A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ADULT LEARNERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS
NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE CHINESE SPEAKING TEACHERS ACCORDING TO
THEIR LEARNING LEVELS IN A CHINESE LANGUAGE ACADEMY IN
BANGKOK, THAILAND

Shuo Xiong

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
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ABSTRACT

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Key Words: ATTITUDE, NATIVE CHINESE SPEAKING TEACHERS, NON-NATIVE CHINESE SPEAKING TEACHERS, ADULT LEARNERS

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This study focused on adult learners’ attitudes towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers at a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand. One hundred and twenty-four adult learners from three different learning levels of this Chinese language academy participated in this study in August 2018. The study used a questionnaire to investigate adult learners’ attitudes towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers from three aspects: motivation, communication, teaching and learning. The purpose of this study was to investigate if there is a significant difference between the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand. This study had two objectives. The first objective was to determine the level of attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand. The second objective was to find out whether there was a significant difference between the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand. The quantitative data acquired from
the study showed that the adult learners from this Chinese language academy in
Bangkok, Thailand, had no preference for either native Chinese-speaking teacher or non-
native Chinese-speaking teacher, no matter if they were from beginning level,
intermediate level or advanced level. An one-way ANOVA showed that attitudes of adult
learners from different learning levels towards native and non-native Chinese speaking
teachers were not significantly different. The study concluded with recommendations for
adult Chinese language learners, native and non-native teachers and future researchers.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter includes the following sections: Background of Study, Statement of the Problem, Research Questions, Research Objectives, Research Hypothesis, Theoretical Framework, Conceptual Framework, Scope of the Study, Definitions of Terms, and the Significance of the Study.

Background of the Study

Mandarin Chinese has found its niche in Thai education. In most schools in Thailand, whether government schools or international schools, Chinese is a mandatory subject and many students choose to take extra Chinese classes outside school in order to achieve better grades. As for adults, doing business with Chinese people and Chinese companies has become a new and attractive career path. Thai-Chinese families also play a significant role in the Thai commercial world, showing the diligence and potential of Chinese people (Kanoksilpatham, 2011; Liu, 2015). By 2013, there were more than 250,000 students taking Chinese as a compulsory subject in government and private schools, and a total of 78,700 students are taking intensive Chinese course in the specific “Chinese schools” (Masuntisuk, 2013). The International School Association of Thailand also reports that 32 out of a total number of 120 international schools offer Chinese as a subject (International School Association of Thailand, 2016).

The increasing requirement to learn Chinese has raised concerns about the quality and quantity of Chinese teachers. Who should teach our children Chinese? This question refers to native Chinese speaking teachers (NCSTs) and non-native Chinese speaking teachers (NNCSTs). According to traditional thinking, native speakers are assumed to be better at teaching their mother languages. However, scholars have argued against the idea that native
speakers are innately better than their non-native counterparts (Canagarajah, 1999; Mahboob, 2010; Medgyes, 2001; Phillipson, 1992). While native-speaking teachers are still preferred by most educational institutions in Thailand, many schools and language institutions have started to hire non-native-speaking teachers as well. In 2019, Craigslist, a forum for listing and searching for jobs, had 283 listings seeking English teachers in Bangkok, among which, only 85 listings were opening for non-native English-speaking teachers. The salaries for both averaged 37000 Baht per month (Craigslist, 2019).

The Chinese language academy where the researcher works is one of the institutions that has both native Chinese-speaking teachers and non-native Chinese speaking teachers. The school is a Chinese language academy located in Bangkok, Thailand. It offers courses for both adults and younger learners (The Chinese Language Academy Website, 2017). The population for this study consisted of adult learners from this academy. For adult learners, the language academy offers three learning levels of Chinese course: beginning, intermediate, and advanced. This research investigates adult learners’ attitudes of native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers and attitudes of learners from different learning levels.

Statement of the Problem

While scholars have tried to de-emphasize the importance of nativeness in second-language teaching, there is still remarkable discrimination against non-native-speaking teachers (Holliday, 2008; Kurniawati & Riezki, 2018; Mahboob, 2010, 2013; Walkinshaw & Oanh, 2014). Non-native-speaking teachers are often reported encountering employment discrimination (Selvi, 2010) and having lower occupational status than teachers who speak their mother tongues (Mahboob, 2010). Many schools and institutions still tend to hire native speakers to teach their mother tongues, and they claim that their students demand to learn from native-speaking teachers rather than from non-native-speaking teachers (Holliday, 2008).
Thomas (1999) mentioned that during a morning discussion about recruitment in the 1995 TESOL convention, one person commented that they used native-speaking teachers as a selling point when recruiting, and that students would enroll on a course primarily for this reason (Thomas, 1999). Phillipson (1992, p. 185) introduced the term “native speaker fallacy” to describe the discrimination that qualified NNESTs encountered and to argue against the widely-accepted assumption that “the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker” (Holliday, 2008, p. 121). The preference for native-speaking teachers leads to “unprofessional favoritism in institutions, publishing houses, and government agencies” (Medgyes, 2001, p. 433).

The image of non-native-speaking teachers as less desirable has encouraged research on the differences between native and non-native-speaking language teachers, most of which has been conducted in the field of English-language teaching. The concept that native speakers of a language can teach their mother tongue better has been challenged (Canagarajah, 1999; Mahboob 2010; Medgyes 2001; Phillipson, 1992). Is having an advantage in speaking one’s mother tongue the same as having an advantage in teaching it? How should one begin to teach? How does one communicate the structural patterns of the language? Will a native speaker be aware of the most difficult aspects of learning when coming from another language? The researcher herself has seen that classes with non-native teachers tend to have a better atmosphere, and the researcher has also learned English with native speakers but felt bored and confused. Although language proficiency plays a critical role in second-language teaching, it should not be the only criterion for deciding who is a good teacher.

Even though the language academy discussed in this study has both native Chinese speaking teachers and non-native Chinese speaking teachers, it simply arranges for teachers who can speak Thai to teach the beginning courses and the first two-three intermediate courses, and teachers who cannot speak Thai to take charge of other courses at the intermediate and advanced levels. Since there are three different learning levels of Chinese
courses, the researcher was curious about the possibility that learners at different learning levels may have different requirements for their teachers, apart from whether they can speak Thai or not. For example, beginning learners may wish their teachers to pronounce clearly, while intermediate learners may focus more on grammar, and advanced learners may be more interested in Chinese culture. However, this possibility has never been a focus of the academy. The researcher could not help but wonder whether there was a difference between adult learners’ attitudes of native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels. What attitudes do learners of different learning levels have of their teachers?

Most existing studies focus on English teaching, and none discuss Chinese teaching in Thailand. Considering the rapidly increasing numbers of Chinese language adult learners in Thailand and the cultural difference between English-speaking and Chinese speaking countries, along with the different teacher requirements that adult learners of different learning levels may have, the researcher felt it necessary to conduct research on adult learners’ attitudes of NCSTs and NNCSTs in Bangkok, Thailand.

**Research Questions**

This research aims to examine the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy and to determine whether there is a significant difference between the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their different learning levels. The research questions are as follows.

1. What is the level of attitude of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand?
1.1 What is the level of attitude of beginning adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand?

1.2 What is the level of attitude of intermediate adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand?

1.3 What is the level of attitude of advanced adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand?

2. Is there a significant difference between the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand?

Research Objectives

The researcher considered the objectives listed below the goals that this research aims to achieve.

1. To determine the level of attitude of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

   1.1 To determine the level of attitude of beginning adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

   1.2 To determine the level of attitude of intermediate adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.
1.3 To determine the level of attitude of advanced adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

2. To find out whether there is a significant difference between the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

**Research Hypothesis**

According to the research questions and research objectives, the following research hypothesis was formulated for this study.

There is a significant difference between the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand, at a significance level of .05.

**Theoretical Framework**

In this section, the researcher introduces the ABC model of attitudes (McLeod, 2009), including the relationship between attitudes and motivation. The idea of willingness to communicate is also introduced.

**ABC Model of Attitudes**

Having a positive attitude initiates L2 learning more effectively (Oroujlou & Vahedi, 2011). On the contrary, a negative attitude towards L2 teachers and learning processes can be an obstacle in L2 learning process. Attitudes usually accompanies motivation, since attitude refers to beliefs or feelings about something, and motivation is a reason for doing something; in many situations, beliefs and feelings can be reasons for doing an activity (Oroujlou & Vahedi, 2011; Pickens, 2005).
In 1935, Allport defined an attitude as “a mental or neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence on the individual’s response to all objects and situations to which it is related” (Allport, 1935, as cited in Pickens 2005, p. 43). Pickens (2005) defined an attitude as a person’s mindset or inclination to act in a certain way based on their own experiences (Pickens, 2005). Later on, Hogg and Vaughan pointed out that attitudes are “relatively enduring organizations” which includes the tendency of people's feelings, actions and thoughts. (Hogg, & Vaughan 2005, p. 150).

The ABC model of attitudes describes attitudes structure in terms of three components: affect, behavior, and cognition. Speaking of someone’s attitude is actually explaining why they act in a certain way by analyzing the feelings and the cognitive processes of this person (Pickens, 2005). A person’s attitudes toward a certain issue involves his or her opinion about the topic (i.e., thought); how he or she feels about this topic (i.e., emotion), along with the actions (i.e., behaviors) he or she chooses. According to McLeod (2009), the ABC model of attitudes stress the relationship between knowing, feeling, and doing (McLeod, 2009). The three components are defined as follows.

1. The affective component refers to the feelings/emotions reactions towards the object. It is an enduring evaluation or emotional reaction to an object or situation.
2. Behavioral component refers to a person’s tendency to act in a particular way towards an object or person, this tendency is influenced by different attitudes we have.
3. Cognitive component: this involves a person’s internal belief/knowledge about an object. An attitude could not exist independently without a cognitive component which includes an object of thought.

Among these three components of attitudes, the affective component (feelings) and cognitive component (beliefs) are usually internal, but can be observed through one’s external behavior (Katz, 1960; McLeod, 2009; Pickens, 2005).
Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in Second Language Acquisition

Willingness to communicate (WTC) in a second language is defined by MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels as a language learner's tendency to start conversations in an L2 in a particular context with specific individuals (MacIntyre et al., 1998). According to this model of willingness to communicate, the most important goal for a second language learner is to use the target language to conduct a discourse with others. Rather than being the goal itself, language aptitude tends to become a tool to achieve interpersonal goals according to the WTC model (MacIntyre et al., 1996). Gender, attitudes, anxiety and other factors such as the time, place and situation of the communication have an impact on WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1996).

Early models of WTC proposed two variables: perceived communication competence and communication anxiety. This means the higher competency and a lower level of anxiety lead to a higher level of WTC (MacIntyre, 1994). Later, MacIntyre et al. introduced a multi-layered pyramid model of WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998). According to this model, both stable influences like a person's personality and situation-related influences, like the status of communicative self-confidence due to different context, will have an impact on WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

Conceptual Framework

The main purpose of this research was to find out the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand and to identify whether there is a significant difference among the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their different learning levels. The researcher implemented this study at three different learning levels of Chinese course at the Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand. The researcher selected nine classes of the language academy from three different learning
levels: two classes from the beginning level, three classes from the intermediate level and four classes from the advanced level.

A questionnaire was used to determine the level of attitude of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers and to determine the possibility of different attitudes of NCSTs and NNCSTs. Questions about adult learners’ attitudes were divided into three categories: communication, motivation and teaching/learning.

![Conceptual framework](image)

**Figure 1.** Conceptual framework.

**Scope of the Study**

This study was conducted at a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand. This study involved 124 adult learners of Chinese from three different learning levels: beginning, intermediate and advanced. In this study, the researcher aimed to investigate attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers and
significant differences between adult learners’ attitudes of native Chinese speaking teachers and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their different learning levels. This study was limited to one Chinese language academy located in Bangkok, Thailand, and therefore may not be generalizable to other educational settings. The data was collected during the third semester, from June 14th to August 27th, of this Chinese language academy, and the result of the study only represented adult learners’ opinions on this semester.

Definitions of Terms

**ABC Model of Attitudes**

This model includes three components: affective, behavioral and cognitive. This model gives a clear understanding of a person’s behavior.

**Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis**

This is one hypothesis out of five hypotheses from Stephen Krashen’s second language acquisition theory. According to Krashen, acquisition and learning are different learning systems. Acquisition is subconscious and requires speakers to be immersed in natural communication. While Learning is a conscious process and it focuses more on instruction and structures.

**Andragogy**

This refers to the methods and instructions for adult learning. It emphasizes on learners’ previous experiences and is problem-based and rely more on the learners’ self-decisions.

**Attitude**

An attitude is a mental or neural state of readiness, a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings and behaviors towards a particular object and situation. An attitude is people’s mindset or inclination to act in a particular way based on their own experiences. According to the ABC model of attitudes, affect, behavior and cognition are
three components of a person’s attitudes. This study investigates these components through three categories: motivation, communication, and teaching and learning:

**Motivation.**

Motivation determines the direction and magnitude of human behavior or the choice of a particular action, the persistence with it, and the effort expended on it. In his socio-educational model, Gardner defined motivation as “the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity” (Gardner, 1985).

**Communication.**

This is a process that people interact with each other and transfer their information to each other. In the course of communicating in a second language, people use the second language to convey and receive their information and negotiation of meaning occurs.

**Teaching and learning.**

Teaching and learning is a process that is related to the acquisition of knowledge. Teaching involves sharing knowledge and learning involves acquiring knowledge.

**Chinese Language Academy**

This Chinese language academy is located in Bangkok, Thailand. It offers Chinese courses to both adult learners and children; in this study, the researcher focuses only on courses for adult learners. For adult learners, there are three different learning levels of course:

**Beginning level.**
The academy’s course for beginning learners who have no basic knowledge of Chinese. Five courses, including Chinese phonetic writing, Chinese characters and basic conversation, are provided.

**Intermediate level.**

The academy’s course for intermediate level learners who have studied Chinese for about one year. Learners at this level should have passed Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi (HSK) Level Three or have the equal or better Chinese language ability. Students are going to learn daily conversations, formal conversations and more advanced grammar in this level.

**Advanced level.**

The academy’s course for high level learners who have studied Chinese for more than four years and have acquired proficiency in Chinese. Learners at this level should have passed Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi (HSK) Level Five or have an equivalent or better Chinese language ability. Learners learn more about Chinese culture and argumentative writing at this level.

**Communication Anxiety**

This is a negative feeling during communication in second language acquisition. It could come from undesirable experiences when learning a second language or from one’s deficiency of language skill. Language learning can be less effective when the level of anxiety rises.

**Foreign Language**

A foreign language is a language that is originally from another country and is not spoken in the learner’s country.

**HSK test**
Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi. It is a standardized test to test Chinese language proficiency for non-native Chinese speakers. The test has six levels in total. Passing HSK Level Four is a basic requirement for Thai learners who want to engage in Chinese-related jobs.

**Instrumental Motivation**

This is the practical reasons for a second language learner to learn a target language, such as to achieve a higher score in a language test, get more job opportunities or a higher salary, etc.

**Integrative Motivation**

This is a positive attitude towards the society the second language comes from, and a desire to interact with people from the community of the target language. It could have a deep impact on ones' motivation for second language acquisition, according to Gardner’s Socio-educational Model of Second Language Acquisition.

**Native Speaker Fallacy**

This is a term introduced by Phillipson (1992), who defined the idea that “native speakers” are better teachers as fallacious. It is later frequently used in the discussion on the difference between native-speaking teachers and non-native-speaking teachers.

**Native Chinese Speaking Teachers (NCST)**

NCST are Chinese teachers who teach Chinese as a foreign language. Those teachers are native speakers of the first language that they learn, usually in a corresponding mother-tongue country (China, Taiwan and Singapore), and continue to use as their dominant language.

**Non-Native Chinese Speaking Teachers (NNCST)**
In this study, NNCST only refers to Thai teachers working as Chinese teachers in the Chinese Language Academy in Bangkok, Thailand. They are certified in Chinese teaching and all of them can speak fluent Chinese.

**Pedagogy**

This is the antonym of andragogy, it means the art and science of teaching children. It emphasizes on teacher-centered learning.

**Second Language Acquisition (SLA)**

Second language acquisition and learning describe the process of coming to understand, speak and write another language fluently.

**Willingness to Communicate (WTC)**

WTC describes the level of desire that a second language learner want to communicate with others in the target language. It is often influenced by many factors such as communicative self-confidence and anxiety.

**Significance of the Study**

This study can make a meaningful contribution for teachers as the discrimination against non-native-speaking teachers is still remarkable. This study explored adult learners’ attitudes towards different groups of teachers based on their real experiences by analyzing the data collected from the questionnaire. Discrimination against NNCSTs when hiring can be decreased and requirements to hire both NCSTs and NNCSTs made stricter. On the other hand, all teachers, whether NCSTs or NNCSTs, have a clear idea of the expectation students have of them and can play to their strengths.

This study will benefit the Chinese language academy as well by helping it to build a stronger Chinese language program with appropriate teachers and appropriate teaching philosophies, adult Chinese language learners in this academy could benefit from this
research through the development of higher-quality teaching and more tailored language courses.

Future researchers could also benefit from this study. Since most previous research has focused on teaching English as a second language, and no previous studies have discussed the situation of Chinese teaching in Thailand, this research extends the study of second language teaching.
CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the first chapter, the researcher presented the research objectives, research hypotheses and the overall outline of the research. This chapter reviews relevant literature in the following sections Chinese Language Learning in Thailand, Self-perceptions of Native-speaking Teachers and Non-native-speaking Teachers, Students’ Attitudes Towards Native-speaking Teachers and Non-native-speaking Teachers, Investigations of Native and Non-native Chinese Teachers, A Chinese Language Academy in Bangkok, Thailand, and Summary of the Relevant Literature.

Chinese Language Learning in Thailand

China’s economy is developing rapidly, which makes the knowledge of Chinese language an important factor to be competitive in the globalization era. In addition, thanks to the intermarriage between Chinese refugees and immigrants and Thai in the past, most of Thai people are descendants of Chinese (Kanoksilpatham, 2011; Liu, 2015). These factors lead to a trend to learn Chinese language and understand its culture in Thailand. In 1992, Chinese language had been available to learn by the public, rather than just a peripheral subject. Since 1998, Chinese language has become one of the foreign language subjects in high school, each year, the number of students learning Chinese in Thailand is over 300,000 (Kanoksilpatham, 2011). Since 2001, the Office of the Basic Education Commission under the Ministry of Education in Thailand has announced that Chinese language is another language of the foreign language strand in the curriculum. OBEC pronounced the result that till 2013, there were more than 700 schools offering Chinese language to their students from primary school to high school level, those schools included 125 Chinese schools, 458 public and 138 private schools (Masuntisuk, 2013), as well as 32 out of 120 international school in
Thailand offering Chinese subject (International School Association of Thailand, 2016), in addition to vocational schools and other languages institutions that provided Chinese language.

The increasing need for Chinese learning lead to the questions: how is the quality of Chinese education in Thailand? Who should teach Chinese to Thai students? Previous research showed that Thai students performed unsatisfactorily in the Chinese standardized test (Theeravit et al., 2008). In the university entrance examinations of 2010, the mean scores of Chinese language of the high school students were 85 out of a total of 300 points (http://www.niets.or.th). Scholars have studied the probable reasons for the failure of Chinese teaching and learning in Thailand (Kanoksilpatham, 2011), and shown that low quality of teachers, preference for grammar and rote learning and inadequacy of teaching materials are the main factors that hindering success. Masuntsuk (2013) found that many of the Chinese teachers, both native and non-native, had no related degree in teaching Chinese as a foreign language, they get the teaching job only because they could speak the language or they were volunteers who are willing to teach Chinese in Thailand. Masuntsuk (2013) suggestd that many native Chinese speaking teachers in Thailand could not speak Thai or English thus creating a big problem when communicating with students. In addition, teaching materials used by Thai schools were reported to be designed for Westerners to study Chinese in China via English, not for Thai people study in Thai (Kanoksilpatham, 2011).

**Difference Between Adult and Children Learning**

This study was limited to adult learners’ attitudes, due to the possibility that children and adults may learn a new language in different ways thus will have different opinions on who should be their teachers. The terms “andragogy” and “pedagogy” were firstly derived from the 7-12th centuries’ Europe. They were then introduced to United State by Knowles in the late 1960’s (Friestad, 1998). According to Greek, this two terms’ literal
meaning are “the art and science of teaching child” and “the art and science of teaching man or adult.” Knowles gave a new interpretation to the word “andragogy” by defining it “art and science of helping adults learn” (Knowled, 1980, p.43), this definition emphasized the role of adult learners themselves during the learning process.

When talking about the difference between andragogy and pedagogy, it is important to refer to Krashen’s acquisition-learning hypothesis (Krashen, 1988). According to Krashen, there are two independent systems during a language learning process: acquired system and learned system. Acquiring language is a subconscious process which requires meaningful interaction, speakers focus on communicative actions rather than how do they speak or the correctness of their speeches. This is similar to the process when children are trying to acquire their first language. On the other hand, learning is more conscious, it is the result of formal instruction and focus on the knowledge about the target language. People who “learn” a language are always trying to cram knowledge into their brains and focus on grammar structure too much. This process had the similarity with methods that adult learners will use when they are trying to learn a second language. Krashen also claims the learned system is less important and less effective than acquired system.

McDonough (2013) compared Cambourne’s condition of learning and Knowles’ adult learning theory and summarized the similarities and difference learning processes between adults and children. He claims that both of adults and children need to be immersed in the new learning and then actively participate in the learning process. They also need motivation, an environment that they feel safe and comfortable to use the language, and opportunity of employ the new learning. Responsibility for themselves and feedbacks are also very important.

In another aspect, one big difference between adult and child’s learning is the adult learner has more prior knowledge from a lot of life experiences than the child learner, therefore, an adult may need less time to transfer and internalize the new knowledge than a
Children also make connections between new knowledge and their prior life, according to Cambourne (1988), but that are unconscious ones and are natural process of learning. Moreover, according to McDonough, adults are self-directed and autonomous, that is to say, adult learners make conscious decisions for themselves, whereas a child is consciously immersed in the new learning and receives demonstrations by significant others, for example, their parents.

Self-Attitudes of Native-Speaking Teachers and Non-Native-Speaking Teachers

Definition of Native Speakers and Non-Native Speakers

The focus of this study is to identify whether there is a difference in Chinese language adult learners’ attitudes toward NCSTs and NNCSTs according to their different learning levels. Therefore, it is necessary to discuss definitions of the terms “native” and “nonnative”. Crystal (2003) gives a linguistics definition of native speaker and native speaker. According to Crystal, a native language is acquired naturally during childhood, when using their native language, native speakers will have the most trustable intuitions and the most reliable ways of using this language.

However, this linguistics-focused definition ignores several factors. Kramsch (1995) points out that besides having intuitions about their language, native speakers must be recognized by the relevant speech community to be able to communicate with full competence and can therefore be defined as a native speaker.

Davies (2003, p.203) offers a final definition of “native”, which should include the following elements:

1. Acquiring the language during childhood.
2. Ability to understand and accurately produce idiomatic forms of the language.
3. Understanding how standard forms of the language differ from the variant that they themselves speak.
4. Competent production and comprehension of fluent, spontaneous discourse.

Except the first element, these abilities can be acquired by a nonnative speaker with adequate motivation, chances to practice and effort. This way, a nonnative could become a “new” native speaker (Davies, 2004).

As these varying accounts show, it is very difficult to define who is a native speaker and who is a nonnative speaker. In this study, the definition of a “native speaker” will be narrowed down to a speaker who acquires the language during their childhood, continues to use it as the dominant language, and has a full competence in using this language.

Previous Studies of Self-Attitudes of Native-Speaking Teachers and Non-Native-Speaking Teachers

Much research has been conducted to investigate the different self-attitudes of native-speaking teachers and non-native-speaking teachers. Most focuses on the field of English-language teaching. Medgyes, the vanguard of research into the differences between native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), points out that nonnative-speaking teachers tend to adopt two kinds of attitudes when using the language they have to teach: pessimistic or aggressive. As language learners themselves, the pessimistic teachers put much more importance on the standard form of language but ignore pronunciation and vocabulary, not to mention appropriate use of the language. The aggressive type of teacher, on the other hand, likes to choose a safer way to teach the language by being grammar-centered and seldom utilizing other teaching resources such as audio or video, which Medgyes asserts is in order to save face in front of their students. Another probable weakness of non-native teachers is, of course, the teaching of cultural context, as mentioned by Medgyes, which non-native teachers tend to ignore simply because they are not familiar with it.
As for the advantages of non-native-speaking teachers, Medgyes lists six points on which they are better than their native counterparts (Medgyes 1992, as cited by Merino, 1997, p.75):

1. Only NNESTs can serve as imitable models for the successful learner of English.
2. NNESTs can teach learning strategies more effectively.
3. NNESTs can provide learners with more information about the language.
4. NNESTs are more able to anticipate language difficulties.
5. NNESTs can be more empathetic to the needs and problems of their learners.
6. Only NNESTs can benefit from sharing the learner’s mother tongue.

Revés and Medgyes (1994) conducted an international survey of 216 English teachers from 10 different countries in order to examine the following hypotheses: (1) there is a significant difference between NESTs and NNESTs in terms of their teaching practices (behavior); (2) it is their different level of language ability that leads to various teaching behavior; and (3) their self-awareness of these differences has impact on their “self-attitudes and teaching attitudes” (p. 354). The results showed that differences in language proficiency do exist. 84% of the NNESTs reported that they have difficulty with vocabulary, pronunciation and listening when using English, and these self-perceived difficulties affected their teaching behavior. When dealing with a language which is not their mother tongue, NNESTs tend to isolate the content from the overall context. The main reason for this is their relatively poor language proficiency, especially in terms of oral ability (Revés & Medgyes, 1994). When teachers are not confident enough about their own language proficiency, they tend to automatically focus more on language or grammar proficiency rather than teaching methods (Chacón, 2005).

In order to examine NNSTs self-attitudes in the field of English teaching and how they perceived the different teaching behavior of NNESTs and NSTs, Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (2001) conducted a survey using both quantitative and qualitative methods on 17
NNST subjects from 8 countries. The results showed that more than 67% of the subjects felt they had difficulties when teaching the language which is not their mother tongue, and about 90% of the subjects reported a difference between NNSTs and NSTs. Based on the results, NSTs teach in a more informal and flexible way, using authentic and accurate language and giving communication in the target language, rather than examinations, the most importance. NNSTs, on the other hand, rely more on textbooks, and tend to make a connection between the first and second language by teaching and explaining in the first language. As language learners themselves, NNSTs have more empathy for students and communicate more with students. Examination results are still the most critical criterion for NNSTs. The differences between NSTs and NNSTs showed in the study do not necessarily mean that native speakers are better second language teachers than their non-native counterparts, and these differences might come from the cultural differences between countries (Brutt-Griffler and Samimy, 2001). Arva and Medgyes (2000) examine the differences in teaching behavior between NESTs and NNESTs. They carried out a survey of 325 native and non-native English teachers and assessed their teaching behavior with respect to their own use of English, their general attitudes, their attitudes to teaching the language, and their attitudes to teaching culture. NESTs have a better command of English and thus focus more on creative classroom activities rather than on language accuracy. Such teachers will seek diverse teaching methods, be more student-centered, give students less homework and emphasize tests less. NESTs can skip over language accuracy and emphasize communication factors such as fluency and oral skills. However, native teachers can be perceived as less committed to teaching, having not systematically learnt their mother tongue as a second language before, and NESTs cannot avoid lacking a first-hand understanding of their students’ situation. By contrast, NNESTs prefer to be limited to the scope of the textbook, choose more controlled activities such as recitation or grammar and translation exercises, or simply give teacher-centered lectures. NNESTs also give more homework to their students according to this research. When
NNESTs are teaching, they place more importance on grammar, language accuracy and standard English. As second language learners themselves, NNESTs have a shared experience with the students and thus empathize with them more easily. They also have more realistic expectations of students. The conclusions are summarized in the table below.

Table 1  
Perceived Differences in Teaching Behavior of NESTs and NNESTs (taken from Cakir and Demir, 2013, p.39)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NESTs</th>
<th>NNESTs</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Own Use of English</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Speak better English</td>
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<td>Speak poorer English</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use real language</td>
<td></td>
<td>Use “bookish” language</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use English more confidently</td>
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<td>Use English less confidently</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>General Attitudes</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Adopt a more flexible approach</td>
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<td>Adopt a more guided approach</td>
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<tr>
<td>Are more innovative</td>
<td></td>
<td>Are more cautious</td>
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<tr>
<td>Are less empathetic</td>
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<td>Are more empathetic</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attend to perceived needs</td>
<td></td>
<td>Attend to real needs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Have far-fetched expectations</td>
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<td>Have realistic expectations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Are more casual</td>
<td></td>
<td>Are stricter</td>
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<td>Are less committed</td>
<td></td>
<td>Are more committed</td>
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(continued)
### Attitudes to teaching the language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NESTs</th>
<th>NNESTs</th>
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<tr>
<td>Are less insightful</td>
<td>Are more insightful</td>
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<tr>
<td>Focus on:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>Language in use</td>
<td>Grammar rules</td>
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<td>Oral skills</td>
<td>Printed word</td>
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<tr>
<td>Colloquial registers</td>
<td>Formal registers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teach items in context</td>
<td>Teach items in isolation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer free activities</td>
<td>Prefer controlled activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favor group work/pair work</td>
<td>Favor frontal work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use a variety of materials</td>
<td>Using single textbook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerate errors</td>
<td>Correct/punish for errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set fewer tests</td>
<td>Set more tests</td>
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Learners’ Attitudes Towards Native and Non-native-speaking Teachers

Learners’ Motivations and Attitudes in Second Language Learning (ABC Model of Attitudes)

Motivation and attitudes are often believed to play an important role in facilitating language learning. The literature on these two concepts overlaps, because motivation is the initial reason for a person to do something and attitudes are a person’s feelings or beliefs, and it is not difficult to understand that if a person has a positive feeling or belief about doing something, they have a reason to do it (Oroujlou & Vahedi, 2011). For example, a learner who feels entertained and relaxed in Chinese class will be more motivated and have more reasons to continue learning. According to Gardner (1985), there are three components of motivation which are people's effort, their desire to accomplish learning objectives and their positive attitudes towards the target language. This shows that attitude are components of motivation.

As noted by earlier studies, language learners who are motivated to learn a new language will do their best to fulfill their goals (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Lennartsson, 2008; Oroujlou & Vahedi, 2011). According to Latchanna and Dagnew (2009), attitude can be defined as a mental state which involves feelings and a set of beliefs about an object or situation, and we can understand a person’s behavior by analyzing his or her attitudes. Sometimes, learners’ beliefs and feelings can impede learning if they do not have enough self-confidence to learn the target language successfully, or if they have an unfavorable feeling about the language, the teacher or the class (Lennartsson, 2008).

Motivation is one of the determining factors that improves learning efficiency. For teachers, the goal of effective instruction is not only to make academic progress, but also to enhance learners’ motivation (Oroujlou & Vahedi, 2011). Although motivation is often a focus of scholars and researchers, there is not an agreement on its definition. Gardner and Lambert (1972) were pioneers who led the study of the implications of motivation for language
learning, from emphasizing the role of the individual to focusing on the relationship between the first language and second language communities. Gardner defined motivation as “the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity” (Gardner, 1985, p.10).

As stated in the socio-educational model of second language acquisition, motivation in second language learning includes two different orientations: integrative motivation and instrumental motivation (Gardner, 1985). Integrative motivation refers to a positive feeling about the target language; learners who have this kind of motivation normally like the people from the target country, admire the culture and would like to commit themselves to the community (Gardner, 1985). Such learners are believed to be better at learning a target language (Falk, 1978), and normally will have a desire to become bilingual or even bicultural. According to Benson (1991), the addition of another culture and its language to the learners’ own culture promotes integrative motivation. Another form of motivation is instrumental motivation, which refers to a more practical desire. In this case, the purpose of learning a second language is more concrete and utilitarian; people learn a certain language out of the desire to get a better job, a higher salary or other practical goals (Gardner, 1985).

The definition of attitude is also complex. According to Allport (1954, as cited in Pickens, p.44), attitude is “a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related”. Pickens (2005) defined attitude as a person’s mindset or inclination to act in a certain way based on a person’s own experiences (Pickens, 2005). Later on, Hogg and Vaughan pointed out that attitudes are “relatively enduring organizations” which includes the tendency of people’s feelings, actions and thoughts. (Hogg, & Vaughan 2005, p. 150) The phrase “enduring” implies that attitudes are gained from learning, and since it is learned, it can be unlearned or be changed. According to Oroujlou and Vahedi (2011), attitudes are not innate but are often the result of past experience or
upbringing; people are not born with positive or negative attitudes. Learners’ attitudes develop within a frame of reference: the language itself and the target culture, the teacher and the class, the textbook and even the homework can gradually impact learners’ attitudes. Attitudes can be changed by different situations; if a learner dislikes a second language, his or her attitudes can still be made positive if appropriate instruction is given. Moreover, attitudes are beliefs and feelings that can be generalized; if a learner hates learning, he or she may bring the same attitude to a second-language classroom and presume that language learning is uninteresting (Oroujloj & Vahedi, 2011). Therefore, it is important to help learners to maintain a positive attitude towards the second-language learning process.

According to McLeod (2009), attitudes structures include three components, known as the ABC model of attitudes which tries to explain the attitudes of individuals, and help us to have a better understanding of certain behaviors. The ABC model includes:

1. Affective component: this includes people’s feelings or emotions about an object or situation. For example: “I like my Chinese teacher and I enjoy learning the language.”

2. Behavioral component: this refers to how people act or behave towards the object. For example: “I take my Chinese learning seriously and am willing to communicate with Chinese people.” Attitudes often have a strong impact on people’s behavior, and understanding people’s attitudes helps us to predict their possible behaviors (Katz, 1960).

3. Cognitive component: this component involves people’s knowledge and beliefs about an object. For example: “I believe Chinese learning is useful.”

According to Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard and Hogg (2010), this ABC model of attitudes is a “multidimensional perspective stating that attitudes are jointly defined by affect, behavior and cognition” (Solomon et al., 2010, p. 125). This model gives a better understanding of a person’s behavior (Katz, 1960).
To summarize, a person's attitudes can be explained through three components: how a person feels about an object (e.g., how learners feel about their Chinese teachers); what a person does about an object (e.g., whether the learner keeps quiet in a Chinese-speaking context or tries their best to communicate); what beliefs and knowledge a person hold towards an object (e.g., a learner’s beliefs about how their NCSTs and NNCSTS could help them with Chinese learning). This study investigates learners’ attitudes towards their NCSTs and NNCSTS in three categories: motivation, communication, and teaching and learning.

Willingness to Communicate

Willingness to communicate (WTC) is a concept in first and second language learning defined by MacIntyre (1994). It refers to an individual's readiness to initiate discourse in a certain L2 with people from the L2 community. It first emerged in the 1980s, and has attracted increasing interest in recent decades. Research showed that when the level of WTC increases, language fluency and communication participation also increase; as a result, language performance improves.

MacIntyre pointed out that second language learners are not necessarily second language speakers (1996). Just think about the market for learning English as a second language. Many people spend years learning English and get high scores in paper tests, but cannot really use the language to communicate. On the other hand, some language learners with limited vocabulary are able to express whatever they want. As a result, MacIntyre and Charos (1996) argue that instead of gaining higher language proficiency, the goal of learning a second language should be to use this language practically in real life, such as by meeting new people, traveling or working. In fact, a person’s language ability tends to be the means to achieve this interpersonal goal. Therefore, WTC is an interpersonal and intercultural concept which represents the probability of initiating a conversation when allowed to do so.
Many factors have an impact on WTC, such as gender, attitude, anxiety, and other variables like time, place and the situation of communication (MacIntyre et al, 1996).

According to Clement, Baker and MacIntyre (2003), there are three variables that have an impact on WTC: L2 anxiety, communication apprehension and self-perceived competence. This means the lower the level of anxiety and apprehension of L2 learners, and the more they perceive themselves as competitive communicators, the higher their level of WTC.

In 1994, MacIntyre developed the path model of WTC in L2 (MacIntyre, 1994), which was the first model of WTC in L2 acquisition. Then, Charos and MacIntyre (1996) modified this model by adding the factors of “integrativeness”, which refers to an interest, identification with the second language community, with their culture and beliefs; “attitudes” and “motivation” from Gardner’s socio-educational model of second language acquisition. This model focuses on the impact that affective variables such as attitudes, motivation, integrativeness, perceived communication competence, and anxiety have on WTC. According to this model, both motivation and perceived communication competence have a direct influence on WTC, while integrativeness and anxiety have an indirect impact on WTC. The different variables and their relationships are shown in Figure 2.

![Diagram](image)

*Figure 2. Path model of variables influencing WTC. (Diagram created by the researcher based on MacIntyre, 1994.)*
Subsequently, the path model was developed into the heuristic model by MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei and Noels in 1998 (MacIntyre et al., 1998). This is a pyramid model of WTC, which includes six layers and twelve constructs; higher levels indicate a stronger tendency to initiate communication. These six layers are Communication Behavior, Behavioral Intention, Situated Antecedents, Motivational Propensities, Affective-Cognitive Context, and Social and Individual Context, shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. The heuristic model of variables influencing WTC. (From “Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation,” by P. D. MacIntyre et al., 1998, Modern Language Journal, 82, p. 545-562.)

These 12 constructs involve both situational factors and enduring factors. Situational factors can be changed from time to time, for instance by how the speaker feels today, who the speaker is talking to, and what they are talking about. These factors include: L2 use, willingness to communicate, desire to communicate with a specific person, self-
confidence in communication, and anxiety. Enduring factors stay at the lower layers of the heuristic model, and are motivational propensities which include interpersonal and intergroup motivation, self-confidence in the L2, affective-cognitive contexts composed via intergroup attitudes, social similarities and communication competence, and social and individual contexts include intergroup atmosphere and personality.

Charos and MacIntyre (1996) investigated adult learners studying French as a second language, and found that personality traits and social context have an indirect impact on WTC and the frequency of interaction in L2 through learners’ attitudes, motivation, language anxiety and self-perceived competence. More chances to communicate in L2 can also increase the level of frequency of L2 use. Baker and MacIntyre’s research (2000) on French learners whose mother tongue is English also supports this finding.

According to Partridge (2015), after applying the think-pair-share method over eight weeks in a foreign language classroom in a Thai school, students reported no significant decrease in their language anxiety, which was in accordance with Gardner (1985) and MacIntyre (1996)’s argument that language anxiety is a stable personality trait which occurs when speakers perceive themselves as not proficient in the target language.

The social context also influences learners’ WTC; after all, the huge cultural differences and their influence on personality across societies cannot be ignored. Wen (2003) found that Chinese students have a low average WTC, and this is due to two reasons. Firstly, Chinese culture is strongly influenced by Confucianism, which emphasizes recitation and teacher-centered learning. In many Chinese classrooms today, teachers still simply give lectures to students and leave few chances for students to practice by themselves. Secondly, according to Wen, there is a culture of “the other-directed self” in China and many other Asian countries. This culture puts much importance on family and community, and does not regard individuals as single entities; instead, “only in the presence of the other, will the self be significant” (Chai & Chai, 1965; as cited in Wen & Clément, 2003, p.20).
Thai L2 learners have similar characteristics. Hofstede’s (2001) survey showed that Thailand is a collectivist society, characterized by the intention to establish personal networks and the need to keep the hierarchical system embedded (Wichiajarote, 1973). This suggests that in a L2 classroom, learners’ WTC varies according to their evaluation of others’ attitudes to themselves, which may result in “losing face” (Pattapong, 2015). Pattapong (2015) also found that the role of interlocutors impacts learners WTC to a great extent. Influenced by their hierarchical culture, Thai learners will regard themselves as “inferior” and teachers are “superior”, which will increase their L2 anxiety, and decrease their communicative self-confidence and their desire to communicate with the teachers at the same time (MacIntyre, 1998).

**Learners’ Attitudes Towards Teaching and Learning**

Much research has been done since Medgye (1983)’s first discussion of the differences between NS and NNS teachers; however, in the twenty years following his study, almost every study focused only on teachers’ own attitudes. Not until recently did research explore students’ attitudes to their NNS and NS teachers. One of the first studies in this area was conducted at Brigham Young University, Utah by Moussus (2002), who wanted to know the first impressions of L2 learners of their NNS teachers, and other possible variables that could influence this. Besides that, he also wanted to understand student differences in attitudes towards their NNS English teacher on the first and last days learning with them. The results showed that students had a positive view towards their NNS teacher in the first lesson, and that although these attitudes might change during teaching and learning, this change was due to other reasons such as students’ first language or the curriculum itself rather than the teacher’s nationality. Moreover, L2 learners reported an increasingly positive view of their NNS teacher over time; 76% of the learners said that they would suggest their friends attend an NNS teacher’s class at the end of their course, compared to 56% at the beginning.
Liang (2002) also studied students' attitudes towards NNS English teachers. Twenty L2 learners from a university in California were asked to listen to audio recordings from six NNS teachers, and then given a questionnaire about their attitudes towards those teachers' accents. The results surprisingly showed that although the L2 learners put importance on teachers' pronunciation, this did not affect their preferences for those NNS teachers. Instead, the L2 learners marked other features such as the teachers' personality, preparedness and professionalism as more desirable factors when choosing an L2 teacher. According to Liang (2002), instead of focusing on L2 teachers' nationalities and ethnic backgrounds, teachers' personal and professional qualities play a more important role in shaping students' preferences.

Cheung (2002) investigated both students’ and teachers’ attitudes towards NS and NNS in a single study. She collected her data from 430 students and 22 teachers from different universities in Hong Kong through instruments including questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation. Cheung (2002) found that both the students and teachers had different requirements for NS and NNS teachers. For example, NS teachers were expected to have a higher language proficiency and aptitude, be able to use the language functionally, and be able to offer information related to cultural issues. On the other hand, the students and teachers regarded NNS teachers as models of successful second language learners who were assumed to have more empathy and awareness of grammatical structure. Other features that Cheung (2002) found were important for L2 teachers were professionalism, being well-informed about the language, and other affective factors such as personality, teaching methods, and an ability to create a good classroom atmosphere.

In his doctoral research, Mahboob (2003) investigated learners’ attitudes to NS teachers and NNS teachers in the US. Thirty-two learners did the survey on attitudes towards both NS and NNS teachers. Those comments were later categorized according to three factors: linguistic factors, teaching styles and personal factors. The results showed that the L2
learners commented differently on their NS and NNS teachers. The learners had positive views of NS teachers’ accents, huge vocabulary, and knowledge about the culture. However, since those NS teachers had not learned the same L2 as the students, they were criticized as having less empathy and being relatively weak on grammar. On the other hand, the NNS teachers were preferred for their identities as second language learners, and were regarded as understanding students’ emotions better, focusing on grammar and working harder without taking the language for granted. But the NNS teachers’ oral skills and their deficiency in cultural knowledge were negative concerns of the L2 students.

In his research, Mahboob (2003) also investigated the second language teachers’ hiring situation in the USA. He reported that although a high amount of NNS students graduated in relevant teacher-education programs, there was still a preference for NS teachers in most language institutions in the USA (59.8%). The employment rate of NNS teachers in language programs in the USA is only 7.9%. Mahboob (2003) acclaimed that the importance given to NS teachers led to the low proportion of NNS teachers in ESL in the USA; however, this situation could potentially change because according to ESL learners, NS teachers are not necessarily better teachers; both NS and NNS have their strengths and weaknesses as far as L2 learners are concerned.

Investigation of Native and Non-Native Chinese Teachers

There have not been many studies carried out in the Chinese-teaching field. Thomas (2014), as a Chinese learner himself, did research to examine the differences between NCSTs and NNCSTs, along with the advantages and disadvantages of each group. He devised five field research experiments which use different instruments including teacher and student surveys, student classwork and classroom observation. The results showed that while students only see NCSTs and NNCSTs as slightly different, more NNCSTs than NCSTs think nativeness is not a necessary factor for good instruction. According to the data Thomas (2014)
collected, NCSTs speak Chinese (88% of the time) more than their NNS counterparts (72% of the time), so he suggested that, for certain courses, such as listening and conversation, an NS teacher is more suitable and could also be a better teacher for high-level students. 57% of students of NNCSTs reported that reading activities were their favorite, and all students self-evaluated reading as their highest skill.

Although much research has been done to discuss the differences between NESTs and NNESTs there is a huge gap in the exploration of Chinese teaching. Considering the cultural differences between Chinese-speaking countries and English-speaking countries, more research should be done.

A Chinese Language Academy in Bangkok, Thailand

The Chinese Language Academy is a Chinese language institution in Bangkok, Thailand. The academy was built in 1992, and has different Chinese courses listed on its website, including regular Chinese courses for children, regular Chinese courses for adults, speaking courses, business courses, HSK courses, Chinese character writing courses and guzheng courses (a traditional Chinese musical instrument). This study focuses on the regular Chinese courses for adults only.

The academy has three different learning levels for adults: beginning, intermediate and advanced level. The beginning level includes 5 courses while the intermediate and advanced levels include 10 courses each. Every course has its own course code, textbook, and examination paper. The course codes for the beginning levels are from C1001 to C1005; students at this level are new to Chinese and learn the phonetic Pinyin Romanization system, very basic daily conversation and around 300 Chinese characters. The intermediate course codes are from C2001 to C2010; students at this level have learnt Chinese for one year and will be taught more grammar and more advanced conversation, with topics including seeing a doctor, holding a New Year's party or discussing simple life problems. The advanced level
includes C3001 to C3010; at this level, more content about Chinese culture is provided, and
students are required to read articles about technology, science and arts. The beginning level
takes around one year to complete, while the intermediate and advanced levels take two years.
A semester at this language academy has a duration of eight weeks with 40 teaching hours,
five each week. Learners come to the school after work on weekdays or at weekends, and
there are five semesters per year.

The language academy has both NCSTs and NNCSTs. 15 of the 22 NCSTs can
speak fluent Thai, half of them having been in Thailand for more than 10 years. The other
seven NCSTs who cannot speak Thai are graduates who majored in Teaching Chinese as a
Second Language; normally they are arranged to teach upper intermediate to advanced
learners. As for the eight NNCSTs, all of them are ethnic Chinese who were born in Thailand
and can speak fluent Chinese, currently taking responsibility to teach children and adult
beginners and lower intermediate learners.
CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the following sections: Research Design, Population and Sample, Research Instrument, Validity and Reliability, Collection of Data, Data Analysis, and a Summary of the Research Process.

Research Design

The main purpose of this research was to determine whether there is a significant difference among the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to students’ different learning levels in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand. In order to achieve this purpose, the researcher designed a comparative quantitative study which employed descriptive and inferential statistics. A questionnaire submitted to 124 adult learners from three different learning levels in a Chinese language academy was used to investigate if there is a significant difference among the attitudes of learners towards native Chinese speaking teachers and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their different learning levels in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand at a significance level of .05. An one-way ANOVA test was used to determine whether such a significant difference exists.

Population

The population of this study was the adult learners at the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand. The semester when this study was conducted, there were respectively 12, 15, 8 classes from the beginning level, intermediate level and advanced level, the total number of classes was 35, with a population of 574 adult learners.
Sample

The researcher selected nine classes out of 35 classes from the three learning levels as the sample of the study. There were fewer learners per class at higher levels, in order to have similar number of learners from each level, forty-one adult learners from two out of 12 beginning level classes, forty-five adult learners from three out of 15 intermediate level classes and thirty-eight adult learners from four out of eight advanced level classes were randomly selected. All of the selected learners were aged between 18 and 70. Table 2 shows the sample for this study.

Table 2

*The Number of Adult Learners Selected from Beginning, Intermediate and Advanced Level at the Language Academy in Bangkok, Thailand*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class level</th>
<th>Class code</th>
<th>Number of adult learners</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beginning level</td>
<td>C1003</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C1004</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C2003</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate level</td>
<td>C2006</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C2008</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C3001</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced level</td>
<td>C3002</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C3004</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C3008</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The sample group for this research was 124 adult learners. The study was conducted in the third semester of July 2018.

Research Instrument

The instrument of this study was the learners' Attitudes towards Native-Speaking Teachers and Non-Native-Speaking Teachers Questionnaire developed by Cakir and Demir in 2013 (Appendix A). The original instrument was a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire made up of 33 items with possible answers ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” The items on this questionnaire were mostly developed by Cakir and Demir (2013) and a few statements taken from Moussu (2006)'s study. Among the 33 items, item 13 “I think English instructors should all speak with a perfect British accent” was adapted from item 23 of Moussu’s questionnaire “English teachers should all speak with a perfect American accent”, and item 25 “I don’t care whether my instructor is a native or non-native speaker as long as he/she is a good teacher for me.” was taken from item 26 “I don’t care where my teacher is from, as long as he/she is a good teacher for me”. The researcher then deleted two items that showed preference for both of native-speaking teachers and non-native-speaking teachers since this study was aimed at investigate whether learners have different attitudes towards native and non-native teachers. These two items are item 23 “I would prefer to be taught by both NES and NNES instructors at the same time rather than by just one of the two” and item 25 “I don’t care whether my instructor is a native or non-native speaker as long as he/she is a good teacher for me.”

This questionnaire was also modified by the researcher for researching Chinese teaching. It consisted of three parts: a cover letter stating the purpose of the research; a demographic section collecting respondents’ personal data, including class code, gender, previous learning experience with native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers; and a 5-
point Likert scale questionnaire made up of 31 items with possible answers ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”.

The questionnaire was arranged according to three categories: “motivation” (items 1-6), “communication” (items 7-13) and “teaching/learning” (items 14-31). In part 3 of this questionnaire, 21 items indicate preference for NCSTs, marked by the researcher as positively keyed, and another 10 indicate preference for NNCSTs, marked as negatively keyed. Those negatively keyed items’ scores were reversed when counting the results (see Chapter IV).

Table 3 shows the breakdown of the survey instrument and Table 4 shows the interpretive scale of the questionnaire.

Table 3

*Breakdown of the Survey Instrument*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Positively keyed items</th>
<th>Negatively keyed items</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>7, 11, 12, 13</td>
<td>8, 9, 10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and learning</td>
<td>14, 15, 18, 19, 23, 23</td>
<td>16, 17, 20, 21, 22, 24</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30</td>
<td>30, 31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>21</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>31</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4

*Interpretation Scale of Questionnaire*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.51 - 5.00</td>
<td>High preference for NCST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.51 - 4.50</td>
<td>Slight preference for NCST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither disagree nor agree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.51 - 3.50</td>
<td>No preference for either NCST or NNCST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.51 - 2.50</td>
<td>Slight preference for NNCST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.00 - 1.50</td>
<td>High preference for NNCST</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Validity and Reliability of the Instrument*

To establish the construct validity of the instrument, the items in the questionnaire were first investigated by two assistant professors and one instructor in Turkish language and then re-checked by two assistant professors in the ELT field. The items in the questionnaire were then adapted based on the experts’ feedback. In addition, to establish reliability, the reliability coefficient was found to be .83, sufficient for its use in the study (Cakir & Demir, 2013). The original questionnaire did not provide the alpha value of each subscale, in this study, the researcher used a statistical software program to count the Cronbach’s alpha value of each subscales and the total reliability coefficient, the reliability statistics are showed in Table 5.
Due to the fact that the questionnaire was given to Thai students in their mother tongue, it was translated into Thai by a language translation agency in Bangkok, Thailand. It was then independently back-translated into English by three experts from the faculty of arts in Chulalongkorn University, the average working years as English teachers of the experts is 18 years. Then the researcher checked the back-translations with the original version and made corrections as needed. Both the English version and Thai version were submitted to three experienced teachers in the Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand. Two of the teachers are native Chinese speakers and they have been teaching in this language academy for 7 and 25 years. A Thai teacher who has 12 years experiences in teaching Chinese to Thai students also examined the questionnaire.

The alpha values of each construct in this study are showed in Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Numbers of items for each construct</th>
<th>Item numbers</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alphas of the original instrument</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alphas of this study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7-13</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>14-31</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1-31</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Collection of Data

The researcher delivered the permission letter of this study to the principal of the Chinese language academy in July 2018 and got permission to conduct the study at the same time. The data collection for this study was carried out on the weekend of August 18th and August 19th in the Chinese language academy. The research instrument was distributed to 124 adult learners from three different learning levels and 100% of the 124 learners have submitted the questionnaire. Among 124 collected questionnaires, there was one questionnaire gave 3 scores to all 31 items, considered the possibility of learner responding the questionnaire without really reading the content of items, the researcher excluded this questionnaire, and the total number of questionnaires analysed was 123.

The dates of data collection process are showed in Table 6.

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Data collection process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>July 21st, 2018</td>
<td>Request permission from the principal of the Chinese language academy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 12th, 2017</td>
<td>Thesis proposal defense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 24th, 2018</td>
<td>Translation check</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August 18th, 2018</td>
<td>Distributing questionnaires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August 19th, 2018</td>
<td>Data collection completed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February 26th, 2019</td>
<td>Thesis final defense</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Analysis

The collected data was analyzed using a statistical software program. This study has two objectives.

Objective 1: To determine the level of attitude of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.
Method: Means and standard deviation were used to determine the level of attitude of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

1.1 To determine the level of attitude of beginning adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

Methods: Means and standard deviations were used to determine the level of attitude of beginning adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

1.2 To determine the level of attitude of intermediate adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

Methods: Means and standard deviations were used to determine the level of attitude of intermediate adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

1.3 To determine the level of attitude of advanced adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

Methods: Means and standard deviations were used to determine the level of attitude of advanced adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

Objective 2: To find out whether there is a signification difference between the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to adult learners' different learning levels in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand, at a significance level of .05.
Methods: One-way ANOVA was used to found the significant difference between the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to adult learners' different learning levels in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand, at a significance level of .05.
Summary of the Research Process

In chapter three, the researcher introduced the research design, population, sample, research instrument of this study. The researcher also presented the process of data collection, data analysis in chapter three. The summary of the research process is showed below.

Table 7
Summary of the Research Process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research objectives</th>
<th>Source of data or sample</th>
<th>Data collection method</th>
<th>Data analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To determine the level of attitude of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.</td>
<td>124 adult learners at a Chinese language academy</td>
<td>Survey on attitudes towards NCSTs and NNCSTs</td>
<td>Mean Standard deviations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 To determine the level of attitude of beginning adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.</td>
<td>41 beginning adult learners at a Chinese language academy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 To determine the level of attitude of intermediate adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.</td>
<td>45 intermediate adult learners at a Chinese language academy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 To determine the level of attitude of advanced adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.</td>
<td>38 advanced adult learners at a Chinese language academy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued)
(continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research objectives</th>
<th>Source of data or sample</th>
<th>Data collection method</th>
<th>Data analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. To find out whether there is a significant difference among the attitudes of students towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to adult learners’ different learning levels in the language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.</td>
<td>124 adult learners at a Chinese language academy</td>
<td>Survey on attitudes towards NCSTs and NNCSTs</td>
<td>One-way ANOVA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH FINDINGS

In the previous chapters, the researcher explicated the objective and significance of the study, provided the literature review and explained how this study would be designed. In this chapter, the researcher presents the findings of this study, which gives the answers of each research question and explains whether the research hypothesis was accepted.

Main Findings

In this section, the researcher provides findings for the two research objectives.

First Research Objective

The researcher used the data collected from the experimental period to address the first research objective. To determine the level of attitude of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

As noted previously, the attitudes of adult learners were examined in three subscales: motivation, communication, and teaching and learning.

Table 8

Means, Standard Deviations and Interpretation of the Level of Attitudes of Adult learners Towards Native and Non-Native Chinese Speaking Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and learning</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8 presents the mean of attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers. It shows that adult learners in the Chinese language academy has no preference for either NCST or NNCST. The mean of attitudes is 3.34 with a standard deviation of .51. For each subscale, the mean of attitudes is respectively 3.34, 3.19, 3.40, which present that learners have no preference for either NCST or NNCST in motivation, communication and teaching and learning subscale.

The researcher also investigated attitudes of adult learners from difference learning levels. As showed in Table 9 to Table 11.

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and learning</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 presents the mean of attitude of beginning adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers. It shows that beginning adult learners in the Chinese language academy has no preference for either NCST or NNCST. The mean of attitudes is 3.26 with a standard deviation of .54. For each subscale, the mean of attitudes is respectively 3.22, 3.16, 3.32, which present that learners have no preference for either NCST or NNCST in motivation, communication and teaching and learning subscale.
Table 10

**Means, Standard Deviations and Interpretation of the Level of Attitude of Intermediate Adult learners Towards Native and Non-Native Chinese Speaking Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 presents the mean of attitudes of intermediate adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers. It shows that intermediate adult learners in the Chinese language academy has no preference for either NCST or NNCST. The mean of attitudes is 3.28 with a standard deviation of .53. For each subscale, the mean of attitudes is respectively 3.25, 3.17, 3.33, which present that learners have no preference for either NCST or NNCST in motivation, communication and teaching and learning subscale.

Table 11

**Means, Standard Deviations and Interpretation of the Level of Attitude of Advanced Adult learners Towards Native and Non-Native Chinese Speaking Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>Slight preference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching and</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>Slight preference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>No preference</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11 presents the mean of attitudes of advanced adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers. It shows that advanced adult learners in the Chinese language academy has no preference for either NCST or NNCST. The mean of attitudes is 3.49 with a standard deviation of .43. For each subscale, the mean of attitudes is respectively 3.55, 3.25, 3.57, which present that learners have no preference for either NCST or NNCST in communication subscale but have slight preference for NCST in motivation and teaching and learning subscales.

Second Research Objective

The researcher used the data collected from the experimental period to address the second research objective. To find out whether there is a significant difference among the level of attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand. The levels of attitude were calculated and the results concluded that there was no significant difference among the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels. The researcher used the one-way ANOVA because there are three independent groups.
Table 12

One-Way ANOVA of the Attitudes of Adult learners Towards Native and Non-Native Chinese Speaking Teachers According to Their Learning Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of learners</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beginning learners</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate learners</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced learners</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. p < .05

The mean of attitudes of beginning learners were 3.26 and standard deviation was .54. Whereas, the mean of attitudes of intermediate learners were 3.28 and standard deviation was .53. As for the advanced learners, the mean of attitudes were 3.49 and the standard deviation was .43. An one-way ANOVA comparing the attitudes among learners according to their different learning levels was carried out, the results are displayed in Table 12. The result showed that there was no significant difference among the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels since the significance level was .08 which is bigger than .05.

In this chapter, the researcher provided the research findings of this study: the mean of attitudes of beginning learners was 3.26 with a standard deviation of .54; the mean of attitudes of intermediate learners was 3.28 with a standard deviation of .53; and the mean of attitudes of advanced learner was 3.49 with a standard deviation of .43. The researcher also found out that there was no significant difference among the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels.

In the next chapter, the researcher discussed the findings of this study and analyzed possible reasons for the findings. The researcher also provided the limitations,
recommendations and suggestions for future teaching and learning in this Chinese language academy and future research in related field.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand. This chapter includes a summary, the research objectives and hypothesis, the research methodology and the findings of the study. It also includes conclusions, discussions and limitations of this study. The researcher also presents recommendations for practice and suggestions for further research.

Summary of the Study

Due to the rapidly rising economic strength and international status of China, Chinese is now considered as an important language worldwide. Chinese also plays a significant role in Thai commercial world and is a mandatory subject in most schools in Thailand. Therefore, how to make Chinese learning more effective is a big concern.

However, the performance of Thai students learning Chinese seems not so satisfying which brings to the concerns about the quality and quantity of Chinese teachers. Native speaking teachers were preferred in teacher recruitment and it is still the same situation in Thailand today. As a teacher in the Chinese language academy, the researcher wanted to study if the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers are different in this academy.

This study was designed to achieve the following objectives:

1. To determine the level of attitude of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.
1.1 To determine the level of attitude of beginning adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

1.2 To determine the level of attitude of intermediate adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

1.3 To determine the level of attitude of advanced adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

2. To find out whether there is a significant difference between the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand.

The research hypothesis was as follow:

There is a significant difference between the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand, at a significance level of .05.

This study was a quantitative study which utilized a questionnaire as the instrument in measuring the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in this Chinese language academy.

In this study, the researcher selected 41 adult learners from two beginning level classes, 44 adult learners from three intermediate level classes and 38 adult learners from four advanced level classes and handed out the questionnaire. The instrument was developed by Cakir and Demir in 2013 and was modified by the researcher from English teaching to Chinese teaching. The instrument was then translated into Thai and the translation validity was checked by three experienced teachers in the Chinese language academy. The collected data was analyzed by using descriptive and inferential statistics.
The findings of this study were:

1. Adult learners in the Chinese learning academy in Bangkok, Thailand have no preference for either NCST or NNCST.
   1.1 Beginning learners in the Chinese learning academy in Bangkok, Thailand have no preference for either NCST or NNCST.
   1.2 Intermediate learners in the Chinese learning academy in Bangkok, Thailand have no preference for either NCST or NNCST.
   1.3 Advanced learners in the Chinese learning academy in Bangkok, Thailand have no preference for either NCST or NNCST.

2. The research hypothesis was that there is a significant difference between the level of attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels in a Chinese language academy. The finding was that attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their different learning levels were not significantly different.

Conclusions

The first objective of this study was to determine the level of attitude of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in a Chinese language academy in Bangkok, Thailand. The findings show that adult learners in this academy, no matter which level they are from, had no preference for either NCST or NNCST. This result indicated that although there is a remarkable discrimination against NNCST when hiring, adult learners may not have strong tendency to have a native speaking teacher.

The second objective of this study was to find out whether there is a significant difference between the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their learning levels in a Chinese language academy in
Bangkok, Thailand. The study found that there was no such significant difference which implies if considering from a general image including teachers’ pronunciation, grammar and cultural knowledge, teaching and communicating skills and their professional qualities, teachers’ nationalities have comparatively less importance. This finding also brings about a possibility that a NNCST could be a good teacher for advanced learners.

**Discussion**

Based on the findings of the research, the researcher analysed the results and compare the findings with previous studies. The discussion is presented by research objectives.

**First Research Objective**

The first research objective indicates that adult learners have no preference for either NCST or NNCST, no matter in motivation, communication and teaching and learning orientations. This is not consistent with the traditional norm that native-speaking teachers are ideal teachers to teach their mother language mentioned by Kurniawati and Riezki (2018), Mahboob (2010, 2013), and Walkinshaw and Oanh (2014). This is also not consistent with the current hiring situation in second language learning field in Thailand showed by Craigslist (Craigslist, 2019). However, this finding is consistent with some previous research such as Liang (2002), Carkir and Demirs (2013), Thomas (2014) studies. The statistics show that in communication subscale, adult learners show less preference for NCST than they do in motivation and teaching and learning subscales. It may related to learners lower WTC when they are learning with NCST. Native-speaking teachers are considered being more sensitive to learners’ needs, more empathetic and they can make a connection between the first language and second language by teaching in learners’ mother tongue (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 2001; Mahboob, 2003). These factors may increase learners’ intergroup motivation, communicative self-confidence and decrease their communicative anxiety, which
will increase their WTC (MacIntyre, 1994; Chueng, 2002; Mahboob, 2003). Moreover, considering the collective and hierarchical culture of Thailand, talking to a native-speaking teacher will have a bigger influence on learners’ evaluation of others on themselves (Pattapong, 2011).

The finding of the first subobjective indicates that beginning learners have no preference for either NCST or NNCST. This can be explained by Mahboob’s (2013) finding that adult learners have positive views of native-speaking teachers’ accents and non-native-speaking teachers’ knowledge about grammar as well as they being more understanding. According to Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (2001), non-native-speaking teachers tend to make a connection between the first and second language by giving instruction in the first language, and they have more realistic expectations of students (Arva & Medgyes, 2000). These characteristics make the beginners feel comfortable.

The finding of the second subobjective indicates that intermediate learners have no preference for either NCST or NNCST. They have no preference for either NCST or NNCST in all three subscales. This can be explained by Mahboob’s (2003) finding that non-native speaking teachers teach grammar more effectively and that the strengths of native speaking teachers are their accent and cultural knowledge. Since the intermediate learners in this Chinese language academy had been learning Chinese for more than a year, they may have had fewer requirements regarding teachers’ accents, focusing more on the grammar, and also having a lower expectation of teachers’ cultural instruction than the advanced learners. This is also shown by the collected data, in which the intermediate group has a higher mean in two items related to grammar (item no.17 and item no.24) than the other two groups, while the means of two items related to accent (item no. 13 and item no. 27) and three items related to cultural instruction (item no. 19, item no.23 and item no.31) are not the highest.

The finding of the third subobjective shows advanced learners have no preference for either NCST or NNCST. The mean of attitudes is 3.49, which closes to the boundary
between the interpretations of no preference and slight preference. This is consistent with Liang (2002), Cheung (2002) and Mahboob (2003)’s findings that native-speaking teachers are expected to have higher proficiency and culture knowledge. This is also consistent with Thomas’s (2014) finding that adult learners see slight difference between NCST and NNCST, and his suggestion that NCST are more suitable for higher level classes.

The fourth finding also shows that both in motivation and teaching and learning, learners have a slight preference for NCST; while in communication, learners have no preference for either NCST or NNCST. It is consistent with Cakir and Demir (2014)’s finding that learners feel more motivated with native-speaking teachers, and native-speaking teachers will have positive effects on learning.

Second Research Objective

The finding of the second objective shows that there is no significant difference between the attitudes of adult learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers according to their different learning levels in this Chinese language academy. This finding contradicts with the study of Liaw (2012) but is consistent with the study of Nafi’, Qabaj a and Al-Kar (2016).

This study also agrees with what Moussus (2002), Liang (2002) and Cheung (2002) mentioned that there are many factors which will have impact on adult learners’ attitudes towards their teachers. Compare to teachers’ nationalities, teachers’ personalities and their professional qualities play a more important role, whether they are well-informed about the language or whether they can create a good classroom atmosphere are also important when considering who are adult learners’ favorite teachers.
Recommendations

Recommendations for Teachers

For teachers in this Chinese language academy, NCST could show more empathy to their students and pay more attention to their needs in order to increase their WTC. The researcher recommends reading the research done by Pattipong about the factors influence Thai learners’ WTC.

Recommendations for the Chinese Language Academy

This study has provided the Chinese language academy with a clearer understanding of adult learners’ attitudes towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers. This study shows that adult learners in this Chinese language academy have no preference for either NCST or NNCST, regardless of which level they are from. Therefore, during recruitment, the academy can pay more attention to teachers other features such as their professionalism and personality rather than their nationalities.

The findings of this study could also be useful when arrange teachers to different learning levels. More NNCSTs could be arranged in teaching beginning learners, and more NCSTs could teach the intermediate level and advance level. This study also brought about a possibility to arrange NNCSTs to teach the advanced level.

Recommendations for Future Researchers

This study could be replicated at other Chinese institutions or Chinese classes in other schools. In order to get more precise information on learners’ attitudes towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers, a larger sample size in needed.

For future research the researcher recommends to take learner’s gender and previous NCST experience into consideration. The researcher also recommends to carry out a survey on learners’ attitudes towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers in
separate categories such as listening and speaking, grammar, and culture. Lastly, the researcher recommends other instruments such as interview or classroom observation can be used to gain more detailed information.
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APPENDIX A

LEARNERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS NATIVE SPEAKING TEACHERS AND NON-NATIVE SPEAKING TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH VERSION)
Dear Participant:

My name is Shuo Xiong and I am a graduate student at Assumption University. For my final thesis, I am examining the attitudes of learners towards native and non-native Chinese speaking teachers. Because you are learning Chinese in this language academy, I am inviting you to participate in this research study by completing the following questionnaire.

Thank you for taking the time to assist me in my educational endeavors!
Part II Demographic Information

1. My class code is ______________________

2. I am □ male □ female

3. I have learnt Chinese with (You can choose more than one here):
   □ native Chinese speaking teachers.
   □ non-native Chinese speaking teachers.
### PART III Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (1)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Neither Disagree Nor Agree (3)</th>
<th>Agree (4)</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (5)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. NCSTs are better role models than NNCSTs</td>
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<td>2. I feel more motivated while learning with NCSTs than with NNCSTs</td>
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<td>3. Learning Chinese with NCSTs is more enjoyable than learning with NNCSTs</td>
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<td>4. NCSTs always arouse more interest than NNCSTs</td>
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<td>5. My interest and attendance to NCSTs’ lessons are more than those of NNCSTs</td>
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<td>Items</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree (1)</td>
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<td>6. NNCSTs are more capable of motivating learners than NCSTs</td>
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<td>7. I communicate more with NCSTs than NNCSTs</td>
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<td>8. There are a lot of NNCSTs that can effectively communicate in a target language</td>
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<td>9. NNCSTs are more sincere and empathetic than NCSTs while communicating</td>
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<td>10. NCSTs being foreigners pose a social barrier in my interaction with them</td>
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<td>11. NCSTs give more importance to friendly</td>
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<td>Items</td>
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<td>conversations outside the class than their NNCSTs counterparts</td>
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<td>12. The accent of NNCSTs while speaking Chinese is important to me</td>
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<td>13. I think Chinese instructors should all speak with a perfect mandarin accent</td>
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<td>14. In general, having a NCST positively effects my learning</td>
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<td>15. I would rather have a NCST than a NNCST</td>
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<td>16. Learning Chinese with a NNCST is easier for me than with a NCST</td>
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<td>Items</td>
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<td>17. During the lesson, NCSTs correct my mistakes less than NNCSTs</td>
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<td>18. NCSTs provide more feedback than nonnative ones</td>
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<td>19. NCSTs present the cultural contents of the target language better than NNCSTs</td>
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<td>20. There are many NNCSTs who teach just as effectively as NCSTs</td>
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<td>21. My learning experiences with NNCSTs have been good so far</td>
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<td>22. While learning Chinese, NNCSTs provide me with</td>
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<td>Items</td>
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<td>more strategies and ideas than NCSTs</td>
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<td>23. To learn Chinese well, I need to have a teacher who knows about Chinese culture</td>
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<td>24. NNCSTs are better at explaining grammar than NCSTs</td>
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<td>25. NCSTs are better at teaching writing than NNCSTs</td>
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<td>26. NCSTs are better at teaching vocabulary than NNCSTs</td>
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<td>27. NCSTs are better at teaching pronunciation than NNCSTs</td>
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<td>Items</td>
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<td>28. NCSTs are better at teaching listening than NNCSTs</td>
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<td>29. NCSTs are better at teaching reading than NNCSTs</td>
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<td>30. NCSTs are better at teaching speaking than NNCSTs</td>
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<td>31. NCSTs provide me with more information about Chinese speaking countries than NNCSTs</td>
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APPENDIX B

LEARNERS’ ATTITUDES TOWARDS NATIVE SPEAKING TEACHERS AND NON-NATIVE SPEAKING TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE (THAI VERSION)
ส่วนนี้
เรียน ผู้ท่านแบบสอบถาม:

คืนชื่อ ของข้าว เป็นนักศึกษาปริญญาโทของมหาวิทยาลัยอันสันชัย ได้รับการสำรวจชื่อผู้เสียชีวิต

เกี่ยวกับพื้นที่ของผู้เสียชีวิตที่มีผลต่อการย้ายคนในจังหวัดของภาษาและอาชีพของภาษาที่ไม่ใช่เจ้าของ

ภาษาเพื่อที่วิทยานิพนธ์ข้าวสุคท์ท้าย เมื่อจากพื้นที่การศึกษาที่สถาบันสอนภาษาแห่งนี้

ดังนั้นจึงขอเชิญชวนพวกคุณเข้าร่วมการรับฟังการศึกษาโดยตรงบนระบบสอบถามต่อไปนี้

ขอขอบคุณที่สละเวลาว่างเหลือคืนนี้เพื่อรักษาประเพณีทางการศึกษา
ส่วนที่ 2 ข้อมูลสถิติประชากร

รหัสQueryableของบัตรเจ้าหนี้

เพศของบัตรเจ้าหนี้  □ ชาย  □ หญิง

จำนวนวันที่เกิด (ลงตรงเลขเดือนได้มากกว่าหนึ่งข้อ):

□ อาจารย์คนในเจ้าของภาษา  □ อาจารย์สอนภาษาจีนที่ไม่ใช่เจ้าของภาษา
ส่วนที่ 3 แบบสอบถาม

1. อาจารย์คนเดียวเรื่องของกิจการเป็นตัวอย่างที่คิดว่าอาจารย์สอนภาษาไทยที่ไม่ใช่ภาษา

2. ข้อเสนอแนะให้เริ่มการสื่อสารอาจารย์คนเดียว เรื่องของกิจการไม่ต้องอาจารย์สอนภาษาไทยที่ไม่ใช่

3. การเรียนภาษาจีนต่ออาจารย์คนเดียวเรื่องของ

4. อาจารย์คนเดียวเรื่องของกิจการจะกระตุ้นความ

สนิทให้ร่วมกับอาจารย์สอนภาษาไทยที่ไม่ใช่

เจ้าของภาษา
5. ข้า.falseมีความสนใจและเข้าใจในเรื่อง
ของอาจารย์คนอื่นซึ่งอาจมานำกว่าทัน
เรียนของอาจารย์สอนภาษาอื่นที่ไม่ใช่เจ้าของ
ภาษา

6. อาจารย์สอนตามงานที่ไม่ใช่เจ้าของภาษา
สามารถสร้างแรงกระตุ้นให้กับผู้เรียนมากกว่า
อาจารย์คนอื่นเจ้าของภาษา

7. ข้า.falseต้องการของอาจารย์คนอื่นเจ้าของภาษา
มากกว่าอาจารย์สอนภาษาอื่นที่ไม่ใช่เจ้าของ
ภาษา

8. มีอาจารย์สอนภาษาอื่นที่ไม่ใช่เจ้าของภาษาจำนวนมาก
ที่สามารถสืบสารภาษาอื่นโดยมีประสิทธิภาพ

9. อาจารย์สอนภาษาอื่นที่ไม่ใช่เจ้าของภาษาอื่นและ
เข้าใจความรู้สึกผู้เรียนมากกว่าอาจารย์คนอื่นเจ้าของ
ภาษา
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<th>รหัส</th>
<th>เนื้อหา</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>เข้าถึงอาจารย์ครูจัดเรียนการที่จะมีการต่างๆในชั้นที่ จึงส่งผลให้มีคุณสมบัติที่จะพัฒนาขึ้นรวมในการสื่อสารระหว่างเข้าถึงและอาจารย์สอนภาษาของภาษา</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>อาจารย์สอนภาษาหรือภาษาที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษาบ้านเมืองลักษณะที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษาบ้านเมือง</td>
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<td>12.</td>
<td>ส่งผ่านการสื่อสารภาษาที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษาบ้านเมืองลักษณะที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษาบ้านเมือง</td>
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<td>13.</td>
<td>อาจารย์สอนภาษาที่มีภาษาที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษาบ้านเมืองลักษณะที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษาบ้านเมือง</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>ใครคืออาจารย์สอนภาษาที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษาบ้านเมืองลักษณะที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษาบ้านเมือง</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>อาจารย์สอนภาษาที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษาบ้านเมืองลักษณะที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษาบ้านเมือง</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>สำหรับข้าพเจ้า การเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของอาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา ที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา</td>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>ระหว่างเรียนอาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา</td>
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<td>18.</td>
<td>อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา</td>
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<td>19.</td>
<td>อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา</td>
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<td>20.</td>
<td>มีอาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช้เจ้าของภาษา</td>
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<td>ข้อที่</td>
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<td>21. จานถังดอนนั้น ข้าพเจ้ามีประสบการณ์การใช้ที่ดีกับออาจย์สอนภาษาอินที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษา</td>
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<td>22. ขณะเรียนภาษาฮานออาจย์สอนภาษาอินที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษาที่ใหม่และแนวคิดต่าง ๆ ได้มากกว่าออาจย์ คนจีนแล้วจึงแยก</td>
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<td>23. ข้าพเจ้าต้องการออาจย์ที่มีความรู้เพื่อวัฒนธรรมอินเพื่อให้เรียนรู้ภาษาอินได้</td>
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<td>24. ออาจย์สอนภาษาอินที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษา</td>
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<tr>
<td>อธิบายให้ออกมาได้ว่าออาจย์คนจีนจะจึงแยก</td>
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<td>25. ออาจย์คนจีนเข้าของภาษาสอนการเข้าพื้นได้กว่าออาจย์สอนภาษาอินที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษา</td>
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<td>26. ออาจย์คนจีนเข้าของภาษาสอนก่อนพื้นได้กว่า</td>
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<td>ออาจย์สอนภาษาอินที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษา</td>
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<tr>
<td>27. ออาจย์คนจีนเข้าของภาษาสอนการออกแบบได้กว่า</td>
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<tr>
<td>ออาจย์สอนภาษาอินที่ไม่ใช้เข้าของภาษา</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

CURRICULUM VITAE

ASSUMPTION UNIVERSITY OF THAILAND

SINCE 1969
Curriculum Vitae

SHUO XIONG
Chinese Teacher

Personal Details
Date of Birth: September 30, 1988
Gender: Female
Nationality: Chinese
Age: 30
Marital Status: Single
Address: 74 Soi 24 Prachauthit, Huay Kwang, Huay Kwang, Bangkok
Tel: +66865094637
Email: som4805@gmail.com

Languages
Chinese (Native)
English (Professional working proficiency, IELTS 7.0)
Thai (Professional working proficiency)

Work Experience
Online Chinese Teacher, www.verbling.com
Bangkok, Thailand – May 2017 — Present

Chinese Teacher, Orient Culture Academy
Bangkok, Thailand – March 2015 — Present

Chinese Teacher, Wimol Business Administration Technical School
Bangkok, Thailand – November 2014 — March 2016

Chinese Teacher, Mulan Language School
Lampang, Thailand – 2015 — Present

Education
Assumption University – Master of Education (Have passed thesis proposal)
Curriculum and Instruction
Bangkok, Thailand — 2014 — 2018

Central South University — Bachelor Degree in Clinical Medicine
Hunan, China — 2006 — 2011

Skills
• Excellent written and verbal communication skills
• Excellent classroom management skills
• Humorous and Intelligent personality
• Great passion in teaching Chinese

Organizational Skills
• Proficient in Chinese course designing
• Proficient in Microsoft Office
• Able to manage and implement Social Media campaigns