

## The Impact of Native English Speaker Teaching on Beginning College English Students' Writing: A Case Study at Universidad Nacional, Brunca Extension

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### Resumen

El aprendizaje del inglés como idioma extranjero es un reto para los estudiantes cuya exposición al contacto con nativos hablantes de este idioma es escasa. Esta exposición limitada puede impedir el logro de un desarrollo lingüístico exitoso. Los estudiantes principiantes del Diplomado en Inglés de la Universidad Nacional de Costa Rica, Sede Regional Brunca no son la excepción a esta realidad. Sin embargo, se seleccionó un grupo de veinte estudiantes del curso Inglés Integrado I (Gramática y Escritura) del Diplomado en Inglés como la población clave para llevar a cabo una investigación exploratoria después de haber mantenido contacto con una profesora nativa hablante por 60 horas durante un semestre. Este estudio intenta determinar el impacto de la enseñanza del inglés impartida por un nativo hablante en las producciones escritas de estudiantes principiantes a través de un análisis de un estudio de caso. El primer instrumento es un cuestionario cuyo objetivo es recolectar las experiencias de aprendizaje, el uso y actitudes hacia el lenguaje y la motivación de los estudiantes. El segundo instrumento es una guía de observación para determinar los comportamientos y actitudes reales de los estudiantes durante el tiempo de clase así como también las estrategias de enseñanza utilizadas por la profesora. El tercer instrumento garantiza la recolección de las impresiones y experiencias de los estudiantes después de llevar el curso a través de entrevistas cara a cara. Además, se recopiló información cuantitativa para examinar la fluidez en el uso del lenguaje, la variación léxica y la precisión a través de la comparación de productos escritos antes y después del proceso de exposición al contacto con la profesora nativa hablante. Las conclusiones que se deriven de este estudio proveerán argumentos y recomendaciones para la enseñanza del inglés como idioma extranjero.

**Palabras clave:** enseñanza del inglés por un nativo hablante, exposición, productos escritos.

### Abstract

Learning English in an EFL environment is challenging for students who lack exposure to contact with native English speakers (NES). This limited exposure may hinder the achievement of successful linguistic performance. Beginning students of the Associate's Program in English at Universidad Nacional, Brunca Extension are not an exception to this reality. However, after being given the opportunity to have a native English speaker as a teacher for 60 hours during one semester of course work, a group of twenty students of the course Integrated English I (Grammar and Writing) of the Associate's Program in English was chosen as a key population to conduct exploratory research. This study attempts to

determine the impact of native English speaker teaching on beginning students' written products through the analysis of a case study. To collect data, three instruments were designed and implemented. The first instrument was a questionnaire, the goal of which was to gather the students' English learning experiences, language use, language attitudes, and motivation. The second instrument was a classroom observation guide to determine actual students' behaviors and attitudes during class time as well as particular teacher's strategies. The third instrument aimed to record the students' impressions and experiences after taking the course through face-to-face interviews. Furthermore, quantitative data examining language fluency, lexical variation, and accuracy were analyzed by comparing the results of pre-test and post-test writing products. The conclusions drawn from this research study will contribute to providing insights and recommendations to the teaching of English in an EFL context.

**Keywords:** native English speaker teaching, exposure, writing products.

## 1. Introduction

In operational terms, this exploratory study provides the English teaching practitioner a profile of the beliefs of one EFL class in Costa Rica as well as a contrastive report (pre and post-tests) of the students' written products. Although, in fact, this study looks closely at one group of 20 EFL learners and one native speaker teacher, the hope is that the resulting information may inform NNES professionals about student preferences for English classroom practices and may suggest ways for NNES teachers to replicate practices and methods that L2 students reported to be useful and effective.

The principal objectives of this study were to explore what kind of impact a native speaker English teacher might have on one population of Spanish-speaking students who were beginning students of English at one public university. These students reported early on that they had very few interactions with native speakers of English and had not had, for any extended period, a native English speaker teacher. In fact, since this particular NES college teacher was the first English-speaking professional as a classroom teacher, most students initially elected to take the English class from the Spanish speaking English instructor. This novel situation (Native English Teacher for beginners) seemed ripe for inquiry about teaching practices, student preferences, and language gains in written production.

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1. Approaches to the Teaching of Writing and Grammar in an EFL Context

Traditional models of writing have their own flaws. Some studies evince that "students plagued by writer's block are often the victims of the inappropriate instruction they received from teachers and books that adhere to the traditional model of teaching writing" (Oliver, 1982, p. 164). Writing in English not only places a burden on the student's shoulders but

also on the teacher's. On the student's part, the writing skill places the learner with the overwhelming task of expressing ideas in another literacy system. On the teacher's part, this ability places a great responsibility since research indicates that wrongly applying the composing process provokes in the students blocking and anxiety. Composing in a foreign language involves a thinking process where planning, prefiguring and brainstorming for initial ideas are elements of paramount importance for the students' successful writing progress.

Wallas (as cited in Lee, 2003) concurred that writing a composition requires a three-step thinking process ranging from preparation and incubation to illumination (p. 125). As Lee (2003) posed, *preparation* implies presenting the subconscious mind with a problem. *Incubation* is the stage at which the writer's subconscious mind actually produces a new idea. The result of incubation is *illumination*, actually the emergence of the new idea (p. 127). These stages evince the way writing can be treated in EFL classrooms; however, there are other approaches teachers can use to make the learning of grammar and writing more effective according to their preferences and styles.

### ***2.1.1. Implicit or Explicit Grammar?***

How English grammar is taught has engendered distinct stances. Whether it has to be taught one way or another in the foreign language classroom still remains a debatable issue, which is decisive to the optimal oral or written use of English. From Puji's point of view (2006), "grammar gains its prominence in language teaching, particularly in English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL), inasmuch as without a good knowledge of grammar, learners' language development will be severely constrained" (p. 122). For better or worse, a grammar-based method has reigned in the EFL setting for a long time. Puji (2006) affirmed that "in the context of EFL, teaching grammar has traditionally been dominated by grammar-translation method for which the use of the mother tongue is clearly important to elicit the meaning of target language by translating the target language into native languages" (p. 123). This preference for explicit grammar or conscious grammar (Klein as cited in Puji, 2006, p. 125) has been the norm in most EFL classrooms. According to Ellis (2004) explicit knowledge or explicit grammar can be defined acknowledge [dealing] with language and the uses to which language can be put. This knowledge facilitates the intake and development of implicit language, and it is useful to monitor language output. Explicit knowledge is generally accessible through controlled processing. (p.229). Contrary to this, other teachers are more inclined to teaching grammar implicitly. This is the knowledge of grammar rules that shows when performing in more unstructured, natural, unprompted and automatic tasks. Brown (2000) affirmed that "Implicit knowledge is unconscious, internalized knowledge of language that is easily accessed during spontaneous language tasks, written or spoken" (p. 285). The internalization of language rules happens when speakers of the language have been exposed to enough natural input, and in the case of EFL students, to enough classroom practice.

### ***2.1.2. Deductive and Inductive Approach***

There are two core ways to present grammar to EFL students. On the one hand, the deductive approach appeals to the introduction of grammar rules explicitly. This knowledge is made conscious by putting emphasis on error correction and the direct presentation of the syntactical rules. According to Puji (2006), “the deductive approach maintains that a teacher teaches grammar by presenting grammatical rules, and then, examples of sentences are presented. Once the learners understand the rules, they are told to apply the rules given to various examples of sentences” (p.126). The learners tend to gain more confidence when knowing the rule and the application of it. The explicit knowledge enhances the rule-driven process in which learners apply a rule that has been already understood by practical exercises.

On the other hand, the inductive approach “relates to subconscious learning processes similar to the concept of language acquisition” (Puji, 2006, p. 128). In this regard, learners are exposed to enough input in the classroom from which they get the grammar rules. They grasp the rules, as children in a natural environment, by interacting extensively. Meaning is emphasized over the forms as a way to internalize the rules in a natural manner. Which of the two approaches is best is still a topic of high relevance and much contradiction among EFL teachers. This preference for one or the other may be justified by the type of learning style, specifically, the students’ cognitive style. Puji (2006) highlighted that “a study of various language learners shows that some learners achieve better in deductive language classes; on the other hand, others perform better in more inductive classes” (p. 129). This assumption leads to understand that teachers should conduct a previous analysis about how learners may grasp grammar rules more easily the first time they meet their students in the foreign language classroom.

### ***2.1.3. From Product Writing to Process Writing***

Writing is an art, and as such, more attention should be given to it. As mentioned before, grammar as well as writing are approached differently to provide the learners with abundant opportunities to communicate in written form. Students writing compositions or any written product are led to write following either a process-driven or a product-driven approach. From Hasan and Moniruzzaman’s standpoints (2010), process writing takes the text as a resource for comparison, uses ideas as starting points, demands the writing of more than one draft, is more global, focuses on purpose, enhances collaboration and involves a creative process whereas product writing imitates the model text, sets the organization of ideas as more important than ideas themselves, demands the writing of one draft, includes controlled practice of features highlighted, is meant to be individual, and emphasizes on end product (p.80). Over-emphasis on the final written product has downplayed the role of writing “as a recursive process rather than a linear one” (Hansan & Moniruzzaman, 2010, p. 84). Teachers as well as students focus their attention on mechanical aspects of the language such as the correct usage of grammar, a range of vocabularies, meaningful punctuation and accurate spelling (idem). There is no ideal approach to writing in an EFL context. Teachers are accountable for the choices of the methods they bring to the classroom to facilitate their students’ language learning. A balanced approach seems to be one of the most suitable

approaches for EFL learners. Drawing from the conclusions of the use of a more balanced approach, Qian (2010) affirmed that “a teacher should be eclectic, drawing from all methods available. A balanced approach to the teaching of [...] writing skills should take into account all of the factors which are involved in good writing” (p. 14). For process writing, Cavkaytar and Yasar (nd) identified five stages:

- *Prewriting*: Prewriting is a planning stage for writing. Planning is an important step of the writing process; it allows the writers to organize their writing before they even begin.
- *Drafting*: In the draft stage, students are expected to put the arrangement they did in the planning stage on to paper. In this stage, spelling rules for the written text are ignored. The students primarily try to create the content.
- *Revising*: This stage consists of the students’ review of the written draft, sharing the draft text with a writing group that was formed in the classroom, and rearranging the content according to feedback from friends in the writing group
- *Editing*: Up until this stage, the focus is on the content. In this stage spelling rules and punctuation, which are called the mechanical aspect of writing, are checked. Different evaluation materials might be used in teaching students about the third and fourth stages.
- *Publishing*: This is the last stage of the writing process. In this stage, the students share the text they have written with the readers they determined in the prewriting stage. What is important here is that teacher makes writing meaningful for student. (p. 2)

Besides the relevance that the different approaches to grammar and writing teaching have acquired, it is worth stating that teachers’ and students’ own beliefs to the teaching of this skill take paramount importance as well.

## **2.2. Teachers' and Students' Attitudes and Beliefs about the Teaching of Writing and Grammar in an EFL context**

### ***2.2.1. The Case for Grammar Correction***

English teaching relies on different approaches and methods. The major linguistic skills demand a careful approach to ensure students’ effective learning. Writing is one of the major skills that requires the most attention and dedication. As a matter of fact, “writing is a skill that has not been accorded the attention it deserves in [schools]...Teachers who want to help their students gain confidence in writing should try to follow a writing process that takes the student from insecurity to success” (Cimcoz, 1999, para.1). Nevertheless, not everything lies with the teacher’s approach. As Daly noted (as cited in Lee, 2003), “how one writes, indeed, whether one writes—is dependent on more than just skill and competence” (p. 112). Certainly, affective factors come also into play when a student sets to write in another

language. These factors deserve a careful analysis to build up a comprehensive approach to students' difficulties in writing in a foreign language. Based on the teacher's tactful ways to approach the writing teaching situation, various methods and strategies can be called upon.

Some teachers are more inclined to using grammar correction and spend most of their teaching time providing students with this type of instruction. Studies on this matter have pointed out that “grammar correction and instruction are not only ineffective, but also harmful” (Truscott as cited in Lee, 2003, p. 119). The teacher's role in this regard should be that of a facilitator providing corrective feedback to build up confidence on the students to improve their writing performance. Ferris (as cited in Lee, 2003) debated that students' opinions consistently suggest that error correction is a key element in this process (p. 120).

As previously presented, most EFL teachers rely heavily on grammar correction. This position leads teachers, most of the time, to overcorrect a student's composition. The result can be detrimental on the student's writing performance in a foreign language. Truscott (1996) suggested that no grammatical correction should be marked in the student's written product (p. 328). Although this compelling argument may provoke opposing views, one cannot deny that this teaching attitude may jeopardize students' perceptions of the error correction process. Indeed, they may end up using the number of errors marked as a justification for the grade earned (Dohrer, 1991, p. 49). This, to some extent, may discourage the student's efforts and provoke a feeling of apprehension when being asked to produce something in a written form.

Keh (1990) noted that “red marks on students' papers may also ‘prove’ the teacher's superiority over students and demonstrate that the teacher is ‘doing his/her job’” (p. 294). Leki (1991) added her view by stating that “the literature abounds with proof of the futility of marking errors in both native and non-native student writing” (p. 204). Why teachers keep on doing it is still an unanswered issue. One compensation strategy teachers can use to change the students' attitudes towards the writing and the error correction process per se is to concentrate more on how they respond to those errors instead of just marking them. Based on Ferris' (2002) illuminating viewpoints, “mechanical errors can be dealt with in a number of alternative manners, from error logs to focused mini-lessons” (p. 19).

### *2.2.2. Native English Speaker Teaching*

In recent decades, debates in the research literature about who makes the most effective teacher of English – native English speaker (NES) or non-native English speaker (NNES) – have continued with data abounding across countries, levels, and program types. These debates have focused on student and learner perspectives, administrators' perspectives, and teacher education programs. When the basic tenet of the dichotomy – that the ideal English teacher is the native speaker – was established in the 1960's, it immediately provoked scholars to prove otherwise (Meadows & Muramatsu, 2007, p. 97). The often-cited “native speaker fallacy,” suggesting that abilities of native speakers (fluency, idiomatic control, correct usage) do not necessarily lead to more effective teaching, soon became the focal point for a growing body of research by non-native speakers, culminating in international colloquiums, the



NNEST Caucus in TESOL starting in 1998, 500 plus scholarly articles, and book length research, such as *The NNEST Lens: Non-Native English Speakers in TESOL*.

With the increase of the teaching of English happening all over the world, the question “Is the best teacher of English a native speaker?” continues to surface in many countries and across programs. On the one hand, native English speaker teachers bring native fluency, “first-hand knowledge,” and exposure to correct pronunciation as well as appropriate expressions, common idioms, and authenticity of language use (Murtiana, 2011, p.29-30). In addition to these strengths, the NES teachers often motivate students to improve their levels of English due to the fact that students are forced to use L2 as a means of communication (Madrid & Perez Canado, 2004, p. 129). On the other hand, many researchers have noted that NNEST teachers bring other equally valuable aspects to their teaching. These aspects include sharing of the same mother tongue and the testing culture of the learners. Also, non-native teachers often have a far superior metacognitive knowledge of English grammar than their native speaker counterparts (Madrid & Perez Canado, 2004, p. 129). In addition, many researchers point out that NNEST teachers having gone through the complex process of learning English have first-hand insights into the difficulties and complexities of language learning (He & Miller, 2011, p. 430). In other words, NNEST serve as representative models of English language learners and can inspire new learners of English to excel.

Certainly, a native speaker teacher of English in whatever setting changes the dynamic at an institution and of the English class abroad. The atmosphere of the EFL class with a native speaker teacher can have both positive and negative effects. At times, beginning students may feel hesitant from speaking or interacting, feeling tongue-tied or shy. They can also feel that the native English speaker will correct every single utterance and can feel intimidated. Many of these affective variables of EFL student learners when exposed to NES teachers have not been previously explored in the research.

### ***2.2.3. Students' Preferences of Native Speaker Teaching and Nonnative Speaker Teaching***

Much of the recent research about student preferences has come from the more democratic, the more student-centered approaches in second language teaching in the last twenty years. In other words, professionals in the field have responded to the answers to the simple question: “What do students want in the instructor of an English language class?” Some researchers have argued that the mismatch between the expectations that students have for classroom teaching and the teachers and the reality presented can negatively affect L2 student performance and satisfaction (Brown, 2009, p.46). Sometimes this mismatch can end in disillusionment or high failure and attrition rates.

One area mentioned quite frequently in the literature is the perception by students of how much of the target language will be used by the English teacher. Researchers have discovered that many beginning level English students maintain unrealistic expectations about how much native language will be used and how much the target language will be used. Particularly in the case of beginning L2 English students, according to Levine (2003),

students may feel target language anxiety which may interfere with their language learning (p. 346). These high levels of language anxiety are particularly acute when classes are instructed by NES teachers. Although a majority of L2 students feel comfortable practicing their English with native speakers (Murtiana, 2011, p.39), many still feel nervous when they must be judged in speech or in writing by their NES professors, and thus student preferences for NES teachers are mixed.

Additional factors and classroom practices noted by student preference surveys, particularly from beginning students, concern these areas: whether students are corrected orally or in written form from the beginning of English language learning; whether teachers require beginning students to speak/use L2 on the first day of class; whether teachers use small groups or pairs for practice (Brown, 2009, p. 51). In one study, these preferences by students differed greatly from what teachers themselves believed about effective teaching practices. Whereas teachers generally were patient and slow-moving about correction and use of L2 immediately, students preferred that these practices were implemented directly from the beginning (Brown, 2009, p. 51).

One other aspect of student preferences involves when L2 students move from NNES teaching to a preference for NES teaching. In the study by Madrid & Perez Canado (2004), the findings are that as the academic level of the L2 learner increases as they continue to more difficult and more advanced English courses, their preferences for native speaker teachers also increases or becomes stronger (p. 134). As one college level L2 student writes, “Natives are better teachers because they master the language they teach, have a profound knowledge of it, have a greater self-confidence, and all this exerts an influence on the results” (Madrid & Perez Canado, 2004, p. 133).

### **2.3. Students' Affective Variables**

Learning a foreign language implies more than cognitive demands; it also involves psychological and emotional barriers regarded as affective variables. In the learning context of English as a foreign language, distinct affective factors come into play. For the analysis of this study, attitude, motivation and self-confidence are relevant affective variables to describe.

#### **2.1. Attitude**

Students' perceptions, emotions and beliefs are part of what specialists have named language attitudes. Montano and Kasprzyk (2008) indicated that “Attitude is determined by the individual's beliefs about outcomes or attributes of performing the behavior (behavioral beliefs), weighted by evaluations of those outcomes or attributes” (p. 71). Attitudes towards the target language may favor or disrupt learners' successful language achievement. Language attitudes include three different dimensions: behavioral, cognitive, and affective. The behavioral dimension of language attitude is composed of patterns of behavior that help the speaker to identify himself/herself with the language of the target community. Based on this assumption, Kara (2009) determined that



Positive attitudes lead to the exhibition of positive behaviors toward courses of study, with participants absorbing themselves in courses and striving to learn more. Such students are also observed to be more eager to solve problems, to acquire the information and skills useful for daily life and to engage themselves emotionally. (p. 102)

The cognitive dimension is composed of the learner's views of his understanding and knowledge developed of the target language. According to Jafre, Pour-Mohammadi and Alzwari (2011), this dimension embraces four steps of connecting the previous knowledge and the new one, creating new knowledge, checking new knowledge, and applying the new knowledge in many situations (p.122).

The affective dimension deals with the emotions provoked by the different situations and events while learning the target language. These emotions influence the success in language learning. This learning process generates different perspectives and attitudes that shape the way the learner develops understanding of the foreign language. Choy and Troudi (2006) determined that the inner feelings and emotions of FL learners influence their perspectives and their attitudes towards the target language (p. 121).

## ***2.2. Motivation***

For the most part, motivation has always played a predominant role in the learning of a foreign language. It may also serve as a predictor of second language performance (Wei, 2007, p. 3). Several authors have explored the definition of the term to specify the different types of existing motivation. From Douglas Brown's perspective (2000), instrumental motivation stands for "the acquisition of a language as a means for attaining instrumental goals" (p.62). Instrumental or extrinsic motivation drives the learner to achieve mastery of a second or foreign language in order to apply for a job or travel abroad, for instance. Conversely to this, integrative or intrinsic motivation accounts for "a desire to learn the language in order to relate to and even to become part of the target language culture" (Arnold & Brown, 1999, p.13). Success in a second or foreign language cannot be said to be caused by any of the types of motivation described, but by "the degree of energizing and firmness of the direction it provides" towards the attainment of the goals (Arnold & Brown, 1999, p.13). Thus, an intrinsically motivated learner might be able to obtain as good and as satisfactory results in his way to foreign language success as an extrinsically motivated learner might too. Other variables within the learner may strengthen the type of motivation developed as well.

## ***2.3. Self-confidence***

Self-confidence is an affective factor that may boost language learning, impede or deprive it. Yashima, Zenk-Nishide and Shimizu (2004) asserted that self-confidence is the most essential factor that determines learners' willingness to participate in oral activities in

language classrooms (p. 135). From this line of thought, two different types of learners are drawn:

Self-confident learners take risks at speaking another language even if they do commit mistakes. They engage in different oral activities regardless of the topic discussed and the number of students in class. They learn from mistakes, work hard and eventually, they increase their language proficiency. On the other hand, low-confident learners usually look away from the instructor to avoid being called on. They feel uncomfortable when using the language orally because they are concerned about being criticized or disapproved of. As a result, they tend to perform less successfully. (Al-sibai, 2004 as cited in Mohammad, 2012, p. 61)

It is a paramount goal for language teachers to foster self-confidence in the classroom and enhance it. Diverse strategies and resources can help improve low confidence in the EFL classroom. Teachers should approach students tactfully to enable them to either boost or enhance this attitudinal factor. Certainly, teachers must consider the fact that strategies operate differently for each learner in the classroom.

#### **2.4. Language Gains in Written Production**

Writing teachers across a variety of levels and programs constantly struggle with the question of how students can best progress in writing development over time. What different types of instruction work to ensure that language gains will occur in writing over time? Research on time distribution (amount of hours of instruction per student) and time concentration (more intensive hours of class versus the “drip-feed” kind of courses) has suggested that more concentrated time produces more L2 gains in writing (Serrano, 2011, p. 212). How language gains are measured is another factor.

Serrano in her research on L2 gains in written production measures writing output in three areas: fluency, lexical complexity, and accuracy. Studies of this kind which attempt to determine the kind of instruction that enhances L2 writing performance are valuable contributions to the field. Another noteworthy body of research surrounds the issue of lexical complexity and development and how L2 writing teachers can move students from writing that generally uses basic words repetitively to more complex and sophisticated features and vocabulary (Breeze, 2008, p.53). Lower-level and beginning students of English who generally are instructed in a communicative approach tend to write like they speak. Thus, beginning L2 writing may convey the impression of simplicity, where the vocabulary is limited in range, lacking precise terms and highly informal in register.

Concerning measures of learners’ accuracy in production, it is generally assumed and reasonable to expect that L2 writers gain control over grammatical features and idiomatic language over time, as their knowledge of the L2 increases. However, this generalization does not prove true consistently as some writers decrease in accuracy when their complexity increases (Serrano, 2011, p. 222). This phase of “trial and error” production is a useful one for L2 writing development and progress, and often prevents fossilization of simple and basic

writing patterns. Research on the continued connections between fluency, accuracy, and lexical variety, and studies on the connection to L2 language gains are ongoing as researchers continue to examine best practices for effective writing development.

### **3. The Purpose of the Study**

This study attempts to answer the following questions:

- What are some implications provoked by native English speaker teaching on the written products of beginning students of the Associate's Program in English at UNA, SRB?
- What are some beginning students' perceptions regarding native English speaker (NES) teaching and nonnative English speaker (NNES) teaching?
- What recommendations can be suggested based on the comparisons between native English speaker (NES) teaching and nonnative English speaker (NNES) teaching?

#### **3.1. Research Methodology**

This study entails an analysis of qualitative and quantitative data. Qualitative data are collected through the observation and administration of instruments in order to describe the perceptions, beliefs and feelings of the subjects. The quantitative data are used to reveal the improvement of the subjects after they have been in contact with the NES.

The specific locus of this study is the classroom where the major events happen and which provides significant information for the analysis of the results. This exploratory study relied on the development of a case study. Case studies “provide a relatively formal and fairly definitive analysis of a specific aspect of teaching behavior or classroom life” (Hopkins, 2002, p.143). The results yielded by the observations made and the questionnaires and interviews conducted are complemented with the results of the analysis of a pre and a post test. The pretest provided the researchers with the actual writing skills students had when they first arrived at the class. While being exposed to the native speaker teacher, one of the researchers conducted some observations during a four-month period to garner data on the native speaker teacher's techniques and the students' reactions and patterns of behavior. After this exposure, one group of students selected were interviewed to gather their insights and perspectives of the process of native speaker teaching. A post-test was also administered at the end of this teaching and learning process to compare and contrast the students' writing skills with those they had before being exposed to the native English speaker teaching.

##### ***3.1.1. Setting***

This study takes places at Universidad Nacional, Brunca Extension, which is one of the five state universities across the country. This is a university oriented towards the philosophical principles of humanism, rationalism and constructivism. Specifically, this research centers

on a group of students taking one of the courses of the Associate's Program in English. This is a two-year language program whose utmost objective is to prepare students to use the language communicatively by teaching them the four skills in an integrated fashion. Students graduating from this program are expected to acquire a B2 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (The Council of Europe, 2011, p. 27).

### ***3.1.2. Population***

The target population of this study was composed of 20 students, 9 girls and 11 boys. Their ages range from 18 to 26 years old. These students were taking the course Integrated English I of the Associate's Program in English at Universidad Nacional, Brunca Extension. The level of the students is beginning. This course, taught by two professors, lasted approximately 17 weeks of the first period of the school year. One professor, who is a non-native English speaker (NNEST), taught one section of the course listening, speaking and reading. The native speaker teacher (NEST) taught the other section on grammar and writing. It is worth saying that the exposure to the native speaker teacher lasted 10 weeks (60 hours) of the whole school period.

The study focuses on the analysis of these twenty students' writing skills and their impressions and attitudes towards the teaching of English by a NEST before, after and while they took the section of the course on grammar and writing, and had contact with the native speaker teacher. Through the administration of a pre-test, the researchers garnered the students' actual writing skills before exposure to the NEST, and through a questionnaire, the students' perceptions and attitudes towards English, the NNEST and the NEST were also gathered; by administering a post-test and conducting an interview, the students' impressions were recorded after having contact with the NEST. Through four classroom observations, the researchers collected the students' perceptions and patterns of behavior while being exposed to the teaching of writing by a NEST.

### ***3.1.3. Instruments***

To carry out this study, several instruments were devised and used to collect detailed and extensive data. For the administration of the instruments, three stages were key for the gathering of the information:

First, students taking the course Integrated English I of the Associate's Program in English, specifically the grammar and writing section, filled in a questionnaire in order for the researchers to gain familiarity with the students' actual perceptions about language use, language attitudes, and their motivation just before being exposed to the native English speaker teaching. Right after that, a pre-test was administered. It consisted of students' written products on an open-ended topic. They were just asked to write a composition in thirty minutes. To evaluate these compositions, the researchers evaluated three elements: fluency, lexical variation, and accuracy. The criteria used to analyze fluency in the students' compositions were word count, *t*-units, and number of clauses. For the analysis of lexical

variation, the number of word types was divided by the number of word tokens multiplied by 100. To examine accuracy in the students' written products, the researchers considered the count of mistakes divided by the number of words. This same rubric was used to scrutinize the results of the posttests.

Second, the researchers made observations of four different classes taught by the native English speaker teacher to the target population. To this purpose, a classroom observation rubric was devised. This rubric included several teaching aspects such as the language mostly used during the activities, the lesson setting, and the lesson focus. Furthermore, the researchers sought to gain insights of the students' performance and patterns of behavior while they were attending classes taught by the native English speaker teacher. Holding this in mind, the rubric contained other aspects that helped analyze the students' actual feelings and reactions while being taught: the ability to follow directions, the comprehension of the topic, participation and engagement, the use of written material, their attitude towards the teacher's personality, and the attitude towards the teacher's choice of strategies.

Third, after ten weeks of native speaker teaching exposure, the researchers carried out an in-depth interview with ten students from the twenty in the class. The interview consisted of six open-ended and free response questions. They were related to students' preferences for the activities the native English speaker teacher did, the challenges faced and some insights on the comparison of the styles of non-native and native speaker teaching. Right after the culmination of the native speaker teaching exposure, students were required to write another composition, which was used as the post-test. The same task constraints (thirty minutes, open-ended topic) for the pretest and the post-test were applied.

#### ***3.1.4. Data Analysis***

The analysis of the data seeks to determine the impact of native English speaker teaching on the students' written production. In order to scrutinize the results of this study, the research questions will be analyzed one by one.

- a. Analysis of the research question 1-What are some implications provoked by native English speaker teaching on the written products of beginning students of the Associate's Program in English at UNA, SRB?*

For the pre and post-tests, the students' written products were analyzed on three different aspects: fluency, lexical variation, and accuracy. The criteria used to analyze fluency in the students' compositions were word count, t-units, and number of clauses. Table 1.1 depicts the results of word count on students' pre and post-tests.

From the information displayed above, it is worth noting that 16 out of the 20 students, which represents 80% of the target population, doubled word count, and 8 out of the 20 students, which represents 40% of the total of students, tripled word count. It is remarkable to point out that the range of words students wrote at the beginning of this process for the pre-test was from 42 to 132 words, which represented a mean of 87 words. On the other hand, the word range students wrote for the post-test was from 81 to 411 words,

which represented a mean of 246 words. Students increased 243%, or the increase in fluency was more than double, almost 2 ½ times from the pre-test.

**Table 1.1**  
*Results of Word Count from Pre/post tests*

| <b>Student Number</b> | <b>Pre-test</b> | <b>Post-Test</b> |
|-----------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| S1                    | 59              | 160*             |
| S2                    | 54              | 153**            |
| S3                    | 42              | 155**            |
| S4                    | 66              | 195**            |
| S5                    | 94              | 120              |
| S6                    | 64              | 236**            |
| S7                    | 101             | 145              |
| S8                    | 60              | 183**            |
| S9                    | 76              | 178*             |
| S10                   | 69              | 139*             |
| S11                   | 71              | 251**            |
| S12                   | 60              | 81               |
| S13                   | 72              | 175*             |
| S14                   | 112             | 167              |
| S15                   | 72              | 141*             |
| S16                   | 132             | 411**            |
| S17                   | 51              | 168**            |
| S18                   | 66              | 140*             |
| S19                   | 69              | 155*             |
| S20                   | 92              | 253*             |

*Notes: \* = word count is double, \*\* = word count is triple.*

In addition to word count, it was necessary to analyze the number of T-units fulfilled by each of the twenty students of this study in both the pretest and the post-test in order to determine the students' writing fluency reached in their compositions. A T-unit or a terminable unit, according to Hunt (1965), is "a main clause plus all subordinate clauses and nonclausal structures attached to or embedded in it" (p.20). The results displayed below (see Table 1.2) revealed the corresponding results of T-units in the pre and posttest of the population under study.

The numerical data displayed show that 9 out of the 20 students doubled in the writing of T-units in the post-test. That amounts 45% of the total of students. Five students out of 20 tripled in T-units count, which totals 25% of the whole number of students. The next Figure 1.1 aids to the visualization of these numerical data with ease.



**Table 1.2**  
*Results of T-units Pre/post test*

| <b>Student Number</b> | <b>Pre-test</b> | <b>Post-Test</b> |
|-----------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| S1                    | 6               | 9*               |
| S2                    | 4               | 5*               |
| S3                    | 4               | 8**              |
| S4                    | 5               | 15***            |
| S5                    | 8               | 8                |
| S6                    | 8               | 14*              |
| S7                    | 11              | 8                |
| S8                    | 5               | 10**             |
| S9                    | 6               | 11*              |
| S10                   | 6               | 7*               |
| S11                   | 4               | 17***            |
| S12                   | 6               | 5                |
| S13                   | 3               | 9***             |
| S14                   | 6               | 8*               |
| S15                   | 6               | 7*               |
| S16                   | 4               | 22*****          |
| S17                   | 5               | 13**             |
| S18                   | 3               | 11***            |
| S19                   | 5               | 8*               |
| S20                   | 8               | 19**             |

*Notes: \* = increase, \*\* = T-unit count is double, \*\*\* = T-Unit count is triple.*

The range of T-units in the pretest goes from 3 to 11, which recorded a mean of 5.65 T-units reported. The range of T-units in the post-test extends from 5 to 22, which revealed a mean of 10.7 T-units. To sum up, the T-unit measure overall was close to doubling.

The third component of writing fluency under scrutiny is clause count. The researchers counted the number of clauses written in both the pre and post-tests and made comparisons of both results. The next Table 1.3 indicates the comparison drawn between the results of clause count in both the pre and posttests.

The data shown reveal that the range of clauses in the pre-test extends from five to 17, which recorded a mean of 9.7, resulting in 7.4 words average. On the other hand, the clause range in the post-test goes from two to 21 clauses, which represented a mean of 6.65, resulting in 180 words average. It is worth noting that 15 out of 20 students decreased in the use of clause structures in the post-test. A possible reason of this decline detected might be that in the post-test, students may have been trying to achieve more control with structures and choosing to simplify rather than attempting problematic structures. This is a common developmental stage of writing as beginning writers opt for more control over syntactic structures.

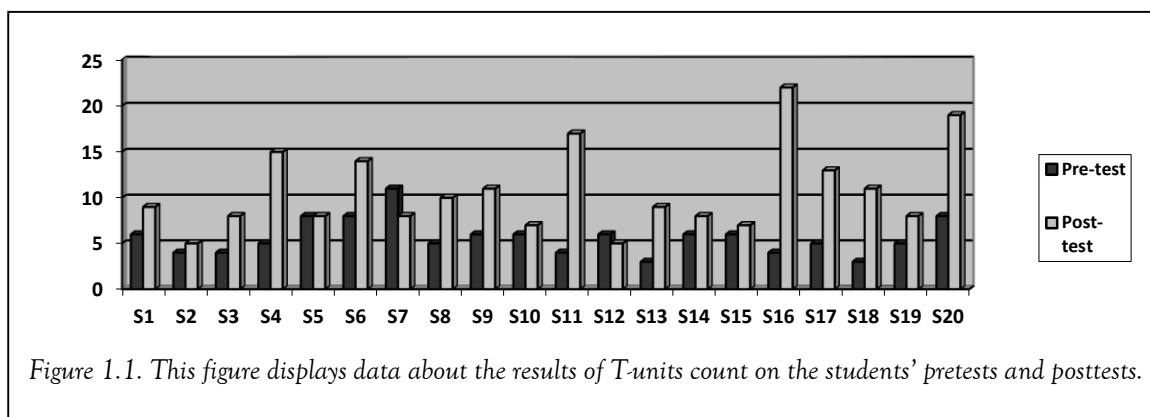


Figure 1.1. This figure displays data about the results of T-units count on the students' pretests and posttests.

Table 1.3

Results of Clause Count Pre/post test

| Student Number | Pre-test | Post-Test |
|----------------|----------|-----------|
| S1             | 8        | 9*        |
| S2             | 6        | 7*        |
| S3             | 7        | 4#        |
| S4             | 8        | 8         |
| S5             | 12       | 5#        |
| S6             | 9        | 4#        |
| S7             | 15       | 4#        |
| S8             | 7        | 2#        |
| S9             | 9        | 8#        |
| S10            | 9        | 6#        |
| S11            | 11       | 14*       |
| S12            | 7        | 2#        |
| S13            | 10       | 6#        |
| S14            | 17       | 4#        |
| S15            | 9        | 7#        |
| S16            | 13       | 21*       |
| S17            | 5        | 4#        |
| S18            | 9        | 4#        |
| S19            | 10       | 6#        |
| S20            | 13       | 8*        |

Notes: \* = clauses increased, # = clauses decreased.

The second aspect analyzed in the students' written products was accuracy. To this purpose, the researchers considered the count of mistakes divided by the number of words (see Table 1.4).

**Table 1.4**  
*Results of Pre/Post-test Accuracy*

| <b>Student Number</b> | <b>Pre-test</b> | <b>Post-Test</b> |
|-----------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| S1                    | 0.14            | 0.08#            |
| S2                    | 0.17            | 0.09#            |
| S3                    | 0.05            | 0.12*            |
| S4                    | 0.09            | 0.05#            |
| S5                    | 0.07            | 0.08*            |
| S6                    | 0.05            | 0.06*            |
| S7                    | 0.04            | 0.05*            |
| S8                    | 0.10            | 0.04#            |
| S9                    | 0.09            | 0.08#            |
| S10                   | 0.06            | 0.03#            |
| S11                   | 0.06            | 0.05#            |
| S12                   | 0.12            | 0.07#            |
| S13                   | 0.07            | 0.06#            |
| S14                   | 0.09            | 0.10*            |
| S15                   | 0.11            | 0.06#            |
| S16                   | 0.06            | 0.04#            |
| S17                   | 0.14            | 0.06#            |
| S18                   | 0.06            | 0.01#            |
| S19                   | 0.06            | 0.02#            |
| S20                   | 0.02            | 0.02             |

*Notes: \* = errors increased, # = errors decreased. 15 out of 20 decreased or had the same number of errors.*

The previous numerical data display significant information for this study. First, the accuracy calculated in the pretest ranges from 0.02 to 0.14, which accounts for a mean of 8.25, resulting in 8% of errors recorded in the students' pretests. Second, the range of the accuracy calculated in the post-tests extends from 0.02 to 0.12, which represents a mean of 5.85% giving as a result 6% of errors recorded in the students' post-tests. It is important to note here that a higher score means less accuracy. Fewer errors mean more control. In the pre-test, the mean obtained 8.25 equals 74 words, which represents 11% error count. In the post-test, the mean recorded 5.85 equals 180 words, which totals 3% error count. These data indicate that students exhibited more control in the post-test writing.

The third and final aspect analyzed in the students' writing products is lexical variation. This aspect was calculated by dividing the number of word types with the number of word tokens multiplied by 100. The next Table 1.5 exhibits the results of the analysis of lexical variation in the pretests and posttests.

**Table 1.5**  
*Results of Pre/Post-test Lexical Variation*

| <b>Student Number</b> | <b>Pre-test</b> | <b>Post-Test</b> |
|-----------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| S1                    | 0.69            | 0.64#            |
| S2                    | 0.76            | 0.65#            |
| S3                    | 0.64            | 0.73*            |
| S4                    | 0.83            | 0.68#            |
| S5                    | 0.68            | 0.56#            |
| S6                    | 0.75            | 0.64#            |
| S7                    | 0.69            | 0.80*            |
| S8                    | 0.77            | 0.74#            |
| S9                    | 0.82            | 0.69#            |
| S10                   | 0.71            | 0.68#            |
| S11                   | 0.80            | 0.63#            |
| S12                   | 0.73            | 0.80*            |
| S13                   | 0.78            | 0.68#            |
| S14                   | 0.67            | 0.59#            |
| S15                   | 0.69            | 0.81*            |
| S16                   | 0.63            | 0.75*            |
| S17                   | 0.72            | 0.63#            |
| S18                   | 0.68            | 0.60#            |
| S19                   | 0.83            | 0.69#            |
| S20                   | 0.73            | 0.68#            |

Notes: \* = increase; # = decrease. 25% 5 out of 20 showed increases in lexical complexity.

According to the data displayed, the lexical complexity recorded in the pretests ranges from 0.63 to 0.83, giving a mean of 0.73, which stands for 73%. On the contrary, the range of lexical complexity found in the post-tests extends from 0.63 to 0.81, resulting in a mean of 0.68, which accounts for 68%. In the light of these data, it is worth noting that the mean is lower in the post-test, but not significantly. There exists an in-built bias in the measure itself, because longer texts inevitably repeat more high frequency words – prepositions, articles, auxiliaries, pronouns – than shorter texts. In the same vein, Breeze (2008) stated that “The basic rule is that the shorter the text is, the higher the index of lexical variation” (p. 54).

Briefly, the aspects on fluency, accuracy and lexical complexity facilitated the analysis of the results of the students’ pre and post-tests. The results are displayed in the following Table 1.6.

**Table 1.6**

*Overall results of fluency, accuracy and lexical complexity in pre/post-tests*

| Aspects under study            | Pre-test results<br>Mean | Post-test results<br>Mean |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| Fluency (word count)           | 74                       | 180                       |
| Fluency (T-units)              | 5.65                     | 10.7                      |
| Syntactic Complexity (clauses) | 9.7                      | 6.65                      |
| Lexical Complexity             | 0.73                     | 0.68                      |
| Accuracy (errors)              | 8.25                     | 5.85                      |

The numerical data shown above demonstrate the progress of the students of this study. Their written products for the post-test show an increase of words used and more complete terminable units. However, the results also show a decrease in amount and use of clauses (complex structures). It is likely that the students, toward the end of the semester, were attempting to control structures, rather than just to “free write” their ideas. What is promising, it must be noted, is that this strategy seems to have worked as the error count per paper decreased significantly. The little change in lexical complexity needs to be reviewed further, as the students were also taking an intensive reading course with new vocabulary. Here, we must note, though, there was little incorporation of the reading material into the grammar/writing course.

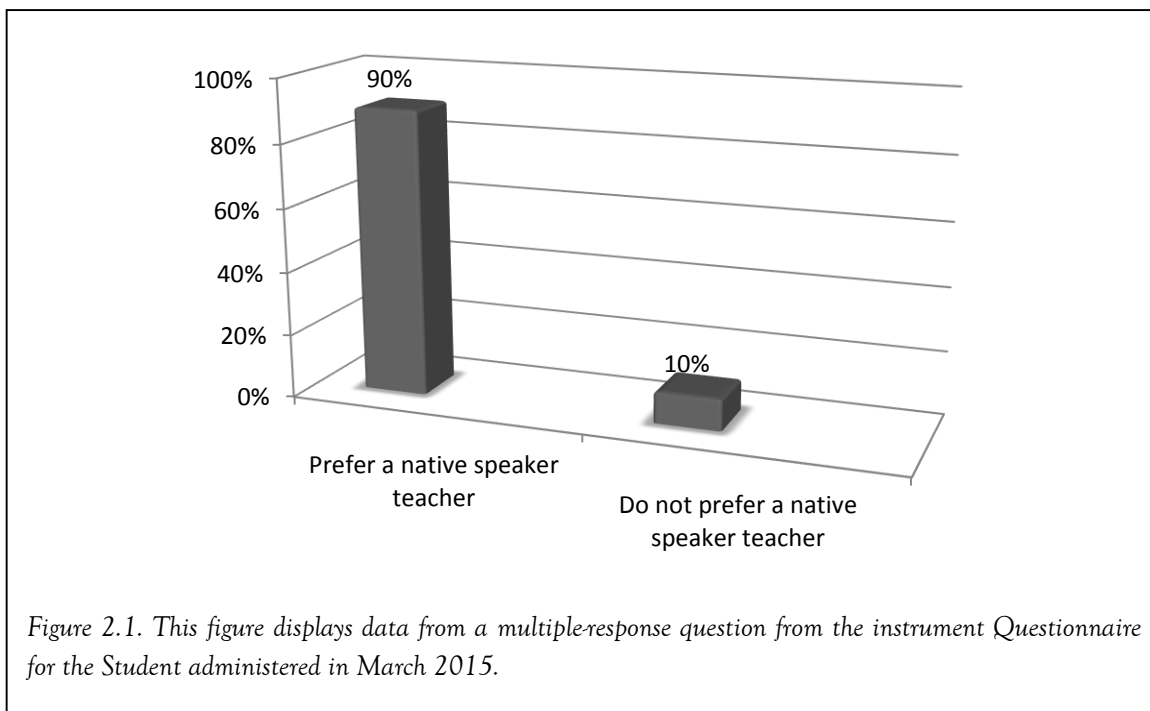
- b. *Analysis of the research question: What are some beginning students’ perceptions regarding native English speaker (NES) teaching and nonnative English speaker (NNEs) teaching?*

After being exposed to 60 hours of native speaker teaching, the twenty students were all asked about whether or not they prefer a native English speaker as a teacher based on any previous experience (see Figure 2.1).

The graph reveals that 18 students prefer a native English speaker as a teacher which makes up for 90% whilst two of them do not; that was equivalent to 10%. This information illustrates that students’ acceptance towards the figure of a NEST in the language classroom was high. This type of acceptance could be conducive to successful English learning while being exposed to a NEST.

In addition to the information garnered by the students’ questionnaires, students were asked about some marked differences between the NEST and the NNEST during a face-to-face interview. It is worth noting that the course under study was a collegiate course. The NEST taught the grammar and writing part while the NNEST taught the students listening, speaking and reading. The students’ answers for the inquiry on differences between these two teachers were very similar. Some of the differences pointed out for the NEST were that she seemed to be more dynamic (she changed the activities during class and kept students active), was more encouraging, taught them more about the target culture, was more patient, brought a lot of materials and explained more. On the other hand, the NNEST was said to

explain more clearly, did several activities, spoke slowly, gave better explanations, looked more serious, and did not practice enough before the tests.

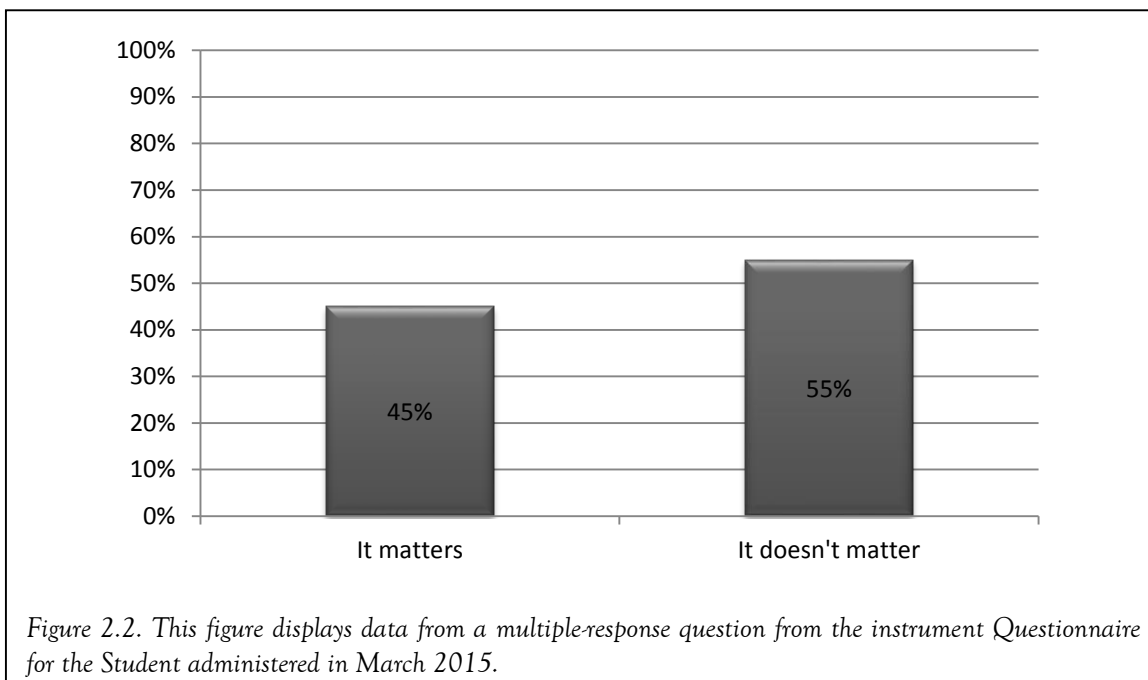


During class observations, the researcher could recognize most of the aspects students mentioned in the interview. The NEST brought an array of different activities each session observed. She concentrated on keeping students on task all the time. Dead time was not possible. She constantly changed the activities and had the students work in groups. Interaction was a must among students and between the teacher and the students as well. There was an opportunity for students to construct their answers to the exercises all together. Some features of meaningful learning were observed. Students participated in the construction of big projects in gradual steps like in the case of the writing of a letter and design of a newspaper with its different sections. The NEST's lessons were communicative and participatory at the same time.

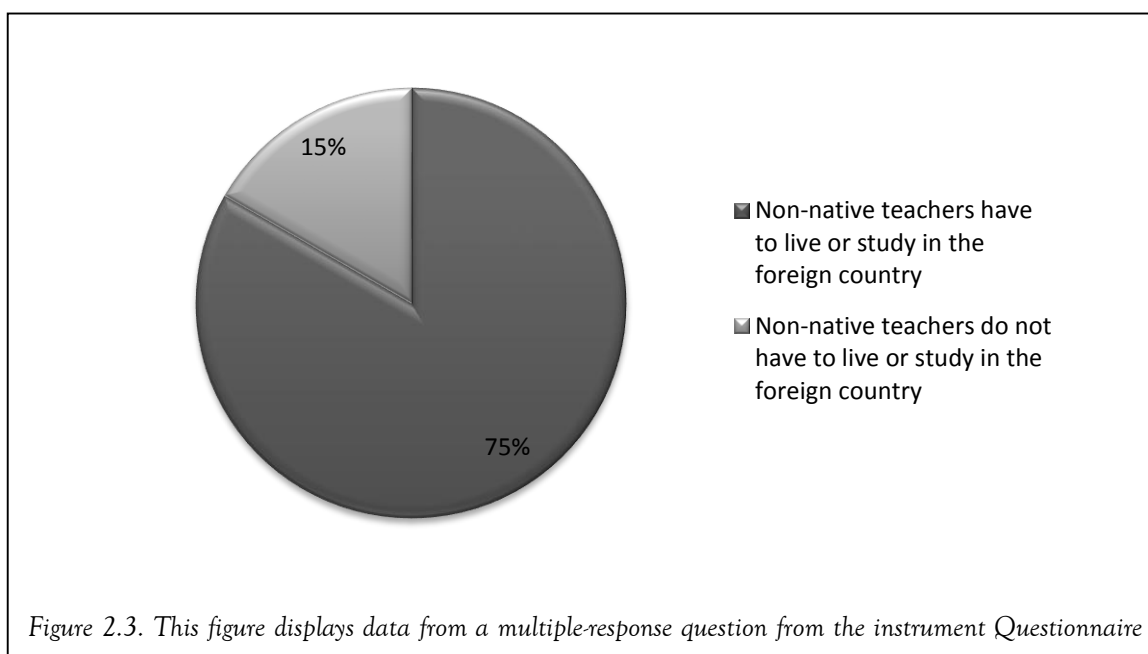
Although students seem to prefer a native speaker teacher, a number of students answered that it would not matter whether the teacher was a native speaker or not (see Figure 2.2).

Actually, there is a slight difference between the students who care about their teacher being a native speaker and those who do not care. According to the previous chart, nine students out of the twenty reported that they care about this. This represented 45% of the students. The other eleven students, which represented a 55%, stated that they do not care whether the teacher in charge of the class is a native speaker or not. It does not make a difference to them. This could also guarantee that more than the half of the students could achieve successful English learning during the period they were exposed to the NEST.





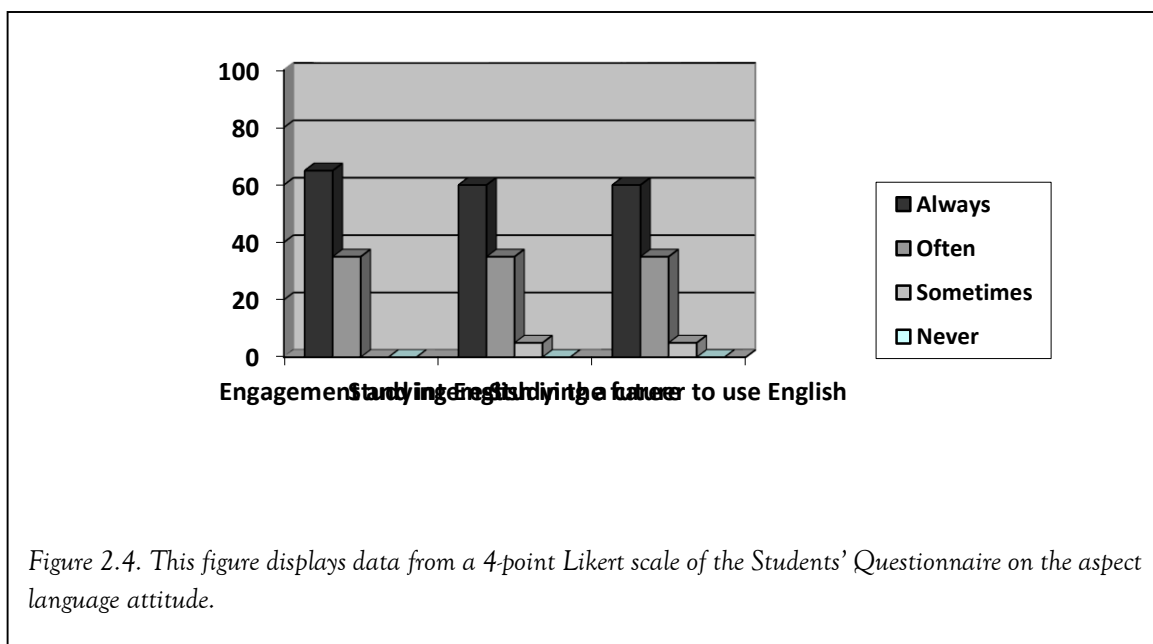
The majority of students also reported that they believe that a non-native English teacher is qualified if she or he has lived and/or studied in the country where the language is spoken (see Figure 2.3).



There is a high preference for non-native English teachers who have lived or studied in the country where English is spoken. This majority represents 75% of the whole target population. Indeed, 15 students out of the 20 answered positively to this inquiry. The rest of the students, answered negatively. In fact, just 5 students out of the 20 did not object to

the fact of having a non-native English teacher who has not lived or studied in an English speaking country. This demonstrates the positive orientation of this group of students towards an English class taught by someone more knowledgeable of the target culture and language. In the interview, this last feature was pointed out as one outstanding characteristic of the NEST. They reported that she taught them more about the target culture. During the class observations, the NEST asked students to write informal letters and to create a newspaper as they are actually done in the target culture. These two activities exposed students to compare and contrast features of the target and mother culture.

Students were also questioned about whether or not a native English speaker teacher would make them more interested in learning. All students answered positively. The total number of students were sure that their interest and motivation would rise if they had the opportunity to have a native speaker as a teacher. Furthermore, students were asked about their attitudes towards the language while they were exposed to the NEST and took the course Integrated English I (see Figure 2.4). They were asked about their engagement and interest as well as their desire of studying English in the future and studying a career to use English while they took classes with the NEST.



The categories “always” and “often” were the most chosen. The majority reported that their engagement during the classes they took with the NEST was always positive. In fact, 13 out of the 20 represented the majority of students. They felt motivated and their interest was high, enough to be open to the strategies used by the NEST. Furthermore, the same number of students selected the aspects “studying English in the future” and “studying a career to use English”; actually, the number recorded was 12 out of the 20. Concerning students’ engagement and motivation, they detailed some reasons why they liked the NEST’s classes during the face-to-face interviews. They stated that the NEST included games, songs, and chants in her classes to keep their attention focused. They also informed that the NEST

worked on their mistakes and helped with corrections, brought lots of practices, motivated them to write at home, and always used index cards as a technique to concentrate on the instructions of the exercise.

During the class observations, most of the activities that students mentioned were done. In addition, the NEST always wrote the agenda for the class in one of the board's four corners. This helped students to visualize the class routine, and give them a sense of accomplishment every time they moved to the next activity listed. Some of the strategies the NEST used were top-down strategies, from the general to the specific. For instance, students were asked to analyze some sentences in strip of paper, determine the use of the prepositions and reported it to the rest of the group. After that, the teacher presented the rules for preposition use. Furthermore, the teacher facilitated the use of critical thinking by having the students proofread their compositions and peer edit their partners' writing products. Students were encouraged to write the different sections of a newspaper by following all the stages of the writing process. They all participated in the design and content of the newspaper. In the last observation made, the students were very excited to see the final edition of their newspaper. They recalled all the steps they went through in the creation of the newspaper. They reported that they had selected a "winner" article, or as they called it a "feature" article. The winner student read the article aloud that day. These activities demonstrate the level of engagement students had while taking the classes taught by the NEST.

The students' impressions on their use of the language were also analyzed. To this purpose, a 4-point Likert scale was used to determine how affirmative or negative their impressions were. The next Table 2.1 illustrates the results of the mean of each aspect considered for students' impressions on language use.

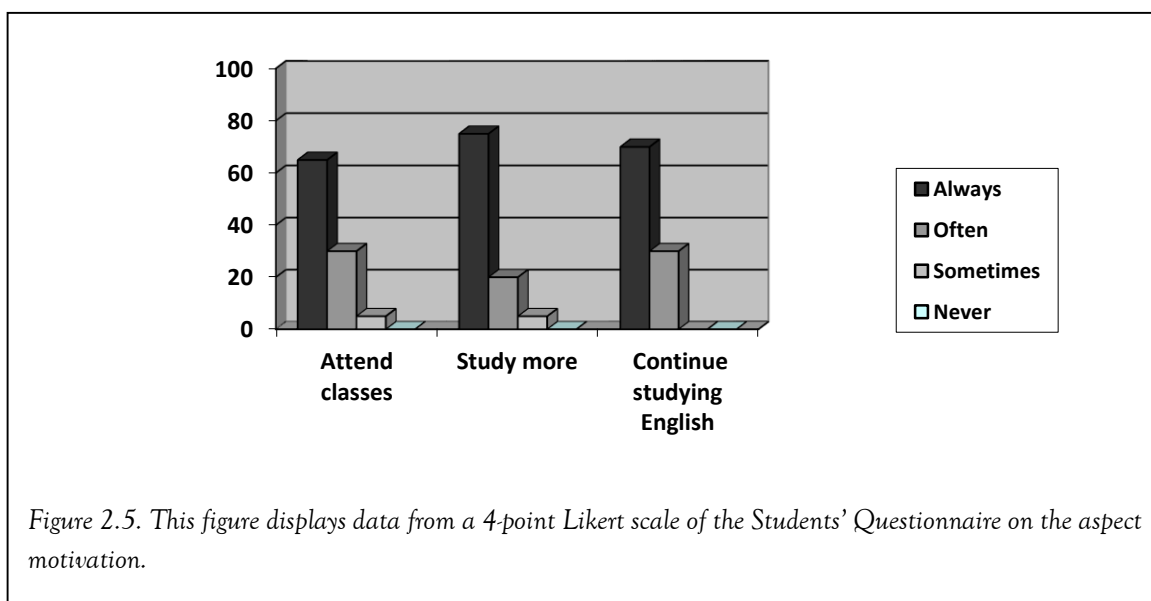
|                                     | M   |
|-------------------------------------|-----|
| Understanding of grammar            | 3.6 |
| Improvement of writing              | 3.5 |
| Listening comprehension             | 3.8 |
| Speaking ability                    | 3.1 |
| Fluency in oral and written English | 3.1 |
| Improvement of vocabulary           | 3.0 |
| Longer concentration                | 2.9 |
| Less likely to use Spanish          | 3.0 |

*Note. Rated on a 4-point Likert 4='always' -strongly agree-, 3= 'often' -agree-, 2= 'sometimes' -somehow disagree and 1='never'-strongly disagree.*

The students reported that after being exposed to the native English speaker teaching, they were sure that their listening comprehension, their understanding of grammar and their writing improved greatly. In addition, students reported that their vocabulary range, their

fluency in oral and written English and their speaking ability itself improved as well. The means of these aspects recorded a slight difference regarding the first top three aspects mentioned before. The lowest means were recorded for the aspects about longer concentration spans kept in class and the use of just English and less Spanish in the classroom. These aspects did not show a great difference compared to the others listed before either. The range of these means analyzed went from 2.9 to 3.8.

Besides the students' impressions on language use and language attitude, they were asked to report about their overall motivation as language learners who had the opportunity to learn from a NEST in a five-month period (from January to May). The next Figure 2.5 displays the results of this analysis.



Based on the data shown, the categories “always” and “often” recorded more answers in the three aspects inquired. Actually, there was no selection of the category “never” and just few students chose “sometimes” for their answers to two of the aspects under scrutiny. Just one student chose the “attend classes” and “study more” categories. During this period of exposure to NEST, students reported that studying more and putting in more effort was the one aspect in which they showed more motivation while studying English in their majors. This aspect was chosen by 16 out of the 20 students. The second top aspect was the fact that after having experienced this contact with a native English speaker, they would like to continue studying this language in the future. Indeed, 14 out of the 20 students selected this aspect. “Attend classes” was the least selected aspect; however, the difference between this aspect and the others was slight; 13 students selected that last aspect.

#### 4. Recommendations

After analyzing the data gathered, the researchers put forward some significant recommendations. Due to the lack of exposure to NESTs in an EFL context, there are some efforts and contributions NNESTs might make for the sake of the students' language development. First, an aspect that students pointed out as a salient feature of the NEST was her knowledge about the target culture, and how she incorporated that to the grammar and writing class. In this regard, NNEST should add the cultural component to the materials and activities they bring to the classroom.

Second, the type of tasks the NEST designed were very genuine, incorporated the use of authentic materials, and were meaningful to the students' learning process. This raised the students' engagement. Students were involved in the process of writing a letter individually and then producing a newspaper collectively as one class. These two tasks fueled the students' interest and participation since they knew how applicable that could be to their lives outside the classroom. To this end, it is recommendable for NNESTs to promote more authentic and life-like tasks in the grammar or writing class.

Third, the strategies the NEST used were student-centered, promoted participation, enhanced the students' confidence, and built upon their social skills in the classroom. Her classes were full of activities that kept students on task and engaged all the time. Most of the classroom activities were done in groups and some were assigned as projects. This helped set a sense of accomplishment among the students when working as a team. In addition, the NEST provided students with a lot of practice right before the tests, which helped them feel more confident when taking the exam or quiz. It is advisable that NNESTs implement an ample set of affective and social strategies to complement their everyday work in the classroom. This might boost students' participation, confidence and group work skills a lot more.

Fourth, the NEST set a pleasant classroom atmosphere by having the students work in pairs or groups, singing chants or songs and using games. Students reported that they did enjoy the way the NEST brought fun to the classroom. Although some NNESTs may think the fun element should not be part of a college class, the NEST proved that that aspect could have very positive results in a group of EFL students. Thus, it is suitable to include enjoyable activities such as games, songs, chants and group interaction in grammar and writing classes.

Fifth, the NEST provided constructive feedback and helped students develop their critical thinking by having them peer assess and review the other partners' compositions. Although those two techniques imply a great physical effort on the teachers' part, NNESTs should devote more time to providing more constructive feedback and facilitating opportunities for students to learn how to peer assess others' compositions.

The researchers also drew upon some recommendations for institution administrators. First, it would be remarkable to have native speakers who are qualified professionals teach beginning students in small classes. However, in most foreign (TEFL) classrooms, this is

simply not possible and an unreal condition. Access to trained TEFL professionals varies considerably in most countries, yet there are a variety of resources and programs to accomplish this as a program goal. Therefore, it is advisable to contact these types of programs in order to either make native speakers exposure possible in the foreign language classroom or trained NNETs more on new methodological tendencies. Furthermore, this study, though it examines only one NES teacher and one group of beginning students, shows promise in engaging students and keeping them moving forward. It is highly recommendable the continued tracking of this group of twenty through the next year of English courses is something that could even provide more data in this issue of the impact of NES teaching.

## 5. Conclusions

From this exploratory study, one can see that the results from students' affective variables (attitudes, behaviors, motivation) show clear improvement. It is not uncommonplace for students who enjoy learning to thus increase in motivation and desire to move forward in language classes. In addition to the desire to continue studying, the students had the concrete results of improvement in writing gain. Most of them, when presented with their pre-test at the end of the 10 weeks, remarked about the amount of progress in writing they had accomplished. In other words, their own language gains were clear reinforcement for them to continue in English. Moreover, these beginning students of writing began to exhibit more control over the syntactical structures in their compositions. As they gained more practice and skill, they produced lengthier compositions with more accuracy. This was made evident as the error count per paper decreased considerably.

It was also proven through this study that active, participatory, and stimulating classes raise students' attention and facilitate their grammar and writing performance. Additionally, guiding EFL students through the stages of the writing process in a more detailed and assisted way helps learners gain more confidence and accuracy in their written products. Using real world writing tasks and collaborative projects also showed this increase in students' desire to continue with the study of English, a goal that all educators wish to accomplish.

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