

**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**PERCEPTIONS OF PRIMARY, SECONDARY, AND HIGH SCHOOL
STUDENTS REGARDING NATIVE AND NONNATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKING
TEACHERS IN AN EFL CONTEXT**

Cemre ÖZKAN

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA / 2024

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Cemre ÖZKAN

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Yonca ÖZKAN

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Eser ÖRDEM

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Meryem AKÇAYOĞLU

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA / 2024

To ukurova University Institute of Social Sciences,

We certify that this thesis is satisfactory for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in the Department of English Language Teaching.

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Yonca  ZKAN

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Meryem AKAYOĞLU

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Eser  RDEM

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Cemre ÖZKAN

ABSTRACT**PERCEPTIONS OF PRIMARY, SECONDARY, AND HIGH SCHOOL
STUDENTS REGARDING NATIVE AND NONNATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKING
TEACHERS IN AN EFL CONTEXT****Cemre ÖZKAN****Master Thesis, Department of English Language Teaching****Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Yonca ÖZKAN****February 2024, 69 pages**

Changes and developments in fields such as economics, education, finance, and history have influenced the status of English worldwide and given it global importance. The abovementioned fields have contributed to the popularization of English in various aspects and led to the acceptance of English as a lingua franca. The purpose of this study was to explore the perspectives of primary, secondary, and high school students at a school where English is taught as a foreign language by native and non-native English-speaking teachers. Additionally, the approaches and methods used by native and non-native English-speaking teachers, and the behaviors and attitudes of students toward their teachers were observed in the classroom context. In this research study, data were collected through a Likert-scale questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, and classroom observations. A total of 103 students (17 primary, 49 secondary, and 37 high school students) receiving education at a private school responded to the questionnaire. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 12 students chosen via convenience sampling, and a total of six classroom observations were conducted. Students evaluated the strengths and weaknesses of native and non-native English-speaking teachers on specific topics in detail, and the results revealed that students learn more about different cultures and acquire skills in English with their native English-speaking teachers, while their non-native English-speaking teachers empathize with the language learning process of students. Students also evaluated several criteria to distinguish native speakers from non-native speakers of English and concluded that skin color or being born in a country where English is spoken as a mother tongue does not determine whether a person's mother

tongue is English or not. Additionally, the results of the classroom observation were consistent with the results of the questionnaire and interviews. This study aims to make important contributions to the field of English language teaching and has implications for native and non-native English instructors and teachers, material developers, and curriculum designers.

Keywords: English language teaching (ELT), English as a foreign language (EFL), native English-speaking teachers (NESTs), non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), classroom practices.



ÖZET

İNGİLİZCENİN YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRETİLDİĞİ BİR ORTAMDA İLKOKUL, ORTAOKUL VE LİSE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN ANADİLİ İNGİLİZCE OLAN VE OLMAYAN ÖĞRETMENLER İLE İLGİLİ ALGILARI

Cemre ÖZKAN

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

Danışman: Prof. Dr. Yonca ÖZKAN

Şubat 2024, 69 sayfa

Dünya üzerinde geçmişten bugüne ekonomi, eğitim, finans ve tarih vb. alanlarda yaşanan değişim ve gelişimler İngilizcenin dünyadaki statüsünü etkilemiş ve küresel yönden önemli bir yere taşımıştır. Bahsi geçen alanlar çeşitli yönleriyle İngilizcenin yaygınlaşmasına yardımcı olmuş ve İngilizcenin ortak dil olarak kabul edilmesine yön vermiştir. Bu çalışmada amaç İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretildiği bir okulda eğitim görmekte olan ilkökul, ortaokul ve lise öğrencilerinin, ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan öğretmenler konusundaki bakış açılarını ortaya çıkarmaktır. Ek olarak ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan öğretmenlerin sınıf ortamında uyguladıkları yaklaşım ve yöntemler incelenmiş, öğrencilerin öğretmenlerine yönelik davranış ve tutumları gözlemlenmiştir. Çalışmanın verileri, Likert ölçekli anket, yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler ve sınıf içi gözlemler yoluyla elde edilmiştir. Özel bir kurumda eğitim görmekte olan 17 ilkökul, 49 ortaokul ve 37 lise öğrencisi olmak üzere toplamda 103 öğrenci anketi cevaplamış, katılımcılardan kolayda örnekleme yöntemiyle seçilen 12 öğrenci ile görüşmeler yapılmış ve toplamda altı adet sınıf gözlemi gerçekleştirilmiştir. Öğrenciler ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan öğretmenlerin belirli konular üzerindeki avantaj ve dezavantajlarını detaylı bir şekilde değerlendirmiş olup, elde edilen sonuçlara göre ana dili İngilizce olan öğretmenlerden kültürel ve dil becerileri konusunda daha çok bilgi alırken, ana dili İngilizce olmayan öğretmenlerin, dil öğrenim sürecinde öğrencilere karşı daha çok empati kurabildiği kanısına varılmıştır. Ayrıca, ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan kişilerin ayırt edilebilmesi konusunda belirli ölçütleri değerlendirmiş olup, ten rengi veya İngilizcenin ana dil olarak konuşulduğu bir ülkede doğmuş olmanın, bir kişinin ana dilinin İngilizce

olup olmaması konusunda belirleyici bir ölçüt olmadığı kanısına varmışlardır. Yapılan sınıf içi gözlemlerde de anket ve görüşme sonuçlarıyla örtüşen sonuçlara varılmıştır. Bu çalışma, ilkokul, ortaokul ve lise kademelerinden öğrencilerin görüşlerini bir arada sunması sebebiyle, İngiliz dili eğitimi alanına önemli katkılarda bulunup çalışmanın yürütüldüğü kuruma, bu alanda kendilerini geliştirmek isteyen, ana dili İngilizce olan ve olmayan öğretmenlere, konu üzerinde inceleme ve çalışmalar yapan araştırmacılara ve bilim insanlarına bilgiler sunacaktır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İngiliz dili eğitimi, İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretilmesi, ana dili İngilizce olan öğretmenler, ana dili İngilizce olmayan öğretmenler, sınıf içi uygulamalar.



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ABBREVIATIONS

ELF: English as a Lingua Franca

ELT: English Language Teaching

NES: Native English Speaker

NNES: Non-native English Speaker

NEST: Native English-speaking Teacher

NNEST: Non-native English-speaking Teacher

WE: World Englishes



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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

English Language Teaching (ELT) is a complex and ever-evolving field, with new theories and practices constantly emerging. Since the evaluation of the English language as a lingua franca in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, depending on the fact that the British Empire exported the language to all countries on the earth, the need for speaking English has gradually increased.

One of the most frequent debates in ELT is the conflict between native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs). The NESTs versus NNESTs dichotomy has been a target topic for researchers and practitioners alike for several decades, with studies showing varying perspectives and attitudes towards the two groups of teachers.

Previous research has shown that the perceived superiority of NESTs over NNESTs is a deeply engrained belief in the field of ELT (Phillipson, 1992; Kachru, 1992). Some studies have argued that NESTs are considered to have an innate ability to teach English effectively, as well as a cultural understanding of the language that NNESTs may lack (Canagarajah, 1999). On the other hand, other researchers have argued that NNESTs bring unique cultural insights and linguistic competence that can enhance the learning experience for their students (Baker & Syal, 1997; Lazaraton, 2001).

Despite the divided views on the topic, the NESTs versus NNESTs dichotomy continues to be a relevant and constant issue in ELT. Considering the increasing globalization of ELT and the growing number of NNESTs in the field, it is essential to examine the impact of teacher identity on language acquisition and teaching effectiveness. This study aims to explore the perceptions and attitudes of primary, secondary, and high school students towards NESTs and NNESTs in ELT, as well as to examine the factors that contribute to the eternalization of the NESTs versus NNESTs dichotomy.

Through a comprehensive review of the existing literature and empirical data, this study will help further develop a deeper understanding of the challenges of the NESTs and NNESTs conflict and its implications for the ELT field. The findings of this research study will offer insightful information for educators, policymakers, and language learners

and help to inform the development of inclusive and effective language teaching practices.

1.2. Background of the Study

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context in Turkey is one of the most significant language education contexts globally, given that Turkey is located at the crossroads of Europe and Asia, and English language proficiency is considered a crucial factor for social and economic mobility. The field of EFL in Turkey has been rapidly changing, and the emphasis on English language education has increased dramatically in recent years.

In this context, two groups of English language teachers are recognized: Native English-speaking Teachers (NESTs) and Non-native English-speaking Teachers (NNESTs). The dichotomy between these two groups have been a source of controversy and debate in the field of TEFL, and it has led to the discussion of the roles and competencies of NESTs and NNESTs in the EFL classroom.

The controversy surrounding NESTs and NNESTs is rooted in the belief that native-English speaking teachers have a natural advantage in teaching the language due to their linguistic and cultural knowledge. On the other hand, it is believed that NNESTs bring with them a unique perspective and insights into the language learning process, having experienced the same difficulties and challenges as their students.

Several studies have been conducted on the topic of NESTs and NNESTs in EFL contexts, and they have produced mixed results. For example, a study conducted by Cenkci and Ozoguz (2015) found that NESTs outperformed NNESTs in terms of their language proficiency and teaching effectiveness. In contrast, a study by Mackey and Gass (2005) found that NNESTs were more effective in promoting student motivation and language learning.

Given the conflicting findings in the literature, there is a need for further research on the dichotomy between NESTs and NNESTs in the EFL context, particularly in the field of English language teaching in Turkey. There is no previous research that focuses on the same issue with a wider range including all K-12 learners in an EFL context. The purpose of this study is to investigate the experiences and perceptions of primary, secondary, and high school students on their NESTs and NNESTs in the EFL classroom in Turkey and to determine the factors that contribute to their effectiveness as teachers.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

English is known and acknowledged as the lingua franca, making it a common way of communication for people whose mother tongues are different. Many other languages performed as a lingua franca throughout history; however, English has long served as a lingua franca since the 16th century in the wake of social and political developments (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011). It has become a vital and needed tool in communication with other world citizens from different parts of the world, developing as a lingua franca used by millions of people to communicate with one another. It is often referred to as a "practical tool" as well as a "working language" (Crystal, 2003). Almost every one out of four English speakers globally are a native speaker (NES) (Seidlhofer, 2005).

Considering today's language context, NNES will overtake and exceed NES in the number of users in 50 years (Graddol, 1999). With the widespread technological developments and changes through time, the globalization process has taken place in a significant number of places in the world, leading to the need to teach, learn and use English. The immense spread of the language highlights the language's current condition as a lingua franca and highlights the significance of learning and understanding English. Along with the focus on English's worldwide standing and as a lingua franca, many researchers have had concerns about the issue's implications for the field of education. According to Canagarajah (2014), various instructional methods appropriate for English users should be used. Additionally, rather than teaching specific norms, Canagarajah also suggests focusing on "context and interaction specific communicative practices to help them achieve intelligibility."

In Turkey, English has long been at the center of the conversation about foreign language education. As stated in the MoNE (2018) curriculum, the recent curricular model focuses on the communicative role of English to convey needs and wants, express opinions and beliefs, and build relationships. In the Turkish EFL context, most ELF communication occurs among NNES, with very few NES involved. The debate over native speaker standards and the native speaker model transformed due to the increasing importance of English and its educational consequences, and the argument of whether NESTs (native English-speaking teachers) are better than NNESTs (non-native English-speaking teachers) became quite controversial.

Primary, secondary, and high school students who were the participants of this study are learners of English as a foreign language. Since learners between the mentioned groups develop certain attitudes and opinions towards their teachers, they were observed in their classroom context on their perceptions and attitudes towards both their NESTs and NNESTs consisting of giving constructive feedback, classroom management.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to explore the perceptions of primary, secondary, and high school students towards their native English-speaking teachers (NEST) and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) who work in private schools throughout an academic year. This study intends to highlight the perceptions of participants on their NESTs and NNESTs under the motivation, effective feedback, and changes in behavior towards each other.

Due to a lack of a study on this topic, including the student population enrolled in primary, secondary, and high school levels, this study aims to observe and analyze the classrooms of NESTs and NNESTs in primary, secondary, and high school levels. Even though a few studies have been conducted in Turkey (Demir, 2011; Demir, 2012; İnçeçay & Atay, 2008; Meşincigiller & Akçan, 2015; Şahin, 2005; Üstünoğlu, 2007; Yılmaz, 2006) to explore students' perceptions and attitudes toward NESTs and NNESTs, there may not exist a research study embracing primary, secondary, and high school levels altogether.

This study tries to fill this gap by collecting data from students, NESTs, and NNESTs on their attitudes and preferences toward one another and the reasons for those attitudes and priorities on a scale as large as this one.

1.5. Research Questions

The main goal of this study is to identify how primary, secondary, and high school students perceive their NESTs and NNESTs and whether their attitude and points of view show any changes in their classroom context. The study also tries to reveal whether age range has any impact on their perceptions towards the NESTs and NNESTs. It also aims to identify the advantages and disadvantages of having NESTs and NNESTs as instructors of English.

Concerning the purpose of the study, the research questions below are aimed to be answered clearly:

1. What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL primary, secondary, and high school students towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers?
2. What are the benefits and drawbacks of having native and non-native English-speaking teachers according to Turkish EFL primary, secondary, and high school students?
3. What are the attitudes of Turkish EFL primary, secondary, and high school students towards their native and non-native English-speaking teachers?

1.6. Significance of the Study

This study investigates the perceptions of primary, secondary, and high school students towards their NESTs and NNESTs. Since primary, secondary, and high school students are considered sensitive when showing emotions, observing attitudes in and out of the classroom is vital. Thus, this can lead to changes in motivation-related issues and received feedback from both parties. Interviews, narratives, reflections, and surveys were the most used tools in previous studies (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). Conducting observations helps investigate NESTs and NNESTs in the authentic classroom context and students' attitudes considering the two types of teachers.

Moreover, it is essential to highlight the differences and similarities between NESTs and NNESTs regarding attitudes and pedagogical development since it is a determinant factor circling students' perspectives. Additionally, it may affect the way teachers behave in the classroom context. In this study, triangulation is assured by using questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and classroom observations.

This study also adopts a multidimensional approach by investigating the attitudinal changes of Turkish EFL primary, secondary, and high school students towards their NESTs and NNESTs, similarities and differences between the attitudes in terms of two different contexts, namely classrooms of native and non-native teachers, to put forward a detailed understanding of how other parameters affect the classroom context.

1.7. Limitations

The current study is restricted to a single private secondary school in Adana, Turkey. Accordingly, the findings of the current study cannot be applied to all primary, secondary, and high school students enrolled in both public and private schools.

1.8. Key Terms

English as a Lingua Franca (ELF): The use of English as a means to communicate between people who do not have the same mother tongue (Seidlhofer, 2005).

English Language Teaching (ELT): A general term related to teaching English to speakers whose native language is not English (Smith, 2004).

Native Speaker (NS): An individual who has been exposed to a language since childhood (Cook, 1999).

Non-native Speaker (NNS): An individual who speaks any language as a second or foreign language (Cook, 1999).

Native English-speaking Teacher (NEST): An English teacher whose mother tongue is English.

Non-native English-Speaking Teacher (NNEST): An English teacher whose mother tongue is not English.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, the theoretical background and topics that underpin the study are introduced. Firstly, the theoretical framework is explained at the very beginning, followed by the literature discussion about both educational and professional situations that native and non-native English-speaking teachers currently have. Furthermore, theoretical definitions of NEST and NNEST, the benefits and drawbacks of native and non-native English-speaking teachers, and some research on students' and teachers' perceptions of the terms NEST and NNEST are presented.

The chapter begins with a detailed explanation of the role of the English language in the world, and it continues with a discussion of the power of language. Then, linguistic imperialism, language ownership, and speech discrimination follow. Since these issues are considerably related, their impact on the NEST and NNEST dichotomy, which is the essence of the study, is colossal. By scrutinizing the aforementioned topics, the reader is presented with a broad perspective on the NESTs and NNESTs dichotomy.

2.1. The role of English in the world

English has been firmly functioning as a "lingua franca" since the 16th century, resulting from the domination of the British Empire in many regions all over the world, and the need for the language considerably increased in the late 19th and early 20th centuries after social, political, and technological developments. The rise in the use of language is viewed by some of the researchers as a consequence of globalization and its economic aspects (Graddol, 1997, 2006). On the contrary, other scholars consider it a result of colonialism and imperialism (Philipson, 1992). Crystal (2003) discusses how colonialism, trade, and technological advancements have helped the English language to spread all around the world in his book "English as a Global Language". Due to these facts, the English language has gained an invaluable position in nearly every country and region throughout the world. It is believed that there is currently no other language that can conquer the steadfast place that English holds when compared with English according to its swift expansion, numerous functionalities, and globality (Kachru & Smith, 2008).

The impact of English as a lingua franca extends across various sectors such as aviation, science, technology, and particularly in international business, where it is

considered the main medium of communication. Batjargal and Meyer (2019) emphasize the role of English proficiency in facilitating cross-border business attractions and enhancing competitiveness in the global market.

In the realm of education, English language teaching (ELT) has undergone significant transformations due to the language's lingua franca status. This status has also given the language a profound effect on both the language itself and the field of English language teaching (ELT) (Hadla, 2013). Holliday and Hyde (2017) argue that ELT pedagogy must adapt to accommodate diverse linguistic and cultural contexts, reflecting the changing dynamics of English as a global language.

Even though it might be considered that English is the language of international communication, in some parts of the world, particularly in areas where indigenous languages are prevalent, the language may have limited or no usage (Crystal, 2003). Recent ethnographic studies, such as Block and Cameron's (2020), explore how local languages coexist with English and the socio-cultural implications of linguistic diversity. Estimations indicate that English will maintain its status as a lingua franca, albeit with potential shifts in influence. The emergence of English variants is considered, such as World Englishes, and their impact on language policies and practices worldwide (Phillipson, 2018).

The role of English as a lingua franca is a complex phenomenon shaped by historical legacies, economic forces, and cultural dynamics. Understanding its implications requires interdisciplinary perspectives that encompass linguistics, sociology, and global studies.

2.2. Reasons for the Spread of English in the World

2.2.1. Historical Reasons

During the British colonial period, English was introduced to various parts of the world due to colonial expansion (Kachru, 1992). Hall (2019) emphasizes the complex dynamics of British imperialism and its impacts on language policies in colonized territories. At its height, the British Empire covered more than a quarter of the world's land mass, including most of North America, India, Australia, Africa, and the rest of the world (McCrum et al., 2010). Jasanoff (2019) offers nuanced insights into the diverse experiences of colonial subjects within the British Empire.

English was introduced as an administrative, educational, and commercial language in these colonies, and became widely adopted by the local population (Crystal, 2003). Seargeant (2021) explores the sociolinguistic dimensions of English colonization and its enduring impact on language attitudes and identities in post-colonial societies. In many former colonies, English continues to wield influence as the language of power and prestige.

Mesthrie and Bhatt (2020) examine the ongoing role of English in shaping social hierarchies and access to opportunities in post-colonial contexts. The association between proficiency in English and socio-economic advancement remains a prominent feature of post-colonial societies. Recent research, such as that of Pennycook (2017), critically examines the intersections of language, power, and globalization, highlighting the unequal distribution of linguistic resources and its implications for social justice.

In conclusion, the colonial legacy of English as a global language continues to be a subject of scholarly inquiry, with recent research offering new and recent perspectives on its historical roots and contemporary manifestations. Understanding the complexities of language and imperialism requires interdisciplinary approaches that draw on insights from history, linguistics, sociology, and post-colonial studies.

2.2.2. Economic Reasons

The ongoing economic transition across the globe has been accelerating at a remarkable pace since the mid-20th century, shaping the interconnectedness of nations and the structure of global trade. Global trade has become a vital part of the global economy as the need for exportation and importation arises day by day. Piketty (2014) and Rodrik (2011) analyze the dynamics of economic globalization and its implications for various regions.

Global trade has emerged as a fundamental driver of the global economy, with the exchange of goods and services becoming increasingly vital for national prosperity. Trade flows in shaping economic development and income distribution worldwide are considered significant (Krugman & Obstfeld, 2018). In this competitive and interdependent economic landscape, effective communication and advanced manufacturing technologies are indispensable. Baldwin (2016) emphasizes how technological advancements, such as automation and digitalization, are reshaping global value chains and production networks.

The ongoing economic trends are critical for sustaining English as a global trade language. The evolution of the global economy influences the diffusion and dominance of languages, with English emerging as a main medium of communication in international business (Wade, 2018). The correlation between the globalized economy and the increased usage of English is extensively studied. Sachs and Warner (2001) demonstrate the positive relationship between English proficiency and economic growth, particularly in the context of developing countries striving for industrialization and modernization.

In today's fast-paced economic environment, the rapid exchange of information is essential for businesses and industries to remain competitive. This urgency highlights the importance of English proficiency for both national and multinational corporations. Ghemawat (2017) underlines the role of language skills in enhancing cross-border collaboration and market access.

As a result, as the global economy continues to evolve, the significance of English as a lingua franca for trade, commerce, and economic development will remain paramount. Investing in English language education and proficiency is essential for individuals, organizations, and nations seeking to navigate and succeed in the modern economic landscape.

2.2.3. Demographic Reasons

Over four decades, the number of users of English has been immensely increasing due to its spread over societies throughout the globe and its variety of functions. The key elements influencing the change, rotation, and spread of the English language are demographic changes, technology, and the economy (Graddol, 2006). In today's globalized world, it is estimated that there are over one billion people who are learning English, and the number is expected to grow in the long term. British Council suggests that as of 2000, there were 750 million EFL (English as a foreign language) speakers. More than 70% of the scientists around the world read in English. Nearly 85% of emails are written in English, and 90% of the information obtained from digital databases is in English.

2.3. Power of the English Language

The English language occupies an unprecedented position of power and influence in the modern world. It has become the lingua franca of international communication,

diplomacy, science, business, and technology. This power stems from its widespread usage and economic, cultural, and political dominance of English-speaking countries. The English language serves as a bridge between diverse cultures, facilitating trade, diplomacy, and global cooperation. Moreover, English is the common language of the Internet, providing access to a wealth of information and opportunities for those who know how to navigate it. Its dominance is evidenced by its status as the most extensively learned second language in the world, with millions of non-native speakers striving to achieve fluency.

However, the emergence of English as a global language is closely intertwined with its historical roots in colonialism and imperialism. During the British colonial period, English was imposed on various regions as the language of administration, education, and commerce. This colonial legacy has left lasting impacts on language policies, education systems, and cultural practices in post-colonial societies. Recent research by Gopal (2019) and Pennybacker (2019) examines the complex intersections of language, power, and colonialism, highlighting the contested nature of English as a global lingua franca.

Ashman and Lee (2006) argue that power, politics, and a variety of social issues have influenced language teaching and learning, emphasizing the importance of socio-cultural considerations beyond the educational course. Therefore, terms such as native language, English-speaking background (ESB), non-English-speaking background (NESB), foreign language, second language, indigenous language, and languages have been introduced to the field of education to reflect this complexity.

Concerns about linguistic imperialism and cultural homogenization persist in discussions surrounding the global dominance of English. Phillipson (2015) and Kachru (2019) have explored the potential negative consequences of the dominant status of English, advocating for a balanced approach that respects linguistic diversity while recognizing the practical utility of English as a global tool. Recent research conducted by Pennycook (2017) and Flores (2019) dive into these issues, highlighting the need for inclusive language policies and practices that empower marginalized linguistic communities.

While the English language has emerged as a powerful lingua franca in the modern world, its rise is inseparable from its historical connections to colonialism and imperialism. Phillipson (1992) and Kachru (1992) have explored the potential negative consequences of English's global dominance, emphasizing the need for a balanced approach that respects the linguistic diversity while recognizing the practical utility of the

English language as a worldwide tool. Acknowledging this complex legacy is essential for understanding the dynamics of language power and promoting linguistic justice in global contexts.

2.4. Ownership of the English Language

The concept of ownership regarding the English language is complex and multifaceted, as highlighted by contemporary scholars such as Alastair Pennycook, Robert Phillipson, and Braj Kachru. These scholars have contributed to understanding the intricate relationship between language, power, and globalization.

Pennycook delves into the intricate dynamics of language ownership and its intersection with issues of cultural identity and globalization in his influential work including “The Cultural Politics of English as an International Language” (2017), and “Language and Mobility: Unexpected Places” (2020). Phillipson (2015) examines the influence of English as a global language on linguistic diversity and calls attention to the dominance of English-speaking countries in shaping language policies worldwide. Kachru (1992) has shed light on the diversity of English language use and the need to move beyond native-speaker norms in understanding its global spread in his works including “The Other Tongue: English Across Cultures”. These scholars highlight that language, as an intangible and shared resource, cannot be owned exclusively by any single group or entity. They emphasize the need to recognize linguistic diversity and value all contributions to the evolution of the English language.

Discussion informed by the works of these scholars underscores the importance of promoting linguistic equity and inclusivity in language education and policymaking. Efforts to empower marginalized communities and promote social justice aim to counteract the negative effects of linguistic imperialism and cultural hegemony associated with the global dominance of English.

The contributions to the English language teaching (ELT) field by scholars including Pennycook, Phillipson, and Kachru offer valuable insights into the complexities of language ownership and its implications for power dynamics, cultural identity, and social justice. By critically examining the historical and modern forces shaping the English language, their work contributes to a deeper understanding of the challenges and opportunities associated with linguistic diversity in the modern world.

2.4.1. Who Owns English?

As a global language, English has been heavily influenced by various linguistic traditions and cultures. Crystal (2003) describes it aptly as a "borrowed language," emphasizing the varied origins of its vocabulary and grammar, which include influences from Latin, Greek, French, and Germanic languages. It is a language that has evolved as a result of interactions with numerous linguistic communities, and its evolution cannot be attributed to a single entity or group.

The ownership of English is frequently linked to issues of power, representation, and linguistic imperialism. The historical colonial legacies of English-speaking countries have held a significant influence over the language's global spread, raising concerns about linguistic hegemony (Phillipson, 1992). In this context, the concept of ownership leads to a broader discussion about linguistic diversity, equitable access to the language's benefits, and the need to respect the diverse contributions to its evolution. In simple terms, the number of individuals and communities who use English as a means of communication collectively own it, and its future growth will be formed by the interactions of its global speakers.

2.4.2. World Englishes

Varieties of English, also known as World Englishes, refer to the numerous regional, social, and cultural adaptations of the English language spoken worldwide, challenging the idea of a single "standard" or "correct" English and highlighting linguistic adaptation and resilience while emphasizing the importance of language in expressing identity and culture. The aforementioned variations arose due to historical, sociopolitical, and linguistic factors, resulting in various forms of English alongside distinct vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and usage patterns. These variations demonstrate the dynamic nature of language and its ability to evolve in diverse sociocultural contexts.

Jenkins (2015) and Sharma (2019) have explored the sociolinguistic factors influencing the development and spread of World Englishes, shedding light on the complex interplay between language, culture, and identity. The study of English variations has grown in popularity in linguistics and sociolinguistics because it provides insights into the dynamic nature of language and its interaction with culture and identity.

Scholars like Kachru (1985) and Schneider (2007) have made significant contributions to the study of World Englishes, advocating for an understanding of and

respect for linguistic diversity in a global context. Kachru (1980) introduced the Three Circles Model where he uses the term "Inner Circle" to refer to countries which include the United States, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and Canada. The "Outer Circle" refers to countries in which English has official or historical significance. This involves most Commonwealth of Nations countries, including populous nations like India, Pakistan, and Nigeria.

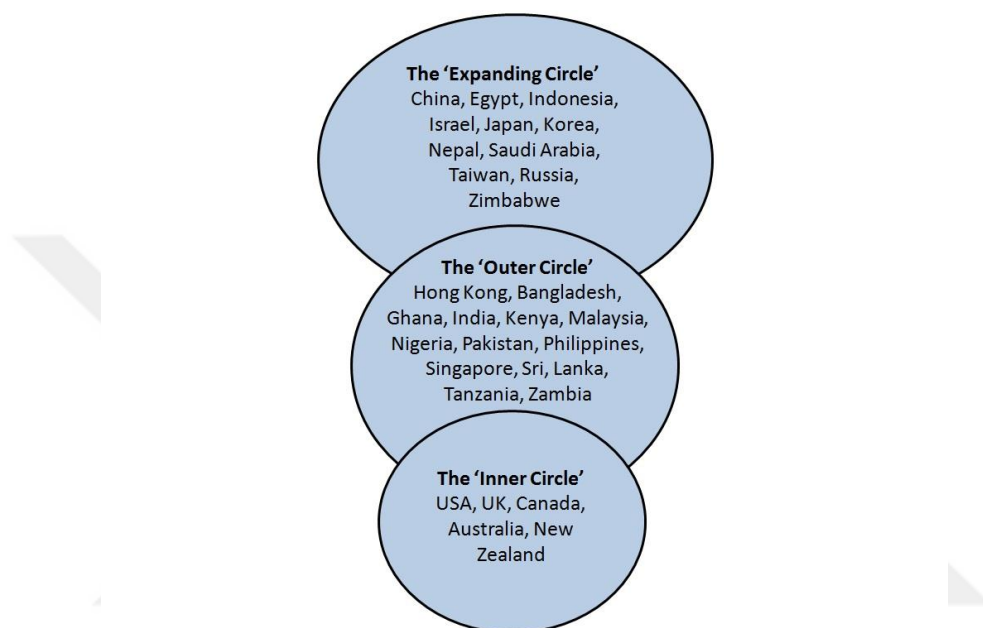


Figure 1. Three concentric circles of English.

Source: Kachru, 2020, p. 605.

In the same way that Australian English speakers are not regarded as non-native speakers of English simply because they do not speak either British or American English, speakers of English in the "Outer Circle" countries cannot be deemed as such merely because they do not speak the central variety of the language (Moussu & Llurda, 2008, p. 317).

Table 1.

Varieties of English

1. Regional Varieties	British English: The English language originated in England, and British English encompasses various regional dialects and accents, which involve Received Pronunciation (RP) and West Country English. American English: The United States has developed its own linguistic variations, including General American, Southern American English, and African American Vernacular English (AAVE).
2. Post-Colonial Varieties	Indian English: English in India reflects the influence of British colonization and local languages, resulting in distinctive features and vocabulary (Kachru, 1986). Nigerian English: Nigeria's complex linguistic landscape has contributed to the development of Nigerian English, marked by indigenous language influence (Bamgbose, 2000). Singaporean English: A multilingual society has given rise to Singaporean English, incorporating elements from Chinese, Malay, Tamil, and other languages (Wee, 2003).
3. Expanding Circle Varieties	Asian English: Countries like Japan, South Korea, and China have seen a surge in English learning, leading to localized varieties influenced by the native languages (Jenkins, 2000). European English: European nations, particularly in Scandinavia and the Netherlands, have their versions of English influenced by their native tongues (Kachru & Nelson, 2006).
4. Pidgins and Creoles	Pidgin English: Pidgins are simplified forms of English used for communication between speakers of different native languages, such as West African Pidgin English. Creole English: Creoles are fully developed languages that have evolved from pidgins, as seen in Jamaican Patois or Hawaiian Pidgin English (Holm, 2000).

Varieties of English put the idea of a single "standard" or "correct" English into question. They demonstrate linguistic adaptation and resilience while emphasizing the importance of language in expressing identity and culture.

Scholars such as Kachru (1985), Kirkpatrick (2021), and Schneider (2007) have made significant contributions to the study of World Englishes, emphasizing the necessity of moving beyond prescriptive notions of language correctness and embracing the richness and diversity of linguistic expression in a global context.

2.4.3. Anglocentrism

Anglocentrism, within the realm of English language teaching, has important implications for both native English speaking (NES) and non-native English

speaking (NNES) educators. The dominance of English as a global language, coupled with an Anglocentric perspective, can unintentionally privilege NES teachers, often diminishing the expertise and contributions of NNES teachers. This phenomenon is evident in recruitment and hiring practices in language teaching institutions, where preferences for NES instructors may prevail, reinforcing a perceived hierarchy between language proficiency and teaching ability.

Medgyes (1992) introduced the concept of the "native speaker fallacy," questioning the assumption that being a native speaker automatically qualifies one as a competent language teacher. This notion highlights the need to recognize and value diverse teaching talents and experiences beyond native speaker status. Additionally, Holliday (2005) argues that Anglocentrism perpetuates native-speaker norms and creates an environment where NNES teachers may face discrimination about language and culture. Recognizing the diverse strengths of both NES and NNES teachers, fostering an inclusive pedagogical climate, and challenging assumptions that perpetuate linguistic hierarchies in English language education are necessary to address Anglocentrism.

Pennycook (2010) has further contributed to the discourse by examining the intersections of language, power, and identity in English language teaching, highlighting the importance of recognizing and valuing diverse linguistic and cultural perspectives in language education, and challenging traditional notions of linguistic authority and proficiency.

To address Anglocentrism in English language teaching, it is essential to acknowledge and appreciate the diverse strengths of both NES and NNES teachers. Fostering an inclusive pedagogical climate involves recognizing the unique perspectives and contributions of all educators, regardless of their linguistic or cultural backgrounds. This requires challenging assumptions and biases that reinforce linguistic hierarchies and promoting professional development opportunities that empower NNES educators.

Furthermore, implementing inclusive hiring and recruitment practices that prioritize teaching expertise and pedagogical skills over native speaker status can help mitigate the effects of Anglocentricism (Holliday, 2005). Byram (1997) emphasizes the importance of intercultural competence and promoting cross-cultural understanding among educators and believes that students alike can also contribute to creating a more equitable learning environment.

Addressing Anglocentrism in English language teaching requires a concerted effort to recognize and value the diverse talents and experiences of both NES and NNES

educators. By fostering inclusivity, challenging assumptions, and promoting cross-cultural understanding, language teaching institutions can work towards creating a more equitable and empowering educational environment for all stakeholders (Pennycook, 2010).

2.5. Language Discrimination

Language discrimination is defined as unequal or biased treatment based on a person's language proficiency, accent, or linguistic background. Discrimination often manifests itself as native speakerism in the context of English language teaching and learning, which favors native English speakers over non-native English speakers (NNESTs) in various aspects of the profession.

Native speakerism is a type of discrimination that occurs when native English speakers are assumed to be naturally better language teachers, resulting in biased hiring procedures, limited professional opportunities, and unequal treatment in ELT contexts (Holliday, 2006). This discrimination stems from the misconception that being a native speaker equates to superior language proficiency and teaching ability.

Holliday (2006) found that native speakerism is expected in the ELT industry, affecting both NNESTs and English language learners. The "native speaker fallacy" (Medgyes, 1994) challenges the assumption that native speakers make superior language teachers, emphasizing that effective language instruction is determined by pedagogical skills and understanding of culture rather than nativeness.

Addressing language discrimination entails encouraging linguistic diversity, challenging stereotypes, and recognizing the critical contributions of both native and non-native English-speaking educators in the field of English language teaching.

2.6. Descriptions for NES and NNEST

The definitions "native" and "non-native" are undoubtedly controversial, particularly in the sociolinguistics of English and its pedagogical measurements. Despite the fact that researchers offer us a wide range of definitions for the terms in question, the precise meaning of those terms continues to remain a source of controversy (Simon and Rebrova, 2001). Bloomfield (1933) states that the first language a person acquires is his native language, whereas Stevens (1982) defines a native English speaker as one who is exposed to English when he is an infant or during his early childhood.

2.7. The Situation of NESTs and NNESTs in ELT

Historically, the ELT profession believed that NESTs were naturally more effective language instructors because of their native-like proficiency. This belief, known as the native speaker fallacy, has been heavily contested in recent literature (Braine, 1999). Braine's seminal work questioned the concept of linguistic nativeness as a marker of teaching competence, prompting a reconsideration of the biases associated with native speaker status.

As globalization has influenced education, classrooms worldwide have become more linguistically diverse. In response, scholars such as Canagarajah (2005) have emphasized recognizing Non-native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) as valuable contributors to the ELT profession. NNESTs provide students with a unique set of insights into language learning processes, including a variety of linguistic models and cultural perspectives.

Based on empirical evidence, pedagogical competence, not nativeness, is a critical factor in effective language instruction (Brutt-Griffler, 2002). Both NESTs and NNESTs demonstrate comparable levels of pedagogical competence, emphasizing the value of factors such as teaching experience, ongoing training, and professional development. This viewpoint advocates a more inclusive approach, emphasizing a shared commitment to continuous learning and growth within the ELT community.

Although progress has been made, stereotypes and biases against NNESTs persist (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). These biases frequently affect the recognition and opportunities available to NNESTs in the ELT profession. Addressing these issues is critical for creating an inclusive environment in which both NESTs and NNESTs can bring their distinct strengths to the field.

Teacher education programs contribute to the perspectives and practices of future ELT professionals. Mahboob and Golden (2013) advocate for the incorporation of NNESTs into these programs, emphasizing cross-cultural competence, linguistic awareness, and reflective teaching practices. Collaborative efforts between NESTs and NNESTs in teacher education programs help to create a more cohesive and globally conscious teaching community.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides a comprehensive outline of the methodology by addressing the essential aspects of the study. Firstly, the research questions are given and explained. Subsequently, the research paradigm and design are clarified, highlighting the rationale for opting for a mixed-method approach. Then, the research setting, and participants are discussed, followed by an overview of data collection tools, and data analysis procedures. Lastly, the chapter delves into ethical considerations and the trustworthiness of the study.

3.1. Research Paradigm

Guba and Lincoln (1994) define a paradigm as a framework associated with a viewpoint that explains the nature of the world, the role of individuals in it, and the possible connections between the world and each of its parts. According to Schwandt (2001), a paradigm is a shared worldview that includes beliefs, values, and potential problem-solving approaches within a field. The research paradigm in the context of a study encapsulates all decisions made during the research process, revealing the researcher's underlying ideology (Creswell, 2007).

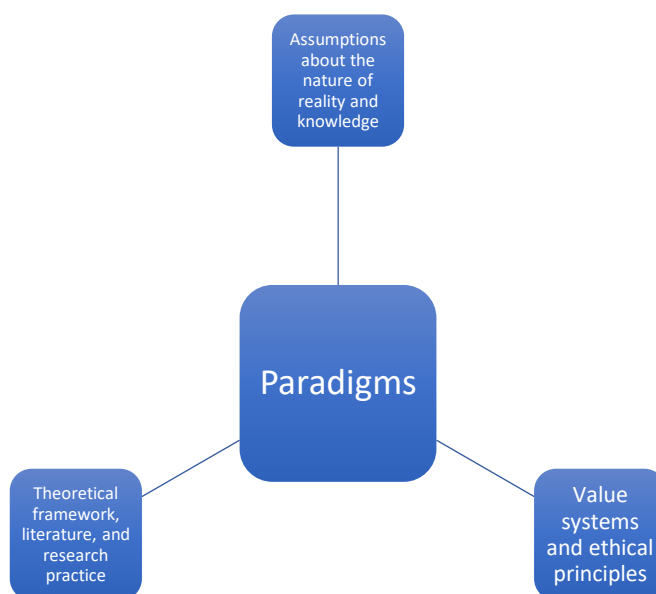


Figure 2. Ways of choosing paradigms

Source: Kawulich and Chilisa, 2012, p. 3.

Different research paradigms are associated with different types of studies. The positivist/post-positivist research paradigm, according to Chilisa (2011), focuses on universal laws that apply to the entire universe. The constructivist/interpretative research paradigm strives to comprehend human nature. The transformative/emancipatory research paradigm aims to dispel myths and motivate societal change. The postcolonial/indigenous research paradigm is linked to prior colonies, with the goal of reconstructing knowledge for transformative social change among oppressed people. Chilisa and Kawulich (2012) point out that there is no single accurate paradigm; the choice is determined by the perspectives of the researcher and how the study is designed.

The constructivist/interpretative paradigm is fundamentally concerned with gaining insights into the everyday interactions of individuals in their natural environments (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012). Research questions are rendered open-ended in this paradigm to avoid prescriptive guidance to participants with the overarching goal of providing refined descriptions of specific situations (Creswell, 2003). Interviews, visual aids, observations, scrutiny of personal and official documents, informal interactions, and the incorporation of drawings are among the data collection tools used within this paradigm (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012).

According to the constructivist/interpretative research paradigm, a single phenomenon can have multiple interpretations. To better grasp the experiences of participants, this research study used the constructivist/interpretative paradigm. The primary objectives were to understand the perceptions of the participants and observe their behaviors towards their NESTs and NNESTs in a natural setting, which is the classroom.

3.2. Research Design

Research design is the comprehensive planning of a study, encompassing the entire process from posing questions to data analysis and reporting (Vaus, 2001). Creswell (2003) observes that technological advancements have influenced changes in research approaches, leading to the formulation of novel research procedures. Furthermore, Creswell (2012) emphasizes the importance of researchers selecting their research design based on the particular research problem and questions they tend to explore. Additionally, Creswell (2014) categorizes the most advanced research designs into quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method research designs.

Quantitative research aims to test theories by analyzing relationships among variables while qualitative research involves an exploration of how individuals or groups interpret a given problem. Creswell (2014) describes mixed-method research as an integration of both quantitative and qualitative data to offer a more comprehensive understanding of a research problem.

3.2.1. Mixed-Method Research Design

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) define mixed-method research design as the incorporation of quantitative and qualitative research methods, techniques, and approaches into one research. The roots of mixed-method research design can be traced back to Campbell and Fiske's (1959) article on the measurement of validation, where they criticized the overreliance and overconfidence in any single type of research method (Brewer & Hunter, 2006). Over the past six decades, there has been an ongoing debate about the validity of mixed-method design compared to strict adherence to a single method or paradigm, with proponents from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives engaging in what Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) referred to as "the paradigm wars".

According to Creswell (2003), the mixed-method approach is associated with establishing claims based on informative foundations. It involves conducting research where both quantitative and qualitative approaches are applied in the collection and analysis of data, integrating the findings (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). The mixed-method research design empowers researchers to articulate, elucidate, investigate, and verify relationships between variables (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012).

In educational research, different types of mixed-method research are commonly employed. Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011) define the four fundamental types of mixed-method research as convergent parallel design, explanatory sequential design, and exploratory sequential design, while transformative design and multiphase design have gained popularity more recently.

3.2.2. The Rationale Behind Adapting Mixed-Method Research Design

As emphasized by Ivankova et al. (2006), the decision to incorporate both quantitative and qualitative approaches in this study is rooted in their capacity to gather precise and comprehensive data on the subject. Watkins & Gioia (2015) explain the initial motive for adopting a mixed-method research design in social sciences is to enhance the

depth of understanding in the research process. In this research study, the overarching objective of employing a mixed-method approach is to gain a more nuanced insight into perceptions of primary, secondary, and high school on their NESTs and NNESTs in a Turkish EFL context. Both quantitative and qualitative data in this study carry great importance. Table 1 presented below aims to define the mixed-method design used to explain each research question in this study.

Table 2.

The mixed-method design procedure of the study

Research Questions	Sampling Technique	Research Tools	Analysis Tools
RQ1: What are the perceptions of Turkish EFL primary, secondary, and high school students towards native and non-native English-speaking teachers?	Convenience Sampling	Likert-scale Questionnaire (n=103)	Descriptive Statistic SPSS 22.0
RQ2: What are the advantages and disadvantages of having both native and non-native English-speaking teachers according to primary, secondary, and high school students?	Convenience Sampling	Semi-structured Interviews (n=12)	Content Analysis QUIRKOS
RQ3: What attitudes do Turkish EFL primary, secondary, and high school students have towards their native and non-native English-speaking teachers?	Convenience Sampling	Field Notes	Content Analysis QUIRKOS

3.3. Selecting Participants

Marshall (1996) highlights the importance of carefully selecting participants in a research study, acknowledging the impracticality of studying the entire relevant population. Deciding on the sampling method carries a critical role and it is a fundamental aspect of a study (Kemper, Stringfield & Teddlie, 2003). According to Kemper et al. (2003), the convenience sampling method requires picking a population from a group that is within the reach of the researcher. The participants in convenience sampling are chosen because they volunteer and are available, and even though they may not represent the entire population, they can offer valuable insights for the study (Creswell, 2012).

In this research study, the convenience sampling method was utilized since the school involves all aforementioned levels and both NESTs and NNESTs, and was easily reachable regarding geographical proximity, enabling the scheduling of the questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, and classroom observations.

3.4. Research Setting

The research site and participants of the study are described in detail in the following parts.

3.4.1. Research Site

The research was conducted in the primary, secondary, and high school departments in a private school in Adana, Turkey.

3.4.2. Participants

This research study involves 103 primary (17), secondary (49), and high school (37) students who received and continue to receive education in a private school in Adana, Turkey.

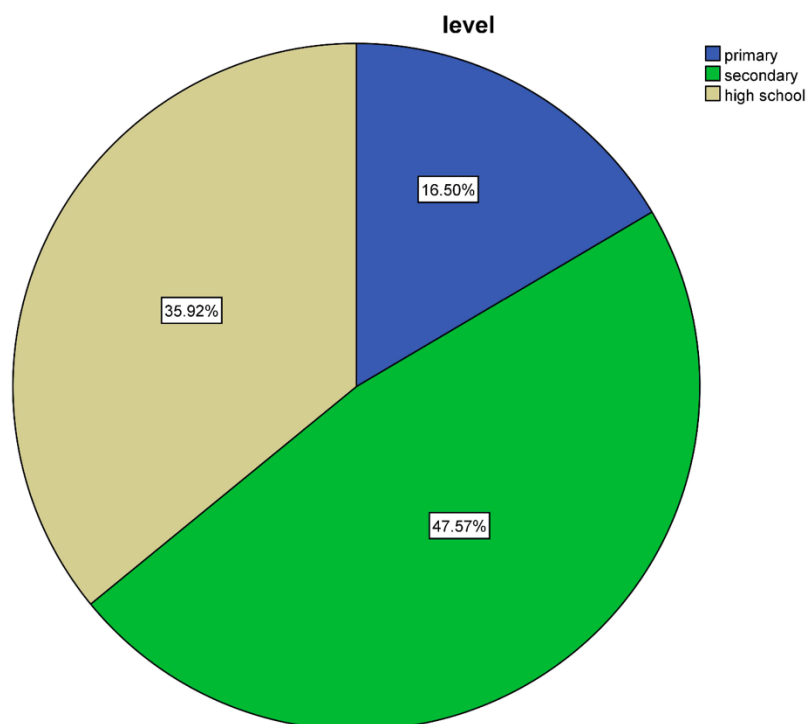


Figure 3. The distribution of participants according to age level

The selection of the participants utilized convenience sampling, which Marshall (1996) defines as a method that involves the selection of the most accessible subjects.

3.5. Data Collection Tools

This research study employed a combination of methods and instruments, including a questionnaire, classroom observation, and semi-structured interviews. Mackey and Gass (2005) define triangulation as the use of multiple instruments to collect data in the research. They emphasize that relying on only one method may not yield sufficient information, and triangulation serves to decrease possible bias while enhancing the validity and reliability of a study. To minimize potential research bias, the study embraced triangulation, obtaining data through diverse tools and methods.

3.5.1. Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a commonly used tool for data collection, as stated by Munn and Drever (1990). Brown (2001) emphasized that questionnaires are written documents containing a series of questions or statements for participants to respond to by writing or selecting answers. Questionnaires are effective for gathering data, allowing participants to express their ideas on an issue or problem (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

In a questionnaire, according to Mackey and Gass (2005), two types of items may be utilized: open-ended items, where participants express ideas in a flexible manner, and close-ended items, where possible answers are predetermined. Close-ended items are easier to quantify, while open-ended items take time to analyze due to including the ideas and thoughts of participants (Mackey and Gass, 2005). Questionnaires offer various advantages, such as being economical and practical, collecting data from numerous participants in a short time, providing comparable information, and allowing different administration methods (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

The questionnaire used in this study was adapted from Hadla (2013). The Cronbach's alpha value of the final version of the questionnaire was calculated to be 0.78. The questionnaire features 25 items on a Likert-type five-point scale, and it aims to explore the perceptions of the student participants toward their NESTs and NNESTs in four main topics: 1) Labels of NEST and NNEST, 2) General Learning with NEST and NNEST, 3) Strengths and Weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs, 4) Classroom Behavior and Responsibility of NESTs and NNESTs. Considering the fact that some of the student

participants have a low level of English, the questionnaire items were translated into Turkish while the questionnaire was conducted.

3.5.2. Semi-structured Interview

Creswell (2012) suggests that to gain a deeper understanding of the data, the researcher poses questions to a participant or a group of participants via an interview by recording their responses. Interviews are divided into three main types: 1) structured, 2) unstructured, and 3) semi-structured. According to the explanations of Mackey and Gass (2005), predetermined questions are used to collect specific data in structured interviews, whereas unstructured interviews resemble unplanned conversations.

Semi-structured interviews include a set of questions designed to explore an issue or a problem without adhering to a specific wording and question order (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Dörnyei suggests that in semi-structured interviews, the interviewer acts as a guide, focusing mainly on obtaining detailed insights about the issue. Galetta (2013) emphasizes the flexibility of this type of interview, as they are well-structured to gather data related to research questions while allowing participants to express their thoughts using their own words. In this study, the initial reason for using a semi-structured interview is to facilitate a flexible conversation while offering participants a chance to provide detailed information about the concern of the research, following the ideas of Tajeddin and Adeh (2016).

In this research study, semi-structured interviews were carried out with 12 participants among primary, secondary, and high school students who also participated in the questionnaire. The participants were chosen in equal numbers; four primary, four secondary, and four high school students. The interviews lasted 7-12 minutes and were conducted after the selected participants completed the questionnaire.

The questions in the semi-structured interview were designed to give more detailed information on some items of the questionnaire, following the suggestions of Mackey and Gass (2005), who described interview topics as mirroring the ones in the questionnaire.

3.5.3. Classroom Observation

Observational data, as Mackey and Gass (2005) highlight, are widely used in second-language research due to their ability to provide detailed insights into a research

problem. They also add that observations allow researchers to gather detailed data on the behavior and actions of the students. Observations, according to Cowie (2009), are the deliberate and detailed assessment of the behavior of the participants in their natural domain. Creswell (2012) explains observations as involving a researcher taking notes on the behavior and actions of participants in a natural setting.

In this study, the researcher carried out two classroom observations for each level (primary, secondary, and high school), both in a NEST's and in a NNEST's lesson. The teachers were chosen by implementing convenience sampling, since in the school where this research study was carried out, there is only one native teacher for each grade. NESTs and NNESTs in this research study were mainly from the countries included in the "Expanding Circle" of Kachru's "Three Circles of English" model (1985).

3.6. Data Analysis Procedure

3.6.1. Pilot Study

Mackey and Gass (2005) define a pilot study as a scaled-down version of a planned procedure, aimed to identify and address potential issues that may occur during data collection. They believe a pilot study serves the purpose of anticipating and resolving problems that might arise (2000) and add to their previous explanation that a pilot study allows researchers to evaluate and revise materials (2005).

A pilot study was carried out with one primary, secondary, and high school class to see if the questionnaire was effective. The Cronbach's alpha score came out as 0.81. In the following phases of the pilot study, the researcher made some revisions by removing and adding items. The finalized version of the questionnaire received a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.78.

3.6.2. Main Data Collection

After conducting the pilot study, and making necessary adjustments to the questionnaire, the main data collection procedure started. Initially, questionnaires were handed out to 103 students from primary, secondary, and high school. All participants filled out the items on the questionnaire. During the questionnaire distribution, participants were briefed on the study's purpose, its voluntary nature, confidentiality, and ethical considerations. They were requested to sign a consent form and indicate their

interest in the interview and classroom observation segments. The questionnaires were distributed in hard copy, and the participants were given 40 minutes to complete them.

Upon receiving the questionnaires, the researcher entered the corresponding data into SPSS version 22.0. Simultaneously, perceptions of primary, secondary, and high school students towards their NESTs and NNESTs were analyzed. The researcher coordinated with 12 student participants from primary, secondary, and high school for semi-structured interviews. Both NESTs and NNESTs were consulted to determine suitable times for classroom observations, considering their weekly schedules.

In the second phase of data collection, classroom observations were conducted for six instructors from Expanding Circle countries, encompassing diverse nationalities (Australian, Gambian, Turkish, and Polish). The observations, each lasting 40 minutes (a standard course duration), were aimed at evaluating and understanding the behavior and attitudes of students towards their NESTs and NNESTs. Before each observation, the instructor introduced the researcher to the students. Throughout the observations, the researcher maintained a detailed research journal to capture nuanced data.

Following the classroom observations, semi-structured interviews were conducted with student participants among those who completed the questionnaire. Participants were given the choice of interview language for enhanced comfort and clarity. On the interview day, participants were reminded of ethical considerations. All interviews took place in an unoccupied classroom, chosen for its conducive and quiet environment for recording. Each interview, by getting permission from the participants, was audio recorded. No time constraints were imposed on the interviews, as the goal was to elicit comprehensive information about the perceptions and opinions of the participants. While interview questions were predetermined, participants were encouraged to freely express their views on relevant topics without limitations.

3.6.3. Quantitative Data Analysis

For the quantitative data analysis in this study, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) edition 22.0 was implemented. SPSS is a comprehensive software suite used for analyzing data, particularly in the social and behavioral sciences (Landau & Everitt, 2004). Larson-Hall (2016) notes that SPSS is among the most widely utilized statistical programs in the social sciences, and researchers in language studies also commonly rely on it.

In the analysis of quantitative data derived from the questionnaire, descriptive statistics were applied to present the responses of participants in a meaningful and informative manner. The analysis involved categorizing the items in the questionnaire using SPSS 22.0 transformation. Also, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was implemented to assess the significant differences between three groups (primary, secondary, and high school students). One-way ANOVA is a powerful statistical tool that allows to compare the means among more than two groups, providing insights into whether there are statistically significant differences among the compared groups (Field, 2013). According to Fidell and Tabachnik (2019), this approach is important in research contexts where multiple groups are being compared, as it allows researchers to efficiently analyze and interpret complex datasets while controlling for potential confounding variables.

The first section of the questionnaire focused on background information, categorized by gender, age, and mother tongue. The questionnaire consisted of 25 items and they were divided into four groups: 1) Labels of NEST and NNEST, 2) General Learning with NESTs and NNESTs, 3) Strengths and Weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs, 4) Classroom Behavior and Responsibility of NESTs and NNESTs. The frequency of the items was presented in tables, including descriptive statistics.

3.6.4. Qualitative Data Analysis

In qualitative research, the data analysis process, as outlined by Creswell (2007), involves the initial steps of preparing and organizing data, forming categories, and presenting findings through tables, figures, or discussions. Merriam (2009) emphasizes that qualitative data analysis is an active, continuous, flexible, and cyclical process, allowing the researcher to base analysis on the initial phases of data collection or continue until all relevant data are obtained. The ultimate goal of qualitative data analysis, according to Creswell (2014), is to explain the meaning inherent in text and image data.

Thematic analysis, a method that systematically categorizes qualitative data, was employed to analyze data collected through the questionnaire, researcher journal, and semi-structured interviews. Thematic analysis, as described by Braun and Clarke (2006), involves six phases: 1) becoming familiar with the data, 2) forming preliminary codes, 3) searching for themes, 4) reviewing for themes, 5) defining and naming themes, and 6) crafting the final report. The analysis of qualitative data obtained from open-ended

questions in the ELF section of the questionnaire involved thematic analysis to eliminate ambiguity and enhance data validity and reliability through colleague support.

For classroom observation data collected through the researcher journal, the notes were initially categorized under three main themes: 1) attitudes and behaviors of NESTs, 2) attitudes and behaviors of NNESTs, and 3) attitudes and behaviors of students. Thematic analysis was applied via Quirkos to discuss and evaluate the classroom practices of participants within these themes.

Thematic analysis, colleague support, and member checking were also utilized for analyzing data from semi-structured interviews. Guest, MacQueen, and Namey (2012) highlight that thematic analysis involves the active involvement and interpretation of the researcher, moving beyond mere counting of words or phrases. Member checking was employed to enhance data validity and minimize the risk of misinterpretation.

3.6.5. Trustworthiness of the Study

In the context of this study, the adoption of quantitative and qualitative approaches necessitates adherence to distinct sets of criteria to ensure trustworthiness. Quantitative research emphasizes objectivity, reliability, and validity, while qualitative methodology is characterized by confirmability, dependability, transferability, and credibility (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). In mixed-method designs, the role of trustworthiness is deemed crucial (Decuir & Gunby, 2008).

Validity, in quantitative research, refers to the extent to which the instruments align with the study's objectives, while reliability gauges the stability and consistency of the tools over time (Creswell, 2012). Objectivity is achieved when validity and reliability are demonstrated in quantitative studies (Krefting, 1991). In this quantitative phase of this study, the Likert-scale questionnaire items were aligned, measuring identical ideas with consistent categorization. Internal consistency, assessed through Cronbach's alpha value, confirmed the coherence of the statements. Pilot tests on the questionnaire established reliability and validity. The language of the questionnaire was clear, minimizing participant comprehension difficulties. To reduce bias, the researcher exclusively conducted surveys.

Credibility, ensuring accurate research results, is particularly critical in qualitative approaches marked by inherent preconceptions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Transferability concerns data usability in various contexts (Guba, 1981). Dependability relies on result

consistency and is facilitated by triangulation. Confirmability involves researchers' efforts to verify results (Reid, 1994). In this research, credibility was enhanced through prolonged data collection, allowing participants to freely express their opinions. Member checking was conducted, and detailed descriptions of the study setting, respondents, and techniques ensured transferability. Dependability was established through member checking and peer assistance, mitigating potential bias. Full disclosure of research data ensured confirmability, and the use of triangulation reduced biases, enhancing validity and reliability (Johnson, 1992).

3.6.6. Ethical Issues

According to Mackey and Gass (2005), ethical considerations in research primarily involve two main issues. 1) obtaining informed consent from participants, which entails providing participants with comprehensive information about the research procedures, purposes, potential risks, benefits, and methodology, as well as ensuring confidentiality, and anonymity, and 2) informing them of their rights as research participants. The second issue revolves around obtaining institutional approval, necessitating clearance from the relevant institution by furnishing detailed information about the study.

In this study, ethical principles and standards were adhered in both research phases. Institutional approval was secured from the head of the school, outlining the purpose of the study, participants, methodology, and overall plan. In the first phase, participants were fully informed about the study, and each participant provided consent by completing the consent form included at the beginning of the questionnaire. It was emphasized that participation was voluntary, participants could withdraw at any time, all data would be treated confidentially and anonymously, and used solely for scientific purposes. To maintain confidentiality and anonymity, participants were assigned identification numbers. Additionally, participants were assured that there were no correct answers, encouraging them to freely express their ideas.

During the second phase, participants voluntarily chose to take part in classroom observations and semi-structured interviews. The participants were reminded of their right to withdraw from the study at any time, and assurances were provided regarding the confidentiality and anonymity of their data. Before classroom observations, the class was informed about the study to create a comfortable environment. Interviews were conducted

in a quiet, comfortable place at a mutually convenient time for the researcher and participants, fostering an environment conducive to the free expression of ideas without stress. The interviews were audio-recorded with the consent of the participants.



CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The main purpose of this chapter is to present the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data gathered through a Likert-scale questionnaire, semi-structured interview, and field notes of classroom observation displayed in figures and tables, in line with the research questions. First, the findings of the Likert-scale questionnaire were illustrated based on the variables analyzed via SPSS 22.0. Then, the results of the semi-structured interviews were classified into themes and codes, which were determined through thematic analysis made via QUIRKOS. Lastly, the field notes of classroom observations were transcribed manually.

Quantitative data was gathered through a Likert-scale questionnaire. The findings of the adapted and designed questionnaire will be presented in four main sections concerning the research questions. The first section of the questionnaire consists of five questions, and it focuses on the perceptions of the students on the labels NEST and NNEST. The second section aims to reveal the perceptions of the students on their overall learning with NESTs and NNESTs with ten questions. The purpose of the third section is to reveal what the students think the strengths and weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs are, and it includes five questions. The final section covers five questions and focuses on the classroom behavior of NESTs and NNESTs. After a detailed review of the literature, the questionnaire was adapted and designed with a total of 25 questions. Due to this reason, the Cronbach alpha value of the questionnaire was stated for each section and the entire test to ensure reliability and validity.

4.1. Labels of NEST and NNEST

To reveal the findings of the questionnaire which answers the first research question of the study, the researcher split the questionnaire data collected from 103 students into four sections. Table 4.1 below illustrates the responses of primary, secondary, and high school students to the first part of the questionnaire which mainly focused on the perceptions of the students on the labels NEST and NNEST.

Table 3.

Students' responses to "Perceptions on the labels NEST and NNEST"

Items	N	N*	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neither Agree nor Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree		SD	Mean
			F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
1) I can understand my teacher is a native or a non-native English language speaker based on his/her accent.	103	0	6	5.8%	12	11.7%	21	20.4%	45	43.7%	19	18.4%	1,09	3,57
2) I can understand my teacher is a native or a non-native English speaker based on his or her color of skin.	103	0	45	43.7%	34	33%	15	14.6%	7	6.8%	2	1.9%	1,01	1,9
3) A teacher is considered a native speaker if he or she grew up in a country where English is the mother tongue.	103	0	8	7.8%	19	18.4%	18	17.5%	35	34%	23	22.3%	1,24	3,44
4) A teacher is considered a native speaker if he or she can speak the language fluently and spontaneously.	103	0	25	24.3%	41	39.8%	21	20.4%	11	10.7%	5	4.9%	1,1	2,32
5) A teacher is considered a native speaker if he/she was born in a country where English is the mother tongue.	103	0	11	10.7%	13	12.6%	23	22.3%	26	25.2%	30	29.1%	1,32	3,49

N* represents the number of students who did not remark on the items.

In this part of the questionnaire, the student participants were asked about how they perceived the labels NESTs and NNESTs. According to their answers, it is understood that the teacher's accent, birthplace, and where he or she grew up are the most obvious indicators of being a native. 62.1% of the student participants (18.4% of them strongly) agreed that the speaker's accent is the most significant indicator to reveal whether they are native or not. Another important indicator of being a native speaker for 56.3% of the student participants (22.3% strongly agree) was revealed to be the place the teacher grew up in. It is followed by a significantly related factor which is the place the speaker was born in where 54.3% of the student participants (29.1% strongly agree) were

of the same mind that it helps to understand whether the speaker is native or nonnative. This perspective was also expressed in semi-structured interviews.

P6 (a secondary school student): *“I think a NEST is someone who was born in England, the USA, Australia, or Canada.”*

P11 (a high school student): *“For me, the fact that being born in an English-speaking country such as the USA, England, Australia, Canada, or New Zealand is not as important as being grown up in those countries. While growing up, you can acquire the language and practice a lot, but if you were born in these countries and move to a country where English is not the mother tongue when you are four or five, you will forget speaking English as a native because you will be surrounded by a lot of people whose mother tongue is different.”*

The speaker's skin color is not thought to be a significant indicator of being native to the student participants. 76.7% of the participants (43.7% strongly) disagreed with the fact that the skin color of a teacher does not imply that the person is a native or a non-native speaker of English.

P10 (a high school student): *“I certainly do not think that the skin color of a person shows whether they are native or not. We can put two Caucasians together and, one of them might be English and the other is Polish or Swedish. So, it does not really matter whether they are black, white, or brown.”*

Moreover, 64.1% of the student participants (24.3% strongly) disagreed that if someone speaks English fluently and spontaneously, they are labeled as native speakers of English.

P5 (a secondary school student): *“Most of our nonnative teachers who teach us English speak fluently all the time, and they are Turkish. So, I do not relate these two things together.”*

4.1.1. One-Way ANOVA Analysis of Section One

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is a statistical tool used to study variations among multiple groups and determine if there are significant differences in means. In this study, the researcher investigated perceptions across five distinct groups, each with its own set of observations. The ANOVA framework to identify the variability that arises from differences between groups and within groups was used. Table 4 below displays the one-

way ANOVA findings of Section One concerning the perceptions of the student participants on the labels NEST and NNEST.

Table 4.

One-Way Analysis of Section One of the Questionnaire

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Perception 1	Between Groups	,902	2	,451	,369	,693
	Within Groups	122,302	100			
	Total	123,204	102	1,223		
Perception 2	Between Groups	3,922	2	1,961	1,940	,149
	Within Groups	101,107	100			
	Total	105,029	102	1,011		
Perception 3	Between Groups	4,980	2	2,490	1,633	,200
	Within Groups	152,476	100			
	Total	157,456	102	1,525		
Perception 4	Between Groups	,326	2	,163	,131	,877
	Within Groups	124,101	100			
	Total	124,427	102	1,241		
Perception 5	Between Groups	6,286	2	3,143	1,833	,165
	Within Groups	171,462	100			
	Total	177,748	102	1,715		

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Perception 1 revealed no statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of their responses to the questionnaire ($F(2, 100) = 0.369$, $p = 0.693$). The p-value exceeds the commonly accepted significance level of 0.05, suggesting that there is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis of no difference in means. Consequently, it can be inferred that, based on the data, the groups did not exhibit significant variations in their answers for Perception 1.

Similarly, the ANOVA results for Perception 2 indicate no statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 1.940$, $p = 0.149$). The p-value falls above the 0.05 threshold, indicating a lack of evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

Consequently, there is no statistical support for asserting distinct differences in the groups' responses to Perception 2.

For Perception 3, the ANOVA results also failed to demonstrate a statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 1.633$, $p = 0.200$). With the p-value exceeding 0.05, the data does not provide substantial evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Thus, it can be concluded that the groups did not differ significantly in their responses to the questionnaire for Perception 3.

The analysis of Perception 4 through ANOVA exhibited no statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 0.131$, $p = 0.877$). The p-value surpasses the conventional significance level of 0.05, indicating insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Consequently, the data suggests that the groups did not significantly differ in their responses to Perception 4.

The ANOVA results for Perception 5 similarly did not reveal a statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 1.833$, $p = 0.165$). With the p-value exceeding the 0.05 threshold, there is no compelling evidence to reject the null hypothesis. It can be inferred that, based on the data, the groups did not exhibit significant variations in their answers for Perception 5.

In summary, the findings across all perceptions suggest a general alignment in the groups' responses to the questionnaire, with no discernible statistically significant differences. The limitations and implications of these results will be discussed in detail in the subsequent sections.

4.2. General Learning

Based on the data collected, it has been observed that the students appreciate the assistance of a native English-speaking teacher (NEST) when it comes to developing their grammar, vocabulary and three basic skills (listening, speaking, and reading) and gaining knowledge about diverse cultures. However, most of the participants believe that they can enhance their writing skills better with a non-native English-speaking teacher (NNEST). Additionally, the students do not consider NESTs to be superior teachers compared to NNESTs. Table 5 below provides a detailed representation of the data gathered from the second part of the questionnaire.

Table 5.

Students' Responses to "Perceptions of General Learning with NESTs and NNESTs"

Items	N	N*	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neither Agree nor Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree		SD	Mean
			F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
6) I can develop better grammatical skills when a NEST teaches me.	103	0	14	13.6%	13	12.6%	28	27.2%	25	24.3%	23	22.3%	1,31	3,29
7) I can improve my vocabulary better when a NEST teaches me.	103	0	9	8.7%	11	10.7%	24	23.3%	36	35%	23	22.3%	1,2	3,51
8) I can improve my pronunciation skills when a NEST teaches me.	103	0	4	3.9%	9	8.7%	23	22.3%	32	31.1%	35	34%	1,11	3,82
9) I can improve my listening skills when a NEST teaches me.	103	0	10	9.7%	14	13.6%	20	19.4%	42	40.8%	17	16.5%	1,19	3,4
10) I can improve my reading skills when a NEST teaches me.	103	0	11	10.7%	17	16.5%	33	32%	28	27.2%	14	13.6%	1,18	3,16
11) I can be more fluent when a NEST teaches me.	103	0	9	8.7%	11	10.7%	29	28.2%	32	31.1%	22	21.4%	1,19	3,45
12) I can learn more about different cultures when a NEST teaches me.	103	0	9	8.7%	12	11.7%	9	8.7%	45	43.7%	28	27.2%	1,23	3,68
13) I can improve my writing skills when a NEST teaches me.	103	0	22	21.4%	30	29.1%	27	26.2%	22	21.4%	2	1.9%	1,1	2,53
14) I think NESTs are better language teachers than NNESTs.	103	0	30	29.1%	21	20.4%	33	32%	12	11.7%	7	6.8%	1,21	2,46
15) I can learn English the same way from an NNEST as from an NEST.	103	0	15	14.6%	22	21.4%	34	33%	19	18.4%	13	12.6%	1,22	2,93

N* represents the number of students who did not remark on the items.

As the data suggests, 46.6% of the student participants (22.3% strongly) agree that NESTs make better grammar teachers. Nevertheless, 27.2% of the participants neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement.

P9 (a high school student): *"It is not about how native a teacher is. We can't say an NNEST is better than a NEST just because they understand our struggles to learn the*

language and its rules. To me, it is the way the teacher approaches their students by knowing and acknowledging what they like or dislike, or basically by understanding the students' ways of learning and trying to stimulate them."

More than half of the student participants (57.3%) agree with the statement (22.3% strongly) that vocabulary is best learned with a NEST. However, 19.4% disagreed (8.7% strongly) with the same statement.

P8 (a secondary school student): *"Our NNESTs try to teach us as many words and phrases as possible, and I feel lucky since they had to learn a lot of words and now, they want us to learn all those things and be much more active when speaking English. But our NESTs sometimes assume that we already understand most of the things they teach and continue their lesson, and I think it's because we can't communicate properly."*

When the student participants were asked about how they acquired pronunciation skills, 65.1% agreed (34% strongly) with the fact that a NEST teaches pronunciation better than an NNEST. Only, 12.6% of the students (3.9% strongly) disagreed with the same fact and thought that an NNEST teaches pronunciation better than a NEST. 22.3% neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement as they believed they could improve their pronunciation skills with either.

Regarding the learning of receptive skills of the language, 57.3% of the student participants agreed (16.5% strongly) that a NEST is more skillful than an NNEST when doing activities that involve listening.

P2 (an primary school student): *"We listen to songs, chants, stories, and a lot of things when we have lessons with a NEST, and it becomes fun to learn English. But with an NNEST we mostly learn grammatical rules and only listen to a few things about grammar. I don't think it's as fun."*

For reading skills, 40.8% agreed (13.6% strongly) that a NEST teaches reading in a better way than an NNEST does. Additionally, 33% of the student participants neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement.

P12 (a high school student): *"I am thankful both for my NESTs and NNESTs because I have learned a lot of things thanks to them. But personally, I don't think reading is a skill that you can show a significant difference in when you learn it with the help of a NEST. An NNEST can be of help as well as a NEST."*

52.5% of the student participants agreed (21.4% strongly) that a NEST can teach fluency and related skills better than a NNEST. A vast majority (70.9%) believe that (27.2% strongly) culture-related topics are best learned with a NEST.

P11 (a high school student): *“To be honest, in our lessons with our NESTs, we learn much more about other cultures since the lessons mostly focus on cultural topics. And NESTs tend to talk more about these topics than NNESTs.”*

Concerning writing skills, more than half of the student participants (50.5%) disagree (21.4% strongly) that a NEST teaches writing better than a NEST. 26.2% of the students preferred to stay neutral towards both teacher labels. According to 23.3% of the student participants, a NEST is a better teacher model than a NNEST.

In the last part of the General Learning section of the questionnaire, data revealed that 49.5% disagree (29.1% strongly) that NESTs are better teachers than NNESTs. Additionally, 32% of the students neither agreed nor disagreed with the fact that NESTs are better than NNESTs.

P7 (a secondary school student): *“I love both of my teachers and I feel like they cooperate on whatever they are teaching us. So, I can put one over the other. I think we need both NESTs and NNESTs.”*

Nevertheless, when they were asked if they could learn the same way with an NNEST as with a NEST, data revealed that 36% of the student participants disagreed (21.4% strongly) with the statement, believing the way of teaching of a NEST should be different than of an NNEST.

4.3. One-Way ANOVA Analysis of Section Two

Table 6 below shows the One-Way ANOVA findings of Section Two of the questionnaire which deals with items about general learning with NESTs and NNESTs.

Table 6.

One-Way Analysis of Section Two of the Questionnaire

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
General Learning 1	Between Groups	35,101	2	17,550	12,345	,000
	Within Groups	142,162	100	1,422		
	Total	177,262	102			
General Learning 2	Between Groups	19,255	2	9,628	7,494	,001
	Within Groups	128,473	100	1,285		
	Total	147,728	102			
General Learning 3	Between Groups	10,934	2	5,467	4,716	,011
	Within Groups	115,921	100	1,159		
	Total	126,854	102			
General Learning 4	Between Groups	20,828	2	10,414	8,262	,000
	Within Groups	126,046	100	1,260		
	Total	146,874	102			
General Learning 5	Between Groups	3,304	2	1,652	1,189	,309
	Within Groups	138,891	100	1,389		
	Total	142,194	102			
General Learning 6	Between Groups	21,786	2	10,893	8,801	,000
	Within Groups	123,768	100	1,238		
	Total	145,553	102			
General Learning 7	Between Groups	20,161	2	10,081	7,418	,001
	Within Groups	135,897	100	1,359		
	Total	156,058	102			
General Learning 8	Between Groups	10,071	2	5,035	4,357	,015
	Within Groups	115,561	100	1,156		
	Total	125,631	102			
General Learning 9	Between Groups	10,664	2	3,126	2,137	,123
	Within Groups	140,967	100	1,463		
	Total	151,631	102			
General Learning 10	Between Groups	6,251	2	3,126	2,137	,123
	Within Groups	146,273	100	1,463		
	Total	152,524	102			

The ANOVA results for Overall Learning 1 indicate a statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 12.345$, $p = 0.000$). The p-value falling below the 0.05 threshold suggests strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Consequently,

it can be inferred that the groups significantly differ in their responses to General Learning 1.

Additionally, the ANOVA results for Overall Learning 2 demonstrate a statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 7.494$, $p = 0.001$). The p-value below 0.05 provides substantial evidence to reject the null hypothesis, indicating significant differences in responses for General Learning 2 among the groups.

For General Learning 3, the ANOVA results also show a statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 4.716$, $p = 0.011$). The p-value below 0.05 indicates significant variations in responses for Overall Learning 3 among the groups.

The ANOVA results for General Learning 4 reveal a statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 8.262$, $p = 0.000$). The p-value below 0.05 suggests significant differences in responses for Overall Learning 4 among the groups.

In contrast, General Learning 5 shows no statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 1.189$, $p = 0.309$). The p-value exceeds 0.05, suggesting insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Consequently, it can be inferred that the groups did not significantly differ in their responses for Overall Learning 5.

The ANOVA results for General Learning 6 indicate a statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 8.801$, $p = 0.000$). The p-value below 0.05 suggests significant variations in responses for Overall Learning 6 among the groups.

Correspondingly, the ANOVA results for General Learning 7 show a statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 7.418$, $p = 0.001$). The p-value below 0.05 provides strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis, indicating significant differences in responses for Overall Learning 7 among the groups.

For General Learning 8, the ANOVA results reveal a statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 4.357$, $p = 0.015$). The p-value below 0.05 suggests significant variations in responses for Overall Learning 8 among the groups.

Contrarily, General Learning 9 shows no statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 2.137$, $p = 0.123$). The p-value exceeds 0.05, suggesting insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Consequently, it can be inferred that the groups did not significantly differ in their responses for Overall Learning 9.

Likewise, General Learning 10 shows no statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 2.137$, $p = 0.123$). The p-value exceeds 0.05, suggesting insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Consequently, it can be inferred that the groups did not significantly differ in their responses for Overall Learning 10.

In summary, the findings across the various perceptions of Overall Learning suggest a mixed pattern. While some perceptions (e.g., Overall Learning 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8) exhibit statistically significant differences between the groups, others (e.g., Overall Learning 5, 9, 10) do not show significant variations. The significance or non-significance of differences in responses depends on the specific perception being considered. These nuances will be explored further in the subsequent discussion section, where the implications and limitations of the findings will also be addressed.

4.4. Strengths and Weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs

In this section, the data analysis focuses on the items of the questionnaire on student participants' perceptions of the NESTs' and NNESTs' strengths and weaknesses. It is fair to say that the data corresponds with the previous literature. Concerning the results of this section of the questionnaire, the responses of student participants revealed that students recognize NNESTs as more likely to handle the drawbacks and disadvantages that might occur in the process of teaching the language. They also believe that NNESTs help their students to approach English with a more positive attitude than the NESTs. On the contrary, students consider their NESTs as more self-confident when using the language.

Table 7.

Students' Responses to "Perceptions on Strengths and Weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs"

Items	N	N*	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neither Agree nor Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree		SD	Mean
			F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
16) NESTs help students to have more positive attitudes towards English than an NNEST.	103	0	26	25.2%	21	20.4%	24	23.3%	27	26.2%	5	4.9%	1,25	2,65
17) NNESTs that speak the mother tongue of the students can predict the challenges the students have in learning English.	103	0	5	4.9%	2	1.9%	10	9.7%	30	29.1%	56	54.4%	1,04	4,26
18) NNESTs that speak the students' mother tongue show more empathy to their students in learning English.	103	0	2	1.9%	6	5.8%	21	20.4%	35	34%	39	37.9%	1	4
19) NNESTs provide a better learner model to their students than NESTs.	103	0	11	10.7%	15	14.6%	44	42.7%	20	19.4%	13	12.6%	1,12	3,08
20) NESTs are more self-confident using the English language than NNESTs.	103	0	17	16.5%	12	11.7%	32	31.1%	30	29.1%	12	11.7%	1,24	3,07

N* represents the number of students who did not remark on the items.

Data revealed that 45.6% of student participants disagree (25.2% strongly) with the statement that NESTs assist their students to have more positive attitudes towards English than their NNESTs. Aligning with statement 16, 83.5% of the participants (54.4%

strongly) agree that since NNESTs speak their mother tongue, they tend to predict the challenges the students struggle with.

P8 (a secondary school student): *“When I don’t understand something in English or am not able to respond to my teacher’s instructions, our NNESTs figure out what we do or don’t understand and try to help us in our mother tongue because sometimes we need it. With our NNESTs, it’s almost impossible because their Turkish knowledge is limited to a certain extent, and we must communicate in English all the time.”*

Furthermore, 71.9% agree (37.9% strongly) that NNESTs empathize with their needs and struggles.

When the participants were asked about who represents a better role model, their NESTs or NNESTs, 42.7% of them chose either.

P3 (an primary school student): *“I love both of my teachers and I love learning English thanks to them. I think one is not better than the other, both are perfect teachers.”*

P11 (a high school student): *“I cannot ignore the fact that both my NEST and NNEST put a lot of effort into what they teach us. I have learned lots of invaluable things and they shaped the level of my English. Whenever I struggle with something, I can freely ask for help from both and they are always willing to help. To me, both are perfect models for their students, as a teacher and as a learner.”*

4.4.1. One-Way ANOVA Analysis of Section 3

Table 8.

One-Way Analysis of Section Three of the Questionnaire

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Strengths and Weaknesses 1	Between Groups	9,197	2	4,598	3,061	,051
	Within Groups	150,221	100			
	Total	159,417	102	1,502		
Strengths and Weaknesses 2	Between Groups	,790	2	,395	,355	,702
	Within Groups	111,132	100			
	Total	111,922	102	1,111		
Strengths and Weaknesses 3	Between Groups	1,478	2	,739	,735	,482
	Within Groups	100,522	100			
	Total	102,000	102	1,005		
Strengths and Weaknesses 4	Between Groups	6,303	2	3,151	2,543	,084
	Within Groups	123,911	100			
	Total	130,214	102	1,239		
Strengths and Weaknesses 5	Between Groups	16,125	2	8,062	5,708	,004
	Within Groups	141,254	100			
	Total	157,379	102	1,413		

The ANOVA results for Strengths and Weaknesses 1 indicate a marginal level of statistical significance between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 3.061$, $p = 0.051$). While the p-value is close to the conventional threshold of 0.05, it does not fall below it. Consequently, there is limited evidence to suggest that the groups significantly differ in their responses to Strengths and Weaknesses 1.

For Strengths and Weaknesses 2, the ANOVA results show no statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 0.355$, $p = 0.702$). The p-value exceeds 0.05, indicating insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Therefore, it

can be inferred that the groups did not significantly differ in their responses for Strengths and Weaknesses 2.

The ANOVA results for Strengths and Weaknesses 3 also indicate no statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 0.735$, $p = 0.482$). The p-value exceeds 0.05, suggesting insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Consequently, it can be inferred that the groups did not significantly differ in their responses for Strengths and Weaknesses 3.

Similarly, The ANOVA results for Strengths and Weaknesses 4 indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 2.543$, $p = 0.084$). Although the p-value is close to 0.05, it does not reach the threshold, which suggests that there is limited evidence to support significant differences in responses for Strengths and Weaknesses 4 among the groups.

Nevertheless, the ANOVA results for Strengths and Weaknesses 5 reveal a statistically significant difference between the groups ($F(2, 100) = 5.708$, $p = 0.004$). The p-value falling below 0.05 suggests strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis, indicating significant variations in responses for Strengths and Weaknesses 5 among the groups.

The findings for Strengths and Weaknesses demonstrate a mixed pattern. While some perceptions (e.g., Strengths and Weaknesses 5) exhibit statistically significant differences between the groups, others (e.g., Strengths and Weaknesses 1, 2, 3, 4) do not show significant variations. The significance or non-significance of differences in responses depends on the specific perception being considered. These nuances will be further explored in the subsequent discussion section, where the implications and limitations of the findings will also be addressed.

4.5. Classroom Behavior and Responsibility of NESTs and NNESTs

In this last section of the questionnaire, student participants responded to statements that focused on the behavior and responsibility of NESTs and NNESTs. As data revealed, perceptions of student participants on this section corresponds with the existing literature. According to their responses, they do not think that NNESTs fall behind of NESTs when the concern is about lesson planning. They also do not agree with the statement that not using Turkish in the classroom is considered as a benefit. Moreover, student participants do not view NESTs as stricter than NNESTs. They think their

NNESTs use a variety source of materials as much as their NESTs do. On the contrary, they perceive their NNESTs as focusing on examination more than NESTs.

Table 9.

Students' Responses to "Perceptions on Classroom Behavior and Responsibility of NESTs and NNESTs"

Items			Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neither Agree nor Disagree		Agree		Strongly Agree		SD	Mean
	N	N*	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
21) NESTs are more careful when planning their lesson than NNESTs.	103	0	27	26.2%	28	27.2%	33	32%	9	8.7%	6	5.8%	1,14	2,4
22) NESTs make better teachers than NNESTs because they do not use learners' L1 in the classroom.	103	0	35	34%	27	26.2%	21	20.4%	11	10.7%	9	8.7%	1,28	2,33
23) NESTs are stricter in the classroom than NNESTs.	103	0	34	33%	23	22.3%	23	22.3%	12	11.7%	11	10.7%	1,34	2,44
24) NESTs use rich source of materials in the classroom more than NNESTs do.	103	0	30	29.1%	20	19.4%	31	30.1%	17	16.5%	5	4.9%	1,21	2,48
25) NNESTs focus on examinations more than NESTs do.	103	0	14	13.6%	21	20.4%	25	24.3%	22	21.4%	21	20.4%	1,33	3,14

N* represents the number of students who did not remark on the items.

When they were asked about their opinions on whether NESTs plan their lessons more carefully than NNESTs, 53.4% disagreed (26.2% strongly) with what the statement suggests.

P9 (a high school student): *"I feel like both NESTs and NNESTs come to the classroom with a bunch of plans in their hands because we are never out of things to do."*

According to 60.2% of the student participants (34% strongly disagreed with the statement) share the same view and, they do not think that not using L1 makes NESTs better teachers.

P8 (a secondary school student): *"Sometimes, I really need to ask something in my mother tongue because there are times that I feel stuck when I try to speak English all the time and, not being able to use Turkish to express how I feel or what I want to ask doesn't help me."*

Table 10.

One-Way Analysis of Section Four of the Questionnaire

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Behavior and Responsibility 1	Between Groups	6,520	2	3,260	2,580	,081
	Within Groups	126,354	100			
	Total	132,874	102	1,264		
Behavior and Responsibility 2	Between Groups	3,746	2	1,873	1,133	,326
	Within Groups	165,361	100			
	Total	169,107	102	1,654		
Behavior and Responsibility 3	Between Groups	1,837	2	,919	,506	,605
	Within Groups	181,619	100			
	Total	183,456	102	1,816		
Behavior and Responsibility 4	Between Groups	,766	2	,383	,257	,774
	Within Groups	148,962	100			
	Total	149,728	102	1,490		
Behavior and Responsibility 5	Between Groups	15,675	2	7,837	4,746	,011
	Within Groups	165,141	100			
	Total	180,816	102	1,651		

The Behavior and Responsibility perceptions were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) to explore potential differences between participants' views on Native English Speaking Teachers (NESTs) and Non-Native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs). Here are the key findings for each perception:

The ANOVA results for Behavior and Responsibility 1 indicate a marginal level of statistical significance ($F(2, 100) = 2.580$, $p = 0.081$). Although the p-value is slightly above the conventional threshold of 0.05, there appears to be a trend toward significant differences in participants' perceptions of behavior and responsibility between NESTs and NNESTs.

Behavior and Responsibility 2 shows no statistically significant difference between groups ($F(2, 100) = 1.133, p = 0.326$). The p-value exceeds 0.05, indicating insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Participants' views on behavior and responsibility, in this context, do not demonstrate significant distinctions between NESTs and NNESTs.

Similarly, Behavior and Responsibility 3 reveals no statistically significant difference in participants' perceptions ($F(2, 100) = 0.506, p = 0.605$). The p-value is above 0.05, suggesting that, based on the data, there is insufficient evidence to assert significant variations in views regarding behavior and responsibility between NESTs and NNESTs.

Behavior and Responsibility 4 shows no statistically significant difference between groups ($F(2, 100) = 0.257, p = 0.774$). The p-value exceeds 0.05, indicating a lack of evidence to reject the null hypothesis. Participants' views on behavior and responsibility do not exhibit significant differences between NESTs and NNESTs based on the provided data.

Contrastingly, Behavior and Responsibility 5 indicates a statistically significant difference in participants' views ($F(2, 100) = 4.746, p = 0.011$). The p-value falling below 0.05 suggests strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis, indicating significant variations in perceptions of behavior and responsibility between NESTs and NNESTs.

The ANOVA results for Behavior and Responsibility perceptions present a mixed pattern. While some perceptions show no significant differences, others reveal trends or clear evidence of distinctions in participants' views between NESTs and NNESTs. The nuances of these findings will be explored further in the subsequent discussion section, addressing the implications and limitations of the survey results.

4.6. Classroom Observation Findings

In this research study, classroom observations were made to understand deeply how primary, secondary, and high school students perceive their NESTs and NNESTs. For this very reason, the researcher observed six classrooms in total, three classes of NESTs (one in primary, one in secondary, and one in high school), and three classrooms of NNESTs (one in primary, one in secondary, and one in high school). Below, the field notes taken during the observations of each classroom are explained briefly.

4.6.1. Classroom Observation Findings on the Labels of NEST and NNEST

In the primary school classroom, NEST A warmly greeted the students and led them through a playful icebreaker that was appropriate for their age group. The students responded positively, demonstrating enthusiasm and readiness to participate. NEST A conveyed concepts through interactive and visual aids, making the material more engaging for primary school students. The students actively participated in hands-on activities, indicating a strong link between the NEST A's teaching style and their level of understanding. The classroom atmosphere was lively and encouraging, creating a conducive learning environment for primary school students.

NNEST A began the primary school class with an introduction that was suitable for the age of the students, creating a friendly and nurturing environment for them. The students responded positively and showed comfort and ease while interacting with NNEST A. To make the lesson relevant and accessible for primary school students, NNEST A used storytelling and cultural elements. The students showed enthusiasm to participate actively in group activities and had positive interactions with NNEST A. The classroom atmosphere was welcoming and supportive, providing a safe learning environment for primary school students to engage with the subject matter.

The NEST B started the class by introducing themselves and setting clear expectations for the secondary school students. The students were attentive and showed their understanding of the NEST's teaching approach. NEST B used various visual aids and interactive discussions suitable for the secondary school level. The students actively participated in class discussions and exhibited a positive attitude towards NEST B's teaching style. The classroom environment was focused and collaborative, fostering a positive learning environment for the secondary school students.

The NNEST B began the class with a clear and concise introduction, establishing a respectful and academically focused environment for secondary students. The students demonstrated active engagement and responded positively to NNEST B's teaching style. NNEST B utilized real-world examples to promote critical thinking skills and meet the academic needs of secondary school students. The students actively participated in group discussions, demonstrating their positive engagement with NNEST B, and the classroom atmosphere was intellectually stimulating and inclusive, allowing secondary school students to explore the subject matter.

NEST C in high school began the class with a clear introduction, establishing high expectations for the students. The students displayed maturity and comprehension of NEST C's teaching approach. NEST C employed advanced teaching methods suitable for high school by introducing real-world situations. Students actively engaged in debates and discussions, exhibiting positive attitudes towards the NEST's teaching style. The classroom environment was both academically challenging and collaborative, fostering a stimulating learning environment for high school students.

At the beginning of the class, NNEST C provided a sophisticated introduction that created a stimulating environment for high school students. The students displayed intellectual curiosity, which indicated a positive interaction with NNEST C. The teaching methods employed by NNEST C promoted critical thinking and analysis among high school students. The students actively engaged in advanced discussions, demonstrating a positive attitude towards NNEST C's teaching style. The classroom atmosphere was intellectually challenging yet collaborative, resulting in a supportive learning environment for high school students.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This research study aims to investigate perceptions of primary, secondary, and high school students towards their NESTs and NNESTs in an EFL context at a private school in Turkey. In this chapter, issues such as linguistic markers, linguistic identity, pronunciation, cultural aspects, learning approaches, NESTs and NNESTs attitudes, empathy, lesson planning, and the role of L1 in language teaching are discussed and the findings are compared with related studies.

5.1. Linguistic Markers: Accent, Birthplace, and Upbringing

According to the responses, the students place considerable importance on linguistic markers as indicators of native or non-native status. The overwhelming consensus, with 62.1% of participants strongly agreeing, is that the speaker's accent is the most significant identifier. This aligns with existing literature (Mahboob & Golden, 2013), emphasizing the salience of pronunciation in shaping perceptions of nativeness.

Moreover, the significance attributed to the place where the teacher grew up (56.3%) and the place of birth (54.3%) underscores the students' reliance on geographical factors. These findings resonate with research by Jenkins (2000), who argues that perceptions of nativeness often hinge on early language exposure and cultural upbringing.

In the semi-structured interviews, students further elaborated on these criteria, emphasizing that being born in an English-speaking country is less critical than upbringing and continuous exposure to the language. This nuanced perspective reflects an awareness among students that nativeness is not solely determined by birthplace but extends to the crucial period of language development during formative years.

5.1.1. Complexities of Linguistic Identity: Skin Color and Fluency

Interestingly, the participants diverge from conventional stereotypes by dismissing the significance of skin color as a reliable indicator of linguistic identity. The majority (76.7%) disagreed with the notion that a teacher's skin color implies nativeness. This rejection of a correlation between appearance and linguistic background aligns with

contemporary views that emphasize the diverse linguistic landscape within English-speaking countries.

Additionally, the students challenge the assumption that fluency alone dictates nativeness. A substantial 64.1% disagreed with the idea that fluent and spontaneous English speech automatically designates someone as a native speaker. This perspective challenges stereotypes and acknowledges the linguistic diversity present among non-native English speakers, further emphasizing the students' discerning approach to identifying language proficiency.

5.2. Grammar, Vocabulary, and Pronunciation: Balancing Perspectives

The belief among 46.6% of students that NESTs make better grammar teachers is consistent with research by Moussu and Llurda (2008), highlighting the perceived advantage of NESTs in teaching grammar. However, the nuanced perspective expressed by P9 challenges this notion, emphasizing that effective teaching transcends nativeness and hinges on the teacher's understanding of individual learning styles and preferences.

The division in opinions regarding vocabulary acquisition reveals a complex landscape. While 57.3% agree that vocabulary is best learned with a NEST, P8's comment highlights the importance of the pedagogical approach over the teacher's nativeness. This aligns with findings by Braine (1999), suggesting that the teaching method and the teacher's enthusiasm can play a crucial role in vocabulary instruction.

The majority opinion (65.1%) that NESTs teach pronunciation better than NNESTs echoes the common perception of NESTs as linguistic models for accurate pronunciation. This aligns with studies by Tajeddin and Teimournezhad (2015), affirming the association between nativeness and perceived expertise in pronunciation.

5.2.1. Listening, Reading, Writing, and Culture: Varied Perceptions

The preference for NESTs in enhancing listening skills (57.3%) corresponds with studies emphasizing the role of authentic language exposure in improving listening abilities (Jenkins, 2000). However, P2's comment highlights the need for balance, suggesting that NNESTs can contribute by focusing on grammatical aspects and making lessons engaging.

While 40.8% agree that NESTs teach reading better, P12 emphasizes the significance of both NESTs and NNESTs in developing reading skills, echoing the

findings of Üstünlüoğlu and Demirtaşlı (2015). This supports the idea that effective teaching transcends nativeness in the context of reading instruction.

Contrary to expectations, students largely disagree (50.5%) that NESTs teach writing better than NNESTs. This finding challenges stereotypes and emphasizes the role of effective pedagogy, aligning with research by Kamhi-Stein (2009), which suggests that NNESTs can excel in certain aspects of language instruction.

The perceived advantage of NESTs in teaching fluency and culture-related topics (52.5% and 70.9%, respectively) resonates with studies highlighting the cultural and linguistic authenticity brought by NESTs (Kutlu, 2018). P11's comment emphasizes the significance of cultural topics in NEST-led lessons, providing a broader perspective on the benefits of NESTs in cultural education.

5.3. Overall Teacher Preference and Learning Approaches: A Balanced View

Despite the varied perceptions across language skills, almost half of the students (49.5%) disagree that NESTs are better teachers than NNESTs. P7's comment reflects a holistic perspective, emphasizing the importance of cooperation between both types of teachers.

However, a significant portion of students (36%) believe that the way of teaching should be different between NESTs and NNESTs, challenging the notion of a one-size-fits-all teaching approach. This highlights the importance of recognizing individual teaching styles and adapting methodologies to cater to diverse learning needs, as emphasized by P9.

5.4. Attitudes Towards English: NESTs and NNESTs

Contrary to expectations, a substantial percentage of students (45.6%) disagree with the notion that NESTs assist their students in developing more positive attitudes towards English than their NNEST counterparts. This challenges conventional assumptions that NESTs inherently elicit more favorable attitudes from learners. Such findings echo the work of Selvi (2010), suggesting that learner attitudes can be influenced by various factors beyond nativeness.

P8's account sheds light on the complexity of this perception. The recognition that NNESTs, due to their shared mother tongue, can better predict and address student challenges resonates with existing research emphasizing the importance of empathetic

teaching (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). The ability of NNESTs to communicate with students in their native language, as described by P8, underscores the importance of linguistic flexibility and the potential advantages it offers in certain teaching contexts.

Moreover, a significant majority (83.5%) agree that NNESTs, by speaking the students' mother tongue, demonstrate a heightened ability to predict and address challenges. This aligns with studies highlighting the empathetic advantage of NNESTs (Holliday, 2005). P8's assertion further emphasizes the practical implications of this advantage in facilitating effective communication and addressing individual learning needs.

5.4.1. Empathy and Role Modelling: NNEST Strengths

The agreement among 71.9% of participants that NNESTs empathize with their needs and struggles reinforces the idea that empathetic understanding plays a pivotal role in effective language teaching (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Student testimonials, such as the one provided by P8, illustrate the tangible benefits of this empathy in addressing students' linguistic challenges and creating a supportive learning environment.

When asked to identify a better role model, 42.7% of students chose either NESTs or NNESTs and Student C's perspective exemplifies the sentiment that both types of teachers contribute equally to the learning experience. P11's recognition of the effort put forth by both NEST and NNEST teachers highlights the collaborative role they play in shaping students' English proficiency. This aligns with research suggesting that the effectiveness of a language teacher is not solely determined by nativeness but encompasses various teaching qualities (Tajeddin & Teimournezhad, 2015).

5.4.2. Lesson Planning: NEST vs. NNEST

Contrary to the common assumption that NESTs may plan their lessons more meticulously than NNESTs, over half of the participants (53.4%) disagreed with this statement. P9's comment adds depth to this perspective, highlighting that both NESTs and NNESTs approach their lessons with careful planning. This finding challenges stereotypes that may attribute superior lesson planning skills exclusively to NESTs.

Student testimonials, such as the one provided by P9, emphasize that effective lesson planning is not exclusive to nativeness. The recognition that both types of teachers invest effort and preparation into their lessons reflects a balanced and appreciative view

of the teaching practices employed by NESTs and NNESTs. This aligns with research suggesting that the effectiveness of a lesson is influenced by factors such as pedagogical approach, teacher enthusiasm, and engagement strategies, rather than nativeness alone (Braine, 1999).

5.4.3. The Role of L1 in Language Teaching

A significant majority of students (60.2%) disagreed with the idea that NESTs are better teachers solely because they avoid using the learners' native language (L1) in the classroom. P8's comment emphasizes the practical necessity of using the native language at times, particularly when learners face challenges in expressing themselves in English. This perspective underscores the importance of linguistic flexibility and adaptability in effective language instruction.

This finding aligns with the work of Cook (2001), who argues for the judicious use of the learners' native language in language classrooms. It challenges the misconception that the exclusive use of English in instruction is a hallmark of effective teaching. P8's experience reflects a common sentiment among language learners, emphasizing that occasional use of the native language can enhance understanding, address concerns, and create a supportive learning environment.

5.5. Conclusion, Implications, and Suggestions

This study explores the relationship between native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) by examining how primary, secondary, and high school students in a private school in Turkey perceive their native and non-native English-speaking teachers. The study provides valuable insights into the complex landscape of language education and challenges stereotypes about language teaching. The findings suggest that effective language teaching is shaped by factors beyond just the teacher's nativeness. Students' perspectives reveal the importance of the teacher's pedagogical approach, empathy, and linguistic flexibility in successful language instruction. Here below are some implications that can be gathered from the findings of this research study:

- The recognition that effective teaching transcends nativeness suggests the necessity for a paradigm shift in language education. Institutions should focus

on cultivating teaching practices that embrace a variety of approaches, catering to diverse learning needs. This aligns with the research of Braine (1999) who emphasized the role of pedagogical methods in effective language instruction.

- It is important to recognize that Non-native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) have an advantage in their ability to empathize with their students due to shared cultural experiences. This highlights the need for language education to place greater emphasis on cultural sensitivity. In order to improve the effectiveness of both native (NESTs) and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), teacher training programs should prioritize the development of intercultural competencies. This can be achieved by drawing from the works of Holliday (2005) and Kumaravadivelu (2006).
- It is important to be flexible with language learning and use the learners' native language in practical ways. This means that teachers should adapt their language use based on the students' needs to create a supportive learning environment. Cook (2001) argues that the judicious use of the learners' native language in language classrooms is essential.
- This study confronts the assumptions that people make based on skin color, language proficiency, and the belief that English is the only language of instruction. Educational institutions should take an active role in breaking down these assumptions and learn from the research of Tajeddin and Teimournezhad (2015) and Kamhi-Stein (2009) to create a learning environment that is more inclusive and fair.

Contributing to all the aforementioned information, this study aims to offer some suggestions for further studies:

1. The implementation of longitudinal studies can help us gain a better understanding of how students' perceptions change over time, and how these perceptions can affect language learning outcomes. This approach is consistent with the recommendations of Mahboob and Golden (2013) that we need to take the temporal aspect into account when studying linguistic perceptions.

2. Comparing educational contexts and levels can help us understand how cultural, institutional, and developmental factors affect students' views of language teachers. Moussu and Llurda's (2008) research supports the idea of investigating different factors that impact language education.
3. Studying the impact of teacher training programs on cultural competence, linguistic flexibility, and pedagogical skills can help improve language education. This is consistent with the findings of previous research by Jenkins (2000) and Kutlu (2018) that highlight the importance of cultural and linguistic authenticity in teacher training.
4. More research can investigate how students' perceptions of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) relate to their language learning outcomes. This will provide valuable insights into how these perceptions can affect practical outcomes. This suggestion supports the call for an approach that focuses more on outcomes, as recommended by Selvi (2010).
5. Studies that focus on promoting diversity and inclusion within language classrooms, particularly in terms of teacher representation, could contribute to creating more equitable and enriching learning environments. Research by Üstünlüoğlu and Demirtaşlı (2015) supports the exploration of diversity in language education.

In conclusion, this study not only offers a comprehensive exploration of students' perspectives on language teachers but also lays the foundation for future research endeavors aimed at enhancing the quality and inclusivity of language education. The implications and suggestions outlined here pave the way for a more nuanced and responsive approach to language instruction, drawing from a rich body of literature on NESTs and NNESTs.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Students' Perceptions on labels NEST and NNEST – Questionnaire

Section One – Perceptions on the labels NEST and NNEST

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I can understand my teacher is a native or a non-native English language speaker based on his/her accent.					
2. I can understand my teacher is a native or a non-native English speaker based on his or her color of skin.					
3. A teacher is considered a native speaker if he or she grew up in a country where English is the mother tongue.					
4. A teacher is considered a native speaker if he or she can speak the language fluently and spontaneously.					
5. A teacher is considered a native speaker if he/she was born in a country where English is the mother tongue.					

*Adapted from Hadla (2013).

Section Two – Perceptions on General Learning with NESTs and NNESTs

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree	Agree	Strongly agree
6. I can develop better grammatical skills when a NEST teaches me.					
7. I can improve my vocabulary better when a NEST teaches me.					
8. I can improve my pronunciation skills when a NEST teaches me.					
9. I can improve my listening skills when a NEST teaches me.					
10. I can improve my reading skills when a NEST teaches me.					
11. I can be more fluent when a NEST teaches me.					
12. I can learn more about different cultures when a NEST teaches me.					
13. I can improve my writing skills when a NEST teaches me.					
14. I think NESTs are better language teachers than NNESTs.					
15. I can learn English the same way from an NNEST as from a NEST.					

*Adapted from Hadla (2013).

Section Three – Strengths & Weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
16. NESTs help students to have more positive attitudes towards English than an NNEST.					
17. NNESTs that speak the mother tongue of the students can predict the challenges the students have in learning English.					
18. NNESTs that speak the students' mother tongue show more empathy to their students in learning English.					
19. NNESTs provide a better learner model to their students than NESTs.					
20. NESTs are more self-confident using the English language than NNESTs.					

*Adapted from Hadla (2013).

Section Four – Classroom Behavior and Responsibility of NESTs and NNESTs

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
21. NESTs are more careful when planning their lesson than NNESTs.					
22. NESTs make better teachers than NNESTs because they do not use learners' L1 in the classroom.					
23. NESTs are stricter in the classroom than NNESTs.					
24. NESTs use rich source of materials in the classroom more than NNESTs do.					
25. NNESTs focus on examinations more than NESTs do.					

*Adapted from Hadla (2013).

Appendix 2. Semi-structured Interview Questions

1. Which words do you think would define the terms native English teacher and non-native English teacher?
2. What do you think are the advantages and disadvantages of learning English with a native English teacher?
3. What do you think are the advantages and disadvantages of learning English with a non-native English teacher?
4. Who do you think is better at teaching English, NESTs or NNESTs?
5. Who do you think teaches grammar better, NESTs or NNESTs?
6. Who do you think motivates you to learn English the most, NNESTs or NNESTs?
7. Who do you think helps you to learn about other cultures, NESTs or NNESTs?
8. Who do you think has more self-confidence in the classroom, NESTs or NNESTs?
9. Who do you think shows empathy towards their students, NESTs or NNESTs?
10. Are there any further comments you would like to make?