge of the SFLL, the three modes of communication (i.e. interpersonal, interpretive, and presentational), and learner-centered instruction. The response options and the frequency percentages for these three survey items are provided in Table 6.

Table 6
Knowledge of SFL, Modes of Communication, and Learner-Centered Instruction

	Frequency Percentage Teachers (N=71)				
	Knowledge and ability to apply	Knowledge but factors limit ability to apply	Knowledge with limited ability to apply	Limited knowledge with limited ability to apply	No knowledge
Standards for Foreign Language Learning	66.2	22.5	7.0	2.8	1.4
Modes of Communication	67.6	28.2	0.0	2.8	1.4
Learner-Centered Instruction	46.5	35.2	8.5	5.6	4.2

As the frequencies indicate, over 66% of the teachers in this study self-report knowledge of and the ability to apply the SFL and the three modes of communication. Less than 12% of the teachers in this study indicated they have limited/no knowledge of and limited/no ability to implement the SFL and the three communicative modes. The frequencies for their self-reported knowledge of the SFL and self-reported-knowledge of the three communicative modes indicate a consistency in their overall knowledge of the SFL because the communicative modes are part of the Communications Standard. These frequencies are promising as they show that the majority of the teachers in this study have knowledge of and an ability to implement standards-based instruction.

However, a pause for concern is that 22% and 28% of the teachers indicate having knowledge of the SFLL and the three modes respectively, but report having limited ability to implement them in their instructional practice due to factors other than their own knowledge of how to do so. The interview data identified these factors as challenges the teachers said they encounter when implementing standards-based, learner-centered instruction. These challenges will be presented as findings for the third research question that investigated the ways in which the teacher's self-reported beliefs were congruent with their self-reported and observed classroom practices.

The frequencies of the teachers who reported their knowledge of and ability to apply learner-centered instruction were moderately lower, at forty six percent. Twenty percent of teachers reported having some/no knowledge of and limited/no ability to implement learner-centered instruction. This is moderately higher than the 12% who reported some/no knowledge of the SFLL and the communicative modes. Of concern to this study are the 35% of the teachers who report that they have knowledge of learner-centered instruction but other factors (i.e. other than their own ability) limit their implementation. As noted above, direct and indirect challenges for delivering learner-centered lessons emerged from the interview and observation data and will be discussed at length in response to the third research question.

How well the teachers were able to describe learner-centered instruction emerged in the interviews during their responses to the question, "How might you explain learner-centered instruction to a new teacher joining your department?" Responses varied from

the more common, such as “learner-centered instruction means the students talk more than the teacher” and “learner-centered instruction means students are in charge of their own learning” to the more complex responses that connected learner-centered instruction to student motivation and second-language acquisition theories. For example, one teacher noted, “learner-centered instruction is a systematic instructional process for teaching teachers how to plan, how to give instruction, how to assess, and how to motivate students.” Another teacher described learner-centered instruction through her use of quarterly assessments that allow students to choose the items they want to include in their graded portfolios. She noted that students are motivated when they are in charge of their own learning, stating, “they can chuck the ones that they are not doing so well on...and feel like ‘if I want it to be successful, it is possible that I will be successful.’ They have to feel that way to be motivated.” The use of technology also emerged in their answers. As one teacher said, “instead of me standing there and telling them ‘okay-Shanghai and here is all the information on it’, they get a chance to find all kinds of information online.” Lastly, one of the teachers who had earned an M.Ed. in Curriculum and Instruction described learner-centered instruction in terms of Krashen’s (1982) input hypothesis where the input the learner receives is slightly above the current level of competence by stating “you not only teach them something, but they already have some prior knowledge...and you are putting a little more than the prior knowledge...and they are cooperating with you to push themselves to a higher level.” As evident in these quotes, the participants use of vocabulary related to the SFL and learner-centered

instruction varied. This was also supported by the open-responses to the final survey item that asked teachers to provide any additional comments about standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

One key finding from the interview and open response survey item was that a teacher's sole use of vocabulary was not indicative of his/her knowledge of the SFLs. This is likely attributed to the fact that all but six teachers in this study were born outside of the United States in a country where English is not the primary language and all but 11 completed their K-12 education outside of the United States. As English language learners, the participants' diction, when using vocabulary related to the 5Cs or the communicative modes (interpretive, interpersonal, presentational), included errors. For example, during one of the interviews, the teacher referred to the standards as "states." In another interview, the teacher used the term "interactive mode" instead of the interpersonal mode of communication. Yet, when both of these teachers were asked to describe their classroom practices that reflect the SFL, they clearly had a strong understanding of these terms. In the case of the teacher who referred to the standards as "states", later in the interview she referred to them using the correct term and described the following activity demonstrating her understanding of the Communications and Connections Standards:

I will ask each student to come to the class prepared to talk about the news from a Chinese newspaper. They have to read it from the Chinese angle, and give a presentation to the class. So learning about standards is something I really want

for the students, to relate to their daily lives for their learning and also to give them the opportunity to stand in front of the class to be a teacher.

In this example, the teacher used an authentic Chinese newspaper and expected her students to interpret (Interpretive Mode-Communications Standard) in order to gain a “Chinese angle” or a point of view expressed by a native speaker of the language through the written word (Connections Standard). She had her students present what they had learned to the class, indicating the teacher’s knowledge of the Presentational Mode-Communications Standard.

The open-ended responses to the final question on the online survey had similar results. This item asked the teachers to share “other comments they have about standards-based learner-centered instruction.” There were 38 responses collected. In one case, the participant misunderstood the use of the term “standard” to mean the dominant dialect of Chinese. She stated,

I think it is hard to give a definition of ‘standards’ in Chinese, since there are varied usages in different regions. I do not tell my students ‘This is the only way you should say [this] because people in Beijing use this.’ In fact, people in different places have different usages and accents, so I provide different ways to my students and I tell them ‘the words I have listed here are all correct, because of regional differences.’

Although the teacher did not understand that the term “standard” in this survey item referred to the SFL, the response demonstrated an understanding of the dynamic

relationship between language and power (i.e. the emergence of one dialect as dominant and preferable to other dialects) as well as stereotypes (positive and negative) connected with use of various vocabulary words. Her determination to show her students that regional dialects should be valued equally relates, in part, to the Comparisons Standard and the Cultures Standard and better prepares language learners to communicate using various regional vocabularies.

Another interesting finding from the final survey item was the use of vocabulary related to performance assessments by four of the participants. Because their responses to the open survey items were short, it was not always clear if the teachers' use of this term reflected their knowledge. For example, one participant simply stated, "performance assessments are very useful." In at least one case, the teacher listed other forms of performance assessments that included "posters, conversations, written essays and problem solving tasks", all of which are examples of performance assessments used with language learners. As the findings for this section indicated, the teachers in this study self-report a strong understanding of the SFL and although their descriptions of learner-centered instruction varied, they made several connections to student motivation. The topic of motivation also emerged in their descriptions of the role of a language teacher. Before presenting the findings related to their beliefs about the role of the language teacher, the next two sections will report on their attitudes towards standards-based, learner-centered instruction, the impact their knowledge of the SFL and learner-

centered instruction has had on their teaching and their beliefs about teacher-centered instruction.

Attitudes and Impact of Standards-based, Learner-centered Instruction

The interview protocol contained two questions that asked the teachers to talk about when and how they learned about the SFLL and in whether or not their knowledge of the standards impacted their instructional practice. There were 16 comments made by eight of the teachers that indicated their positive reaction towards standards-based, learner-centered instruction and how the SFLL provided structure and guidance in their teaching. Positive comments included the following, “I really felt that it was eye-opening for me!” and “After I learned the 5Cs, I thought ‘wow!’ there is a better way of teaching!” Another said, “I really enjoy standards-based teaching. It is like a GPS...it gives me a route and tells me where to go so I know how to achieve my goal.” Another teacher noted that he uses the communicative modes to plan his lessons so that he pays more attention to how students use the language “to function in daily life rather than follow the textbook.” Other comments also elaborated on how learning about the SFLL impacted classroom practice.

During their interviews, participants were asked to think back to when they first learned about the SFLL. Did they think that they had already been implementing these standards in their instructional practices (without knowing their official name), or did they think that their knowledge of the SFLL would change their instructional practice? Responses were coded in one of three ways: learning the SFLL changed teaching;

learning the SFLL changed teaching but some were already present in practice; and learning the SFLL did not change teaching because they were already present in practice. There were two teachers who indicated that the SFLL did not change their practice because they had been teaching lessons that exemplified the standards without knowing what they were called. The most common responses referenced learning about the SFLL changed the teacher's instructional practice, noting that prior to learning about using authentic materials to teach language and culture, they primarily relied on the textbook. One of the most interesting comments was by a teacher who said, "I think it is very different. The SFLL opened my eyes after 10 years of teaching. I thought that there was a real purpose for learning a language...to use it in the community and to compare cultures." Several teachers indicated that learning about the SFLL both changed their teaching and made them realize that they had already been employing some of them in their instructional practice. For example, one participant shared, "When I was in China, I was teaching English listening by using a lot of movies and TV shows like *Friends* that show American culture." These findings indicate that the participants in this study had mostly a positive reaction to the SFLL and learner-centered instruction. It was also clear that they believed the SFLL had a positive impact on their instructional practices. Although the participants did not include negative comments about standards-based, learner-centered instruction in their survey or interview responses, they did provide insight to their beliefs about teacher-centered instruction.

Beliefs About Teacher-centered Instruction

There were 58 responses to the open response survey item that asked the participants to describe when they find it better to use teacher-centered instruction. Results from the coded data showed that the most common reason (45%) teachers gave for using teacher-centered instruction was to introduce new vocabulary or grammar. Seven of the 58 responses mentioned using teacher-centered instruction for pronunciation or to read stories aloud. Teaching culture and giving instructions for a game, activity, or rubric were purposes given by four and three teachers respectively. There were two teachers who explicitly stated that they use teacher-centered instruction to teach stroke order. Nine teachers offered explanations for selecting teacher-centered instruction over learner-centered instruction. Four teachers said they do so because it helps them manage the classroom. Another five teachers indicated they use teacher-centered instruction because they believe it to be easier and more efficient. These findings were further supported by the interview data.

Reasons for using teacher-centered instruction to address time constraints and to manage student behavior emerged in the interview data in connection to the age and level of the language learner. Interestingly, two teachers differed in their beliefs about the use of teacher-centered instruction with young novice language learners. One teacher finding it difficult to use learner-centered instruction with her first grade class stated, “For the younger ones, I use teacher-centered more, compared to the second and third graders. I think one of the reasons is...the time is really short. So I drill them more on vocabulary

and sentence patterns.” Conversely, another teacher noted, “It was a big change for me with teaching young children. If you use teacher-centered, it will not work. You will get into trouble because they cannot sit there for 15 minutes.” The connection between the age and language level of the learner and using teacher-centered instruction was not restricted to young language learners. One of the participants who taught beginners and intermediate students at the university level noted, “My students are good, but they seem to remain silent because they are not as confident as the level one students. My level three students are not that brave to make mistakes when expressing themselves.” As these results indicate, while most of the teachers believe using teacher-centered instruction is still best for introducing new information, such as grammar structures or vocabulary, the reasons they use teacher-centered instruction vary and include managing the classroom and student behavior and using class time efficiently. How teachers perceive themselves in a teacher-centered or learner-centered classroom is also very important. Included in these responses was the following quote from one of the participants about learner-centered instruction, “I do not agree with marginalizing teachers because teachers play the most important role at school for the kids to learn.” As noted by Canale and Swain (1980), one of the challenges with implementing learner-centered instruction is that it requires teachers to re-define their roles in the classroom. Presented next are the results related to the participants’ beliefs about their role in the language classroom.

Beliefs About Teacher Role in Language Classroom

Data from the open response survey item that asked teachers to explain their role in the language classroom contained 67 responses. The most common term used by 31 of the teachers was “facilitator.” These 31 teachers also used words such as coach, organizer, guide, monitor of student progress, mentor, collaborator, communicator, cultural bridge, learning guide, helper, movie director, tour guide, resource of knowledge, manager of behavior, leader, and coordinator. The next most common response made by 22 teachers was “target cultures.” Descriptors of the teacher’s role related to the use of the term target cultures included the following: to introduce and share knowledge of Chinese cultures, to introduce cultural differences, to teach students how to communicate in a culturally appropriate manner, to engage students in learning about the target cultures, to equip students with skills so they can continue to explore the target culture beyond school, to demonstrate how to appreciate and value different cultures and to serve as the bridge to Chinese people and their cultures. There were 13 teachers who used the term “language” to describe the role of the teacher. These responses included more specific patterns of descriptors that included: to stimulate student interest in the target language (mentioned by seven participants) to model target language (mentioned by six participants), to create an effective learning environment for students to communicate in the target language (mentioned by five participants) and to teach strategies for learning language. These findings were further supported by the interview data.

The importance of teacher beliefs related to their role in a learner-centered language classroom dates back to Morrow (1977), who noted that teachers must be willing to instigate situations that promote the development of communicative skills. The survey responses were somewhat limited as the teachers used a list of general (albeit interesting) terms associated with being a “facilitator.” As noted above, their responses that included the terms “language” and/or “culture” indicated a deeper understanding of what it means to be a facilitator, or someone who guides others towards achieving a shared goal. During the interviews, many of the teachers indicated that the role of the teacher was more than introducing new knowledge about the Chinese language and culture. They noted that the role of a language teacher is also “to stimulate student interest” and “to create an effective learning environment.”

There were four central emic codes that emerged from the teacher responses to the question about their role in the language classroom. Nine teachers noted that their role was to build student confidence. One participant said, “I think sometimes it is confidence first and then it [language learning] will kind of get going.” Although modeling the target language is important, another teacher stated, “Gradually I started shifting [my teaching] because more is less and less is more. You don’t want to just overload them. You want them to be able to perform, to explore and to take a risk. They need to see that you know they can do it.” The use of words like “success” and “pride” were also used in the teacher responses, indicating that with confidence comes success and pride in their ability to learn and use the language. There were seven teachers who

explicitly stated that the teacher's role is to teach the language and culture. These were mostly straightforward responses that included modeling pronunciation and stroke order and introducing students to the Chinese cultures. However, one teacher noted the importance of teaching language and culture is so that students are able to see the world, not only from their point of view, but also from the point of view of others. One teacher said, "I think I am kind of like a window for the students here in the United States, and especially in Florida." For six of the teachers, generating interest and curiosity with their students was an important part of their roles in the classroom. This was especially true with the teachers in this study who were teaching novice level learners, regardless of their age. One teacher who was working in a pre-school program at the time of her interview stated, "So when I teach, when I work with them I just pretend that I am a mom or a sister or something. We play in the thematic centers. Sometimes they make coffee or tea for me. It is interesting." A high school teacher said, "My students are very basic level students. So the first thing for me to do is let them get interested in learning Chinese and also Chinese culture." As noted by this quote, generating interest usually relates to using the target language in real-life experiences. This code emerged with four of the participants' interview responses. One teacher said, "My role as a teacher is to help my students in order to learn and be able to function in the real-world, not just how to write a stroke or character." This can also mean "bringing the target language to life" for students who believe they may never visit a Chinese speaking country and use what they learned in the classroom.

Encouraging her students to use Chinese at restaurants in their communities or when visiting Chinatown in nearby Washington, DC, one teacher said, “they are eager to practice and they are motivated to use that because they can see the language is useful, not a dead language.” These findings support the notion that the teachers in this study had a complex view of their role in the language classroom. Although many used common words and terms (i.e. facilitator, teacher of language and culture) used by the profession and found in methodology textbooks as well as the ACTFL/NCATE Standards, their responses to the survey item and interview question were indicative of their beliefs that language teachers must also encourage and motivate students as well as monitor their progress. This understanding directly relates to the ACTFL/NCATE Standards and will be explored more thoroughly in the next section that reports findings on the survey items related to the teachers’ beliefs about how students learn best.

Beliefs About How Students Learn Best

The survey included an item that asked the teachers to select one of five statements that best describes how they maximize student learning. These five statements were adapted from the ACTFL/NCATE rubric for Standard 3b: Developing Instructional Practices that Reflect Language Outcomes and Learner Diversity. The rubric specifies that the instructional activities that teachers use should be standards-based and provide opportunities for students to actively use the target language in meaningful interactions on topics of interest to them. This standard also notes that it is incumbent upon teachers to create a positive learning environment where students receive

both encouragement and feedback on their linguistic progress. In creating this survey item, the goal was to collect data on statements that represented a range between standards-based, learner-centered instruction and teacher-centered instruction. The frequency percentages of their responses are provided in Table 7.

Table 7
Frequency of Ways Students Learn Best

	Frequency Percentage Teachers (N=67)		
	Strongly Agree or Agree	Neutral	Disagree or Strongly Disagree
Pay attention during lectures and presentations	73.1	20.9	6.0
Helping one another complete tasks	88.1	11.9	0.0
Seeking opinions from one another	76.5*	21.9*	1.6*
Being actively engaged in an activity	89.5	9.0	1.5
Answering teacher questions correctly	50.8**	36.5**	12.7**

*N=64

**N=63

The statements “paying attention during lectures and presentations” and “answering teacher questions correctly” are more indicative of teacher-centered beliefs. The other three statements are associated with learner-centered instruction. For example “being actively engaged in an activity” could mean that students are interpreting an

authentic text, such as a newspaper article or advertisement, in pairs or independently in order to answer comprehension questions.

The high percentages of “strongly agree” responses to the first four items indicate that the teachers who completed the survey hold strong beliefs that students should be actively engaged in classroom activities that include listening to lectures and presentations, seeking opinions from one another, and helping one another complete tasks. Interestingly, the lowest percentage of responses (51%) for “strongly agree” was with the statement “answering teacher questions correctly.” This is perhaps because there are several instructional purposes for teacher-directed questions. The ACTFL/NCATE Standard 3b notes that teachers who use questioning strategies as the primary means of engaging students in the target language “approach” this standard while teachers who use both task-based activities and questioning strategies to promote student use of the target language “meet” this standard. Therefore, in standards-based, learner-centered classrooms, teachers are expected to employ “best practices” for using strategies such as teacher-directed questions. The notion that “best practices” include a variety of teaching methods and strategies was supported by one of the participants who provided the following additional comment to this survey item. This participant stated, “I believe (based on research) that students learn best with a variety of approaches--some old fashioned listen-and-repeat (usually with TPR), and lots of other activities that get them thinking, moving, writing, drawing, speaking, and listening to each other.” These findings were further supported by the interview data.

During the interviews, the code “teacher views students as active learners” emerged with nine of the teachers. This is a significant result for addressing teacher beliefs on how students learn best because it shows that teachers recognize that students are not passive learners. For students to “learn best” according to these teachers, means that they ought to be provided with opportunities that actively engage them with the target language and cultures. Evidence of this was provided by one teacher who said, “the teacher adjusts the plan according to the students reaction...so they can involve students in the activities, not just...the student answers the question, or does whatever you tell him to do.” It is interesting that this teacher connected how students learn best to the flexibility of the teacher when making instructional decisions. Several scholars (i.e. Golombek, 1998; Woods, 1996; Breen, 2001, Borg, 2003) have studied the relationship between teacher beliefs about student learning and their instructional decisions. The next section presents the findings on the participants’ self-reported beliefs about what is important to them when making instructional decisions.

Decisions for Planning Standards-based Learner-centered Lessons

The survey instrument contained two items that asked the teachers to rate the importance of instructional items when deciding what to teach and what not to teach. The purpose of these survey items was to collect data related to the teachers’ pedagogical beliefs by inquiring about their instructional decisions. The list of instructional items on the survey was adapted from the descriptors established by Luft and Roehrig (2007) for the question on the Teacher Beliefs Interview, “How do you decide what to teach and

what not to teach?” For example, Luft and Roehrig (2007) note that teacher-centered instructional decisions are generally guided by curriculum or other school factors and are based on teacher-focused preferences. Luft and Roehrig found learner-centered instructional decisions include a strong focus on the learner and are made using guiding documents, such as standards and research. From the descriptors provided by Luft and Roehrig, five item choices were provided on the survey instrument. The teachers in this study were asked to rate each item choice in terms of its importance when deciding what to teach and what not to teach. Teacher response values were on a 4-point scale with 1 for *Not Important* and 4 for *Essential*. The mean score and frequency of their responses are provided in Table 8.

Table 8
Importance of Items Related to Instructional Decisions

	Mean Score and Frequency Percentage Teachers (N=71)				
	Mean	SD	Essential	Very Important	Somewhat Important / Not Important
Topics I enjoy teaching	2.77	.854	19.7	43.7	35.2
Curriculum guides, the textbook, or other school factors	2.99	.765	25.4	50.7	23.9
Topics that I think will	3.41	.602	46.5	46.5	5.6

interest my students					
Guiding documents such as the standards and research	3.08	.732	31.0	26.5	22.5
Feedback from my students about their interests	3.46	.605	52.1	42.3	5.6

Note: Mean scores range from 1 to 4, calculated based on the following conditions: 1 = not important; 2 = somewhat important; 3 = very important; 4 = essential.

Important to the teachers in this study were the response choices “topics I think will interest my students” ($M = 3.41$, $SD = .602$) and “feedback from my students about their interests” ($M = 3.46$, $SD = .605$) indicating that these are significant considerations when making instructional decisions. However, not as important to the teachers was using guiding documents, such as the standards or research, ($M = 3.08$, $SD = .732$) when deciding what to teach and what not to teach. Also not as important to the teachers in this study were the first two response choices “topics I enjoy teaching” ($M = 2.77$, $SD = .854$) and “curriculum guides, the textbook, and other school factors” ($M = 2.99$, $SD = .765$). According to research by Luft and Roehrig, these two considerations when making instructional decisions are believed to be teacher-centered. Nevertheless, it is important to note that a current trend in the field of foreign/world language education is to publish

textbooks and develop curriculum guides that are aligned with the SFLL. Therefore, it is possible that using materials in recently published textbooks could facilitate standards-based lessons. The results presented here will be interpreted with this reality in mind.

These results are mixed, but most likely represent the complexities of how language teachers make their instructional decisions. It is likely that the Chinese language teachers in this study may have been required to follow a curriculum guide or textbook that may or may not have been aligned to the SFLL. They may also find that teaching topics they enjoy, that they know, and that they understand increases their effectiveness, making these items on the survey more important considerations for their instructional decisions. Although these two item choices are related to teacher-centered instructional decisions, a very high percentage of the teachers in this study reported that they select topics that they believe their students will enjoy and use student feedback when making instructional decisions. These results indicate that several of the teachers in this study hold beliefs related to both teacher-centered and learner-centered instruction, with many participants making learner-centered instructional decisions regularly.

The second survey item on the participants' self-reported beliefs about what is important to them when making instructional decisions was related to the use of cultural materials and authentic texts. The item choices listed were derived from the ACTFL/NCATE Standard 2b: Demonstrating Understanding of Literary and Cultural Texts and Traditions. According to ACTFL/NCATE (2002) meeting this standard means that language teacher candidates are able to "distinguish between authentic cultural

resources (that is, those materials that are created for native speakers of the target language) and those that may trivialize or provide an inaccurate view of the culture” (p. 15) with the purpose of “engaging their students in activities that heighten awareness of target cultures and advance students’ communicative proficiencies” (p. 17). Teacher response values were on a 4-point scale with 1 for *Not Important* and 4 for *Essential*. The mean score and frequency of their responses are provided in Table 9.

Table 9
Importance of Cultural Materials

	Mean Score and Frequency Percentage Teachers (N=70)				
	Mean	SD	Essential	Very Important	Somewhat Important / Not Important
Text and photos provided in the textbook	2.81	.839	22.5	39.4	36.6
Authentic fables or fairy tales	2.73	.798	18.3*	38.0*	40.8*
Authentic literary texts (ex. poetry, novels, short stories)	2.70	.845	16.9*	40.8*	39.4*
Chinese TV shows, movies, news programs	2.80	.734	15.5	50.7	37.8
Audio (radio talk shows, music, news)	2.85	.821	21.1	47.9	29.5
Realia (menus, newspaper articles, ads, magazines, train schedules, clothing, food,	3.19	.728	35.2	47.9	15.5

money, etc.)					
Materials or websites created specifically for language learners	3.06	.679	25.4	53.5	19.7

*N=69

Note: range from 1 to 4, calculated based on the following conditions: 1 = not important; 2 = somewhat important; 3 = very important; 4 = essential.

The mean scores between 2.00-2.99 and 3.00-3.99 indicate that survey participants believed that all of the materials listed are “very important” or “essential” to their teaching. The participants listed “other” essential items including Chinese flashcards, clip art, photos from the teacher’s real-life experiences, YouTube videos, and actual members of the local Chinese community. Based upon the participants’ personal English language learning experiences in cultures of education where teacher linguistic and literary knowledge is highly valued, it was anticipated that the teachers’ mean scores for authentic literary texts ($M = 2.70$, $SD = .845$) and authentic fables and fairy tales ($M = 2.73$, $SD = .798$) would be the highest. However, these two items received the lowest mean scores and frequency percentages. This is perhaps due to the pedagogical training these teachers have received while in the United States. Professional teacher education programs offered by universities and teacher professional development programs such as STARTALK promote the use of “realia” or materials used in the everyday lives of people living in target language cultures. The teachers in this study rated realia as essential as indicated by the mean score ($M = 3.19$, $SD = .728$). This is likely related to the high percentage of teachers who are licensed (51%), have taken methodology courses at a

university (42%), and/or had attended a STARTALK Teacher Program in 2011 (85%).

The survey data revealed additional insight on the participants' pedagogical beliefs related to lesson planning and instructional decisions.

There were seven codes associated with "planning" that emerged from the interview data. These seven codes belonged to four different categories, including beliefs and practices related to teacher-centered instruction, practices related to learner-centered instruction, practices related to the SFL, and practices that related to standards-based, learner-centered instruction. These codes and categories were further analyzed to determine if the teachers' coded responses provided additional evidence of their beliefs related to planning standards-based, learner-centered lessons.

The code "planning includes authentic materials" included responses from two teachers who said that they use a required textbook, but use supplemental authentic materials that they often find on the Internet. This supports the survey findings in that the teachers in this study find a wide variety of instructional materials important to their teaching. Because it is not possible to observe beliefs, researchers rely on what participants say to determine what they believe. Implementing standards-based, learner-centered instruction includes beliefs about how to integrate these materials in ways that engage the learners and that build communicative competence. The code "planning includes knowing student needs" provided evidence to support the integration of materials in this manner. One high school teacher stated,

When thinking about how language is used in the real world, I always look at how I design my curriculum. I realize that many textbooks are fixed. You know what I mean? First you have the introduction, second you have drills to do. But sometimes you try to adjust the curriculum based on what the students need to be able to function in the real world.

These adjustments often include the use of authentic materials, as noted by the teacher who said, “in general, I have a textbook. And I also want to use some authentic materials such as calendars...videos and songs. Additionally, several of the teachers noted importance of using materials related to other subject areas (Connections Standard) when planning their lessons. For example, one teacher stated, “if I have the theme ‘winter’ then I think of some ideas about math, science and language arts so I have a different activity for each one. That is how I plan my lessons.” As noted by these results, it is possible to capture teacher pedagogical beliefs through surveys and interviews. The teachers in this study held strong beliefs for using a selection of instructional materials, including textbooks and authentic materials.

Summary of Teacher Pedagogical Beliefs

The data showed that the pedagogical beliefs of the teachers in this study related to standards-based, learner centered instruction in several ways. The investigation of their pedagogical beliefs resulted in six facets that included their knowledge about standards-based, learner-centered instruction, the impact of this knowledge on their attitudes and instructional practices, their beliefs about teacher-centered instruction, their

beliefs about the role of the language teacher, their beliefs about how students learn best, and their beliefs about the importance of instructional materials when deciding what to teach and what not to teach.

The findings indicate higher percentages of the teachers in this study had knowledge of and were able to implement the SFLI than teachers who had knowledge of and were able to implement learner-centered instruction (66% versus 46%). Knowledge alone is not enough to assure implementation. There were 22% and 35% of the survey participants who reported limitations for implementation beyond their own knowledge of the SFLI and learner-centered instruction respectively. Knowledge of the SFLI was also supported by findings in the interviews and open-response survey items. As English language learners, the teachers in this study did not always use vocabulary and concepts related to the SFLI or learner-centered instruction accurately. However, description of standards-based, learner-centered teaching confirmed a deeper understanding than their use of the vocabulary initially indicated.

Overall, the teachers in this study had a positive attitude of the SFLI and learner-centered instruction. To determine the impact that knowledge of the SFLI had on their teaching practices, participants in the interview were asked if they were already using the concepts of the SFLI in their teaching prior to knowing the official set of standards (i.e. the 5Cs). The most common response was that learning about the SFLI had significantly changed their instructional practices. Even with the positive attitudes held towards standards-based, learner-centered instruction, the teachers believed that teacher-centered

instructional practices were more suitable for introducing new grammar and vocabulary. In addition, several teachers indicated that using teacher-centered instruction was necessary because at times it helped them manage the classroom and deliver more effective/efficient instruction.

The findings showed that the participants held complex views of the role of the language teacher. The term “facilitator” was used most often in the open-response survey item and was supported by the participants’ descriptions of what it means to facilitate teaching and learning Chinese language and cultures. These descriptions included stimulating student interest, creating effective learning environments, modeling the target language, and teaching language-learning strategies. Teachers stated that their roles delved beyond teaching the language and cultures and involved introducing students to cultural differences, communicating appropriately in various cultural environments, and developing skills for exploring target cultures beyond the classroom. Additionally, the role of the language teacher includes knowing how students learn best. Results from two survey items and the interview data showed that the teachers in this study view their students as active language learners. They believe that effective language teaching requires flexibility that allows for real-time adjustments to lesson plans in order to accommodate the needs of the learner.

Lastly, pedagogical beliefs were analyzed using data from the surveys and interviews that indicated how important various instructional topics and materials were to the teachers in this study. It was anticipated that the results would have been skewed

towards either teacher centered or learner-centered instructional decisions; but the findings indicated that the instructional decisions made by the teachers in this study were complex. Yet, these results were supported by the ACTFL/NCATE Standard 2b that focuses on teacher knowledge and understanding of literary and cultural texts and traditions with the purpose of increasing student knowledge of target language cultures as they develop their communication skills. Evidence of the teachers meeting this standard included the high mean scores for realia (everyday items and texts used by native speakers of the language) and feedback from students about their interests, indicating these are essential considerations when making instructional decisions.

A holistic view of these findings support the notion that the teachers' pedagogical beliefs relate to standards-based, learner-centered instruction in terms of how they view student learning, how they perceive their role as a language teacher, and how they make instructional decisions about the topics they teach and the materials they use. These findings are further supported by the teachers' knowledge and understanding of the SFL and learner-centered instruction. The next section of this chapter will report on the findings that answer the second research question on the teachers' self-reported instructional and assessment practices.

Research Question 2

How do the self-reported and observed instructional practices of the Chinese language teachers in this study reflect standards-based, learner-centered instruction?

The concept of standards-based instruction in foreign/world languages refers to a teacher's use of the five domains of language learning as specified by the SFLL. These include developing communicative skills (Communication), studying the products, practices and perspectives of other cultures (Cultures), connecting foreign study to other disciplines/content areas (Connections), making cultural or linguistic comparison (Comparisons) and extending language study beyond the classroom (Communities). In addition, the Communications Standard is further defined by three modes of communication. These modes reflect how language is used in real-life circumstances and include the interpretation of the written or spoken word, an exchange of information between individuals in real-time and the presentation of information to an audience. It is important to note that these five domains are not intended to be learned (or taught) in isolation from one another. It is expected that teachers will provide learning opportunities that integrate these domains using topics that are relevant or of interest to the learner (ACTFL/NCATE, 2002).

Learner-centered instructional practices in the foreign/world language classroom include a wide variety of instructional methods and strategies; but these practices do so with the purpose of teaching language for real-life situations. In contrast to teacher-centered language instruction that serves to transfer linguistic knowledge from teacher to student, learner-centered instruction encourages the learner to discover and apply knowledge that is relevant and necessary to him/her (for example, to solve a problem). Teachers are tasked with making the target language comprehensible during all phases of

language instruction (i.e. teaching new vocabulary or grammar, giving directions, assessing student performance) and should provide ample opportunities for students to grow their language proficiency and cultural competence in learning environments that nurture both support and creativity (ACTFL/NCATE, 2002). Students may work alone or in groups, depending on the communicative purpose of the activity. In general, the teacher refrains from constant or immediate error correction during classroom discourse in favor of addressing errors when students have questions and/or when the negotiation of meaning between interlocutors is impeded. Assessing student learning in learner-centered environments may include feedback from the instructor, from peers, or through self-evaluation.

The present study's findings on the teachers' use of standards-based learner-centered instructional and assessment practices build upon the previous results in this chapter on teacher knowledge and beliefs about the SFL and learner-centered instruction. The results showed that over 65% of the participants' in this study reported knowledge of the SFL (including the modes of communication) and the ability to apply these standards in their instructional practices. When asked about their knowledge of and ability to implement learner-centered instruction, 46% responded affirmatively. To understand the ways in which the teachers in this study implemented standards-based, learner-centered instructional and assessment practices, data from the online survey and individual telephone interviews were analyzed to gain a better understanding of the teachers' self-reported:

1. Descriptions of their standards-based, learner-centered activities
2. Descriptions of standards-based learner-centered assessments
3. Strategies for using the target language
4. Error correction for student speaking and writing

In addition, field notes from the seven classroom observations were used to expand upon these descriptions. These four areas of investigation are discussed in the following subsections.

Descriptions of Standards-based, Learner-centered Activities

The online survey contained one item that asked teachers to rate the frequency with which they used certain activities with their students. The list of activities on this survey item was adapted from the ACTFL/NCATE Standards 3a: Understanding Language Acquisition and Creating a Supportive Classroom and 3b: Developing Instructional Practices That Reflect Language Outcomes and Learner Diversity. Teacher response values were denoted on a 4-point scale with 1 for Never and 4 for Most of the Time. The mean scores and frequency of their responses are provided in Table 10.

Table 10
Activities Used with Students

	Mean Score and Frequency Percentage Teachers (N=66)				
	Mean	SD	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Rarely / Never
Small group activities where students select roles and tasks	3.38	.650	45.5	48.5	6.0
Small group activities where teacher assigns roles and tasks	3.28	.740	43.1*	43.1*	13.8*
Individual activities for building vocabulary	3.02	.813	28.8	48.5	22.7
Individual activities for building grammar skills	2.85	.795	18.5*	53.8*	27.7*
Activities where teacher and students learn together	2.97	.728	23.1*	52.3*	24.6*
Activities that include other disciplines (i.e. math, science)	2.85	.638	12.1	62.1	25.7
Activities where students solve a problem using target language	3.29	.696	40.9	48.5	10.6

*N=65

Note: Mean scores range from 1 to 4, calculated based on the following conditions: 1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = most of the time.

The response choices “small group activities where teacher assigns roles and tasks”, “individual activities for building vocabulary” and “individual activities for building grammar” were intended to serve as examples of teacher-centered activities. The remaining response choices were examples of learner-centered activities.

The data show that the most frequently used teacher-centered activity was “small group activities where the teacher assigns roles and tasks” ($M = 3.28$, $SD = .740$). The least frequently used teacher-centered activities were “individual activities for building vocabulary” ($M = 3.02$, $SD = .813$) and “individual activities for building grammar” ($M = 2.85$, $SD = .795$). The most frequently used learner-centered activity was “small group activities where student select roles and tasks” ($M = 3.38$, $SD = .650$). The least used learner-centered activities were “activities where teacher and students learn together” ($M = 2.97$, $SD = .728$) and “activities that include other disciplines” ($M = 2.85$, $SD = .638$). To see how these activities are used in conjunction with the SFLL, interview, survey, and observation, data were analyzed.

Interview data were coded for evidence of standards-based activities. Five codes emerged, one for each of the SFLL’s five domains (i.e. 5Cs). Of the 17 teachers who were interviewed, the least common code that emerged was the Connections Standard with 18% of the teachers describing an activity that connected to other disciplines. This finding also supports the survey data that showed one of the least used learner-centered activities by the survey participants was “activities that include other disciplines.” The data do not provide explanations as to why this domain is used less than the others. Yet,

this standard emerged during the interviews with two of the preschool teachers. These teachers both noted that they encountered challenges developing standards-based lessons due to the lack of curricular materials for young language learners. Each of the teachers described the process of selecting a theme and then searching the Internet for videos and other materials to use with their students. For example, one teacher stated that she has developed curriculum for the theme “winter” that included teaching vocabulary about weather, clothing, and sports. She also connected this theme with science by teaching the concept hibernation and which animals/insects hibernate during the winter months. However, it is unclear in these descriptions the extent to which these activities are learner-centered.

The most common codes that emerged in the teachers’ descriptions of standards-based activities during the interviews were Communications (65% of participants) and Cultures (53% of participants). The codes for the Comparisons and Communities Standards emerged with (24%) and (30%) respectively. Even though these codes were used to identify one of the five domains, it was evident that many of the teachers in this study were teaching to them in isolation.

Common combinations of these domains included *Communications, Cultures and Comparisons* and *Communication, Cultures and Communities*. For example, one high school teacher asks her students to select and study one of the 56 different ethnic groups in China. Students use the Internet and other resources to learn about the food, educational system, clothing, music, holidays, the geography and weather of the primary

location where the ethnic group lives (Cultures Standard and Communications Standard-Interpretive Mode). Students then assume the role of a person from that ethnic group and interview one another to learn about differences and similarities (Communications Standard-Interpersonal Mode and Comparisons Standard). In the end, students create presentations of their own ethnic group and include some of the similarities and differences they learned about during their interviews (Communications Standard-Presentational Mode).

In other examples, two different teachers brought their high school and adult students to Chinatown in Washington, D.C. during various festivals (Chinese New Year and the Lantern Festival). In both lessons, the teacher asked students to communicate in Chinese with the local merchants and then present their experiences to the class (Cultures Standard and Communications Standard-Interpersonal and Presentational Modes). Other teachers in the study noted that when they were not able to include a field trip, they asked their students to communicate with Chinese speakers from their local community (school or home) and/or asked members of the community to visit their classroom (Communities Standard and Communications Standard-Interpersonal Mode). In one case, an elementary school teacher asked members of the local Confucius Institute to visit her classroom and perform a folkdance to celebrate the Chinese New Year (Communities and Cultures Standards). They also taught the students how to do the dance. The teacher took video of the performance to share with parents and other faculty members. What is interesting about the standards-based activities noted in these examples is the extent to

which the Cultures Standard is implemented in learner-centered tasks. In order to determine if these examples were limited to the teachers who participated in the interviews, data from three survey items were analyzed.

The survey contained one item that asked the teachers to rate the frequency with which they use a specific cultural materials and texts. The materials and texts listed were identical to those that the teachers rated in terms of their importance when making instructional decisions (and adapted from the ACTFL/NCATE Standard 2b as noted in the previous section of this chapter). Teacher response values were on a 4-point scale with 1 for *Never* and 4 for *Most of the Time*. The mean scores and frequency of their responses for the use of cultural materials and texts are provided in Table 11.

Table 11
Use of Cultural Materials

	Mean Score and Frequency Percentage Teachers (N=68)				
	Mean	SD	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Rarely/ Never
Text and photos provided in the textbook	3.16	.880	39.4*	36.6*	18.3*
Authentic fables or fairy tales	2.93	.765	21.1*	47.9*	25.3*
Authentic literary texts (ex. poetry, novels, short stories)	2.85	.718	18.3	45.1	32.4
Chinese TV shows, movies, news programs	3.00	6.32	18.3**	56.3**	18.3**

Audio (radio talk shows, music, news)	3.09	.739	28.2**	46.5**	21.0**
Realia (menus, newspaper articles, ads, magazines, train schedules, clothing, food, money, etc.)	3.29	.650	38.0	47.9	9.9
Materials or websites created specifically for language learners	3.28	.666	38.0	46.5	11.3

*N=67

**N=66

Note: Mean scores range from 1 to 4, calculated based on the following conditions: 1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = most of the time.

The high frequency percentages for materials or websites created specifically for language learners ($M = 3.28$, $SD = .666$) and realia ($M = 3.29$, $SD = .650$) indicates that the teachers in this study use a variety of materials intended for language learners as well as materials created for native speakers of the language. There were two open response survey items that asked the teachers to describe how they used these materials to teach language and culture. These two open responses unfortunately did not contain robust data. This is likely because items such as this require more time and thought (Dillman, 2009) and the majority of participants in this study were non-native speakers of English, making longer, more detailed responses more cumbersome to complete. However, the data provided by the participants were coded with these considerations in mind.

There were 68 responses to the item that asked the teachers how they used these materials to teach Chinese cultures. The most common response was the use of videos,

movies, or television shows as noted by 34% the participants. Use of videos varied from showing movies to using specific videos (from YouTube) related to cultural topics, such as Chinese festivals or Chinese fables. There were 23% of the teachers who responded to this item that listed types of authentic realia, such as Chinese money, food items, clothing, menus, public transportation schedules, and consumer product advertisements. Although the descriptions of these activities were minimal, there was some evidence that the teachers used these materials in learner-centered activities. For example, one participant noted, “I have students watch a Chinese reality dating show and ask them to write down phrases that are new to them. Then I have them write a report about the person who is looking for a date.” There were also instances when it was likely the teacher used these materials in a teacher-centered lesson. As one teacher stated, “I use authentic materials to introduce vocabulary, structures, and cultural knowledge that is available to teach.” Unlike the interview data that indicated strong evidence of standards-based, learner-centered activities, the data from this survey item showed varied responses.

Results on how teachers use the list of cultural materials to teach language yielded similar findings. The most common of the 59 responses were videos (20%), music (15%), realia (14%), and photos (12%). There were only a few responses that provided enough written detail to gain an understanding of how the teachers were using these materials to teach language. One teacher stated, “I try not to use English as a tool while teaching. I like to use authentic texts and photos to demonstrate vocabulary.” Another

teacher said that she uses these authentic materials to create task-based projects where students have to “demonstrate their understanding of the products, practices, and perspectives of the culture.” It was anticipated that these two open response survey items would have provided more evidence and examples of teacher-centered and/or learner-centered activities. Instead, what the participants provided for these two items were the kinds of cultural materials they used rather than detailed descriptions of their instructional activities.

Data from classroom observation field notes provided similar results of both teacher-centered and learner-centered standards-based activities. For example, Jane created learning stations for her elementary level language learners that asked them to use vocabulary related to the body in various contexts (Communications Standard); but she also used English in several teacher-directed activities at the beginning of the class. Karen also began her class with a teacher-led presentation of the Lantern Festival (Cultures Standard). However, she transitioned from this activity by asking her students to solve riddles that were similar to those found in Chinese lanterns during the festival (Communications Standard). She then spent the rest of the class time making *tang yuan* with her students (Cultures Standard). Teri also used teacher-centered and learner-centered instructional practices; but she often did so to explain differences between the linguistic systems (Comparisons Standard) or to provide students with ways to extend conversations on various topics (Communications Standard). Dani engaged her students in classroom discourse (Communications Standard) using both teacher-led discussion

prompts and paired interpersonal activities. She demonstrated flexibility in her lesson plan when an impromptu discussion occurred based upon her students' interest in learning more about a classmate's recent trip to Singapore. She used this discussion as an opportunity to introduce her students to the dominant ethnic group in China (Cultures Standard). It is clear that the teachers in this study employed both learner-centered activities and teacher-led discourse. The question of when they used learner-centered instruction was answered by analyzing data from two open response survey items.

To gain an understanding of when teachers use learner-centered instruction (as opposed to using teacher-centered instruction), the data from 55 responses to the survey item specifically on this topic were analyzed. The most common response provided by 30% of the teachers was the use of learner-centered instruction for practicing vocabulary and grammar that was just introduced by the teacher. This result corresponds to the open-ended item about when it is best to use teacher-centered instruction. The most common response (45% of responses) was to introduce new vocabulary and grammar. These results note a common pattern that many of the teachers in this study likely employ, which is to first introduce new content (i.e. vocabulary or linguistic form) using teacher-centered instruction and then engage students in using this content in a variety of communicative activities. Other responses to this survey item included to complete projects, to learn from peers, to encourage students to learn about topics of interest to them, and to complete performance assessments. With an understanding of how and when the teachers in this study use standards-based, learner-centered activities with their

students, the next subsection will focus on their use of standards-based, learner-centered assessments.

Descriptions of Standards-based, Learner-centered Assessments

It is somewhat difficult to discuss the findings related to standards-based, learner-centered activities and assessments separately. This is because informal assessment of student learning is often conducted during an activity where students are demonstrating their knowledge or understanding using one of the three modes of communication. Formal assessments involving the SFLL and the three modes often involve integrated performance assessments (IPA). IPAs are a comprehensive measure of student learning that includes a performance task for each of the three communicative modes (interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational) and more than one of the five SFLL domains (Shrum & Glisan, 2005). Student performance within an IPA is usually assessed using rubrics with criteria specific to each mode/task. Building upon the evidence of how participants were integrating the five domains (5Cs) and three communicative modes in their standards-based, learner-centered activities, data from the survey, interviews and observation field notes were analyzed to identify the kinds of assessments the teachers employed most frequently. Analysis also focused on whether or not these assessments were identified as IPAs or at least related to the SFLL and how teachers used these assessments to inform instruction. Additionally, it was expected that the data would show the extent to which students were self-assessing their own learning. The survey items and interview questions related to assessments were adapted from the ACTFL/NCATE Standards 5a:

Knowing Assessment Models and Using Them Appropriately, 5b: Reflecting on Assessment and 5c: Reporting Assessment Results.

There were two survey items specifically aimed at gathering data on the teachers' assessment practices and a general open response item at the end of the survey that yielded data on assessment practices. The first survey item on assessments asked teachers to identify the frequency with which they used certain measures of student learning. Teacher response values were on a 4-point scale with 1 for *Never* and 4 for *Most of the Time*. The mean score and frequency of their responses are provided in Table 12.

Table 12
Assessments with Students

	Mean Score and Frequency Percentage Teachers (N=67)				
	Mean	SD	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Rarely/ Never
Oral assessment using rubric	3.43	.609	49.3	44.8	6.0
Written assessment using rubric	3.08	.835	33.8*	44.6*	21.5*
Written test that requires one correct answer	2.90	.873	16.4	44.8	38.8
Students provide peer feedback	2.93	.910	28.4	44.8	26.9
Student self-assessment	2.69	.722	10.4	52.2	37.3

*N=65

Note: Mean scores range from 1 to 4, calculated based on the following conditions: 1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = most of the time.

The types of assessments listed here are considered to be learner-centered with the exception of “written test that requires one correct answer.” Interestingly, using written tests is one of the assessments that teachers reported using less frequently than the other response choices, ($M = 2.90$, $SD = .873$). The assessment used the least frequently by the survey participants was “student self-assessment” ($M = 2.69$, $SD = .722$). It should be noted that between 2.00-2.99 indicate the teachers “sometimes” use these assessments. The highest percentages of use (noted as “used most of the time”) were “rubrics with oral assessments” ($M = 3.43$, $SD = .609$) and “rubrics with written assessments” ($M = 3.08$, $SD = .835$). To gain an understanding of how teachers used these assessments (i.e. to inform instruction) and whether or not they used assessments directly related to the SFL, data from an open-response survey items were analyzed.

It was anticipated that the open-response item related to assessment practices would yield substantive details from the participants on whether or not their assessments related to the SFL or if they used assessments to direct (or redirect) their instruction. However, the data collected were not as robust as expected. There were 17 of 34 viable responses that primarily included the types of assessments used. For example, the participants used terms such as “formative and summative assessments,” “formal and informal assessments,” “performance assessments,” and “projects” in their responses. One teacher in particular gave details of learner-centered instructional practices that included peer feedback and self-assessment. Her response indicated that she used “photo booth on Mac to record an oral skit/pair work and then play it back to give instant

feedback as well as self-assessment and peer review.” Another participant noted the need to use a wide variety of assessments with language learners, stating,

I think there are different kinds of assessments. I ask students to ‘perform’ whatever I said in class, so I know whether or not they have learned the new vocabulary. I ask students to create their own study guides before each test and they are encouraged to work on this assignment with their peers.

It is not clear what kind of test was used in this response, but it is evident that the teachers in this study were using a wide range of teacher-centered and learner-centered assessments. Other evidence emerged in the final item on the survey that gave participants the opportunity for final comments on standards-based, learner-centered instruction. One teacher stated, “As a teacher I need to be conscientious about applying the standards and review activities to make sure they make sense to achieve the learning goals. This doesn’t come naturally for me yet.” Other teachers were more confident in applying the standards-based, learner-centered assessments such as posters, written essays, and problem solving tasks that allow students “to develop potential and achieve ambition in the process of guided research and self-discovery.” From these examples, it is clear that while some teachers grappled with implementing learner-centered assessments, others appeared to be very comfortable using a broad range of instructional and assessment practices and in a few instances included student peer and self-assessment. To further determine the extent to which these assessments were standards-based and used by the teachers to inform their instructional practices (i.e. accommodate

student learning needs based upon informal and formal assessments) the interview data and field notes were examined.

Additional evidence of standards-based learner-centered assessments emerged in the interview data. Codes on assessment practices included “assesses learning by observing,” “assesses learning by student performance,” “assesses learning through a student survey,” “assesses learning through the Student Oral Performance Assessment (SOPA),” and “assesses learning through student portfolios.” The use of student surveys, student portfolios and the SOPA emerged only once during the interviews by three different teachers. These results are noteworthy because they exemplify the SFLL and the use of assessments to inform instruction as well as to share assessment findings with stakeholders (i.e. the students and their parents). The teacher who used student surveys said, “I did a survey after 12 weeks. I asked for their suggestions of what activities they like best. It was interesting to see their responses.” The teacher who used portfolios noted that she requires students to submit a certain number of assessments in their portfolios, but it is up to them to choose the work that best demonstrates their learning. She noted, “It could be a reflective or creative project based upon what they have learned.” The SOPA is a nationally normed holistic rubric for evaluating oral proficiency based upon the three communicative modes. The teacher who uses this with her pre-school students said that they use part of this assessment at the end of the year. These examples of standards-based, learner-centered instruction were further supported by additional interview data.

The two other codes that frequently emerged in the data were “assesses learning by observing” that was coded in nine interview cases and “assesses learning by student performance” coded in eight cases. Descriptions provided by the teachers of these assessments included references to the SFLL. For example, one teacher noted,

Today, I just finished a project with my sixth grade class. They were exploring China. First they colored a map with each of the provinces. Then they each had to pick a city from one of the provinces to study. They created a PowerPoint presentation that included the history of the city and other facts that they learned.

In this example, the teacher assesses student learning using a performance assessment that measures the Communications Standard (Interpretive and Presentational Modes) and the Cultures Standard. In another case, a preschool teacher noted, “We have a lot of manipulatives, we have lots of toys. We also teach math, so they count the manipulatives so I know they are learning.” This demonstrates an informal performance assessment using the Connections Standard.

In order to determine the extent to which teachers used assessments to inform their instructional practices, coded data from the interview that specifically examined informal assessments were reviewed. The code “assesses learning through teacher-led questions” occurred most frequently. The data show that 11 of the 17 participants (65%) mostly used teacher-led questions to conduct informal assessments in the middle of a lesson or unit (formative). Some of their descriptions indicated the use of questions that had one correct or logical response (i.e. teacher-centered transfer of knowledge). Others

provided evidence of the use of open-ended questions that allowed students to state opinion rather than fact (i.e. learner-centered creative use of language). In some cases, questioning included other teaching strategies such as total physical response (TPR). TPR allows students to demonstrate understanding through a kinesthetic response rather than producing oral or written language. For example, one teacher stated, “Very quickly I ask them ‘do you understand’ and they indicate with a thumbs up or thumbs down. If they don’t understand, I know I have to review it again.” Another teacher said, “I will ask them some questions and let them respond to me by clapping their hands or moving their heads. If they follow me, I know they are getting it.” The use of TPR, particularly with novice level learners, shows an understanding of complex assessment practices that apply second language acquisition theory by providing comprehensible input while limiting language production until the learners are ready to do so (Krashen, 1982).

The findings from the surveys and interviews were also supported by the field notes from the classroom observations. For example, Dani informally assessed student knowledge of vocabulary and sentence structures while they engaged in various interpersonal activities. She also used teacher-led questioning at the end of these activities as additional informal assessments. Jane used learning stations to informally assess student knowledge of new vocabulary and their ability to use this vocabulary in different communicative situations. She also used teacher-led questions and TPR at the beginning of the class to review previously learned vocabulary or to apply vocabulary to new situations (i.e. stating the current date, day, and weather).

Data on formal assessments was not as robust as the data on informal assessments. Several participants noted that they were required to use formal oral and written assessments designed by their department or school district. Some of the teachers stated they are required to use written tests that focus on discrete knowledge of vocabulary, cultural facts, and linguistic forms. Other required assessments are standards-based and learner-centered. For example, Teri was preparing her students for an oral performance assessment that was not quite an IPA, but did include measurable tasks for the interpersonal and presentational modes. These results of the teachers' self-reported assessment practices and classroom observations are important in understanding how their assessment practices relate to standards-based, learner-centered instruction. However, the use of the target language during these practices and the ways in which the teachers correct student errors are also important considerations in answering this research question. These considerations are discussed in the next two sub-sections.

Strategies for Target Language Use

Survey and interview data were collected to gain a better understanding of how the teachers in this study motivated students to use the target language. In addition, the classroom observation field notes provide information on how the teachers used the target language during instruction. It should be noted that during the interviews, teacher use of the target language emerged as one of the direct challenges for implementing standards-based, learner-centered instruction. This challenge will be discussed in the answering of the last research question.

Survey data included responses to an item on the ways teachers encourage student use of the target language. Teacher response values were on a 4-point scale with 1 for *Never* and 4 for *Most of the Time*. The mean score and frequency of their responses are provided in Table 13.

Table 13
Ways to Motivate Student Use of Target Language

	Mean Score and Frequency Percentage Teachers (N=68)				
	Mean	SD	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Rarely / Never
Teacher-selected activities require correct answer	3.43	.654	47.9	42.3	5.6
Student-selected communicative activities based on their interests and goals	2.94	.862	25.4	46.5	23.9
Teacher-designed communicative activities reflect current theme	3.72	.486	69.0*	23.9*	1.4*
Textbook exercises for meaningful classroom interactions	3.19	.839	38.0*	42.3*	14.1*

*N=67

Note: Mean scores range from 1 to 4, calculated based on the following conditions: 1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = most of the time.

These results indicate that the teachers use both teacher-centered and learner-centered activities to motivate students to use Chinese during classroom activities. Used least frequently were communicative activities selected by the students that meet their individual learning goals or interests ($M = 2.94$, $SD = .862$). The most frequently used activities, as reported by the participants, were communicative activities related to the current course theme ($M = 3.72$, $SD = .486$) and activities that required students to produce the correct response ($M = 3.43$, $SD = .654$). There were a few additional comments provided on this survey item. One participant said, “Although most of the activities are designed to be open-ended and allow students to be creative in their language use, I do give some basic skills activities to strengthen their retention of vocabulary.” As noted by this comment, the teacher had an understanding of why she was using various activities in her classroom. She used some activities intended to promote creative language use and others that had the purpose of increasing memory retention of new vocabulary. The interview data provided additional insight to the ways the teachers in this study motivated their students to use the target language.

The interview data revealed several ways the teachers motivate their students to use the target language. These included rewarding students for using the target language, selecting interesting topics (for the students), and establishing classroom routines. For example, four teachers commented on their use of rewards with groups of students, or a whole class, for using only the target language (i.e. refrain from using English or other language) for a specified length of time. As expected, the use of rewards was noted

primarily by the teachers who worked with young language learners. However, not all of the comments on the use of reward systems were positive. One teacher noted, “I personally do not like to give rewards all the time. It becomes like you are training a dog, and I do not like that.” The use of the target language was also encouraged by selecting topics that are of interest to the students.

There were 15 of 17 teachers who noted the importance of “knowing student needs” when planning and teaching. The teachers explained that knowing their student needs meant knowing how they like to learn as well as what topics are of interest to them. Specifically, there were seven who stated that using topics of interest was one of the ways they motivated their students to use the target language. Their responses indicated their knowledge of selecting age and language level appropriate topics. For example, one high school teacher stated, “To debate key topics, teenagers love that. Some topics could be the use of their cell phones in the classroom or lunchroom or being able to drive to school or lunch. They really love those topics.” Another participant who teaches in an elementary school FLES program said, “I think it has to be something that has a real purpose...so they really like to participate--like you know ask about their birthday, friend’s birthday, or favorite color...they love to answer back.” For another teacher, selecting topics of interests led to establishing routines for using the target language. He said, “The recent topic we learned is what you did yesterday, what you are doing today, and what you will do tomorrow. I am starting to use this as a warm-up activity for every

class.” Establishing routines was also used by several other participants to encourage their students to use the target language.

Classroom routines provide for repetition and help to build student confidence using the target language (Shrum & Glisan, 2005). This was noted by eight of the teachers who said that they use routines to begin their classes in the target language and/or they require students to use the target language to make basic requests, such as asking to use the restroom or to borrow a book or to ask what a word means. One high school teacher noted, “if you want to get a drink of water in my class, you have to ask in Chinese or you can’t go.” Although this teacher’s response was intended to be humorous, it demonstrated her understanding of the benefits of classroom routines, including making general requests in the target language.

The majority of the data collected were on the ways that the teachers motivated students to use the target language. This is clearly an important characteristic and requirement for the effective implementation of standards-based, learner-centered instructional and assessment practices. The teachers’ use of the target language is also important. As one teacher noted in her interview, “I started using this kind of ‘caretaker’ speech...but I feel challenged as well and I have to constantly remind myself if I am doing it enough or if I am taking the easy way out.” The “easy way out” means reverting to English. The use of English during instruction in standards-based, learner-centered instruction should be limited as the goal is to develop target language proficiency and cultural competence. During the classroom observations, the four teachers used varying

amounts of English and Chinese during instruction. Dani uses the target language almost exclusively. She appeared to make the target language comprehensible for her students, as there was little indication that they were confused or lost during the class. Her students also refrained from using English, except for clarification of a particular word or sentence structure. Jane began her elementary FLES class using English to review her objectives, to remind students of what they had been studying, and to select a student to review the day, date, weather, and season. She used Chinese to sing a song to review vocabulary, but then reverted back to English to give instructions about the learning stations she had set up as part of her lesson. Karen began her lesson in Chinese by introducing me (the researcher/observer) to her students and reviewing the agenda, date, and weather. Throughout her lesson, she used English and Chinese with her students as she presented new cultural information and taught them how to make *tang yuan*. Teri also used a combination of English and Chinese with her students throughout her lesson. She began her observed classes with a review of the agenda using Chinese with clarification in English. She had her students count in Chinese to form groups, but then used English to give them instructions on how to complete the handouts in preparation for their oral exams. As students worked in their groups, they used mostly English with one another, but used a combination of Chinese and English with Teri. When they asked her something in English that they could have asked in Chinese, she instructed them to do so. This data show that the use of the target language by the teachers observed in this

study fluctuates from being used almost exclusively by one teacher to being used in varying degrees by the other three teachers.

The use of English in the foreign/world language classroom is controversial because members of the profession generally criticize the use of English in favor of making the target language comprehensible during instruction. As a result, teachers are often reluctant to divulge how much English they use during instruction. As noted by one participant during her interview, “the supervisor and everybody say hey, we have to use the target language. But if I am going to explain something in the target language, I have to use my whole face and body. It will take too long and students will get bored.” Not surprisingly, the data support challenges making the target language comprehensible for students. Challenges using the target language that emerged in this study are complex and delve beyond comprehensible input. These will be further discussed with last research question. The final sub-section for answering the research question about the ways in which the teachers in this study implement standards-based, learner-centered instruction and assessment practices is related to error correction.

Error Correction for Speaking and Writing

The ways in which a teacher corrects student errors can be viewed on a continuum from teacher-centered to learner-centered. Antón (1999) found that in teacher-centered classrooms teachers view themselves as the sole possessors of linguistic and cultural knowledge and that in order for students to acquire that knowledge, error correction is necessary. Teachers frequently correct grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation errors as

they occur. At the other end of the continuum, errors are viewed as part of the language learning process and that frequent error correction may impede the development of fluency. Teachers who implement learner-centered activities often forgo immediate error correction in favor of modeling the correct linguistic form or pronunciation or by recasting what the student said in a more linguistically or culturally appropriate way.

Data collection on error correction was conducted primarily through two survey items. The strategies included on these items were adapted from the ACFTL/NCATE Standard 3a: Understanding of Language Acquisition and Creating a Supportive Classroom. This standard states the importance of feedback from teachers that “focuses not only on linguistic accuracy but also on the meaning of [the] messages” (p. 21, 2002). This standard also encourages teachers to teach their students to monitor and track their own errors as well as to provide peer feedback (ACTFL/NCATE, 2002).

Teacher response values were on a 4-point scale with 1 for *Never* and 4 for *Most of the Time*. The mean score and frequency of their responses for correcting errors in student speaking are provided in Table 14.

Table 14
Error Correction for Student Speaking

	Mean Score and Frequency Percentage Teachers (N=65)				
	Mean	SD	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Rarely / Never
Teacher feedback focuses on grammatical-linguistic accuracy	3.06	.807	32.3	44.6	23.1
Teacher feedback focuses on meaning	3.52	.562	55.4	41.5	3.1
Teaches skills that help students monitor their own progress speaking Chinese	3.30	.803	48.5*	36.4*	15.1*
Assesses student accurate use of spoken language	3.14	.726	33.8*	46.2*	20.0*

*N=66; *Note:* Mean scores range from 1 to 4, calculated based on the following conditions: 1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = most of the time.

These results show that the participants in this study frequently use error correction strategies that focus more on meaning ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .562$) than on linguistic accuracy ($M = 3.06$, $SD = .807$) when giving students feedback on their spoken language. Results for the survey item that measured the frequency of error correction methods on written language yielded similar results with one exception, the use of peer feedback. The mean score and frequency percentages of the teachers' responses are provided in Table 15.

Table 15
Error Correction for Student Writing

	Mean Score and Frequency Percentage Teachers (N=64)				
	Mean	SD	Most of the Time	Sometimes	Rarely/ Never
Teacher feedback focuses on grammatical-linguistic accuracy	3.28	.825	46.9	39.1	14.1
Teacher feedback focuses on meaning	3.53	.637	59.1***	36.4***	4.5***
Teaches skills that help students monitor their own writing in Chinese	3.29	.785	47.7***	35.4***	16.9***
Encourages peer feedback	2.93	.877	27.0*	47.6*	25.4*
Assesses student accurate use of written language	3.14	.773	34.4	48.4	17.2

*N=63, **N=65, ***N=66; *Note:* Mean scores range from 1 to 4, calculated based on the following conditions: 1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = most of the time.

These results indicate that when correcting student errors in their writing, the teachers' frequently focused their feedback on meaning ($M = 3.53$, $SD = .637$) and helping students develop skills to self-monitor their writing ($M = 3.29$, $SD = .785$) than on assessing the students' accurate use of written language ($M = 3.14$, $SD = .773$). However, these same teachers were not as likely to encourage peer feedback ($M = 2.93$, $SD = .877$), with 25.5% of the responses reporting the use of this strategy as "rarely" or "never."

It was anticipated that error correction would emerge in the interviews as part of the teachers' responses to questions about student learning. In retrospect, a question specific to error correction strategies should have been included in the interview protocol, as the teachers did not openly include error correction in their responses. In addition, it was difficult for me, as the researcher/observer, to ascertain the kinds of error correction used during the classroom observations because I am not fluent in Chinese. There were a few instances where it was evident the teacher was modeling the correct pronunciation and/or sentence structure. For example, Karen did this as she introduced new vocabulary and cultural concepts to her students during her presentation. Jane also did this as she worked with small groups of students in the learning stations. There were other observations that showed the teacher focusing on both meaning and linguistic form. As Teri worked to prepare her students for their oral exams, she recasts what one student was trying to say, using the correct form and offering an explanation (in English). Although the findings on error correction are somewhat restricted to the results from two survey items that asked the participants to indicate the ways they most commonly corrected student oral and written errors. These findings support the teachers' use of error correction strategies that align with standards-based, learner-centered instructional and assessment practices as described by the ACTFL/NCATE Standards.

Summary of Teacher Instructional Practices and Assessments

The findings support varied results in the teachers' use of standards-based, learner-centered instructional and assessment practices. Although difficult to separate in

this study, the descriptions of the teachers' activities and assessments were analyzed along with the strategies they use motivating student use of the target language and the ways in which they correct written and spoken errors. The results show that the teachers in this study were demonstrating various characteristics and dispositions related the ACTFL/NCATE Standards for Cultures, Literatures and Cross Disciplinary Concepts (2a, 2b); Language Acquisition Theories and Instructional Practices (3a, 3b); and Assessment of Languages and Cultures (5a, 5b, 5c).

The mean score results from survey data on instructional activities show that the teachers favor the use of small group activities over activities where students work independently to develop vocabulary or grammar skills. Whether the teachers assign the roles and tasks for these small group activities or whether they provide students with choices, these results indicate that they provide opportunities for their students to engage with one another (ACTFL/NCATE Standard 3b). Interview data provided strong evidence of standards-based, learner-centered instructional practices. The results show that the teachers use the 5Cs in combinations rather than isolation (ACTFL/NCATE Standard 3a). Most common combinations included the Communications and Cultures Standards. The mean scores on their use of cultural materials and texts showed frequent use of realia materials intended for native speakers of the language (ACTFL/NCATE Standards 2a, 2b) and curricula intended for language learners (websites and textbooks). Surprisingly, teachers implemented the Communities Standard more than expected. Their assignments included interviews with the local Chinese speaking community, field

trips to Chinatown, and classroom visits from members of the Chinese speaking community to engage students in cultural activities (ACTFL/NCATE Standards 3a, 3b). However, the interview results supported the findings from the survey data in that the teachers are less likely to connect their classroom activities with other disciplines (i.e. Connections Standard). It is unclear from the data why this is so. Observation field notes support the notion of a pattern of instruction that emerged from the survey and interview results. This pattern of instruction begins with the teachers introducing new content using teacher-centered instructional practices and then employing a combination of teacher-led discussions as well as learner-centered activities.

The analysis of data on the teachers' assessment practices included mean scores indicating the teachers frequently use rubrics to assess student oral and written language (ACTFL/NCATE Standard 5a). Additional data from open-ended items on the survey showed the teachers used a wide range of vocabulary related to standards-based, learner-centered assessments, including formative and summative assessment practices involving IPAs. However, it became evident through their responses that some of the participants were grappling with learner-centered assessments while others demonstrated confidence using a wide range of these assessments. The most commonly used informal/formative assessment that emerged from the interview data was teacher-led questions. Their examples included questions that illicit one correct response as well as questions that encourage student opinion and creative use of the language. In some instances, the teachers allowed students to use TPR to demonstrate their knowledge and understanding,

rather than force language production with learners who may not be ready to do so (ACTFL/NCATE Standards 3a, 3b). There was some evidence from the interview data that the teachers in this study were using these informal/formative assessments to inform their instructional practices (ACTFL/NCATE Standard 5a). Interestingly, a few teachers demonstrated a strong understanding of standards-based, learner-centered assessment practices that included the use of student portfolios, student feedback on assessments, and a nationally normed standards-based assessment for IPAs (ACTFL/NCATE Standard 5a, 5b, 5c). The results from descriptions of their formal assessments was not as robust, but indicated that it is common for teachers to implement required formal/summative assessments designed by their department or school district. Some of these required assessments are intended to measure discrete factual information on language and culture while others include (at least in part) IPAs that are intended to evaluate student performance in the target language.

Knowing student needs emerged from the interview data as an important consideration to motivate student use of the target language. Because 82% of the teachers who conducted interviews completed some coursework in foreign/world language methodology, it is likely that the teachers attained some knowledge of cognitively appropriate materials and classroom instructional practices. During the interviews, teachers demonstrated their ability to select topics that are of interest to their students based upon their age and language level (ACTFL/NCATE Standards 3a, 3b). The mean scores from the survey item on strategies used for encouraging student use of

the target language showed the most common strategy used by the participants was using communicative activities related to the current theme/topic that they designed. This result shows that in addition to selecting topics of interest to the students, the teachers in this study then prepare standards-based, learner-centered activities related to those topics. Furthermore, the teachers also recognized the need to establish classroom routines that build student confidence and to motivate them to take risks using the target language. Even though data collection focused on the ways the participants motivated their student to use the target language, there was some evidence supporting the teachers' recognition that their use of the target language during instruction is important and must be in the form of comprehensible input. Observation field notes supported results from the interviews that suggested teacher use of the target language varies and is a challenge for implementing standards-based, learner-centered instruction. In some cases, the interview participants were reluctant to discuss their use of English during instruction while in other instances they openly stated their difficulties in doing so.

The final characteristic investigated related to the participants' implementation of standards-based, learner-centered instructional and assessment practices was error correction. The literature on error correction in foreign/world languages describes teacher-centered error correction as frequent and immediate corrections that focus on the accuracy of linguistic form, pronunciation, and vocabulary (Antón, 1999). The survey results show consistent mean scores in the error correction strategies the teachers reported they use most frequently for addressing errors in speaking and writing. The highest mean

scores were for providing feedback on errors that affect meaning and for teaching students how to monitor their own speaking and writing. In addition to providing feedback on accuracy some of the time, there were 75% of the teachers who indicated that they sometimes encouraged peer feedback on written assessments. These findings indicate that the teachers recognize that errors are a natural part of the language learning process and at times it is better to focus on meaning than accuracy (ACTFL/NCATE Standard 3a).

Overall, the results presented here on the teachers' self-reported and observed instructional activities, assessment practices, strategies for promoting the use of the target language and strategies for correcting student errors support their use of standards-based, learner-centered instruction. There is ample evidence that these practices align with several of ACTFL/NCATE Standards related to implementing the SFLL and creating classroom environments conducive to learner-centered instructional experiences. Next, these findings and the findings presented earlier in this chapter on teacher pedagogical beliefs will be reexamined to identify the ways in which their beliefs are congruent with their instructional practices.

Research Question 3

In what ways are the pedagogical beliefs of the teachers in this study congruent or incongruent with their instructional practices?

The findings reported in this section build upon the research by Allen (2002, 2008) that found the extent to which an educational innovation is implemented according

to its theoretical foundations depends upon the alignment between an educator's pedagogical beliefs and the theories that support the innovation. The findings from this research also addresses those of Burnaby and Sun (1999), Cortazzi and Jin (1996), Gu and Schweisfurth (2006), and Hu (2002) who noted that cultures of education and the purpose of language study may greatly influence the extent to which an educational innovation is adapted. According to Borg (2003) one's personal schooling may serve as a filter through which new knowledge and experiences are received. In the case of the Chinese language teachers, the alignment between their pedagogical beliefs, the theoretical support and cultural expectations for standards-based, learner-centered instruction may be complicated by their personal schooling experiences that occurred in cultures of education that value teacher-centered instructional practices where the primary purpose of language instruction is to prepare students for high-stakes standardized exams for entrance to a public university.

As noted earlier in this chapter, the present study places value on the prior learning experiences of the teacher participants as it seeks to gain an understanding of how their pedagogical beliefs are congruent and incongruent with their self-reported and observed instructional practices. To do so, the first sub-section here will synthesize the results from the first two research questions in order to gain a deeper understanding of the relationships between their beliefs and practices. These relationships provide insight to areas of congruence and incongruence between the teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their instructional practices. During data analysis, areas of incongruence were not always

easy to identify. What did emerge from the data were challenges that likely impede participants' ability to implement standards-based, learner-centered instruction. These challenges are presented in the second sub-section. They support and expand upon the previous research of Hall Haley and Ferro (2011) and Hall Haley and Alsweel (2012) who found challenges with their participants to include classroom management, use of the target language, student motivation, and issues with power and authority between the teachers and their students. Related to these challenges were the teachers' strong desire to be respected, to build relationships with students, and to establish successful Chinese language programs within their schools and districts. These desires in the third and final sub-section presents unexpected findings related to the participants awareness of the differences in cultures of education between the United States and their home countries as well as what they deem important to their professional lives as language educators in U.S. schools.

Congruency Between Beliefs and Practice

Findings on teacher beliefs revealed that the teachers in this study had a positive attitude towards the SFLL, with the majority of the interview participants noting that their knowledge of the SFLL significantly impacted their instructional practices. Their findings on their beliefs also showed that there were a higher percentage of teachers (66.2%) who reported having knowledge of and the ability to apply the SFLL than the percentage of teachers (46.5%) who said they had knowledge of and the ability to apply learner-centered instruction. This difference in knowledge of the SFLL and learner-

centered instruction is interesting because the language used to describe the five domains of the SFLL, particularly for the Communications and Communities Standards, is conducive to learner-centered practices. This difference might suggest that the participants in this study perhaps had a novice understanding of the SFLL; however, the descriptions provided by the teachers of their instructional practices and assessments showed otherwise. Even though vocabulary related to the SFLL was not always used accurately, the coded data from the 17 interviews demonstrated a sound understanding of the five domains. However, the frequency with which these codes occurred varied. The frequency percentages of teachers who described activities that appropriately applied one of the five domains associated with the SFLL are provided in Table 16.

Table 16
Appropriate Descriptions of Standards-based Activities

	Frequency Teachers (N=17)	Frequency Percentage
Communications	11	64.7
Cultures	9	52.7
Connections	3	17.6
Comparisons	4	23.6
Communities	5	29.6

The low percentage of teachers (17.6) who described activities applying the Connections Standard was further supported by the mean score ($M = 2.85$, $SD = .638$) for the survey item that asked teachers to rate the frequency of use for activities that include other disciplines (i.e. math, science). Scores between 2.00 and 3.00 indicate a frequency of use between “rarely” and “sometimes.” The data provided little evidence on the teachers’ beliefs and knowledge related to the Connections Standard. Likely explanations for the low application of this particular domain is that the teachers either lack a complete understanding of it, place a lesser value on this domain, or are tentative in their ability to apply this standard appropriately.

As noted earlier in this chapter and in the table above, codes for activities applying the Communications and Cultures Standards occurred most frequently in the interview data. Of note were the findings that the teachers often combined or integrated more than one domain within the same activity. To gain a further understanding of the kinds of cultural materials the teachers deemed important to their teaching and how often they used these materials in their instructional practices, the frequency percentages from two survey items are presented side-by-side in Table 17.

Table 17
Importance and Use of Cultural Materials

	Frequency Percentage Teachers (N=70)			
	Essential	Used Most of the Time	Very Important	Used Sometimes
Text and photos provided in the textbook	22.5	39.4***	39.4	36.6***
Authentic fables or fairy tales	18.3*	21.1***	38.0*	47.9***
Authentic literary texts (ex. poetry, novels, short stories)	16.9*	18.3**	40.8*	45.1**
Chinese TV shows, movies, news programs	15.5	18.3*****	50.7	56.3*****
Audio (radio talk shows, music, news)	21.1	28.2*****	47.9	46.5*****
Realia (menus, newspaper articles, ads, magazines, train schedules, clothing, food, money, etc.)	35.2	38.0**	47.9	47.9**
Materials or websites created specifically for language learners	25.4	38.0**	53.5	46.5**

*N=69, **N=68, ***N=67, *****N=66.

The findings presented on the participants' pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices showed that the cultural materials rated as most important and most used were realia (i.e. cultural materials used in the everyday lives of native speakers living in a country where the target language is spoken) and websites created specifically for language learners. To identify possible differences between how the participants' rated

the importance of these items and the frequency of use, visual representation of these frequency percentages from two survey items are provided in Figure 5.

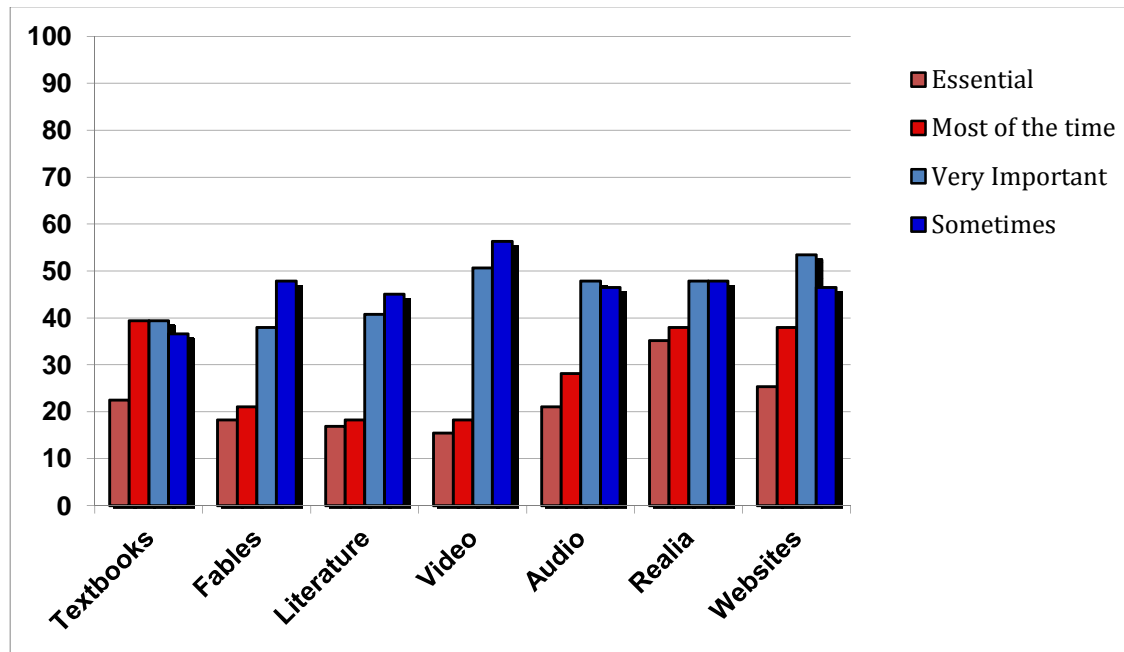


Figure 5. Comparing importance and use of cultural materials.

It was presumed that for these two survey items, there would be a relationship between ratings of materials as “essential” or “very important” and ratings for their use as “most of the time” or “sometimes.” One plausible explanation for this relationship is the alignment between the teachers’ beliefs about how important materials are to them and how frequently they use these materials in their instructional practices. As this figure shows, this presumption holds true for several of the materials rated by the teachers in this study, particularly for the materials labeled as literature, video, and realia. The materials where the frequency percentages between importance and use appear

disproportionate are textbooks, websites, and audio rated as “essential” and “most of the time” and for cultural materials including fables that were rated as “very important” and “sometimes.” However, to conclude that there was congruence between the teachers’ beliefs and use of realia, videos, and literature (literary texts) and incongruence between their beliefs and use of fables, audio, textbooks, and websites intended for language learners should be done with caution. This is because it is plausible that the participants had different interpretations for the Likert categories for rating importance and use. Nevertheless, the results presented here indicate disproportionate frequency percentages between how the teachers rated the importance of certain cultural materials and how they rated the frequency with which they use these same materials.

Similar relationships between beliefs and practices emerged in the data related to the teachers’ beliefs about teacher-centered instruction and when they said it is best to use these types of instructional practices. There were 58 teachers who replied to the open-response survey item that asked the participants to describe instances when they believe it is better to use teacher-centered instruction. Of the 58 teachers, there were 26 (45%) who noted that teacher-centered instruction was more effective and efficient for teaching new vocabulary, cultural facts, or linguistic structures. Their self-reported beliefs for when to use teacher-centered instruction were supported by the results on their instructional practices (i.e. activities and assessments) that demonstrated an emerging pattern in their instructional practices. The survey item on when to use learner-centered instruction resulted in 30 of the 55 respondents (55%) stating that learner-centered activities were

best for practicing new vocabulary or grammar that was just introduced by the teacher or textbook. This pattern was evident during the classroom observations, although with some variations. For example, Dani began class with a review activity where the students worked in pairs or small groups before she modeled pronunciation and rules of usage for new linguistic structures. Karen began her class with a teacher-led presentation. However, her presentation allowed for some student engagement with one another and with her. She and her students asked one another questions during the presentation making the experience more interactive for the learners. She followed this presentation with a hands-on activity for making *tang yuan*. As with the previous findings presented here on the congruence of the teachers' beliefs and instructional practices, the evidence presented here should be interpreted with prudence. It offers support for an emerging pattern between the teachers' beliefs about using teacher-centered instruction to introduce new information, followed by learner-centered instruction to practice those new concepts. However, this was not representative of all the participants in this study.

Some of the participants noted that teacher-centered instruction was more effective with certain age and language levels, although these comments were diverse in the populations of students the teachers described. One post-secondary instructor found that his tertiary year students were "less brave" to use the target language than his beginning level language learners. An elementary FLES teacher struggled to implement learner-centered activities with her second-graders due to time constraints and behavioral issues that she didn't experience with her third grade class. She said, "For the younger

ones, I think I use teacher-centered more...because I think one of the reasons is that we have a really short time. So, I drill them more for the vocabulary and sentence patterns.” These challenges will be further discussed in the next-subsection. Before doing so, the evidence supporting a relationship between the participants’ beliefs about their role as language teachers and their use of the target language, learner-centered assessments, and error correction will be presented and discussed.

The findings presented during the first two research questions show evidence of a relationship between the beliefs the participants’ had about their role as language teachers, their beliefs about how students learn best and the assessments they use most with their students, including how they correct student errors for speaking and writing tasks. There were 67 responses to the open response survey item that asked the participants to describe the role of the language teacher. The most common response (46%) was the use of the word “facilitator.” Other common responses included the words “culture” (33%) and “language” (19%). As a facilitator, the teachers noted their role was to introduce and share the target cultures and teach skills for exploring cultures within and beyond the classroom. They also believed that as the teacher, they had to stimulate student interest and build their confidence using the language. Additionally, they believed their role included modeling the target language and teaching learning strategies to help students engage in communicative activities of interest to them. Beliefs about the role of the language teacher were also supported by responses to the survey item on the importance of items used when deciding what to teach and what not to teach.

The mean scores for guiding documents such as curriculum guides, standards, and research showed that the teachers viewed these as very important ($M = 3.08$, $SD = .731$) and that selecting topics based upon feedback from students were essential ($M = 3.46$, $SD = .605$).

The implementation of the belief that the language teacher is a facilitator was evident in the participants' ratings of activities they use most frequently with their students. Mean scores and frequency percentages for activities used most with students indicated the teachers favored using small group activities over using individual activities for teaching grammar and vocabulary. Although these small group activities varied between tasks and roles the teacher assigned ($M = 3.28$, $SD = .740$) and tasks and roles the students selected ($M = 3.38$, $SD = .650$), their frequency of use as "most of the time" or "sometimes" was over 80 percent. In addition, there were 50 (of 67) participants who noted using activities where students and teacher learn together "most of the time" (23.1%) or "sometimes" (52.3%). These results indicate a relationship, and in some cases, an alignment between the beliefs about the role of the language teacher and the activities they employ most frequently. Related to the types of activities teachers employ most is their belief about how students learn best.

Beliefs about how students learn best were measured with a survey item that used a 5-point scale for teachers to evaluate prompts that represented both teacher-centered and learner-centered instructional practices. The results from this survey item showed that over 85% of participants' agreed or strongly agreed that students learned

best when they were actively engaged in activities and helping one another complete a task and over 70% agreed or strongly believed that they learn best when seeking opinions from one another. The participants rated and provided descriptions of their most frequently used assessments by responding to two survey items and by describing the assessments they use most during the interviews. According to the findings from the survey data, the most common assessments were oral and written tasks that were evaluated using a rubric. The use of these formal performance assessments align with the teachers' self-reported beliefs that students learn best through communicative activities because it shows the teachers use assessments that appear to mirror their instructional practices. Interview findings supported this alignment between pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices with eight cases providing descriptions of performance assessments with reference to the SFL. However, data on the informal assessments teachers noted most frequently in the interviews show evidence of both teacher-centered and learner-centered instructional practices. Teachers said that they informally assess learning through observations and teacher-directed questions. In addition to formal and informal assessment practices, this study also investigated the ways in which teachers correct student errors.

The literature on error correction (Antón, 1999; Loewen, 2007) provides descriptions of teacher-centered and learner-centered error correction methods. The frequency and purpose of error correction often indicate a teacher's beliefs about student learning, the purpose of language study, and the role of the teacher. Frequent error

correction that focuses on linguistic form is associated with teacher-centered instruction while error correction that focuses on meaning and is only provided when meaning is impeded is associated with learner-centered instruction. The two main sources of data on how the teachers corrected student errors were two survey items and some limited information from observation field notes. Survey items showed the teachers in this study frequently used learner-centered error correction methods for student speaking and writing. These methods included “teacher feedback that focuses on meaning” (Speaking: $M = 3.52$, $SD = .562$ and Writing: $M = 3.53$, $SD = .637$) and “teaches skills that help students monitor their own progress when speaking” (Speaking: $M = 3.30$, $SD = .803$ and Writing: $M = 3.29$, $SD = .785$). However, teachers tended to focus on linguistic form more when giving feedback on writing ($M = 3.28$, $SD = .825$) than when giving feedback on speaking ($M = 3.06$, $SD = .807$). Although slight, the results show that there are some differences on how important linguistic accuracy is for speaking verses writing.

These results are promising as they serve as evidence of ways in which the teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning align with their self-reported and observed instructional practices. However, as noted by one teacher, “It’s much easier to know and talk about this than to really put it into daily use.” The next sub-section reports the results related to the challenges that the teachers in this study encountered that may influence their ability to apply standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

Challenges Implementing Standards-based, Learner-centered Instruction

Thus far, this chapter has focused on the alignment between the teachers' pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices. In this sub-section, the results presented represent the ways in which the teachers' beliefs and instructional practices do not reflect standards-based, learner-centered instruction. To identify areas of incongruence, data were analyzed on the challenges the teachers noted on their surveys and in their interviews.

The survey data show that when making instructional decisions, 63% of the participants reported that topics they enjoy teaching were essential or very important to them. Although 93% of the participants also rated selecting topics they think will interest their students as essential or very important, this result shows that teacher decision-making is a complex process that includes alignments and incongruence with their beliefs. Other responses to this survey item showed that 75% of the teachers in this study rated the use of textbooks, curriculum guides and other school factors as essential or very important. It was noted earlier in this chapter that the use of textbooks alone should not be an indicator of teacher-centered instruction as many textbooks now incorporate and integrate the SFL in their curriculum. However, there was evidence that emerged from the interviews that three of the participants were still implementing teacher-centered instructional practices regularly. One heritage language Sunday school teacher stated, "I think, well that I just deliver the lessons. Sometimes I just follow the curriculum and follow the textbooks. Like every class, the topic, just follow that and the textbook."

Understanding why some of the teachers in this study continue to rely on textbooks to facilitate teacher-centered instruction includes the findings on teacher knowledge and the challenges that emerged from the data.

The results from the 71 participants' showed that even though 22% of them had knowledge of the SFL, 28% had knowledge of the communicative modes, and 35% had knowledge of learner-centered instruction, their selected response stated factors limit their ability to apply this knowledge to their instructional practices. Additionally, there were five percent of the teachers who reported limited or no knowledge of the SFL and the communicative modes and ten percent who responded that they had limited or no knowledge of learner-centered instruction. While these percentages are relatively low, they are disconcerting because the participants in this study had attended at least one STARTALK Teacher Program. It is possible that they selected their response in haste, or that as English language learners they misinterpreted the response selections. Nevertheless, the higher percentages of teachers who noted that factors limit their ability to apply their knowledge of standards-based, learner-centered instructional practices indicate challenges that may or may not be related to the teachers' knowledge and pedagogical beliefs about the SFL and/or learner-centered instruction.

The interviews provided robust data on the breadth and depth of challenges related to implementing standard-based learner centered practices. The participants noted challenges related to class length, both too long and too short, and class sizes that were either too big or too small. One teacher noted that the room location and design of her

open classroom made it difficult for her students to speak aloud during group activities. The instructors sharing the same open space often complained about the noise level. Other challenges that emerged from the data were finding age and/or language level appropriate curricular materials, lacking sufficient time to adequately plan lessons, experiencing pressure from supervisors to increase enrollments in secondary and tertiary courses, and teaching in multilevel classrooms until enrollments are high enough to warrant separate sections for each language level. In some cases, the acute circumstances these challenges presented were significant. For example, one teacher explained her teaching schedule in a private elementary school as follows:

Planning is so hard for me. Preschool gets 20 minutes of Chinese instruction twice a week. Kindergarten has 30 minutes twice a week. First to third grade has 45 minutes twice per week. Fourth and fifth grade has one hour twice per week. Sixth grade has 45 minutes every day for 12 weeks. So it is impossible for me to use the same lesson.

It is likely this case represents an extreme circumstance unique to this one teaching position. However, the literature from the 1990s (i.e. Ging, 1994; Schrier, 1994) on the development of critical need and less commonly taught language programs in the United States noted many of these same challenges. Implications of growing critical need and less commonly taught language programs issued over two decades ago cautioned that teachers of less commonly taught languages are often tasked with creating the curriculum while continuously increasing student enrollment in their programs. In addition to the

challenges mentioned here, the three challenges that emerged most frequently during the interviews were classroom management, student motivation, and target language use by teachers and students.

The findings presented here build upon the previous research by Hall Haley and Ferro (2011), Hall Haley and Alsweel (2012), and Kissau, Yon, and Algozzine (2011) that found that differences between the cultures of education in China and the cultures of education in the United States presented challenges related to student-teacher relations. Based on these prior findings, it was expected that the teachers in this study would find it difficult to manage learner-centered classrooms, to teach all ages and language levels in the target language, and to motivate students to take responsibility for their own learning. What had not emerged, or at least was not included in the results from previous studies, were the effects these challenges had on the teachers. One pre-school teacher said she felt like she spent more class time on teaching her students how to behave than on teaching Chinese. She said, “It is kind of a pity, but I guess that is life.” The feeling of disillusionment experienced by this teacher was also evident with four participants who discussed extreme cases of behavior issues. In these cases, the students were diagnosed with Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD) or other cognitive and/or emotional disorders that require medication and/or an individualized education plan (IEP). In a discussion about one student with an IEP who eventually had to be removed from her high school Chinese Level 1 class in a suburban private school, the teacher said, “I felt very frustrated at that

moment because I can tell he [the student] hates me...And it is so sad because he is so good at learning.” Another teacher working in a private elementary school stated,

I do have some students with ADD who are on medicine for it. When that class comes to me after physical education or at the end of the day when the medicine has worn off, it is so hard for them to actually stay in their seats. I let them move with singing and dancing, but I cannot do much more than that. It is very difficult for me.

The frustration and disappointment experienced by these two teachers were not isolated instances in this study. There were eight others who said that motivating their students was one of their greatest challenges. Earlier in this chapter the findings showed that 15 of the 17 teachers who were interviewed believed that motivating students included understanding their diverse needs. Yet behavior issues resulting from boredom or indifference were an ongoing cause of frustration with three of the teachers. During one interview, the teacher made a direct connection to the effect student motivation has had on her ability to use learner-centered instructional practices. She said,

I definitely feel that the learner-centered approach in terms of the students is much more effective. However, that has to meet certain conditions, such as a group of students who are really motivated...For certain classes, the students are not mature enough or disciplined enough and have to be a little more teacher-centered. Otherwise, they basically waste their time when they are not really focused on their group activities...A lot of times teachers can be very easily

frustrated. When I get frustrated, I am thinking, how can I not get frustrated?

How can my students not get frustrated? It is very hard.

Feelings of frustration between teachers and students may lead to additional issues that affect student-teacher relations and the creation of classroom environments conducive to standard-based, learner-centered instruction. As one teacher noted, the solutions to these challenges are complicated, especially when one's home cultures of education had few if any issues of classroom management. She said, "Classroom management is just so, you know, different. Each class, each kid, each school...it is so different. You have to figure it out and this takes time." The diversity of today's language classrooms presents both opportunities and challenges. Lacorte (2005) posited that the realities of language instruction nowadays include diverse student populations that can become potential roadblocks to the transition to standards-based, learner-centered instruction. The evidence presented here supports this reality.

The teachers in this study openly noted that student motivation and self-confidence precedes learning. As language learners, students must be willing to use the target language taking risks, particularly during oral forms of communication. Risk taking is an important attribute of standard-based, learner-centered instruction as learners of all ages must be willing to make errors with grammar, syntax, and pronunciation publicly as part of the learning process. Results presented earlier in this chapter showed that the teachers in this study reported using both teacher-centered and learner-centered activities to motivate students to use the target language. These frequently used activities

were on topics of interest to students and that related to the current course theme. In addition, teachers found that establishing classroom routines, including student use of the target language to make basic requests were also helpful. Findings on the challenges that affected teacher use of the target language during instruction were addressed briefly in response to the second research question. However, this topic emerged with eight of the teachers during their interviews. The findings from that data are presented next.

Teacher descriptions about their role as language teachers included the frequent use of the word “facilitator.” Further descriptions of their roles included the need for teachers to model the target language and to introduce students to the target language cultures. Using the target language, particularly with novice language learners emerged from the interview data as a limiting factor in the teachers’ ability to implement standards-based learner-centered instruction. Two teachers noted the challenge of making the target language comprehensible, particularly when teaching target cultures. One teacher stated, “Sometimes I feel it is difficult to teach some culture concepts in the target language...and trying to achieve a balance, so maybe you give some reading in English outside of class.” Challenges with using the target language also included competing demands from language supervisors who stress the importance (and in some cases, the requirement) of using only the target language during instruction and the teachers’ belief that they need to build meaningful relationships with the students. They believe these relationships are necessary and facilitate standards-based, learner-centered instruction. As one high school teacher noted,

And for me, I have a challenge to speak the target language every single time because I need to make a connection with the students. So this is a challenge and I am still working on it. I think if you have this kind of mind that if you use the target language, it becomes programmed in your mind. I think every single teacher can become programmed, although the first six months it is hard because you need to build relationships with students.

These results introduce a different challenge related to teaching in the target language. The frustration exhibited by this teacher is indicative of the debate between the primacy of structure and agency as it relates to the development of their identities as professional educators. For this teacher, and perhaps for many of the teachers in this study, the structure that includes expectations for her target language use conflicts with her agency to build student-teacher relations for what she believes will allow her to effectively implement standards-based, learner-centered instruction. Additional evidence related to teacher agency and the professional lives of these international teachers emerged from the interview data with codes that identified the ways in which cultures of education influenced the participants' pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices.

Cultural Differences and the Professional Lives of International Teachers

The dimensions of incongruence between beliefs and practices that emerged from the data in this study relate to the literature on teacher agency, identity, and cognition. Beijaard, Meijer, and Verloop (2004) studied the tension that forms between structure and agency and found that the personal dimension of teaching (i.e. agency) and the

socially acceptable rules of instruction (i.e. structure) must be renegotiated during the defining and redefining of one's professional identity. During this process, the "socially legitimated" professional identities of teachers are influenced by cultural and social forces (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, p. 125). This process also includes teacher cognition as noted by Golombek (1998), who found that reflection and dialogue are critical to the development of their personal practical knowledge that then serves as a filter through which they are able to respond to the exigencies of various teaching situations.

The international teachers in this study provided evidence of reflective dialogue during their interviews. They not only recognized the differences between the cultures of education in their home countries and those found here in the United States, but also stated how these conflicting cultures of education influence their ability to implement standards-based, learner-centered instruction. For example, one teacher noted, "I was influenced a lot by the teacher-centered classroom. I should say that I still have those moments to do lectures, especially with the Chinese 301 class. I have some struggles and challenges with them." These reflective dialogues also recognized the importance of having support from colleagues. Three teachers noted how much they valued collaboration with peers and a good support system. One teacher in particular reflected upon her student teaching experiences that took place in a school district that had a well-established K-12 Chinese language program. She said that she learned so much from her

colleagues because they shared curricular materials as well as advice about classroom management and how best to engage students in learner-centered instructional practices.

Also important to the teachers in this study was gaining the same respect that teachers receive in their home countries. As one participant stated, “I want to also be a model for the culture, like how Chinese people would teach and the role of the teacher is highly respected. I want them to respect me in the class but at the same time, I want them to have fun learning.” The challenge of balancing enjoyable learning experiences with continued respect for the teacher relates to the findings from Sun’s (2012) case study of a Chinese language teacher who was teaching Chinese in an all-girls Australian private school. Based on his analysis of the data, Sun introduced the concept of “a virtuoso teacher in the Confucian heritage culture of China” where the teacher seeks to establish a “qi-field”, or balanced classroom environment of trust, respect, and acceptance. The notion of a becoming a virtuoso teacher requires planning and hard work so that the class goes smoothly and is enjoyable for teacher and students alike (Sun, 2012). During the interviews, a similar response was made by one of the participants, who said,

You have to do extra work because you want to make sure that the class goes smoothly. You want everybody to feel that they received a positive experience...

So it is how you control the situation and the classroom environment.

The quotes presented here demonstrate that several of the teachers in this study viewed themselves as professional educators who reflect upon their capabilities to effectively implement educational innovations that they believe are “best practices.” Evidence of

professionalism and reflective practice was provided by the following teacher, who holds both an M.Ed. in Foreign/World Language Curriculum and Instruction and a professional teaching license. She said,

I want to remind my colleagues that sometimes when we are in workshops and in graduate study, we found that standards-based, learner-centered instruction is very useful and important. When we go back to real teaching, sometimes the trials and workload distract us. I want to remind them and myself to keep checking ourselves to make sure we teach more effectively.

As noted by this teacher, the realities of today's language classrooms provide both opportunities and challenges for implementing standards-based learner-centered instruction. As such, the identification of the ways in which teachers' pedagogical beliefs and practices are congruent and reflect standards-based, learner-centered instruction cannot be done in a vacuum. The results here have shown that understanding areas of where beliefs and practices are aligned and where they diverge includes constructs such as teacher agency, identity, and cognition. Prior literature supports these findings as well as the cultural and social influences that emerged from the teachers' voices as they reflected upon their own educational experiences as students in China, as participants in workshops and graduate courses in the United States, and as professional educators in U.S. classrooms.

Summary of the Alignment between Beliefs and Practices

Answering this final research question included revisiting the findings from the previous two questions on the teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their instructional practices. The synthesis of results yielded both expected and unexpected ways in which the participants' beliefs and instructional practices were aligned and incongruent. Prior research by Allen (2002, 2008) found that the alignment between language teacher beliefs and the theoretical foundations of the SFL are an indicator of the extent to which they will implement standards-based instruction. The results showed that the teachers had knowledge of the SFL and held positive attitudes and beliefs towards implementing them in their instructional practices. However, the frequency with which they implemented the five domains of the SFL varied, with the Connections Standard applied the least frequently and the Communications and Cultures Standards used most frequently by the teachers in this study. The activities the teachers described in their interviews and the ratings they provided on survey items appeared to align with their beliefs as well as the theoretical foundations of the SFL. However, these findings should be interpreted with caution, as there were some differences, particularly with how teachers rated the importance of cultural materials and the frequency with which they used them. There was evidence of congruence between ratings on the importance and use of authentic realia and videos. These cultural materials are generally intended for native speakers of the language and indicate that the teachers value and use authentic materials regularly. There was also evidence of incongruence between ratings on the

importance and use of textbooks and other curricular materials (i.e. websites) intended for language learners.

In addition to identifying areas of congruence, the data also supported an emerging pattern between the teachers' beliefs and practices. Although variations of this pattern emerged in the field notes from the classroom observations, the general pattern employed was to first use teacher-centered instruction to introduce new vocabulary and linguistic forms and then employ learner-centered communicative activities that provide students with opportunities to practice the new content with one another and the teacher. As facilitators, the teachers believed their role was to engage students in activities where they could share opinions and help one another complete meaningful tasks on topics of interest to them. The most frequently used assessments were aligned with these beliefs and practices as the results showed a preference for using oral and written performance tasks that were evaluated using rubrics. Further alignments were identified in the findings that showed teachers were consistent with their error correction techniques that they employed most frequently. Their focus on meaning rather than linguistic form when providing feedback to students on their speaking and writing were indicative of standards-based, learner-centered practices. However, there were slight differences noted in their views about the importance of linguistic accuracy specifically with written assessments.

The analysis of data to identify incongruence between pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices included the codes that emerged during the interviews related to

the challenges the teachers discussed. Issues with classroom management, student motivation, and use of the target language during instruction were expected challenges that influence the participants' ability to apply standards-based, learner-centered instruction as theoretically intended. These findings extended results from the prior research (i.e. Hall Haley & Ferro, 2011; Hall Haley & Alsweel, 2012; Kissau, Yon, & Algozzine, 2011) by providing insight to the effects these challenges had on the teachers in this present study. Feelings of disillusionment, frustration, and disappointment emerged from the voices of the teachers as they engaged in reflective discourse about their experiences teaching in U.S. schools. During their interviews, teachers not only discussed differences between cultures of education in China and those found here in the United States, but they also noted how their personal schooling experiences, both in China (K-12) and in the United States (post-secondary) influenced their beliefs and practices related to standards-based learner-centered instruction. The data supported the tension that teachers experienced between socially and culturally imposed pedagogical structures such as the expectation to use the target language during instruction, and their agency to establish relationships with students that foster classroom environments of trust, respect, and acceptance. The tension between structure and agency is an important consideration as prior research on teacher cognition (i.e. Golombek, 1998; Borg, 2003; Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004) recognizes that teachers' personal practical knowledge may serve as a filter through which new knowledge, such as standards-based, learner-centered instruction is received.

Summary

This chapter presented evidence that the teachers in this study viewed themselves as professional educators and were well aware that their home cultures of education were vastly different from where they now teach. They recognized that they used teacher-centered methods prior to learning about standards-based, learner-centered instruction and were openly accepting of these educational innovations because they realized that the purpose for studying Chinese in U.S. schools was quite different from the purpose for studying English in China. With these differences in mind, they sought to apply standards-based, learner-centered lessons in their U.S. classrooms. They were also aware of the realities critical need language teachers like themselves encounter in today's language classrooms that included meeting the diverse needs of their students and developing curriculum as they increased enrollments. As these teachers navigate these realities and challenges, they recognized the importance of self-reflection and a strong support system of colleagues.

These findings identified areas where the teachers' pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices were aligned and incongruent. Any incongruence should not be interpreted as deficits that Chinese language teachers bring to U.S. classrooms. Rather, these findings support the proposition made in Chapter Two for the expansion of Borg's (2003) Model for Teacher Cognition for Language Teaching to include the cultural contexts of education as a mitigating factor between language teachers' pedagogical beliefs and the theoretical foundations of standard-based, learner-centered instruction.

Further research on the expansion of this model is provided in the next chapter, which will also present the conclusions and implications of these findings.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The increase in K-16 Chinese language programs in U.S. schools has resulted in a shortage of qualified teachers within the United States. To fill the void, school districts have relied on guest teacher programs or have directly recruited teachers from abroad (Asia Society, 2005, 2010; CED 2006). International language teachers are highly regarded, particularly because they have exceptional proficiency in the target language and a comprehensive understanding of their home cultures and histories. In addition to teaching Chinese, international teachers who are hired to teach at newly developed programs are often tasked with creating curriculum and establishing relationships with colleagues, administrators, parents, and students to increase enrollments and ensure the longevity of the program (Ging, 1994; Schrier, 1994). One caveat is that they may be unfamiliar with the cultural context of U.S. schools and the current trends in U.S. foreign/world language education that call for the effective implementation of standards-based, learner-centered instruction (Asia Society, 2005; 2010).

The U.S. federal government has contributed to the preparation of critical need language teachers, such as Chinese, for U.S. classrooms. Since 2006, it has funded STARTALK professional development programs through the National Security Language Initiative and focused on developing teachers' knowledge and skills related to

standards-based, learner-centered instruction. The STARTALK teacher programs may vary in their content and length, but they must align to the STARTALK Endorsed Principles for Effective Teaching and Learning. These principles include being able to (1) implement a standards-based thematically organized curriculum; (2) facilitate a learner-centered classroom; (3) use the target language and provide comprehensible input for instruction; (4) integrate culture, content, and language in a world language classroom; (5) adapt and use age-appropriate authentic materials; and (6) conduct performance-based assessments. These principles are aligned with the SFL and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards.

The SFL (currently World Readiness Standards for Learning Languages) include five domains (Communications, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities). These benchmarks for what language learners should know and be able to do were not meant to prescribe a particular instructional method or strategy. Nevertheless, the descriptive language for these domains is conducive to communicative learner-centered instructional practices. The SFL are also incorporated in the language of the ACTFL/NCATE (currently ACTFL/CAEP) Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers. Specifically, the rubrics developed for the six domains of the ACTFL/NCATE Standards refer to the SFL, with Standard 4a, 4b, and 4c dedicated to the planning, implementation and development of materials for the application of the SFL in classroom instruction. Although there are other sets of standards used throughout the professional lives of foreign/world language teachers (i.e. INTASC and

NBPTS), this study focused on these two sets of standards as the participants in this research have had some experience with them through their participation in at least one STARTALK teacher program.

It is important to reiterate that this study is not an evaluation of STARTALK teacher programs. However, my work with international teachers as a co-researcher, presenter, and administrator over the course of four years (2008-2011) with one STARTALK teacher program precipitated my curiosity in studying the transition international teachers make towards teaching in U.S. classrooms. My curiosity was also instigated by my work as an instructor with a graduate level foreign/world language teacher preparation program. The experiences with Chinese language teachers enrolled in the teacher preparation program and findings from my earlier research (Hall Haley & Ferro, 2011) shed light on the challenges international teachers experienced with classroom management, student motivation, use of the target language, and student-teacher relations. Additionally, the participants in that study were acutely aware that they were educated in cultures of education that were significantly different from those they encountered in their U.S. classrooms. I was eager to learn more about these challenges and the influence of their home cultures of education on their pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices.

The robust literature on teacher cognition includes defining constructs related to teacher beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, and assumptions and how these constructs influence pedagogical decisions and instructional practices (Pajares, 1992). Borg's (2003) Model

for Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching was selected for this study as it best represented the realities of international teachers who are influenced by their personal schooling, professional coursework, classroom practices, and contextual factors within their schools and communities. This mixed-methods study investigated the pedagogical beliefs and the self-reported instructional practices of Chinese language teachers who participated in one of the 49 STARTALK Teacher Programs in 2011. There were 71 participants who completed the online survey, 17 participants in the short interviews and four participants in classroom observations. All the participants were teaching Chinese in a U.S. classroom at the time of this research. Qualitative and quantitative data were collected and analyzed with three research questions in mind. These questions related to the alignment of the teachers' beliefs and instructional practice to standards-based, learner-centered instruction and the identification of areas where their beliefs and practices were congruent and where they diverged. In addition to satiating my own personal, intellectual, and professional curiosity, this research fills a current void in the literature on the professional lives of critical need language teachers within the United States. The conclusions will refer to these prior studies as well as additional research published after the literature review was written.

Conclusions

Maxwell (2005) titles the chapter on validity in his book *Qualitative Research Design*, as “*How Might You Be Wrong.*” Maxwell notes that threats to validity are not thwarted by methods, per se, but rather through evidence. To be valid, our

interpretations, explanations, and conclusions must accurately represent what the data yielded. Member checks are a commonly accepted practice for ensuring validity in qualitative research. The participants in this study were given the opportunity to edit mistakes on their interview transcripts. Additionally, teachers who participated in the classroom observations were emailed my summaries and given the opportunity to offer corrections to my interpretations of what occurred during the observations. Maxwell further says that evidence gives “the phenomena we are trying to better understand the chance to prove us wrong” (p. 106). In this study, I presupposed that the participants would have had less time in the United States, less experience with Western cultures of education, and as a result, less congruence between their pedagogical beliefs and their instructional practices. These presuppositions were based upon my experiences with pre-service Chinese language teachers who informally stated their positive views of the SFLL, but often reverted to teacher-centered instructional practices during teaching simulations. The evidence that emerged from the data “proved” some of my presuppositions to be inaccurate. Part of the reason for this is that the majority of the teachers in this study had post-secondary educational experiences in the United States; had been teaching in a U.S. classroom for over one year; and had received some formal pedagogical training in addition to attending at least one STARTALK Teacher Program. The major findings are summarized in the subsequent sections.

Facets of Chinese Language Teachers' Pedagogical Beliefs

The teachers in this study reported on six facets related to their pedagogical beliefs. These included (1) knowledge of the SFL and learner centered instruction; (2) attitudes and impact of SFL and learner-centered instruction; (3) beliefs about teacher-centered instruction; (4) beliefs about the teachers' role in the language classroom; (5) beliefs about how students learn best; and (6) decisions for planning standards-based learner-centered instruction. Findings related to these six facets contribute to the existing literature on language teachers' beliefs and instructional decisions.

The findings from Allen's (2002) study indicated that on average, the 613 foreign language teachers who responded to her survey were somewhat familiar with the SFL. She also found that unless the teachers' pedagogical beliefs are aligned with the theories that support the SFL, they likely would implement them in ways congruent with their own beliefs, rather than with the theoretical intention of the standards. The results from the present study have indicated some significant differences in the decade since Allen's study. The data showed that although the teachers did not always use vocabulary related to the SFL accurately, their descriptions of standards-based activities demonstrated a deep understanding of the five domains and three communicative modes. However, they did not implement all five domains with equal frequency. These findings are similar to those reported by Phillips and Abbott (2011) who showed foreign/world language teachers apply the Communication and Cultures Standards more frequently than the Connections, Comparisons, and Communities Standards. However, this study extended

those findings to include combinations of various domains. The teachers in this study frequently integrated the domains of *Communications, Cultures, and Comparisons* and *Communications, Cultures and Communities* within a single lesson or activity. The participants' descriptions of standards-based lessons referred to other disciplines the least, although there were several exceptional examples in the data. This indicates that either the teachers in this study possessed a lesser understanding of the Connections Standard or they were not confident with implementing this domain in their instructional practices.

In general, the participants held positive attitudes towards the SFL and learner-centered instruction and believed that standards-based, learner-centered instruction was better suited to the development of communicative competence. They recognized that this differed from the methods used in China to prepare students for the high-stakes college entrance exam, *the gaokao*. However, there was some concern that learner-centered instruction diminished the role of the teacher, which receives social reverence in China. Nevertheless, they viewed the role of a language teacher as a facilitator of meaningful communicative activities on topics of interest to their students and as a role model for both the target language and cultures. They also believed the teacher's role included stimulating student interest and establishing classroom environments conducive to taking risks with the language production. These results indicate that whether or not they were aware of it, the teachers were describing the application of SLA theories, such as Hatch's (1984) notion of comprehensible input, Krashen's (1982) Affective Filter

Hypothesis that calls for a low anxiety learning environment and Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis. These results are significant as Canale and Swain (1980) noted that one of the persistent challenges with changing the purpose of language study from building linguistic competence to developing communicative competence has been the necessary cognitive changes within teachers, which enable them to redefine their roles in learner-centered classrooms.

The teachers in this study were also asked to report on their beliefs about teacher-centered instruction. The data showed that their descriptions of when it was better to use teacher-centered instruction were related to their beliefs about how students learn best. The teachers in this study generally believed that teacher-centered instructional practices were more effective when introducing new content (i.e. vocabulary, linguistic form, or cultural facts). However, they also believed that following this particular use of teacher-centered instruction, students needed to engage in communicative activities in order to practice the new content in a variety of contexts that simulate real-life situations. When deciding what to teach, the participants noted that selecting topics of interest to their students was more important than topics that were of interest to them. The curricular materials they believe are most important for teaching language and culture include both items intended for native speakers of the language (i.e. authentic realia) and websites created for language learners. These results indicate that their instructional beliefs and decisions are complex and often consider the communicative purpose of language study and student interest. Their implementation of these beliefs was still fraught with

challenges. Yet the teachers in this study experienced varying levels of success in doing so.

Chinese Teachers' Implementation of Standards-based Learner-centered Instruction

The major findings related to the participants' implementation of standards-based learner-centered instruction show that the participants were demonstrating characteristics and dispositions related to the ACTFL/NCATE Standards for Cultures, Literatures and Cross-Disciplinary Concepts (2a, 2b); Language Acquisition Theories and Instructional Practices (3a, 3b); and Assessment of Languages and Cultures (5a, 5b, 5c). These standards were used specifically during data analysis, as they were the same standards used to develop several of the online survey items. During data analysis, it was expected that the results would yield evidence of these standards because many of the participants had formal pedagogical training or at least one professional development program aligned with these nationally recognized standards for the initial preparation of foreign/world language teachers.

One of the most notable findings related to the teachers' self-reported and observed instructional practices was how their practices exemplified learner-centered instruction in several elements associated with the ACTFL/NCATE Standards 3a (Understanding Language Acquisition and Creating a Supporting Environment and Standard) and 3b (Developing Instructional Practices That Reflect Language Outcomes

and Learner Diversity). The elements related to these two standards include, but are not limited to:

- Language acquisition theories (3a)
- Target language input (3a)
- Meaningful classroom interaction (3a)
- Dispositions for creating a supportive classroom environment (3a)
- Theories of learner development and instruction (3b)
- Grouping (3b)
- Use of questioning and tasks (3b)

Findings noted in the previous section indicate that the teachers' beliefs and instructional decisions applied language acquisition theories, included the importance of modeling the target language and cultures, and demonstrated the significance of engaging students in meaningful small group activities in a low-anxiety classroom environment. The data on their instructional practices supported these earlier findings and provided ample evidence of their use of theories of learner development and instruction and use of questioning tasks.

In addition to the evidence of learner-centered instruction, the data from the participants' self-reported and observed instructional practices also supported implementation of the SFLL and connected to elements of ACTFL/NCATE Standards 2a (Demonstrating Cultural Understanding) and 2b (Demonstrating Understanding of Literary and Cultural Texts and Traditions). The juxtaposition of results from two survey

items (see Figure 5) on how the teachers rated the importance of various cultural materials and how frequently they used these materials when teaching language and cultures showed that materials rated as important were used frequently, particularly for authentic realia, literature and videos. The consideration that teachers may have had different interpretations of the Likert scales used for importance and frequency was evident in their use of materials provided in textbooks and other sources such as fables and websites intended for language learners. Nevertheless, these findings support elements of ACTFL/NCATE Standard 2a, such as integrating culture into instruction and dispositions for cultural learning and elements of Standard 2b, such as integrating texts from literature and other media in instruction and dispositions toward exploring literatures and other texts and media. These standards connect to the SFLL's Cultures domain as the teachers in this study valued and used materials that facilitated student knowledge and understanding of the products, practices, and perspectives of Chinese-speaking cultures.

Evidence of standards-based instructional practices was also noted in the teachers' self-reported and observed informal assessments and their survey and interview responses regarding their use of formal assessments. The data showed the participants demonstrated elements of ACTFL/NCATE Standard 5a: Knowing Assessment Models and Using Them Appropriately, by indicating their use of both formative and summative assessment models and by describing aspects of integrated communication assessments. The data also indicated the most frequently reported informal assessments were teacher-

directed questions and observations during communicative activities. With young language learners, use of Total Physical Response (TPR) was sometimes used to measure comprehension rather than force language production before the learner was ready or capable. These informal assessments were used by the teachers to determine if the students were gaining command of new vocabulary and linguistic forms during communicative activities, reflecting elements of the ACTFL/NCATE Standard 5b: Reflecting on Assessment that include adjusting instruction and dispositions for incorporating and reflecting on assessments. Additional supports for these standards-based assessment practices were evident in the participants' reported frequent use of rubrics to evaluate oral and written formal assessments. Descriptions of formal assessments varied, but indicated that in some instances, the use of rubrics connected to formal performance assessments that mirror authentic use of the target language in culturally appropriate ways. Lastly, there was limited yet compelling evidence of elements related to Standard 5c: Reporting Assessment Results. In one case, evaluation results on student portfolios and in another case, results from the SOPA were shared with stakeholders such as the students, their parents, and program administrators.

Data analysis of the teachers' self-reported and observed instructional practices also included the strategies they use to motivate students to use the target language during classroom instruction and the most frequent methods employed for correcting student spoken and written errors. These two instructional practices are related as Hadley (2001) notes that error correction may stifle student motivation when using the target language.

Other researchers have examined the instructional practices related to student-teacher use of the target language (Antón, 1999; Hall Haley & Ferro, 2011; Kissau, Yon & Algozzine, 2011) and error correction (Antón, 1999; Loewen, 2007). Their findings varied. Hall Haley and Ferro, (2011) noted challenges their participants encountered when motivating student use of the target language. Antón (1999) and Loewen (2007) identified methods of teacher-centered and learner-centered error correction strategies and Kissau, Yon, and Algozzine (2011) reported on teacher beliefs about which strategies are most effective. The major findings on the topics of target language use and error correction indicated that the teachers believed that knowing their students' interests were critical to their motivation and that motivation was critical to their learning. The data demonstrated their ability to select topics of interest that were appropriate based on the age and language level of the learners. Their use of error correction strategies was also consistent with their beliefs and practices on student motivation. The data indicated that frequently used strategies for error correction for oral and written communication that focused more on meaning than linguistic form. This means that the teachers were likely to overlook errors in linguistic form that did not impede interlocutor comprehension. The results did show that the teachers more frequently used error correction on linguistic form with written assessments than with oral performance.

Congruency Between Chinese Language Teachers' Beliefs and Practice

The discussion and conclusions presented on teacher beliefs and instructional practices exhibited the ways in which their beliefs and practices align to the SFL and

learner-centered instruction. The synthesis of the findings showed that although the teachers had knowledge of the SFL, there were differences in how frequently they applied the five domains. Further investigation of the data showed that there was an alignment in the activities the teachers described during their interviews and the ratings they provided on the survey items. One area of congruence was their beliefs and use related to authentic cultural materials, including materials that speakers of the language used in their everyday lives in their home countries. There was also an alignment with their beliefs and use of communicative activities that mirror real-life use of the language on topics of interest to the learners. An unexpected, yet logical finding was the alignment between their beliefs and use of teacher-centered instruction and the patterns that emerged between their use of teacher-centered and learner-centered instructional practices.

Patterns in learner-centered and teacher-centered practices. The findings support a recurrent pattern in the participants' use of teacher-centered instruction and learner-centered instruction. This pattern is also aligned with their beliefs that teacher-centered instruction is best and works most effectively for introducing new vocabulary, cultural fact, and/or linguistic structures. These beliefs were aligned with their descriptions of activities that first introduced new content through teacher-centered instruction and then provided ample practice with the new content through a variety of communicative activities on topics of interest to the students. It is important to note that there were also variations in this pattern. For example, teachers sometimes started their

description of a lesson with a review using small group activities followed by teacher-centered instruction to introduce new content. Students then engaged in guided practice with one another or with the teacher.

There were also areas where the teachers' beliefs were not aligned with their self-reported and observed instructional practices. These occurrences of incongruence were related to challenges the teachers discussed during their interviews and that were observed during the seven classroom visits.

Challenges: Effects on Teacher Personal Practical Knowledge

The findings from this study support the prior research that identified challenges language teachers encounter in U.S. classrooms as classroom management (Hall Haley & Ferro, 2011; Kissau, Yon, & Algozzine, 2012; Lacorte, 2005) use of target language (Antón 1999; Hall Haley & Ferro, 2011), student motivation (Hall Haley & Ferro, 2011; Salomone, 1998), student-teacher relations (Ging, 1998; Hall Haley & Ferro, 2011; Kissau, Yon, & Algozzine, 2011; Salomone, 1998; Sun, 2012), access to curricular materials (Kissau, Yon, & Algozzine, 2011, Lacorte, 2005) and professional/collegial support (Ging, 1998; Hall Haley & Alsweel, 2012; Kissau, Yon, & Algozzine, 2011). Additional challenges that emerged from the data in the present study were planning for multi-level language classrooms, preparing multiple daily lesson plans, class size, and classroom facilities. The most common code related to these challenges to emerge from the interview data and supported by field notes from the classroom observations was classroom management.

Issues of classroom management also affected the teachers' perceptions of their effectiveness in the classroom and triggered comparisons to classrooms in their home countries. They were well aware of the influence their home cultures of education had on their pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices, often creating conflicting views of student-teacher roles and relationships. These descriptions included the desire for lessons to go smoothly in order to provide positive learning experiences for both the teacher and the students. These findings support those presented by Sun (2012), whose research with an international Chinese teacher resulted in evidence related to the notion of a "virtuoso teacher." Sun found that international teachers from China seem to encounter higher levels of frustration with classroom disruptions because in China teachers, who are highly respected, carefully plan and orchestrate their lessons much as a highly regarded maestro prepares a musical score. Classroom instruction is like a performance where the audience consists of students who provide uniform attention and concentration.

The teachers' detailed reflective descriptions of their classroom management issues indicated that these issues interfered with their ability to build the necessary relationships with their students as well as levels of respect similar to those found in their home countries for effective instruction to occur. These experiences with classroom management are significant as they may also affect teacher agency, identity, and cognition. As noted in the literature by Beijaard, Meijer, and Verloop (2004), teacher agency often conflicts with the culturally and socially imposed pedagogical structures and expectations placed on teachers. These conflicts are an important consideration for

the conclusions being drawn from the current study as they connect to classroom experiences that Richardson (1996) says influence the personal practical knowledge that teachers gain through their teaching experiences that also include the challenges and “teaching dilemmas” they encounter when implementing methods and strategies associated with a different or new set of pedagogical beliefs. As Golombek (1998) and Borg (2003) have noted, the personal practical knowledge of teachers is an important construct in the development of their overall teacher identity and cognition as it serves as a filter through which they receive new pedagogical knowledge and through which they respond to exigencies within their current pedagogical practices.

These teaching dilemmas and challenges with classroom management should not be viewed as deficits that Chinese language teachers bring to U.S. classrooms as a result of having vastly different home cultures of education. Current models for teacher cognition, particularly for foreign/world language teachers do not include the provision for valuing different culture of education, and as a result may lead to subtractive, rather than additive reforms in language teacher preparation programs.

Expanding Borg’s Model for Teacher Cognition for Language Teachers

The final conclusion of this research is perhaps also an implication and call for future research as it recognizes the findings support expanding Borg’s (2003) Model for Teacher Cognition to include the cultural contexts of education as a legitimate mitigating factor between language teachers’ pedagogical beliefs and their application of standards-based, learner-centered instruction (See Figure 3). This expanded model includes

modifications that include the SFLL, the ACTFL/NCATE Standards, methods and strategies, and their relationship to standards-based, learner-centered instruction within the United States. It also includes the bi-directional relationship between home cultures of education and language teacher pedagogical beliefs. The relationship between the teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their classroom practices is also influenced by their personal schooling experiences, contextual factors related to their classroom, school, and broader community, and their professional coursework.

The inclusion of cultural contexts of education as a mitigating factor for how teachers receive and implement standards-based, learner-centered instruction demonstrates an opposition to cultural imperialism in foreign/world language teacher preparation. Holliday (2001) notes that cultural imperialism is evident by the way with which we perceive, manage, and accommodate recipients of new educational innovations, such as standards-based, learner-centered instruction. The importance of valuing the home cultures of education of international teachers in a model such as this cannot be understated. Recent research by Huhn (2012) reviewed teacher education programs that received ACTFL/NCATE National Recognition to identify common characteristics of a "model program." The characteristics she identified were (1) the development and assessment of the candidates target language proficiency; (2) integration of language and content that require candidates to hold a bachelor's degree in the target language; (3) evidence of collaboration between faculty in language departments and colleges of education; and (4) the provision of professional development

opportunities as part of their initial teacher education program experiences. These characteristics, though important to the preparation of language teachers who are not native/heritage speakers of the language, do little to accommodate the diverse needs of critical need language teachers who are already proficient in the target language. According to Holliday's description, this is characteristic of cultural imperialism.

Foreign/world language teacher education, as a field is in the unique position to take the lead and provide a model for other content-areas to follow. The recent interest in increasing international student enrollments at post-secondary institutions means that in addition to increasing enrollments for international language teachers in teacher preparation programs, there will likely be increased enrollments of international teachers in other discipline specific teacher education programs.

Additional Limitations

As noted in Chapter One, there are several limitations to this study (i.e. limited subset of Chinese language teachers, data were primarily self-reported beliefs and practices and classrooms for observations limited to four sites). The section will elaborate on the use of self-reported data and the limited classroom observations by addressing the related threats of participant bias and observer effect.

The use of self-reported data can be problematic, particularly because some of the participants were former students of mine and/or participated in a STARTALK teacher program where I was either a presenter or had an administrative role. The threat of participant bias during the interviews and observations was a possibility. There were

times during the interviews when the interviewee sought my approval of the vocabulary they used related to the SFL. Other times, they seemed defensive in their replies, particularly when they described their experiences managing learner-centered classrooms or their use of English during instruction. During the classroom observations, it was possible that two of the teachers (i.e. Karen and Jane) planned extraordinary lessons to showcase their best instructional practices. Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2006) refer to this as “the observer effect,” where the participants act differently because the observer is present. Jane’s learning centers and Karen’s lesson making *tang yuan* required a significant amount of planning and coordination. I appreciated their efforts, but wondered how accurately these lessons represented their actual practices. Although there were occasions of participant bias and observer effect, these were addressed through the direct comparison of data sources using Greene’s (2007) integrative data analysis techniques. These techniques allowed me to revisit the data with a new purpose, such as the understanding that was gained by analyzing the teachers’ frustrations during the interviews or the challenges they encountered when implementing their carefully planned lessons. This integrative process allowed me to gain more comprehensive understanding of the phenomena being studied.

Implications

There are several implications based upon the conclusions presented here. These implications should appeal to foreign/world language teacher educators, educational policy-makers, and to international teachers entering U.S. schools, who should demand

more from their teacher preparation programs. They include the exigent need to include a separate classroom management course, or to embed classroom management throughout initial teacher preparation curriculum, the recommendation to reform foreign/world language teacher education programs that address and meet the diverse needs of international teachers, and the proposition that perhaps there is a “middle ground” between Chinese and U.S. cultures of education and their prevailing pedagogies.

Classroom Management Courses

The recommendation to include classroom management as part of the curriculum for initial teacher preparation is not novel. In 1996, Vern Jones provided a chapter on classroom management in the widely used text, *The Handbook on Teacher Education*. In his chapter, Jones noted that classroom management during pre-service teacher education “too often is focused on mechanical methods rather than on viewing the classroom environment as a complex, interactive system of personal, social, and cognitive demands” (p. 514). These mechanical methods are usually not effective because the teachers’ real-time classroom management decisions tend to be based on their intuition rather than their reflection on the methods learned. In addition, Jones postulates that the paradigm shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered pedagogy across the disciplines has not necessarily been matched with a paradigm shift in classroom management methods that foster peer relationships and help define student-teacher relations in these new environments of teaching and learning. Because these new environments include

students with special cognitive, physical, and/or emotional needs, curriculum for classroom management must include effective ways to address their diverse needs.

In foreign/world language teacher preparation, methods courses are usually tasked with covering the topic of classroom management (Wilbur, 2007). Wilbur's study with foreign/world language methods professors and the syllabi they use in their courses revealed that only seven of 31 syllabi that she examined contained a goal related to classroom management. Within these seven syllabi, the focus was on effective instructional planning, with little mention of mechanical methods related to classroom management or the larger system of classroom management that involves the personal, social, and cognitive demands of language learners and their teachers. The conclusions that emerged from the current study have shown that the field can wait no longer. Classroom management not only impedes effective instruction, but it may also negatively affect the psychological and physical health of teachers.

The recommendation for a course dedicated to classroom management should include suggestions made by Jones (1996) who said that initial teacher preparation programs should review the literature on the historical perspectives of classroom management and pedagogical paradigms with which they were situated. Then, course instructors should provide opportunities for pre-service teachers to engage in dialogues about the relationship between this body of literature and their own pedagogical beliefs and instructional goals. In lieu of developing a separate course, technology may provide a viable alternative with online modules and options for real-time dialogues. As noted in

this research, international teachers are willing to actively engage in these kinds of dialogues that address the cultural appropriacy of cross-cultural, intra-cultural, and inter-cultural student-teacher relations. This proposed format and alternative online option would treat the classroom environment as the complex, interactive system that Jones says includes the personal, social, and cognitive demands of the teachers and their students. As the conclusions from the present study indicate, international teachers and their students would greatly benefit from a trans-cultural system for managing the classroom.

Reforming Foreign/World Language Teacher Preparation Programs

The traditional routes to certification/licensure for foreign/world language teachers have been through initial teacher preparation programs that are commonly housed in post-secondary institutions that are accredited organizations such as NCATE. These programs have an approved, prescribed curriculum consisting of coursework to build linguistic competency in the target language and the pedagogical knowledge related to standards-based, learner-centered instruction. Once coursework is completed, the candidate for certification/licensure must successfully complete a student-teaching practicum/internship. As noted previously in this chapter, recent research by Huhn (2012) identifies characteristics of “model programs” as those that best suit the needs of non-native speakers of the target language. Ingold and Wang (2010) have stated that given the recent increase in international teachers coming to teach critical need languages (CNLs) in U.S. classrooms, these traditional routes will no longer suffice.

Reforms to foreign/world language teacher preparation programs should include recommendations provided by the Asia Society (2005, 2010) and Ingold and Wang (2010), who have noted that the lack of highly qualified Chinese language teachers within the United States has been considered a major roadblock to the growth of Chinese language programs in U.S. schools. In their publications regarding the pipeline of critical need language teachers and issues related to traditional routes to teaching certification, they recognize that international teachers bring exceptional “content knowledge” (i.e. language and cultures), but they also bring diverse needs to teacher preparation programs. For example, heritage speakers of the language who were raised or educated in the United States would likely have strong English language skills, but may need coursework in language pedagogy and target language grammar, literature, and cultures. International teachers, who have been recruited by guest teacher programs or by the school districts themselves, may not be able to gain entrance to these post-secondary institutions due to their lower academic English proficiency. For those who are able to gain entrance, they are likely to be fluent in the target language, literatures and cultures, but may need to develop their English proficiency as well as their ability to deliver standards-based, learner-centered instruction within the cultural contexts of U.S. classrooms.

These recommendations for reform are supported by early feedback on alternative certification routes that have indicated that successful programs align requirements for certification with coursework and the backgrounds, knowledge and skills these teachers

bring to their programs. Rather than require coursework in the target language, these teachers would benefit more from coursework that allows them to further develop their social and academic English language proficiency as they gain the theoretical foundations of standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

Finding a Middle Ground: East Meets West in Teacher Preparation

This final recommendation is related to the notion of using an additive rather than subtractive model for the internationalization of teacher education programs. The recent publication *East Meets West in Teacher Preparation* by Wen Ma (2014) offers the proposition that perhaps there is a “middle ground” between Eastern and Western cultures of education and their prevailing pedagogies. With respect to the present study, is it possible that learner outcomes for studying Chinese (and perhaps content-driven disciplines taught by international teachers) would improve if learners experienced instructional practices that employed complementary methods from both U.S. learner-centered instructional models and the Chinese “virtuoso teacher” model? In other words, rather than expecting Chinese language teachers to divest themselves of their personal schooling experiences and their pedagogical beliefs related to their home cultures of education, might we actually be able to *learn* from them and adopt/adapt pedagogical practices from their home cultures of education? Doing so would demonstrate our desire to develop cross-cultural pedagogies that perhaps would better educate our students as global citizens by infusing our own instructional practices here in the United States with

authentic cultural elements that provide international perspectives in the most natural ways possible.

Ma describes the differences between the role of the teacher in the United States and China by noting that in China, the teacher is likely to “take center-stage to present all he or she is intellectually capable of offering while students are expected to put out their best efforts to listen attentively and wrestle with the content internally in order to comprehend the text and other curricular materials elaborated by the more knowledgeable teacher” (p. 64). This differs from what Ma calls the “prevalent social constructivist perspective” in the United States where the teachers “engage students as active meaning-makers, where the learner’s understanding may be explored, negotiated, and constructed through participatory learning activities” (p. 64). These exact descriptions provided by Ma are given here in order to understand what he means by “middle ground.” Ma says that these vastly different models of education yield different learning outcomes, noting, “Chinese students often know more foundational knowledge and skills, whereas U.S. students develop stronger independent thinking abilities” (p. 177). With these benefits in mind, a middle ground might provide teachers with opportunities “to lead the acquisition of content knowledge while honoring the learner’s personal experiences and interests” (p. 177). The findings and conclusions drawn from the present study support Ma’s proposition for a “middle ground.” The call to expand Borg’s (2003) Model for Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching to include cultural contexts of education recognizes that teacher cognition and their pedagogical beliefs are positively influenced by their home

cultures of education. As such, these home cultures of education are valued rather than marginalized.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study has provided a broad understanding of Chinese language teachers' pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices by investigating the alignment of these beliefs and practices to current trends in foreign-world language education that include the effective implementation of standard-based, learner-centered instruction. The conclusions drawn from this research showed how their beliefs and practices aligned with the Standards for Foreign Language Learning (now known as the World Readiness Standards for Learning Languages) and the ACTFL/NCATE Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers (now known as the ACTFL/CAEP Standards). Conclusions also included the expansion of a current model for language teacher cognition that acknowledges and values the influences of the cultural contexts of education and their preferred pedagogies by the home countries of international teachers. Future research should seek to replicate and extend this study in ways that address some of the limitations while adding additional support to the scholarship presented here.

A future study should seek to identify differences in beliefs and practices based upon the participants' certification/professional coursework, language program model, and years teaching. Understanding these differences would inform the field of how best to design professional development programs that address the diverse needs of Chinese language teachers. Additionally, the survey developed for this study should be updated

before re-use so that it reflects the current versions of the World Readiness Standards for Language Learning and the ACTFL/CAEP Standards.

This study represents a snap shot of the pedagogical beliefs and practices of Chinese language teachers as the data were collected simultaneously. A longitudinal study would provide a comprehensive understanding of how Chinese language teacher beliefs align with their instructional practices over time. Other areas worthy of investigation in a longitudinal study include teacher agency and teacher personal practical knowledge as findings from such research might further support the expansion of Borg's Model for Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching.

Final Thoughts

"I do not agree with marginalizing teachers because teachers play the most important role at school for the kids to learn." --Teacher Participant

The purpose of this study was to gain a better understanding of Chinese language teachers' pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices in order to inform the field of the complex issues international teachers encounter as they begin to teach in U.S. schools. Not only has this research led to a deeper understanding of the participants' pedagogical beliefs and instructional practices, but it has also resulted in an understanding of teacher agency and the development of international teachers' personal practical knowledge. There is the potential for these results to be misconstrued as deficits the participants possessed regarding their ability to implement standards-based, learner-centered instruction. However, these misinterpretations ignore the utmost respect I have for the

teachers who participated in this research. It is hoped that rather than view these professional reflective practitioners through a deficit lens and marginalize their home cultures of education, readers of this research will value the unique knowledge and pedagogical experiences they bring to U.S. classrooms. Their experiences have the potential to bring global perspectives of teaching and learning to the educational community. As such, cultural contexts of education ought to be considered a legitimate mitigating factor between language teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their application of standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

APPENDIX A: STARTALK Permission

Melissa Ferro <melissasferro@gmail.com>

9/6/10

Dear Catherine,

I hope this email finds you well. I would like to follow-up on my earlier request to use the 2009 StarTalk database to recruit Chinese language teachers for my dissertation study. In our last email exchange, we were checking with our respective IRBs. I am forwarding a message I received from the HSRB at GMU. Because I would be using the ST database for contact information only, it appears that all I would need from your office is a letter granting me permission to do so.

Please let me know if you have heard anything from UMD's IRB. I don't believe I would need to submit an IRB application at UMD (but would most certainly submit one at GMU), as the data collection and analysis would not include existing data from ST.

Thanks again!

Melissa

9/7/10

Ingold, Catherine W. <cwingold@nflc.org>

Hi, Melissa,

I'm very sorry for the delay in responding to you. We have learned from our IRB officer that we cannot supply the email addresses to a third party if we did not mention up front in the consent form that we may do that. We can, however, without any further paperwork on our end, share the questions from our survey with a third party. You will have to do your own recruiting.

We suggest that you contact the Chinese teacher programs from 2009 (you can get that information online at the STARTALK website) and ask them if they can share their contact information for participants according to their own rules (I'm doubtful that they can). You can ask them to pass along your invitation/information to their teachers; if they have e-mailing lists still intact, that should be relatively easy for them to do, and since many of the teacher programs are at research universities, they should be sympathetic to

your need to recruit participants. I'm sorry that privacy rules are so strict, but you can imagine the inappropriate uses that these mailing lists could be put to!

I hope this helps you move to the next step, and again, my apologies for my delay in getting back to you.

Best regards,
Catherine

Melissa Ferro <melissasferro@gmail.com>

0/4/11

Dear Catherine,

I hope this email finds you well. After a bit of a delay, I have passed my proposal defense and am currently moving forward with my dissertation research. For IRB purposes, I would like to confirm that I still have your permission to recruit Chinese language teachers for my study with the help of the 2011 STARTALK Chinese Teacher Program directors.

I have spoken to several of the directors during the 2010 STARTALK conferences and many have indicated their interest in helping me recruit Chinese language teachers for my survey research. With your permission, I will email each of the 2011 Chinese Teacher Program directors and ask that they forward my recruitment email (that will be GMU IRB approved) to the Chinese language teachers who attended their 2011 programs.

I have had the privilege of working with the STARTALK Teacher Program at George Mason University for the last four years and have been fortunate to see the tremendous growth in the teachers this program has served. Although I believe the STARTALK teacher programs are a fertile ground for meaningful research, my study is not an evaluation of the effectiveness of these programs. If you have any questions or concerns about my research, please contact me by email or by phone [\(703\) 327-3350](tel:7033273350).

Kind regards,
Melissa

Ingold, Catherine W. <cwingold@nflc.org>

0/4/11

Dear Melissa,

Your plan is consistent with the response Betsy Hart sent you, so it's fine to go ahead as you indicate. I appreciate your good work on STARTALK, and I hope this survey, along with your other activities, leads to some interesting findings for your dissertation!

Best wishes,
Catherine

APPENDIX B: Initial Email STARTALK Program Directors

Dear STARTALK Teacher Program Directors,
I am a doctoral candidate at George Mason University (GMU) working on my dissertation research. I have also been affiliated with the GMU STARTALK Teacher Program for the last four years. I have had the pleasure of meeting several of you at the STARTALK conferences and appreciate the initial support you have shown towards my research.

My study is an investigation of Chinese language teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their perceptions about the implementation of standards-based, learner-centered instruction. I am writing to you today to ask for your assistance in recruiting Chinese language teachers from your 2011 teacher programs for one phase of my research that utilizes an online survey.

Your participation in the recruitment process involves sending a recruitment email and then a follow-up recruitment email to the Chinese language teachers who attended your 2011 teacher program. I have the permission of Dr. Catherine Ingold, Principal Investigator for STARTALK, to recruit teachers in this manner. This Human Subjects Review Board (HSRB) at GMU has approved this research, including the recruitment emails that you will send to your teacher-participants. Your participation is voluntary. I will not use individual names of programs, but will include a general description of those programs that participated in this research.

If you are interested in helping me recruit Chinese language teachers for my study, please respond to this email. I will then provide you with the details for sending the recruitment emails to the Chinese language teachers who attended your 2011 STARTALK teacher program.

If you have any questions about this research, please do not hesitate to contact me, or my dissertation chair, Dr. Marjorie Hall Haley (mhaley@gmu.edu).

Thank you for your consideration.

Kind regards,
Melissa Ferro

APPENDIX C: Initial Recruitment Email Online Survey

Dear Chinese Language Teacher,

The Program Director of the 2011 STARTALK Teacher Program that you attended has been kind enough to forward this email to you. I am a doctoral candidate at George Mason University (GMU) working on my dissertation research. I have also been affiliated with the GMU STARTALK Teacher Program for the last four years. I am writing to you to ask for your participation in my dissertation study. If you choose to participate, **you will be asked to take an online survey that will take you approximately 15-20 minutes to complete.** Your participation is completely voluntary and your identity will remain confidential.

My research investigates Chinese language teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning languages. It also seeks to understand the perceptions that Chinese language teachers hold towards using standards-based, learner-centered instruction. Although there are no benefits to you personally, *your participation in this research is very important.* The findings from this study may provide teacher educators with the strengths and the needs that Chinese language teachers have towards understanding and using standards-based, learner-centered instruction. It is my hope that they will use this information to improve their courses and professional development programs for Chinese language teachers like you.

If you would like to participate in this study, please click on the following link:

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/teacherbeliefsandpractices4>.

The password is: henhao

At the end of the survey, you will have the option to enter into a random drawing to win one of five \$50 Amazon gift certificates. The odds of winning are approximately 1 in 50. Winners will be notified by email by Melissa Ferro on January 15, 2012.

If you have any questions, please contact me at melissasferro@gmail.com. You may also contact my dissertation chair, Dr. Marjorie Hall Haley at mhaley@gmu.edu.

Thanks in advance for your consideration. Whether you decide to participate in my study or not, I wish you much success in your teaching!

Kind regards,
Melissa Ferro

APPENDIX D: Second Recruitment Email Online Survey

Dear Chinese Language Teacher,

I would like to follow-up on the email that I sent to you last week. There is still time to participate in my dissertation study. If you have already completed the online survey, I thank you for your participation and please disregard the remainder of this email. In case you did not receive the initial email about my dissertation research, I have attached it below.

Initial Email:

Dear Chinese Language Teacher,

The Program Director of the 2011 STARTALK Teacher Program that you attended has been kind enough to forward this email to you. I am a doctoral candidate at George Mason University (GMU) working on my dissertation research. I have also been affiliated with the GMU STARTALK Teacher Program for the last four years. I am writing to you to ask for your participation in my dissertation study. If you choose to participate, **you will be asked to take an online survey that will take you approximately 15-20 minutes to complete.** Your participation is completely voluntary and your identity will remain confidential.

My research investigates Chinese language teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning languages. It also seeks to understand the perceptions that Chinese language teachers hold towards using standards-based, learner-centered instruction. Although there are no benefits to you personally, your participation in this research is very important. The findings from this study may provide teacher educators with the strengths and the needs that Chinese language teachers have towards understanding and using standards-based, learner-centered instruction. It is my hope that they will use this information to improve their courses and professional development programs for Chinese language teachers like you.

If you would like to participate in this study, please click on the following link:

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/teacherbeliefsandpractices4> .

The password is: henhao

At the end of the survey, you will have the option to enter into a random drawing to win one of five \$50 Amazon gift certificates. The odds of winning are approximately 1 in 50. Winners will be notified by email by Melissa Ferro on January 15, 2012.

If you have any questions, please contact me at melissasferro@gmail.com. You may also contact my dissertation chair, Dr. Marjorie Hall Haley at mhaley@gmu.edu. Thanks in advance for your consideration. Whether you decide to participate in my study or not, I wish you much success in your teaching!

Kind regards,
Melissa Ferro

APPENDIX E: Initial Recruitment Email Teacher Interview and Observations

Dear “Insert Individual Name of Chinese Language Teacher”,
I am a doctoral candidate at George Mason University (GMU) working on my dissertation research. I have also been affiliated with the GMU STARTALK Teacher Program for the last four years. I am writing to you to ask for your participation in my dissertation study.

My research investigates Chinese language teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning languages. It also seeks to understand the perceptions that Chinese language teachers hold towards using standards-based, learner-centered instruction. Although there are no benefits to you personally, your participation in this research is very important. The findings from this study may provide teacher educators with the strengths and the needs that Chinese language teachers have towards understanding and using standards-based, learner-centered instruction. It is my hope that they will use this information to improve their courses and professional development programs for Chinese language teachers like you.

If you choose to participate, you will be asked to take a short demographic survey, complete an interview with me, and allow me to observe you teach two 30-minute lessons of your choice. I will also ask you to review my observation summary for accuracy. The survey and interview will take approximately 45 minutes and your review of my observation summary should take approximately 30 minutes (by email). Please note that I have received approval from your school and the Human Subjects Review Board at GMU to conduct this research. Your participation is completely voluntary and your identity and the identity of your school will remain confidential.

If you would like to participate in this study, please reply to this email so that we can arrange a schedule for me to come to your school. If you have any questions, please contact me at melissasferro@gmail.com. You may also contact my dissertation chair, Dr. Marjorie Hall Haley at mhaley@gmu.edu. Thanks in advance for your consideration. Whether you decide to participate in my study or not, I wish you much success in your teaching!

Kind regards,
Melissa Ferro

APPENDIX F: INFORMED CONSENT FORM: ONLINE SURVEY

INFORMED CONSENT FORM: ONLINE SURVEY

Please read the informed consent form and print a copy for your records. If you agree to participate in this study, please click on “Yes, I have read this form and I agree to participate in this study” at the bottom of the page. You will then be taken to the survey, which should take you 15-20 minutes to complete.

If you do not want to participate in this study, please click “I do not want to participate in this study.” If you do not consent to participate, you will be directed to a “Thank-you” page.

You may take as long as you need to complete the survey. However, if you log-off the survey before it is complete, you will not be able to re-enter the survey to finish your responses.

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

This research is being conducted to investigate the pedagogical beliefs of K-16 Chinese language teachers and their perceptions about implementing standards-based, learner-centered instruction. It may provide the field of foreign/world language education with empirical evidence for improving existing programs for pre-service teacher education and on-going teacher professional development by building upon the strengths of Chinese language teachers as they transition toward standards-based, learner-centered instruction in U.S. schools.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to complete an online survey. The survey contains 20 questions about your beliefs and instructional practices and 14 demographic items on your educational and professional background. It will take you approximately 15-20 minutes to complete.

RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks for participating in this research.

BENEFITS

There are no benefits to you as a participant other than to further research in the field of foreign/world language teacher education.

Compensation: At the end of the survey, you will have the option to enter into a random drawing to win one of five \$50 Amazon gift certificates. The odds of winning are approximately 1 in 50. Winners will be notified by email by Melissa Ferro on January 15, 2012. Drawings will be made from the list of email addresses provided to the prompt "Yes, Please enter my email into the drawing to win an Amazon gift card. My email address is ____." found on the survey page titled "Enter to Win." At the end of the survey data collection, Melissa will close the online survey and immediately transfer the email data collected on this survey item to a separate file. This question will then be deleted from the data set so that there are no identifying markers associated with the online survey data. Winners who do not respond to Melissa's email within 10 days will forfeit their gift certificate and another winner will be randomly selected.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The data in this study, including the data from this online survey will be confidential. Your name or other identifiers will not be placed on surveys or other research data. While it is understood that no computer transmission can be perfectly secure, reasonable efforts will be made to protect the confidentiality of your transmission.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. If you decide not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no costs to you or any other party.

CONTACT

This research is being conducted Melissa S. Ferro at George Mason University. She may be reached at 571-213-6830 for questions or to report a research-related problem. Her faculty supervisor is Dr. Marjorie Hall Haley. You may contact Dr. Haley at 703-993-8710. You may contact the George Mason University Office of Research Subject Protections at 703-993-4121 if you have questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research.

This research has been reviewed according to George Mason University procedures governing your participation in this research. The George Mason University Human Subjects Review Board has waived the requirement for a signature on this consent form. Please print a copy of this form for your records.

CONSENT

_____ Yes, I have read this form and agree to participate in this study.

_____ No, I do not agree to participate in this study.

APPENDIX G: INFORMED CONSENT FORM: INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS

INFORMED CONSENT FORM: INTERVIEW AND OBSERVATIONS

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

This research is being conducted to investigate the pedagogical beliefs of K-16 Chinese language teachers and their perceptions about implementing standards-based, learner-centered instruction. It may provide the field of foreign/world language education with empirical evidence for improving existing programs for pre-service teacher education and on-going teacher professional development by building upon the strengths of Chinese language teachers as they transition toward standards-based, learner-centered instruction in U.S. schools.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to complete a paper survey that contains 14 demographic questions on your educational and professional background. This survey will take you approximately 5-10 minutes to complete. You will also be asked to do an individual interview with Melissa Ferro. During this interview, Melissa will ask you about your beliefs related to teaching languages and your classroom practices. This interview will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete and will be audio-recorded. Before or after the interview, you will provide Melissa with a schedule for observing you teach two 30-minute lessons. During the classroom observations Melissa will take field notes. Within a week of the observations, Melissa will email you a summary of her field notes for you to review and reply with your comments or suggestions for changes. This review will take you approximately 30 minutes to complete. If your comments require changes, Melissa will make these changes and return the summary to you for a final review. This final review will take approximately 15 minutes.

RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks for participating in this research.

BENEFITS

There are no benefits to you as a participant other than to further research in the field of foreign/world language teacher education.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The data in this study will be confidential. Melissa Ferro is the only researcher who will know your identity as a participant in this study. Your name will not be used on the paper survey or other collected data. She will assign a pseudonym to you before you complete the paper survey. This pseudonym will be used when transcribing the audio-recorded interview and in her field notes during the classroom observations. Therefore, no identifying markers or actual names will be used in the paper surveys, the interview transcriptions, or the field notes. Through the use of an identification key, Melissa will be able to link your survey, the interview transcript, and her field notes from classroom observations to your identity. However, she is the only researcher who will have access to this identification key. Audio recorded interviews will be transcribed immediately after each interview and then immediately deleted.

While it is understood that no computer transmission can be perfectly secure, the researchers will make reasonable efforts to protect the confidentiality of any email transmissions.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. If you decide not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no costs to you or any other party.

CONTACT

This research is being conducted Melissa S. Ferro at George Mason University. She may be reached at 571-213-6830 for questions or to report a research-related problem. Her faculty supervisor is Dr. Marjorie Hall Haley. You may contact Dr. Haley at 703-993-8710. You may contact the George Mason University Office of Research Subject Protections at 703-993-4121 if you have questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research.

This research has been reviewed according to George Mason University procedures governing your participation in this research. The HSRB has waived the requirement for a signature on the consent form. You will be provided with a paper copy the first day you meet with Melissa. If you wish to obtain an electronic copy of this informed consent form, please contact Melissa Ferro at melissasferro@gmail.com.

APPENDIX H: CHINESE TEACHER BELIEFS AND PRACTICES SURVEY

1. Informed Consent Form

Please read the informed consent form and print a copy for your records. If you agree to participate in this study, please click on "Yes, I have read this form and I agree to participate in this study" at the bottom of the page. You will then be taken to the survey, which should take you 15-20 MINUTES TO COMPLETE. At the end of the survey, you will be given the option to enter a random drawing to win one of five 50.00 Amazon gift certificates.

If you do not want to participate in this study, please click "I do not want to participate in this study." If you do not consent to participate, you will be directed to a "Thank-you" page.

You may take as long as you need to complete the survey. However, if you log-off the survey before it is complete, you will not be able to re-enter the survey to finish your responses.

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

This research is being conducted to investigate the pedagogical beliefs of K-16 Chinese language teachers and their perceptions about implementing standards-based, learner-centered instruction. It may provide the field of foreign/world language education with empirical evidence for improving existing programs for pre-service teacher education and on-going teacher professional development by building upon the strengths of Chinese language teachers as they transition toward standards-based, learner-centered instruction in U.S. schools.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to complete an online survey. The survey contains 20 questions about your beliefs and instructional practices and 14 demographic items on your educational and professional background. It will take you approximately 15-20 minutes to complete.

RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks for participating in this research.

BENEFITS

There are no benefits to you as a participant other than to further research in the field of foreign/world language teacher education.

Compensation: At the end of the survey, you will have the option to enter into a random drawing to win one of five \$50 Amazon gift certificates. The odds of winning are approximately 1 in 50. Winners will be notified by email by Melissa Ferro on January 15, 2012. Drawings will be made from the list of email addresses provided to the prompt "Yes, Please enter my email into the drawing to win an Amazon gift card. My email address is ____" found on the survey page titled "Enter to Win." At the end of the survey data collection, Melissa will close the online survey and immediately transfer the email data collected on this survey item to a separate file. This question will then be deleted from the data set so that there are no identifying markers associated with the online survey data. Winners who do not respond to Melissa's email within 10 days will forfeit their gift certificate and another winner will be randomly selected.

CONFIDENTIALITY

The data in this study, including the data from this online survey will be confidential. Your name or other identifiers will not be placed on surveys or other research data. While it is understood that no computer transmission can be perfectly secure, reasonable efforts will be made to protect the confidentiality of your transmission.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. If you decide not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no costs to you or any other party.

CONTACT

This research is being conducted Melissa S. Ferro at George Mason University. She may be reached at 571-213-6830 for questions or to report a research-related problem. Her faculty supervisor is Dr. Marjorie Hall Haley. You may contact Dr. Haley at 703-993-8710. You may contact the George Mason University Office of Research Subject Protections at 703-993-4121 if you have questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research.

This research has been reviewed according to George Mason University procedures governing your participation in this research. The George Mason University Human Subjects Review Board has waived the requirement for a signature on this consent form. Please print a copy of this form for your records.

2. Beliefs About Teaching and Learning

This section contains several items that ask you to rate the choices provided or select the answer choice that best represents your knowledge, beliefs, or practices. There are also a few questions that ask you to provide written text. Your thoughts as a professional teacher are very valuable. Please take a few minutes to answer each of these questions with as much detail as possible.

1. Check the statement that best describes your knowledge and understanding of learner- centered instruction:

- ☐ I have never heard of learner-centered instruction.
- ☐ I have heard of learner-centered instruction, but I don't know much about it.
- ☐ I know about learner-centered instruction, but I am not sure how to apply it to my teaching.
- ☐ I know about learner-centered instruction, but many factors hinder me from implementing it in my teaching.
- ☐ I know about learner-centered instruction well enough to apply it to my teaching consistently.

2. Check the statement that best describes your knowledge and understanding of the Standards of Foreign Language Learning (The 5Cs):

- ☐ I have never heard of the standards (5Cs).
- ☐ I have heard of the standards (5Cs), but I don't know much about them.
- ☐ I know about the standards (5Cs), but I am not sure how to apply them to my teaching.
- ☐ I know about the standards (5Cs), but many factors hinder me from implementing them in my teaching.
- ☐ I know about the standards (5Cs) well enough to apply them to my teaching consistently.

3. Check the statement that best describes your knowledge and understanding of the 3 Communicative Modes (interpretive, interpersonal, presentational):

- ☐ I have never heard of the 3 Communicative Modes.
- ☐ I have heard of the 3 Communicative Modes, but I don't know much about them.
- ☐ I know about the 3 Communicative Modes, but I am not sure how to apply them to my teaching.
- ☐ I know about the 3 Communicative Modes, but many factors hinder me from implementing them in my teaching.
- ☐ I know about the 3 Communicative Modes well enough to apply them to my teaching consistently.

4. Please take a few moments to answer this question:

What do you think is the role of a language teacher?

5

6

5. Please indicate how important (on a scale of 1 to 4) the following items are to you when you are deciding what to teach and what not to teach:

	1 = Not Important	2 = Somewhat Important	Very Important = 3	4 = Essential
Topics I enjoy teaching	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Curriculum guides, the textbook, or other school factors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Guiding documents such as standards and research	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Topics I think will interest my students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feedback from students about their interests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Other "Essential" Items:

6. The next four questions relate to the materials and texts that you use when teaching the Chinese language and cultures.

Please indicate HOW IMPORTANT the following cultural materials and texts are in your teaching.

	1 = Not Important	2 = Somewhat Important	3 = Very Important	4 = Essential
Texts and photos provided in the textbook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Authentic fables or fairy tales	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Authentic literary texts (ex. poetry, novels, short stories)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chinese TV shows, movies, news programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Audio (radio talk shows, music, news)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Realia (menus, newspaper articles, ads, magazines, train schedules clothing, food, money, etc)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Materials or websites created specifically for language learners	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Other "Essential" Items

7. Please refer to the list of items in Question #6 and briefly describe one or two ways you use these items in a CULTURAL LESSON with your students.

1.
2.

8. How OFTEN DO YOU USE the following cultural materials and texts with your students?

	1 = Never	2 = Rarely	3 = Sometimes	4 = Most of the Time
Realia (menus, newspaper articles, ads, magazines, train schedules clothing, food, money, etc)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Authentic literary texts (ex. poetry, novels, short stories)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Materials or websites created specifically for language learners	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Audio (radio talk shows, music, news)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Authentic fables or fairy tales	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Texts and photos provided in the textbook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chinese TV shows, movies, news programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other Items Used "Most of the Time"	<input type="text"/>			

9. Please refer to the list of items from Question #8 and briefly describe one or two ways you use these items to TEACH THE CHINESE LANGUAGE to your students.

- 1.
- 2.

10. Please rate the following statements (on a scale of 1 to 4) in terms of how you motivate your students to use the target language:

	1 = Never	2 = Rarely	3 = Sometimes	4 = Most of the Time
I use exercises and activities that require students to provide a correct or predictable answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students select personalized communicative activities that meet their interests and learning goals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I design communicative activities that are interesting to students and reflect our current topic or theme	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I use instructional materials from the textbook to promote meaningful classroom interactions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other:	<input type="text"/>			

11. Select the statement that best describes how you maximize student learning:

- ☐ I create a classroom environment that encourages my students to do their own thinking.
- ☐ I encourage students to interact with one another and create and share ideas.
- ☐ I monitor student actions and behavior during instruction that shows they understand.
- ☐ I provide information using carefully planned lessons in a structured environment.
- ☐ I provide my students with options and allow them to choose activities that suit their individual learning goals.

12. The next two items refer to how you correct student errors when they are speaking and writing.

Please rate the following statements (on a scale of 1 to 4) in terms of how you correct students' errors when they are SPEAKING Chinese:

	1 = Never	2 = Rarely	3 = Sometimes	4 = Most of the Time
I give students feedback that focuses on their grammatical-linguistic accuracy.				
I give students feedback that focuses on meaning.				
I teach students the skills that help them monitor their own progress when speaking Chinese.				
I assess students based on their accurate use of spoken Chinese.				
Other (please specify)	<input type="text"/>			

13. When correcting errors in your students' WRITING, please rate the following statements (on a scale of 1 to 4) as they apply to your teaching:

	1 = Never	2 = Rarely	3 = Sometimes	4 = Most of the Time
I give students feedback that focuses on their grammatical-linguistic accuracy.				
I give students feedback that focuses on meaning.				
I teach students the skills that help them monitor their own progress when writing Chinese.				
I encourage students to provide peer feedback.				
I assess students based on their accurate use of written Chinese.				
Other (please specify)	<input type="text"/>			

14. Please indicate your level of agreement (on a scale of 1-5) with the following statements about student learning.

"Students learn best by..."

	1 = Strongly Disagree	2 = Disagree	3 = Neutral	4 = Agree	5 = Strongly Agree
Paying close attention to my lectures or presentations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Helping one another to complete a task or project	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Seeking opinions from one another	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Being actively engaged in an activity rather than listening to my lectures/presentations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Answering my questions correctly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Other "Strongly Agree"

15. How often (on a scale of 1 to 4) do you use the following activities with your students?

	1 = Never	2 = Rarely	3 = Sometimes	4 = Most of the Time
Small group activities where students chose their own roles and tasks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Individual activities for building grammar skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Small group or pair activities where I assign the roles and tasks for each student	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Activities where I learn new information with my students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Individual activities for building vocabulary	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Activities that include other disciplines such as math, geography, or science	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Activities that ask students to solve a problem using the target language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Other activities used "Most of the Time"

16. How often (on a scale of 1 to 4) do you use the following assessments with your students?

	1 = Never	2 = Rarely	3 = Sometimes	4 = Most of the Time
Students take a vocabulary quiz that requires them to write the correct word	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students perform a task orally and I observe and assess using a rubric	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students take a written test on grammar that requires them to write/give the correct answer.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students self-assess their work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students create a written product in the target language and I assess it using a rubric	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Students offer peer-feedback to one another	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other assessments used "Most of the Time"	<input type="text"/>			

17. Do you have any other comments about your instructional activities or assessment practices?

18. The last three questions in this section refer to your use of teacher-centered and learner-centered instruction. Please take a few moments to answer each one in detail.

Are there instances when you find it is better to use TEACHER-CENTERED instruction? If so, please describe one of those instances.

19. Are there times when you find it is better to use LEARNER-CENTERED instruction? If so, please describe one of those times.

20. Please use this space to share any other thoughts or comments you have about standards-based, learner-centered instruction.

3. Demographic and Professional Information

In this final section of the survey, please take a few minutes to provide information about yourself and your educational and professional background.

1. Where were you born?

☐ Hong Kong

☐ People's Republic of China / Mainland China

☐ Taiwan

☐ Singapore

☐ United States

Other (please specify)

2. Please check the location where you completed the majority of your primary and secondary (K-12) education. You may select more than one location.

☐ Hong Kong

☐ People's Republic of China / Mainland China

☐ Taiwan

☐ Singapore

☐ United States

Other (please specify)

3. Please check the location where you completed the majority of your post-secondary (college/university) education. You may select more than one location.

☐ Hong Kong

☐ People's Republic of China / Mainland China

☐ Taiwan

☐ Singapore

☐ United States

Other (please specify)

4. What is your gender?

☐ Female

☐ Male

5. To which age group do you belong?

☐ 20-29

☐ 30-39

☐ 40-49

☐ 50-59

☐ 60-69

☐ 70+

6. How long have you been living in the United States?

☐ Less than 1 year

☐ 1-4 years

☐ 5-9 years

☐ More than 10 years

7. Please use the drop down menu to select the state where you currently live.

State:

8. Which educational setting best describes your current teaching position. You may select more than 1 answer if you are teaching in multiple settings.

- ☐ Public School Pre-kindergarten
- ☐ Public School Grades K-5
- ☐ Public School Grades 6-8
- ☐ Public School Grades 9-12
- ☐ Private/Parochial School (non-heritage) Pre-kindergarten
- ☐ Private/Parochial School (non-heritage) Grades K-5
- ☐ Private/Parochial School (non-heritage) Grades 6-8
- ☐ Private/Parochial School (non-heritage) Grades 9-12
- ☐ Heritage School Pre-kindergarten
- ☐ Heritage School Grades K-5
- ☐ Heritage School Grades 6-8
- ☐ Heritage School Grades 9-12
- ☐ Heritage After School / Weekend Program (any grades)
- ☐ Community College Undergraduate
- ☐ College / University Undergraduate
- ☐ Adult Education (non-degree program)
- ☐ Private Tutoring (in person)
- ☐ Private Tutoring (online)

9. How long have you been teaching Chinese in the U.S.?

- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☐ 1-4 years
- ☐ 5-9 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

10. Are you certified or licensed in the United States to teach Chinese?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ Not yet, but I am working on my certification / license now
- ☐ Not yet, but I plan to become certified
- ☐ No

11. Are you certified or licensed in another country to teach a language?

☐ Yes

☐ No

If "Yes", please specify the country and language

12. For each of the following years, please indicate the number of STARTALK Teacher Programs you attended in that year.

Number of STARTALK Teacher Programs Attended

2007	<input type="text"/>	6
2008	<input type="text"/>	6
2009	<input type="text"/>	6
2010	<input type="text"/>	6
2011	<input type="text"/>	6

13. What types of training or education have you had for teaching languages? Please check all that apply.

- ☐ I have a degree in education with a focus on languages
- ☐ I have taken courses for teaching languages at the university level (non-degree)
- ☐ I have a degree in a specific language or literature
- ☐ I have attended workshops or conference sessions for teaching languages OTHER THAN STARTALK
- ☐ None of the above

Other (please specify)

14. What is the highest degree that you have earned?

☐ Undergraduate / Bachelor

☐ Masters

☐ Doctorate

Other (please specify)

4. ENTER TO WIN

At the end of this study, there will be a drawing to win one of five 50.00 Amazon gift certificates. TO ENTER THIS RANDOM DRAWING, PLEASE PROVIDE YOUR EMAIL BELOW. Winners will be notified by email by Melissa Ferro on January 15, 2012.

***1. Do you want to enter the random drawing to be eligible to win one of five 50.00 Amazon gift certificates?**

☐ No, I do not want to enter the random drawing.

☐ Yes, Please enter my email into the drawing to win an Amazon gift card.

My email address is:

5. Thank You!

Whether or not you decided to participate in this research, I wish you much success in your teaching.

For those who did take the time to complete this survey, I thank you! I realize that your free time is very limited and valuable. I appreciate your participation.

Best wishes,
Melissa

APPENDIX I: PERMISSION FOR TEACHER BELIEFS INTERVIEW

Melissa Ferro <melissasferro@gmail.com> 9/15/10

Dear Dr. Luft,

My name is Melissa Ferro. I am a doctoral student at George Mason University, currently working on my dissertation. My research will investigate the alignment between Chinese language teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their instructional strategies.

My focus on working with Chinese language teachers relates to two small-scale studies I have conducted with Chinese and Arabic teachers who have attended professional development workshops funded by StarTalk, a federal initiative to increase our nation's language capacity in languages deemed critical to our national security and economic growth. Chinese is one of these languages. I would like to extend those previous studies to a national sample of StarTalk Chinese language teacher-participants.

My data collection instrument will be an online survey with which I would like to adapt 6 of the 7 questions from the Teacher Belief Interview (Luft & Roehrig, 2007).

Specifically, I would like to ask your permission to include the following questions with the adaptations in parenthesis.

1. How do you maximize student learning in your classroom?
2. How do you describe your role as a (language) teacher?
3. How do you decide what to teach and what not to teach? (Note: eliminated "in a school setting")
4. How do you decide when to move on to a new topic in your classroom?
5. How do your students learn (a language) best?
6. How do you know when (students are) learning (Note: eliminated "occurring") in your classroom?

Your work with Dr. Roehrig on science teacher beliefs has been instrumental in the development of my dissertation study. Although my focus is with language teachers, I would greatly appreciate your permission to use the above questions as they would make a significant contribution to my data collection and my study as a whole.

If you have any questions regarding my research, please contact me by email <melissasferro@gmail.com> or at <mferro@gmu.edu>. You may also contact my

dissertation chair, Dr. Marjorie Hall Haley at <mhaley@gmu.edu>. I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely,

Melissa S. Ferro

Doctoral Candidate and Graduate Lecturer

Multilingual Multicultural Education

George Mason University

Julie Luft <Julie.Luft@asu.edu> 9/18/10

Hi

Yes, certainly adapt this as you need to.

Good luck with your studies.

Julie

Julie A. Luft, PhD.

Professor, Science Education

Director of Research, National Science Teachers Association

PI, PERSIST & STARR

Noyce School of Life Sciences & Fulton Teachers College

Arizona State University

APPENDIX J: TELEPHONE INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Teacher Interview Guide
Chinese Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practices
Interviewer: Melissa Ferro

The local Chinese language teachers who participate in the interview and observation part of this study will be asked the following interview questions:

1. I know that you just completed a survey on your educational and professional background, but you would you please remind me of the level, grade and type of program where you are currently teaching?
 - a. How long have you been teaching this grade, level, and program?
2. Let's talk for a few minutes about your role as a language teacher and how you plan your lessons.
 - a. How would you describe your role as a language teacher?
 - b. How do you plan your lessons? What do you use (i.e. textbook, standards, program of study, curriculum guide, web sites, etc...) during the planning process?
3. Thank you for sharing with me your planning process. When you are teaching these carefully planned lessons, how can you tell when your students are learning the material?
4. Many teachers (including myself) find it challenging to motivate students to use the target language in our classrooms. What are some of the ways that you motivate your students to use the target language in your classroom?
5. Let's talk about some of your ideas related to standards-based instruction. For example:
 - a. Would you tell me when and how you first learned about standards-based instruction?
 - b. Would you please tell me if you had used this approach before?
 - c. Would you explain what this looks like in your classroom now? For example, can you share an activity and/or assessment that you use and believe may be good examples of standards-based instruction?
6. Now I'd like you to share a few of ideas that you have related to learner-centered instruction.
 - a. How might you explain learner-centered instruction to a new teacher joining your department?

- b. Has your knowledge of learner-centered instruction impacted your classroom instructional and assessment practices?
 - i. If so, in what ways? For example, would you please tell me about an activity and/or an assessment that you use and that you believe are good examples of learner-centered practices?
 - ii. If not, would you share some of the reasons why your knowledge of learner-centered instruction has not had an impact on your classroom instructional and assessment practices?
- 7. Would you please share any thoughts that you have about teacher-centered instruction? Is there a time when you use this approach? Could you explain how this might look in your classroom?
- 8. Is there anything else you would like to share about your teaching practice or your opinions of standards-based, learner-centered instruction?

APPENDIX K: OBSERVATION FIELD NOTES

Teacher:

Grade:

Date:

Time:

In the classroom there is evidence of:

- Learning Objectives
- Agenda
- District/school requirements
- Classroom rules
- Homework
- Grading Policy
- Student work
- Visuals
- Seating arrangement

Warm-up Activity

- Students engage in 5-10 minute “bell work” (e.g. writing)
- Teacher reviews learning objectives and agenda
- Students engage in brief communicative activity

Instructional Activities:

- Teacher uses TL exclusively
- Encourages student use of TL
- Activities promote communication
- Keeps students focused and engaged
- Integrates 4 skills with 3 communicative modes
- Language skills practiced in context using 3 communicative modes
- Incorporates cultural practices, products, and perspectives
- Addresses student learning styles and multiple intelligences
- Uses authentic materials
- Relevant to lesson
- Interesting to students

NON-Communicative Activities:

- Excessive practice of pinyin and 4 tones
- Drilling characters mechanically
- Copying characters without context
- New vocabulary—fill in the blanks
- Students take turns making sentences
- Students memorize dialogues
- Uses textbook and/or follows workbook exercises that are de-contextualized

Student-centered Activities:

- Uses variety of student grouping techniques
- Includes performance-based tasks
- Uses a balance of teacher and student centered activities
- Activities are relevant and of interest to students
- Students engage in tasks that reflect higher-order cognitive skills

Assessments:

- Used informal assessments in class
- Used effective questioning techniques
- Designed summative assessments
- Students assess their own learning
- Use of rubrics to guide performance-based tasks
- Teacher provides feedback
- Students used class time to share and learn from one-another

APPENDIX L: INITIAL ETIC AND EMIC CODE LIST

Original Code List: 133 Codes 17 Cases

Applies communication standard
Applies communities standard
Applies comparisons standard
Applies connections standard
Applies cultures standard
Assess learning in FLES under debate
Assesses by observing
Assesses learning paper quiz
Assesses learning through project
Assesses learning using requirements
Assesses learning with required dictation
Assesses learning with tests
Assesses learning with Ts questions
Assesses learning with worksheets
Assesses speaking and listening regularly
Assesses through Ss performance
Assesses through survey
Assesses proficiency through SOPA
Bottom-up language teaching
Challenge classroom management
Challenge teaching in TL
Challenges finding materials for teaching
Challenges integrating language and culture
Challenges special to Chinese teachers in US
Challenges teaching advanced learners
Challenges using standards with novice Ss
Challenges with bad examples from Ss
Challenges with class length
Challenges with class size
Challenges with more work for Ts
Challenges with multiple levels in one class
Challenges with room location-design

Challenges with student motivation
Chinese is difficult for students
English used for grammar
English used for instructions
Experience Teaching in China
Frustration related to various causes
Initial view of SFLI negative
Interview helped reflection on teaching
Keep students busy to avoid bad behavior
LC instruction makes learning fun
LC instruction means Ss speak more than T
LC instruction motivates students to learn
LC makes teaching more meaningful
LC-SB practices introduced at conference
LC-SB practices introduced by mentor
LC-SB practices introduced by school-county
LC-SB practices introduced by STARTALK
LC-SB practices introduced in courses
LC-SB practices introduced unspecified
Learning SFLI both changed teaching and already in practices
Learning SFLI changed teaching
Learning SFLI realized already in teaching
Materials include multimedia
Measures progress through student portfolios
Negative attitude towards teaching in China
Planning includes authentic materials
Planning includes creating curriculum
Planning includes internet
Planning includes knowing student needs
Planning includes language functions
Planning includes POS
Planning includes SFLI
Planning includes textbook
Planning includes thematic units
Planning is complex and includes many things
Planning using required curriculum
Planning with backwards design
Planning with required LP template
Positive attitude towards SFLI
Recognizes influence of Chinese culture of education
Recognizes language learners need less TC instruction
SFLI vocab used accurately

SFLL vocab used inaccurately
 Ss motivation relates to teacher role as helper
 Starting to use LC instruction
 Still uses TC instruction a lot
 Students in charge of learning
 Students motivated when teacher viewed as helpful
 Students refuse to speak TL
 Support from colleagues
 T believes important to recognize Ss efforts
 T extends learning to gov't programs
 T gives Ss choices
 T gives structured activities
 T is boss
 T promotes Ss creative use of language
 T role differs from child to adult student
 T role is to generate interest-curiosity
 T role is to provide good examples-models
 T role is to teach learning strategies
 T role is window to Chinese people
 T role not about power over students' success
 T role online provide materials and monitor work
 T role to build Ss confidence
 T role to give feedback and monitor progress
 T role to grow Chinese language program
 T role to provide real-life experiences with TL
 T role to set reasonable expectations
 T role to teach language and culture
 T role to teacher linguistic form
 T understanding of language and identity
 T views classroom management as most difficult
 T views role as facilitator
 T views Ss as active learners
 T wants class to go smoothly; good experience
 TC instruction limited to introduce new concepts/structures
 TC instruction limited to telling stories
 TC instruction used to clarify Ss difficulties
 TC instruction used to prepare for test
 Teacher encourages student questions
 Teacher must build relationships
 Teacher prefers to work with more advanced Ss
 Teacher should be respected
 Teaches students SFLL

Teaching and learning Chinese difficult
Teaching to MI is important
TL motivation by classroom routines
TL motivation from parents
TL motivation from repetition
TL motivation is to assess speaking-listening
TL motivation starts with basic requests
TL motivation through rewards
TL motivation using relevant topics to Ss
TL motivation using role-play
TL motivation with visuals
TL use is form of classroom management
Use of LC or TC depends on student level
Use of learning centers
Uses content standards more than SFLL
Uses objectives for teaching
Young language learners as polyglots

APPENDIX M: CATEGORIES OF ETIC AND EMIC CODES

Final Code List = 124 Codes

Filtered Codes to Categories = 12 Categories

Abbreviations Used:

LC: Learner-centered

POS: Program of Study

Ss: Students

SFLL: Standards for Foreign Language Learning

Ts: Teachers

TC: Teacher-centered

TL: Target Language

1. Knowledge and Beliefs related to SFLL = 9 codes

- Learning SFLL both changed teaching and already in practices
- Learning SFLL changed teaching
- Learning SFLL realized already in teaching
- Positive attitude towards SFLL
- SFLL vocabulary used accurately
- SFLL vocabulary used inaccurately
- Ts role is window to Chinese people
- Ts role is to provide real-life experiences with TL
- Ts role is to teach language and culture

2. Knowledge and Beliefs related LC Instruction = 12 codes

- LC instruction makes learning fun
- LC instruction means students speak more than teacher
- LC instruction motivates Ss to learn
- LC instruction makes teaching more meaningful
- Ss in charge of learning
- Ss motivated when teacher viewed as helpful
- Ts believe important to recognize Ss efforts
- Ts role is a facilitator
- Ts role is to generate interest and curiosity
- Ts role is not about power over students

- Ts role to build student confidence
 - Ts views Ss as active learners
3. Beliefs and Practices Related to TC Instruction = 11 codes
- Assesses learning through teacher questions
 - Assesses learning through paper quiz
 - Assesses learning through paper tests
 - Assesses learning with worksheets
 - Bottom-up language teaching
 - English used for teaching grammar
 - Initial view of SFLL negative
 - Planning includes textbook
 - Still uses TC instruction a lot
 - Ts role to provide linguistic form
 - Use of LC or TC depends on student level
4. Practices Related to SFLL = 11 codes
- Applies communication standard
 - Applies cultures standard
 - Applies connections standard
 - Applies comparisons standard
 - Applies communities standard
 - Planning includes authentic materials
 - Planning includes internet
 - Planning includes language functions
 - Planning includes SFLL
 - Planning includes backwards design
 - Teaches SFLLs to students
5. Practices Related to LC Instruction = 11 codes
- Materials include multimedia
 - Planning includes knowing student needs
 - Starting to use LC instruction
 - Ts gives Ss choices
 - TC instruction limited to telling stories in TL
 - Ts encourage student questions
 - TL motivation begins with Ss making basic requests
 - TL motivation using topics relevant to Ss
 - TL motivation using role-play
 - Use of learning centers
 - Uses LC objectives when planning
6. Practices Related to SB-LC Instruction = 8 codes
- Assesses learning through student survey

- Assesses learning through student performance
 - Assesses learning by observing
 - Assesses learning through SOPA
 - Measures progress using student portfolios
 - Planning includes thematic units
 - Ts promote Ss creative use of TL
 - Ts role to set reasonable expectations
7. Direct Challenges Implementing SB-LC Instruction = 14 codes
- Challenges with classroom management
 - Challenges teaching in TL
 - Challenges finding materials
 - Challenges integrating language and culture
 - Challenges special to Chinese teachers in U.S.
 - Challenges with multiple levels in same class
 - Challenges with class size
 - Challenges with class length
 - Challenges using standards with novice learners
 - Challenges with room design-location
 - Challenges with student motivation
 - Frustration related to various causes
 - Ss refuse to speak TL
 - T views classroom management as most difficult
8. Managing LC Classrooms = 13 codes
- TL motivation by classroom routines
 - TL motivation from repetition
 - TL motivation is to assess speaking-listening
 - TL motivation starts with basic requests
 - TL motivation through rewards
 - TL motivation using relevant student topics
 - TL motivation with visuals
 - TL is form of classroom management
 - Keep students busy to avoid bad behavior
 - Teacher must build relationships
 - Students motivated when teacher viewed as helpful
 - TC instruction limited to introduce new concepts/structures
 - Planning includes knowing student needs*
9. Indirect Challenges Implementing SB-LC Instruction = 10 codes
- Assesses learning using requirements
 - Assesses learning with required diction

- Planning includes creating curriculum
 - Planning includes POS
 - Planning includes textbook*
 - Planning using required curriculum
 - Planning with required lesson plan template
 - Ts role differs from child to adult student
 - TC instruction used to prepare for test
 - Teaching and learning Chinese is difficult
10. Culture of Education (China vs. U.S.) = 11 codes
- Experience teaching in China
 - Recognizes influence of Chinese culture of education
 - Recognizes language learners need less TC instruction
 - Teacher must build relationships
 - Teacher should be respected
 - Teacher is boss
 - Teacher gives structured activities
 - Teacher role to provide good examples-models
 - Teacher role to give feedback and monitor progress
 - TC instruction to prepare students for written test*
 - Teacher prefers to work with more advanced students
11. Important to Teachers = 13 codes
- English used for instructions
 - Keep Ss busy to avoid bad behavior*
 - Support of colleagues
 - Ts extend learning to government funded programs
 - Teacher role is to teach learning strategies
 - Teacher role is to grow Chinese language program
 - Ts understand language and identity of Ss
 - Teacher wants class to go smoothly-good experience
 - Teacher must build relationships*
 - Teacher should be respected
 - Teaching to MI is important
 - TL motivation from parents
 - Uses content standards more than SFLL
12. Desire to Change-Improve Teaching = 1 code
- Interview helped reflection on teaching

*Repeated from another category

APPENDIX N: RESEARCH DESIGN MATRIX

Research Question	RQ1. How do the self-reported pedagogical beliefs of Chinese language teachers in this study reflect standards-based, learner-centered instruction?	RQ2. How do the self-reported and observed instructional practices of Chinese language teachers in this study reflect standards-based, learner-centered instruction?	RQ3. In what ways are their pedagogical beliefs of the teachers in this study congruent and incongruent with their instructional practices?
Purpose of Question: <i>To gain understanding of teachers'...</i>	1.1 Knowledge of the SFLL and learner-centered instruction 1.2 Attitudes and impact of standards-based, learner-centered instruction 1.3 Beliefs about teacher-centered instruction 1.4 Beliefs about the teacher's role in a language classroom 1.5 Beliefs about how students learn best 1.6 Decisions for planning standards-based, learner-centered instruction	2.1 Description of standards-based activities 2.2 Description of learner-centered activities 2.3 Description of standards-based learner-centered assessments 2.4 Use of target language during instruction 2.5 Error correction for student speaking and writing	3.1 Congruency between beliefs and practices 3.2 Challenges implementing standards-based, learner-centered instruction 3.3 Cultural differences and the professional lives of language teachers
Data Collected to Answer Question	1. Survey Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11, 14, 20 2. Interview Questions 2a,b; 3, 5a, b; 6a, b; 8	1. Survey Items: 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15, 16, 20 2. Interview Questions 4; 5c; 6bi; 8 3. Observation Field Notes	1. Survey Items: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19 2. Interview Questions 2a, 6bii; 7; 8 3. Observation Field Notes

Methodology	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. SPSS: Descriptive statistics on closed-response survey items 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8 9, 10, 11,12, 13, 14, 15, 16 2. Survey Monkey text analysis and hand-coded responses for open-response survey Items 4, 17, 18, 19, 20 3. Hyper Research: Coding and categorizing interview transcripts 4. Researcher data analysis memos for 17 teacher interviews and 7 classroom observations.
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BIOGRAPHY

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