

Articles

Factors associated with the notion that native speakers are the ideal language teachers: An examination of elementary school teachers in Japan

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Recently, there have been a number of studies focusing on the qualifications of native and nonnative language teachers. The notion that native speakers constitute the ideal language teachers appears to be widespread among teachers and students. This concept has been particularly influential in English teaching, although its validity has been questioned. This study aims to identify perceptual factors that are most likely to be associated with the notion held among many nonnative English-speaking teachers in East Asia that native English speakers are the ideal language teachers. This study focuses on Japanese elementary school teachers who have been asked to introduce English activities in their classes. Based on a detailed questionnaire, completed by 112 Japanese elementary school teachers, a number of perceptual factors were identified. These include: (a) their self-assessed English proficiency levels, (b) their attitudes towards nonstandard forms of English, and (c) their sense of pride in their own language and cultural heritage.

近頃、ネイティブ、ノン・ネイティブの教師の資質に関する議論が多くなされている。ネイティブ・スピーカーが理想の語学教師であるという考えは、教師や学生の間で広く浸透しているようだ。この考えは、英語指導に影響を及ぼしてきたといわれるが、その妥当性は疑問視されている。本研究は、英語を教える東アジアのノン・ネイティブ教師の間で、どのような認知要因が、ネイティブ・スピーカーが理想の語学教師であるとする考えに結びついているのかを見極めることを目的としている。本研究では、最近英語活動を行

うことになった日本の小学校教師をケースとしてとりあげた。112名の小学校教師に記入してもらったアンケート調査の結果より (1) 自己評価による英語力のレベル、(2) スタンドードではない英語に対する態度、(3) 自らの言語 (日本語) や伝統文化に対するプライドの3つの要因が、ネイティブ・スピーカーが理想の語学教師であるという考えに結びついていることがわかった。

Through English activities, what we need to teach to our students is how much fun communication is. ALTs (*Assistant Language Teachers, namely native English speakers in this context*) are so much better at explaining things to our students than we are. They are good at talking. Because they are masters of dialogue under the Socrates tradition. . . they are good at talking, communicating. . . unlike us Japanese. That's why students can learn that communication is fun through communicating with ALTs. (A male 6th grade teacher, Japan, July 2003, original in Japanese, italics added by author)

There has been a heated debate over the relative qualifications of native speakers (NS) and nonnative speakers (NNS) as language teachers. Many observers feel that the notion that NSs are ideal as language teachers has had a substantial influence on English teaching pedagogy and the recruitment of teachers (Braine, 1999; Cook, 1999). At the same time, as we will see below, the validity of this notion, both linguistically and pedagogically, has been questioned in recent studies. Phillipson (1992) sees the notion that NSs are "ideal teachers" or "better qualified" than nonnative teachers as false, and has labeled this notion the "native speaker fallacy" (pp. 193-194). The present study aims to examine if this notion exists among elementary school teachers in an English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) context and to identify what perceptual factors are most likely to be associated with these notions.

The idea that native speakers are ideal language teachers

The validity of the idea that NSs are the ideal language teachers has been challenged in applied linguistics literature. Linguistically, it is not clear what constitutes a "native speaker" in the first place. Chomsky's (1965) notion of a native speaker, namely, an "ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly" (p. 3), is considered as being at "the heart of the discourse that promotes the superiority of the native speaker teachers" (Canagarajah, 1999, p. 78). However, such an idealized abstraction does not reflect reality (Braine, 2004). Davies (2003) defines NSs as those who acquire a

given language in childhood, have intuitive knowledge about the language, have control over the language, and have a special ability to use the language creatively. But he considers the identification of NSs as essentially a matter of self-description. Kachru and Nelson (1996) see the labeling of individuals as NSs and NNSs as problematic in and of itself, because such labeling is inevitably value laden and subject to individual attitudes towards what these concepts mean. According to Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (2002), the construct of nativeness itself is “a non-elective socially constructed identity rather than a linguistic category” (p. 100).

While Medgyes (2001) considers NSs and NNSs to be mutually exclusive entities (“two different species” according to Medgyes [p. 434]), the dichotomy of NSs and NNSs also has been the subject of criticism. Cook (1999, 2005), for example, indicates that L2 users are qualitatively different from monolingual L1 users in their knowledge and processing of L1 and L2, and that they should be considered as multicompetent language users in their own right “rather than as deficient native speakers” (1999, p. 185). Rampton (1990) argues that nativeness is neither static nor inherited, and suggests that one should focus on understanding the concepts of language expertise and language loyalty instead of nativeness. Recent studies on NS-NNS interaction also have indicated that expertise is context dependent and is subject to change at any minute during the course of interaction (Hosoda, 2006; Kurhila, 2001, 2004).

The notion that NSs are the ideal language teachers has also been questioned from a pedagogical point of view. Widdowson (1994) argues that NS teachers have an advantage in the “context of language use” but not necessarily in the “context of language learning” (p. 387). Medgyes (1992), while maintaining that NS teachers have an advantage because of their high proficiency in the target language, argues that NNS teachers also have an advantage in serving as a good learning model. He also argues that NNS teachers, in addition to speaking the learners’ L1, are able to share the difficulties they experienced and their learning strategies with learners. Liu (1999) finds that the advantages and disadvantages of NS and NNS teachers are complex and context dependent. Furthermore, Astor (2000) argues that there are no scientific grounds to distinguish NS and NNS language teachers; instead he argues that differences among language teachers exist in their levels of professionalism (defined as the possession of knowledge of pedagogy, methodology, and psycho-/applied linguistics), but not in their nativeness.

Despite the lack of linguistic and pedagogic evidence needed to validate the notion that NSs are the ideal language teachers, the native model

has “remained firmly entrenched in language teaching and SLA research” (Cook, 1999, p. 188). The term *native speakers*, despite the ambiguities in its meaning, as discussed in the literature, is widely used in daily discourse in relation to teachers’ qualifications. We often find references to native speakers in media, advertisements (such as for conversational English schools), job descriptions, and various other types of documents in many regions (Cook, 2005). And indeed, a number of reports have indicated cases where teachers and learners themselves are beholden to the notion that NSs are ideal language teachers (e.g., Amin, 1997; Tang, 1997). This also has been found to be the case among learners’ parents (Takada, 2000) and administrators of English language programs (Mahboob, Uhrig, Newman, & Hartford, 2004).

However, support for the notion that native speakers possess an advantage as language teachers appears to differ among students and teachers depending on the learning/teaching context. Mahboob (2004), for example, did not find a strong preference for NS teachers among college-level ESL students. Mahboob suggests that students’ preferences towards NS teachers may possibly differ depending on instructional settings (ESL vs. EFL). Llurda and Huguet (2003) compared teachers’ perceptions at the elementary school and secondary school levels in Spain. They found different preferences among teachers within the EFL setting they examined. Elementary school teachers showed a stronger preference towards having NSs rather than NNSs as language teachers when compared with secondary school teachers. Such dissimilarities in preferences may be due to differences in program goals, teachers’ own proficiency levels, the level of proficiency needed to teach in a given context, and a number of other attitudinal factors towards the target language and language teaching.

The present study, therefore, aims to identify those perceptual variables that are related to the belief held among many teachers that NSs are the ideal language teachers. The study will examine the impact of variables such as the perceived goals of instruction, perceived proficiency, and various attitudinal factors. The present study focuses on a specific case in an EFL instructional setting: namely, the case of Japanese elementary school teachers who have recently been asked to introduce English activities in their classrooms.

English Teaching as a foreign language at the elementary school level

A growing number of countries, including East Asian countries such as China, South Korea, Japan, and Taiwan, have recently begun intro-

ducing English at the elementary school level in various forms. Such East Asian nations have been teaching English as a foreign language for a number of years (at the secondary level and beyond), but historically English has never been a major means of communication within their societies. As English has continued to grow in importance as a language of international communication, governments in East Asia have come to see English language education as an important factor in meeting their political, economic, and societal goals. This recognition recently led various East Asian states to introduce English at the elementary school level in order to improve the English proficiency of their citizens in general and their oral communication skills in particular.

In 2002 the government of Japan began to allow local governments and individual schools to introduce “Foreign Language Activities” at their discretion as part of the broader goal of developing international understanding. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science, and Technology (referred to as MEXT hereafter) indicated that as of 2004, 92% of elementary schools had already introduced some form of foreign language activities and that these had been conducted almost exclusively in English (MEXT, 2005). However, the type of English instruction and the number of hours varies significantly from school to school. The Japanese government currently does not offer standardized curricula, approved textbooks or materials, or comprehensive in-service teacher training to those teachers who are supposed to be responsible for conducting English activities.¹ Elementary school teachers are overwhelmingly homeroom teachers; they have been teaching multiple subjects and although they were asked to conduct English activities, they are not English language teachers by training. At some schools, Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) assist in teaching English activities. Japanese teachers of English include individuals who hold a teaching certificate in English at the secondary school level as well as individuals who have simply expressed an interest in teaching English at elementary schools and who are hired by local governments or individual schools to serve in various capacities. Many of the JTEs are novices when it comes to teaching English to elementary school students, and the number of qualified teachers still remains very low (Butler, 2005).

Native English speakers in English education in Japan

In order to assist elementary school teachers who are new to the English teaching profession, East Asian governments, including Japan,

have made plans to invite or are currently inviting a large number of native speakers to assist with teaching in elementary school classrooms. However, the purpose of hiring NSs and the benefits they might bring to English language education at the elementary school level in East Asian countries have yet to be clearly delineated. The qualifications that NSs must possess in order to be hired as English teachers also have yet to be clearly specified (Butler, 2005, in press-a).

Despite the lack of clear understanding regarding the role of NSs in English education at the elementary school level, the Japanese government plans to dramatically increase the number of NS teachers in classrooms in Japan. The Minister of Education stated in a July 2002 speech that his goal was to have one out of three English activities and lessons at the elementary school level taught by NSs of English, among schools that include English in the curriculum (MEXT, 2002a). According to a questionnaire about NSs that was distributed by MEXT to 350 elementary school vice principals in 2001, 84.5% of the respondents said they wished to increase the number of NSs at the elementary school level (MEXT, 2001a).

Japanese elementary schools that have chosen to introduce English into their curricula are aggressively recruiting NSs. It is estimated that as of 2004, 60% to 70% of such elementary schools were working with NSs in various capacities (MEXT, 2005). NSs are recruited at both the local government level as well as the national level. In addition, there are many private agencies that specialize in the placement of NSs, and such agencies also send NSs to schools upon request from local governments and/or individual schools. English-speaking individuals from local communities also may be invited to conduct English activities at certain schools. At the national level, the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) program is a government-organized program that has been recruiting foreign personnel to work in Japan as Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) since 1987 (McConnell, 2000). The JET program has an annual budget of approximately U.S. \$500 million and has begun sending some of its participants to elementary schools as well as to secondary schools.

The qualifications that such NSs hold, however, appear to vary greatly with respect to their education, teaching experience, and motivation for becoming teachers. Even among the ALTs in the JET program, which may well incorporate the most systematic recruitment of NSs in Japan, only 3% to 10% of the participants in the past few years were reported to have teaching certificates of any sort, not to mention TESOL certificates (Benoit, 2003). The demand for NSs has been increasing faster than the availability of qualified candidates, leading one selector for the JET program to

express his concern that the program ends up “getting some people with no talent for teaching and little real interest in Japan” (Stoffman, 1997).

Japanese elementary school teachers in general wish to work with NSs and MEXT encourages elementary school teachers to team teach English with NSs (MEXT, 2001b). However, it has also been reported that NSs’ lack of pedagogical qualifications and limited knowledge of the host culture and educational system could be a source of misunderstanding between NSs and local NNS teachers, thereby creating difficulties in working together (Kan, 2002). Homeroom teachers that work with NSs have often been observed to be either marginalized in the classroom or overly dependent on NSs during English activities (Butler, 2005; Matsukawa, 2001).

In observing six team teaching classes with Japanese homeroom teachers and NSs, Aline and Hosoda (2006) identified four roles that homeroom teachers play during team teaching. These are: (a) “bystander,” (b) “translator,” (c) “co-learners of English,” and (d) “co-teacher” (Aline & Hosoda, 2006, p. 5). While the patterns of interaction between homeroom teachers and NSs appear to be nonstatic and complicated, more attention needs to be paid to the ways in which Japanese homeroom teachers interact with NSs while conducting team teaching with NSs in order to improve their teaching, as the authors have suggested.

Not only Japanese teachers but also NSs themselves have reported some difficulties in effectively teaching English in Japan under the current system. This has been said to be partially due to their limited Japanese proficiency as well as Japanese teachers’ limited English proficiency. Another factor that has been mentioned is insufficient cultural training and social guidance for NSs working in Japan. Some former JET participants have requested that the government change the program to recruit only those who have relevant teaching certificates or to ensure that participants receive sufficient training in English teaching methodology along with Japanese language lessons upon arrival in Japan (CLAIR, 2005).

Given these circumstances, concern has been expressed over the extent to which NSs should be invited to teach in elementary school classrooms in Japan as well as over how best to utilize the resources they provide. Concerns also have been voiced regarding whether NNS elementary school teachers in Japan have sufficient English proficiency and knowledge of English teaching pedagogy to conduct English activities (Butler, 2004).

Research Questions

The research questions addressed in the present study are as follows: (Q1) Do Japanese elementary school teachers who conduct English activities believe that English is best taught by NSs?, and (Q2) What are the perceptual factors that are related to such beliefs (or lack thereof)?

One could expect Japanese elementary school teachers may be beholden to some degree to the notion that NSs are the ideal language teachers, even though the research community has questioned the validity of such a notion. In Japan, as in many other parts of the world, the term *native speaker* often appears in daily discourse in relation to teachers' qualifications. For example, a document sent by MEXT to elementary school teachers stated, "The ALT, *as a native speaker*, is a source of authentic English" (MEXT, 2001b, p. 137; italics added by the author). This is but one example of the messages that Japanese teachers receive in the course of their professional communications as well as through the broader media's use of such terms.

Since the notion of NSs is often associated with "ownership of the language" (Amin, 1997; Higgins, 2003; Norton, 1997), one may hypothesize that teachers' proficiency levels in the target language and their attitudes towards the target language and culture (as well as their attitudes towards their own language and culture) may be associated with the notion that English is best taught by NSs. One may also hypothesize that the role of NSs may vary depending on how high teachers set their goals for English language education in a particular context.

In previous research, questions concerning the notion that "native speakers are ideal teachers" have been operationalized differently: Although they may carry slightly different connotations, "NSs are better qualified as language teachers," "NSs are better language teachers," and "NSs had better be hired as language teachers rather than NNSs" have been utilized. Phillipson (1993) also used "NSs are the ideal teachers" and "NSs are better qualified than NNSs" interchangeably. The present study framed its questions around the notion of "At elementary schools, English is best taught by NSs" because this way of addressing the NS/NNS issue has more direct relevance to current English education policy at the elementary school level in Japan.

Method

Participants

Three questionnaires were distributed to elementary school teachers at two teacher training programs organized by private institutions in Tokyo and at a conference on elementary school English in Japan. All of these events were held in the summer of 2002. Since Japan had not yet officially introduced English as a required academic subject at the elementary school level, the data were collected from teachers who are working at schools that had chosen on their own to introduce English activities on a regular basis under the current system. In other words, the present data should not be assumed to be representative of all elementary school teachers in Japan. Rather, the sample consists of Japanese teachers who already have conducted English activities in various forms at their schools in urban areas.

Out of the 160 questionnaires distributed, 112 were returned, yielding a response rate of 69.4%. The majority of the participants were homeroom teachers, though responses from Japanese teachers of English (11.6% of the participants) were also included in the data. The majority of the teachers were female (77.7%) and 45.5% were in their 40s (with the rest being in their 20s and 30s). The frequency with which they taught English or conducted other English classroom activities was as follows: 28.6% of them taught a 40-minute lesson once per week or a 20-minute lesson twice per week; 20.5% taught a 40-minute lesson or an equivalent amount twice per week; 15.2% taught a 40-minute lesson twice per month; and the rest taught a 40-minute lesson either once a month or less. Reflecting the growing trend of inviting NSs to work with elementary school teachers in Japan, the overwhelming majority of teachers (80% in the present study) had worked with NSs, although the frequency and the ways in which they worked with NSs varied.

Instruments

The teachers were asked to respond anonymously to three questionnaires: (a) a self-evaluation of their own English proficiency levels; (b) a questionnaire on the perceived short-term and long-term goals of English education in Japan; and (c) a questionnaire on their attitudes towards English language and culture, Japanese language and culture, and English education. All of the items on all of the questionnaires were written in Japanese (see Appendix A). The translation from English to Japanese

was conducted by the researcher, and back-translation was conducted by a Japanese-speaking research assistant in order to ensure the accuracy of the original translation.

(Questionnaire 1) Self-evaluation of English proficiency

The first questionnaire employed items from the Stanford Foreign Language Oral Skills Evaluation Matrix (FLOSEM) (Padilla, Sung, & Aninao, 1997) in order to obtain information on the teachers' self-rated English proficiency levels. Using FLOSEM, the teachers were asked to rate their own oral proficiency in five domains (listening comprehension, oral fluency, vocabulary in speech, pronunciation, and grammar in speech) by responding to prompts based on a scale from 1 to 6,² with 1 indicating a very low level of proficiency and 6 indicating the highest level. The teachers who participated in this study were given the full rubric for FLOSEM. For more detailed information about FLOSEM, please see Padilla, et al., (1997) and Butler (2004).

Since FLOSEM was designed to measure oral proficiency only, items for reading and writing were added by the author, using scales equivalent to those employed in FLOSEM. The teachers were also asked to indicate the minimum levels that they thought were necessary in order to conduct English activities in their schools, again using FLOSEM. Three variables used in the present study were taken from this questionnaire: namely, the teachers' self-rated current English proficiency levels (*Perceived Current Proficiency*); the perceived minimum levels of proficiency that the teachers thought were necessary in order to conduct English activities (*Desired Proficiency*); and the gaps between the two proficiencies (*Perceived Gap*).

(Questionnaire 2) The goals of English education

The second questionnaire examined the teachers' attitudes toward the perceived goals of English language education, namely, the degree of importance teachers attached to achieving different goals established in local curricula in English language education in Japan. Two types of goals were examined: the questionnaire-solicited responses on 12 potential goals of English activities at the elementary school level (*Short-term Goals*) and 9 potential goals related to English attainment among Japanese high school graduates (*Long-term Goals*).

A number of elementary school reports were referred to when constructing the items for the *Short-term Goals* and the goals set by MEXT in its "Strategic Plan to cultivate 'Japanese with English abilities'" (MEXT,

2002b) were considered when constructing the items for the *Long-term Goals*. The goals of the Strategic Plan are that average high school graduates should reach the 2nd or pre-2nd level of the STEP (Society for Testing English Proficiency) test. The first item (to acquire native-like pronunciation) was not indicated in any of the school reports nor in the MEXT plan, but since Japanese learners tend to place very high value on studying certain types of native speakers' English (Tanabe, 2003), this item was included in the present study.

The teachers were asked to respond to each item using a 7-point scale (where 1 indicated "not appropriate," 4 indicated "50% of the students should achieve this goal," and 7 indicated "all students should achieve this goal." The items in this questionnaire on goals can be found in Appendix B.

(Questionnaire 3) Attitudes toward English/Japanese language and culture

The third and final questionnaire consisted of 18 items that were designed to investigate teachers' attitudes towards English and Japanese language and culture, as well as towards English education in general. Although there are a number of studies which have investigated *learners'* attitudes towards language learning and motivation, including LoCastro's (2001) study of Japanese college students, do not appear to be in any other formal assessments of attitudes among foreign language teachers at the elementary school level. Therefore, while the author reviewed items that were designed to assess learners' attitudes in previous studies, the items used in the present study were constructed specifically for this study in order to be more relevant to elementary school teachers.

Two items were based on the items included in LoCastro (2001), though the wording was changed for clarity. One of the two items referred to a native speaker and the other referred to English education at elementary schools. The first item, "If it were possible, I would prefer to have been born an English speaker" (the original form in LoCastro), was changed to "If I were born again, I would rather have English as my first language," in order to make the item better imply that the responders do not have English as their first language while keeping the question as close to the original as possible. The second item, "It will cause problems if English is introduced into primary schools," was changed to "It is good to introduce English at the elementary school level."

Again, the teachers were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed with each statement using a 7-point scale (where 1 indicated “strongly disagree,” 4 indicated “neither disagree nor agree,” and 7 indicated “strongly agree”). In addition to these 18 attitudinal questions, the teachers were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed with the statement that English (or English Activities) at the elementary school level is best taught by a native speaker of English, using the same 7-point scale. The items in the questionnaire on attitudes can be found in Table 5 in the Results section as well as in Appendix C.

Results

Q1: Teachers' responses to the idea that English is best taught by NSs

The teachers were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed with the idea that English is best taught by NSs at elementary schools (this item is referred to as the “NS Item” hereinafter). The results are indicated in Table 1 below. In the group of Japanese elementary school teachers tested herein, approximately 60% supported this statement to some extent, while 13% of them somewhat disagreed. One in four teachers indicated that they “neither agreed nor disagreed” with this statement.

Table 1. Frequencies of responses to the idea that English is best taught by native speakers at elementary schools (N = 111).

	Strongly disagree		Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly agree	
Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Frequency	1 (.9%)	5 (4.5%)	9 (8.0%)	30 (26.8%)	23 (20.5%)	25 (22.3%)	18 (16.1%)

Note. Missing = 1 (.9%); Mean = 4.95; SD = 1.43

Q2: Perceptual factors related to the notion that English is best taught by NSs

Perceptual factors that were likely to be related to the notion that English is best taught by NSs were investigated in four steps. First, descriptive statistics were examined based on the results of questionnaire 1 (*Self-evaluation of English proficiency*) and questionnaire 2 (*The goals of English education*). The results are shown in Tables 2 and 3 respectively.

Part of the data shown was reported in Butler (2004).

**Table 2. Teachers' self-evaluated English proficiencies
(on a 6-point scale)**

	Current proficiency	Desired proficiency	Gaps (Current –Desired)
Average	2.67 (1.07)	3.76 (.82)	-1.10 (1.19)
Listening	3.14 (1.26)	4.22 (1.01)	-1.07 (1.41)
Oral fluency	2.53 (1.18)	3.66 (.93)	-1.12 (1.33)
Oral vocabulary	2.27 (1.15)	3.47 (.96)	-1.19 (1.27)
Pronunciation	2.65 (1.36)	3.86 (1.04)	-1.20 (1.50)
Oral grammar	2.50 (1.09)	3.92 (.96)	-1.40 (1.23)
Reading	3.12 (1.08)	3.85 (.86)	-.72 (1.18)
Writing	2.51 (1.08)	3.34 (.94)	-.82 (1.22)

Note. The standard deviations are indicated in parentheses.

**Table 3. Short-term and long-term goals of English education
perceived by the teachers**

SHORT-TERM GOALS	M	SD	Skewness
11) To become interested in English-speaking cultures and people	5.44	1.44	-0.11
2) To be able to listen to and understand greetings and standard expressions in English	5.31	1.41	-0.83
12) To increase interest in foreigners in the community and in world affairs in general	5.31	1.52	-0.93
4) To be able to greet and say some standard expressions	4.98	1.5	-0.46
3) To be able to listen to and understand simple stories	4.36	1.55	-0.26
5) To be able to carry on a simple conversation in English	3.53	1.79	0.19
6) To sound out English words accurately (i.e., acquire basic decoding skills in English)	2.96	1.76	0.48

7) To be able to read and comprehend some words and phrases	2.87	1.64	0.52
8) To be able to read and comprehend simple short stories	2.37	1.5	0.95
1) To be able to acquire native-like pronunciation	2.05	1.66	1.39
9) To be able to spell some words and phrases	1.98	1.25	1.1
10) To be able to write simple short stories	1.62	1.03	1.54
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LONG-TERM GOALS			
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2) To listen to and comprehend basic daily conversation	4.86	1.26	-0.59
3) To carry on basic daily conversations	4.53	1.19	-0.37
5) To read and comprehend simple/informal email messages	4.14	1.36	-0.11
6) To chat on the Internet or to exchange simple/informal email messages	3.82	1.3	0.07
7) To read English newspapers and comprehend much of them	2.84	1.29	0.29
4) To acquire sufficient oral communicative skills in order to conduct business and other professional meetings without much difficulty	2.72	1.2	0.17
1) To acquire native-like pronunciation	2.6	1.39	0.38
8) To negotiate competitively in business or other professional matters by email	2.51	1.25	0.38
9) To acquire sufficient writing skills to write opinion letters to English newspapers or magazines	2.12	1.11	0.72

Note. Teachers were asked to rate the goals above on a scale from 1 to 7, where:

1 = Not appropriate

2 = Approximately 10–15 % of students should achieve this goal

3 = 30–35% of students should achieve this goal

4 = 50% of students should achieve this goal

5 = 65–70% of students should achieve this goal

6 = 80–85% of students should achieve this goal

7 = 100% of students should achieve this goal

The coefficient-alpha reliability for *Perceived Current Proficiency*, *Desired Proficiency*, and *Perceived Gaps* was .97, .94, and .96, respectively. Aggregated scores (i.e., mean scores) were computed for each variable. As Table

2 indicates, the average scores for *Current Proficiency* ranged from 3.1 to 2.5. These roughly correspond to the intermediate levels in productive skills (speaking and writing) and the advanced levels in receptive skills (listening and reading) as set forth by the ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) guidelines, which describe five levels in listening and reading (novice, intermediate, advanced, superior, and distinguished) and four levels in speaking and writing (novice, intermediate, advanced, and superior) (ACTFL, n.d.). Approximately 85 percent (85.3%) of the teachers indicated that they felt their current proficiency level did not reach the minimum level needed to conduct English activities. Accordingly, the average *Perceived Gap* between *Current* and *Desired Proficiency* was negative 1.20 in the oral domain.

In questionnaire 2, the coefficient-alpha reliability for *Short-term Goals* and *Long-term Goals* was .91 and .91, respectively. Again, aggregated scores were computed for each of the potential goals and were used in the analyses below. As can be seen in Table 3, the teachers thought that enhancing cultural understanding (items 11 and 12) and basic oral skills (items 2, 3, and 4) are important *Short-term Goals*. For *Long-term Goals*, they saw basic conversational skills (items 2 and 3) as well as basic reading skills (item 5) as being important goals to achieve.

Second, a factor analysis was performed on the responses to the 18 attitudinal questions in questionnaire 3 in order to identify the underlying dimensions of the ratings. Before conducting the factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure for sampling adequacy was employed. This measure is a statistic which indicates the proportion of variance in the variables that might be caused by underlying factors. The measure ranges from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating the variables have a greater proportion of shared variance. In the present study, KMO was .60, suggesting adequate commonality to conduct a factor analysis (Sharma, 1996).

Principal Axis Factoring (PAF), followed by Varimax rotation, yielded seven factors, which accounted for 68% of the variance. The rotated factor patterns are indicated in Table 4. Table 5 categorizes each item according to the seven factors: Factor 1, Admiration towards English language and English speakers; Factor 2, Support for the early introduction of English; Factor 3, Merit of learning English for Japanese students; Factor 4, Pride in their own language and culture; Factor 5, Concerns regarding the spread of English; Factor 6, Negative attitudes towards nonstandard English; and Factor 7, Support for instruction through the medium of English only. Aggregated scores for factors 1 to 7 were used to perform additional analyses.

Table 4. Rotated Factor Matrix

Item #	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
14	.74	.10	-.01	-.03	.10	.18	-.10
13	.73	-.02	.17	-.12	-.03	-.11	.28
5	.71	.01	.12	.17	-.15	.06	-.17
6	.59	.12	.24	.19	.21	-.14	.17
2	.12	.88	.16	.00	-.07	-.05	.17
1	.08	.88	.13	.06	-.10	-.02	-.10
8	.12	-.56	.06	.27	.56	-.15	.08
17	.03	.17	.73	.02	-.25	.02	.04
10	.18	.02	.72	.07	.21	-.15	.02
11	.37	.16	.65	.15	.09	.20	-.22
9	-.04	.01	-.13	.83	.19	-.04	.10
7	.33	-.17	.25	.66	-.09	-.14	-.08
12	-.01	.13	.21	.63	-.13	.31	-.12
16	.00	-.07	-.03	-.05	.80	-.10	-.05
15	.01	-.08	.02	.03	.65	.31	-.06
4	-.06	-.19	.15	-.06	.03	.75	.10
3	.16	.21	-.27	.14	.06	.73	.10
18	.02	.03	-.05	-.01	-.09	.17	.92

Table 5. Factor analysis on items tested in the attitudinal section of the questionnaire

Factors	M	SD	Skewness
<i>Factor 1: Admiration towards English language and English speakers</i>	3.74	.91	-.56
If I were born again, I would rather have English as my first language	3.88	1.45	-.16
I like the sounds of the English language better than those of the Japanese language	3.62	1.05	-.57
The English language is more logical and analytical than the Japanese language	4.06	1.34	-.47
English speakers are more logical and analytical than Japanese speakers	3.45	1.35	-.47
<i>Factor 2: Support for the early introduction of English</i>	5.26	.93	-.36
It is good to introduce English at the elementary school level	5.17	1.38	-.60

We should increase the number of hours for English at the elementary school level	5.93	1.10	-1.66
Early introduction of English may lower a student's Japanese identity (negatively correlated)	2.91	1.34	.21
<i>Factor 3: Merit of learning English for Japanese students</i>	4.51	.92	-1.27
By learning English, students can become more aware of their own language and culture	4.95	1.31	-.88
English can be a better tool for Japanese students to develop logical/analytical thinking than Japanese	3.67	1.12	-.43
The structure and writing system of the English language is more suitable for IT (information technology) communication than Japanese	4.92	1.22	-.87
<i>Factor 4: Pride in their own language and culture</i>	4.77	.79	-.52
The Japanese language is the most beautiful language in the world	4.54	1.26	-.21
More people outside of Japan should learn the Japanese language	3.49	.98	-.16
Japanese students should be more proud of their language and culture	5.82	.99	-.94
<i>Factor 5: Concerns regarding the spread of English</i>	2.84	1.14	.38
The early introduction of English may negatively affect students' Japanese learning (including reading and writing)	2.96	1.36	.31
I'm afraid that English will eventually take over the Japanese language in Japan	2.72	1.37	.59
<i>Factor 6: Negative attitudes towards nonstandard English</i>	4.68	.98	-.07
Once students have a certain accent in English, it is almost impossible to correct/change it	4.04	1.29	.04
At the elementary school level, schools should strictly teach students so-called "standard English" ("standard English" is defined as a certain type of English that is spoken by educated native speakers of English, such as that spoken by BBC and ABC news anchors)	5.32	1.17	-.71
<i>Factor 7: Support for instruction through the medium of English only</i>	4.16	1.37	-.28
English language instruction should be conducted only through English	4.16	1.37	-.28

Note. Factor loading: > .4

The third step in the analysis performed herein entailed using Pearson Correlation Coefficients to examine the relationship between the teachers' responses to the NS Item and the following measures: the three variables related to the teachers' English proficiency levels from questionnaire 1; the two variables related to the teachers' perceived goals of English education from questionnaire 2; and the seven factors identified in questionnaire 3 above. The correlations are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Correlations of variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. NS Item												
2. CP	-.45**											
3. DP	-.06	.21*										
4. Gaps	-.35**	.76**	-.48**									
5. Factor 1	-.06	.10	.11	.04								
6. Factor 2	-.26**	.20*	.03	.16	.13							
7. Factor 3	-.13	.14	.08	.09	.37**	.41**						
8. Factor 4	.22*	-.05	.08	-.11	.16	-.05	.24*					
9. Factor 5	.12	-.19	.07	-.21*	-.06	-.33**	-.03	.09				
10. Factor 6	.48**	-.16	.16	-.24*	.05	-.07	.05	.14	.13			
11. Factor 7	.12	.19	.25*	.01	.01	.09	-.07	-.02	-.07	.19		
12. Short-term Goals	-.10	.16	.33**	-.19	.18	.14	.17	.31**	-.05	-.05	.03	
13. Long-term Goals	.02	.12	.41**	-.10	.21*	.02	.12	.20*	-.07	.03	.07	.48**

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ CP=Current Proficiency; DP=Desired Proficiency

Negative correlations with the NS Item were found between *Perceived Current Proficiency*, *Perceived Gaps*, and Factor 2 (*Support for the early introduction of English*). Positive correlations were found between Factor 4 (*Pride in their own language and culture*) and Factor 6 (*Negative attitudes towards nonstandard English*). Namely, teachers who perceived their current English proficiency to be lower, and teachers who perceived wider gaps between their current English proficiency level and the minimum level needed, tended to support the NS Item more. In addition, teachers who showed less support for the early introduction of English tended to think that English was best taught by NSs. In addition, teachers who took greater pride in Japanese language and culture tended to show stronger support for the NS Item. Finally, teachers who indicated stronger nega-

tive attitudes towards nonstandard forms of English tended to believe that English is best taught by NSs. Other perceptual factors such as "admiration towards English," "the merit of learning English for Japanese students," "concerns regarding the spread of English," and "support for monolingual instructional policy" did not show significant relationships with the NS Item. Neither the *Short-term Goals* nor the *Long-term Goals* showed significant correlations with the NS Item.

In the fourth and final step of the analysis, a multiple regression was employed to examine the extent to which the independent variables (Perceived and Desired Proficiencies, the 7 factors discussed above, and *Short-term* and *Long-term Goals*) predicted belief in the idea that English is best taught by NSs, when correlations among the variables are taken into account. Prior to employing the multiple regression analysis, assumptions of independency, normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity were examined; scatterplots of residuals against predicted values were drawn in order to test the first three assumptions, and these were met. The possibility of multicollinearity among the independent variables was also a concern and was therefore evaluated. Not surprisingly, when all of the independent variables were entered into an equation, a collinearity diagnostic test (Variance Inflation Factor, or VIF) showed high values for *Current Proficiency* and *Perceived Gap*. The Variance Inflation Factor is a means of detecting the existence of multicollinearity. VIFs "measure how much the variances of the estimated regression coefficients are inflated as compared to when the independent variables are not linearly related" (Neter, Wasserman, & Kutner, 1990, p. 408). Typically, if a computed VIF value exceeds 10, it is considered as being a sign of severe multicollinearity. Therefore, *Perceived Gap* (the highest VIF) was eliminated and the rest of the variables were reentered into the equation. The VIF values became reasonably low. The results are shown in Table 7. Factor 6 (Negative attitudes towards nonstandard English) showed the highest degree of predictive value (positive), followed by *Perceived Current Proficiency* (negative) and Factor 4 (Pride in their own language and culture).

Discussion and Conclusion

Approximately 60% of the Japanese elementary school teachers who were conducting English activities in the present study somewhat agreed with the idea that English is best taught by NSs at the elementary school level. This study suggests that this belief was associated with (a) the teachers' perceived English proficiency levels, (b) their attitudes towards

Table 7. Summary of simultaneous regression analysis for variables predicting teachers' responses to the NS Item

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Perceived Current Proficiency	-.46	.13	-.33**
Desired Proficiency	-.11	.18	-.06
Factor 1 (Admiration towards the English language and English speakers)	-.06	.14	-.04
Factor 2 (Support for the early introduction of English)	-.21	.16	-.13
Factor 3 (Merit of learning English for Japanese students)	-.09	.17	-.06
Factor 4 (Pride in their own language and culture)	.50	.18	.25**
Factor 5 (Concerns regarding the spread of English)	-.03	.11	-.03
Factor 6 (Negative attitudes towards nonstandard English)	.53	.13	.36**
Factor 7 (Support for instruction through the medium of English only)	.12	.09	.11
Short-term Goals	-.13	.14	-.09
Long-term Goals	.01	.15	.01

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. $R^2 = .42$ B indicates raw (nonstandardized) regression coefficients and β indicates standardized regression coefficients

nonstandard forms of English, and (c) their own sense of pride in their language and cultural heritage.

The teachers who rated their English proficiency lower tended to support the idea that English is best taught by NSs at the elementary school level. The ACTFL Guidelines suggest that foreign language teachers (referring primarily to teachers at the secondary and college levels) need to have the "advanced plus" level in listening, speaking, and reading and the "advanced" level in writing (ACTFL, 1988). Since a self-evaluation measure was employed in the present study, it is difficult to obtain an objective sense of what the teachers' proficiency levels actually are. Moreover, it remains unclear as to what the minimum proficiency level needed for teaching a foreign language at the elementary school level is. However, the average perceived levels of English proficiency among the elementary school teachers who participated in the present study appear to be far from sufficient for teaching English (or conducting English

activities). The teachers themselves identified gaps between their current proficiency and the minimum level of proficiency needed to conduct English activities. Such perceived gaps may in turn lead to feelings of insecurity or lack of confidence in teaching.

The current English language education policy in Japan strongly emphasizes oral communication in English language instruction. A strategic plan (the "Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English abilities") was proposed by MEXT in 2003 and contains a number of strategies for improving Japanese citizens' English abilities in general and their oral communication abilities in particular. The introduction of English activities at the elementary school level is one such strategy (MEXT, 2003). Although MEXT has stated that the primary purpose of English activities at the elementary school level is to enhance children's international understanding through English conversation, the current policy essentially asks English teachers to have "sufficient" oral communicative proficiency and pedagogical skills to conduct oral communicative activities in English. In fact, MEXT (2003) has indicated its support for a number of plans designed to ensure a high level of proficiency among individuals who conduct English activities in Japan. These plans include placing ALTs and secondary school English teachers in elementary schools, placing local residents with high English proficiency in elementary schools as resources, and providing select elementary school teachers with intensive teacher training.

In such a policy climate, as Seidlhofer (1999) has pointed out, communicative competency is often considered to be one of the leading qualifications for teaching language. Elementary school teachers who feel they lack proficiency may not be confident in teaching English to young learners. They therefore may believe that NSs' communicative competency can compensate for their own lack of proficiency, and may believe that NSs are better suited for the job.

There is no doubt that Japanese elementary school teachers urgently need help to improve their English proficiency and/or develop more confidence in their proficiency. This is particularly true given the fact that a growing number of local governments have been granted status as "Special Zones for Structural Reforms" as part of the central government's structural deregulation policy and have begun teaching English as an academic subject at the elementary school level. One has to remember that the overwhelming majority of elementary school teachers in Japan currently are not English teaching specialists by training. Moreover, comprehensive in-service training has not yet been available for these

teachers. The current policy encourages elementary school teachers to incorporate team-teaching with NSs to some extent in their instruction. However, conducting team-teaching itself may not compensate for elementary school teachers' lack of sufficient proficiency and/or confidence, and it is increasingly apparent that teachers need systematic assistance in order to improve their English proficiency.

It is also important to identify the minimum level of proficiency that is necessary to teach English at elementary schools. As Nunan (2003) suggests, native-like proficiency may not be necessary for elementary school teachers. Importantly, while helping teachers improve their proficiency, teacher training also should increase awareness of the fact that competency in the language is only one of many important qualifications for successful language teaching.

With regards to the second factor noted above, teachers' negative attitudes towards nonstandard English were also found to be associated with the notion that English is best taught by NSs. In the present study, in order to try to control the teachers' notion of what exactly standard English refers to, *standard English* was defined as the type of English that is spoken by educated native speakers of English, such as that spoken by BBC and ABC news anchors. Although this definition is common among the general public, one may argue that it offers a narrow view of standard English.

There is a substantial amount of discussion regarding standard English, and what it refers to is still unclear. Some researchers, such as Lippi-Green (1997), go so far as to argue that standard English is a myth. Regardless of whether standard English refers to certain types of existing varieties of English or is merely a myth, Japanese English language education essentially promoted British English before World War II and has promoted American English as the standard to be learned since after World War II. Professors specializing in British and American literature have often wielded influence over decisions regarding English language education policies. English teachers at the secondary school level and up typically have majored in either British or American literature at college in Japan (Suzuki, 1999). According to Suzuki (1999), these English teachers have been advocates of certain varieties of English (what Suzuki calls "native English") as the model to be emulated at school; namely, they have argued for teaching the types of English that emanate from "the Centre" (Phillipson, 1992) or "the Inner Circle" (Kachru & Nelson, 1996). Many Japanese also have developed subjective criteria to judge their own and others' fluency (or *disfluency*) in English as well to judge

the deviation of pronunciation from what they perceive to be standard English (Tanabe, 2003).

The Japanese government's preference towards certain varieties of English from Centre regions can be seen in the JET Program. In 2001, 5,676 new ALTs were recruited; 2,526 of them were from the USA, 1,233 from the UK, 95 from Canada, 364 were from Australia, and 368 from New Zealand, collectively comprising 96% of the new ALTs (MEXT, 2002c). The remaining 4% includes individuals who teach foreign languages other than English such as Korean, Chinese, French, and German, as well as individuals who teach English. More recently, there have been some efforts to invite more individuals from non-Centre regions to work as English teachers (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication, 2004); however, the number of such individuals remains very small.

At the elementary school level, native speakers with more diverse English backgrounds appear to have been hired by some local governments and schools, though no statistics are available to confirm this observation (Butler, in press-b). At this point, it also is not clear how Japanese elementary school teachers define *native English speakers*. An important topic for further research would be to investigate more thoroughly what teachers actually perceive to constitute a native speaker. In any case, as long as teachers are beholden to the idea that the English their students are exposed to should sound a certain way, it will be difficult for them to gain confidence in their own English, and they may be inclined to depend on native speakers.

Lastly, teachers' sense of pride in their own language and cultural heritage was also found to be associated with the idea that English is best taught by NSs. This seems in some ways to be counterintuitive at first glance. However, it may be the case that teachers who demonstrated greater pride in Japanese language and culture in this study also felt that native speakers "own" not only their language but also their culture; this in turn could lead them to believe that native speakers are better teachers for their own languages, including English.

The present study was designed to serve as a first step in understanding the perceptual factors that are related to the notion that English is best taught by NSs. Although this study sheds some light on the factors associated with this notion, it is limited in that it takes a largely unitary approach in terms of defining and examining the notion. A number of important issues remain to be investigated. For example, as we have seen it is not clear how English NSs are defined by the NNS elementary school

teachers. How might such definitions affect NNS teachers' perceptions towards NS/NNS teacher qualifications? How do teachers' perceptions influence their teaching practices in various settings, including in team-teaching contexts? How do local NNS teachers perceive other NNS teachers who are teaching in Japan (e.g., Chinese teachers of English who teach in Japan)? The role of non-Japanese NNS teachers as well as NS teachers might be of particular interest in light of the current goals of English activities at elementary schools in Japan, namely, enhancing international understanding through English conversation. Another question that remains is how teachers' perceptions might influence students' learning. While the present study employed only quantitative methods, integrating both quantitative analyses with in-depth qualitative analyses based on interviews and classroom observations could greatly enhance our understanding of these questions. As it focused on a relatively specific object of study, namely, NNS elementary school teachers in Japan who already teach English or conduct English activities, it is unclear to what extent the present study's findings can be applied to other teaching contexts. Although the limitations of this study and its applicability must be kept in mind, it is hoped that the present study will encourage further investigation of NS/NNS teachers' qualifications in various teaching contexts in order to develop our understanding of this topic and to ultimately foster a better educational environment for students and teachers alike.

Acknowledgements

The study presented herein was partially supported by a Postdoctoral Fellowship from the National Academy of Education and the Spencer Foundation during the 2004-2005 academic year. An earlier version of this paper was presented at the 6th Annual International Conference of the Japanese Society for Language Sciences in Nagoya in July 2004. I would like to thank the editor and four anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments on earlier versions of this paper.

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Notes

1. On March 27, 2006, the Subpanel on Foreign Languages within MEXT's Central Council for Education (CCE) recommended that English be mandatory for upper grade students (MEXT, 2006), though the CCE did not specify any timeline for implementing this policy recommendation. In the meantime, as part of the current administration's "localization" policy, a growing number of local governments have received permission from the central government to become "Special Zones for Structural Reform in Education." As such, more and more local elementary schools have started offering English instruction as a subject, deviating from the National Curriculum as set forth in the National Course of Study.
2. For example, the descriptions of Level 1 and Level 6 in the Listening Comprehension domain are as follows: "I can understand a limited number of high frequency words and common conversational, fixed expressions such as 'How are you?' or 'My name is. . .'" (Level 1) and "I can understand everything at normal speed like a native speaker" (Level 7).

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Appendix A

Questionnaires in Japanese

日本での小学校での英語学習の目的

以下のそれぞれの項目について(現実的な目標として)、あなたの教えているクラスの小学生は小学校卒業までにどの程度英語ができるようになっていくべきだと思いますか？ 1から7までの数字で答えてください。

1. 該当せず。(目標として適切でない)
2. クラスの10-15%程度がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
3. クラスの30-35%程度がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
4. クラスの50%程度がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
5. クラスの65-70%程度がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
6. クラスの80-85%程度がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
7. クラスのすべて(100%)の児童がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う

該当する数字をそれぞれ丸で囲んでください

1. 英語のネイティブ・スピーカーにほぼ匹敵するほどの発音を身につける	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 英語の短い挨拶や決まり文句を聞き、理解できる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 短くて簡単なお話を英語で聞き、理解できる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 短い挨拶や決まり文句を英語で言うことができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 簡単な日常会話を英語で行うことができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 英語の単語をみて、声にだして読むことができる(基本的な英語の綴りと発音との関係を理解する)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 簡単な単語や句を読み、意味を理解することができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 短くて簡単なお話を英語で読み、理解することができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 簡単な単語や句を英語で綴ることができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 短くて簡単なお話を英語で書くことができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 英語圏の人々や文化に興味を持つ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. 地域に住む外国人や世界の出来事一般に興味を持つようになる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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日本での英語学習の最終目的

高校を卒業するまでに、以下のそれぞれの項目について(現実的な目標として)、日本人全体としてどれ位英語ができるようになっていくべきだと思いますか？ 1から7までの数字で教えてください。

1. 該当せず。(目標として適切でない)
2. 10-15%程度の日本人がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
3. 30-35%程度の日本人がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
4. 50%程度の日本人がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
5. 65-70%程度の日本人がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
6. 80-85%程度の日本人がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う
7. すべての日本人(100%)がこのレベルに到達すべきだと思う

該当する数字をそれぞれ丸で囲んでください

1. 英語のネイティブ・スピーカーにほぼ匹敵するほどの発音を身につける	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 基本的な日常会話を聞き、理解できる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 基本的な日常会話程度の英語を話すことができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ビジネスや学会などの交渉・会議をこなせるだけのオーラル・スキル(聞く話す力)を身につけることができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 友人から英語で送られてくる簡単な電子メールを読み、内容を理解することができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 友人とインターネット上でチャットができたり、簡単な電子メールを英語で交換できる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 英字新聞を読み、内容がほとんど理解できる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. ビジネスなどの交渉を英語で電子メールで行うことができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 英字新聞や英字雑誌などに政治・社会・経済事情について自分の意見を投稿できるほどの英語を書く力がある	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

英語と日本語、英語教育に関する以下の記述にどれくらい賛成か反対か、1から7の数字で教えてください。

- 1 強く反対
- 2 反対
- 3 少し反対(どちらかというと反対)
- 4 反対でも賛成でもない

- 5 少し賛成（どちらかという賛成）
 6 賛成
 7 強く賛成

該当する数字をそれぞれ丸で囲んでください

1. 英語は日本語より論理的・分析的な言語である	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 英語を学習することで、子供たちは日本語や日本の文化に対する認識を深めることができる	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 日本以外にいる人たちのもっと多くが日本語を学習すべきである	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 日本でも徐々に日本語が英語にのっとられてしまうのではないかと思う	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ひとたび英語になまり（アクセント）が身についてしまうと、もうほとんど直すことができない。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 小学校では、いわゆる「標準英語」（「標準英語」とはBBCやABCニュースのキャスターが話すような英米の教養あるネイティブスピーカーの話すある種の英語と定義する）だけを教えるべきである	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 私にとって日本語は世界で最も美しい言語である	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 英語の表記システムは英語よりもITコミュニケーション(コンピューターをはじめとした情報化時代のコミュニケーション)を行うのに日本語より優れている	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 早期に英語を教えると子供の日本語の学習（読み・書きを含む）に悪影響が及ぶと思う	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 早期に英語を教えると子供の日本人としてのアイデンティティーが脅かされる恐れがある	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 日本人の学生は日本の文化や言語に対し、もっと誇りを持つべきである	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 英語を話す人は、日本語を話す人よりも論理的・分析的な思考ができる。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 日本人の学生にとって論理的・分析的思考を高める訓練を行うには日本語より英語のほうが適している	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 日本語の音より英語の音のほうが好きだ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. もし生まれかわることができるなら、今度は英語を母語（第一言語）に持って生まれてほしい	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. 英語の授業は英語のみで行われるべきである	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. 英語を小学校で導入することは良いことだと思う	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. 小学校での英語の時間数をふやすべきである	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B

Short-term and Long-term Goals of English Education Questionnaire

Short-term goals

1. To be able to acquire native-like pronunciation
2. To be able to listen to and understand greetings and standard expressions in English
3. To be able to listen to and understand simple stories
4. To be able to greet and say some standard expressions
5. To be able to carry on a simple conversation in English
6. To sound out English words accurately (i.e., acquiring basic decoding skills in English)
7. To be able to read and comprehend some words and phrases
8. To be able to read and comprehend simple short stories
9. To be able to spell some words and phrases
10. To be able to write simple short stories
11. To become interested in English-speaking cultures and people
12. To increase interest in foreigners in the community and world affairs in general

Long-term goals

1. To acquire native-like pronunciation
2. To listen to and comprehend basic daily conversation
3. To carry on basic daily conversations

4. To acquire sufficient oral communicative skills in order to conduct business and other professional meetings without much difficulty
5. To read and comprehend simple/informal email messages
6. To chat on the Internet or to exchange simple/informal email messages
7. To read English newspapers and comprehend much of them
8. To negotiate competitively in business or other professional matters by email
9. To acquire sufficient writing skills to write opinion letters to English newspapers or magazines

Appendix C

The Goals of English Education

1. We should increase the number of hours for English at the elementary school level.
2. It is good to introduce English at the elementary school level.
3. At the elementary school level, schools should strictly teach students so-called “standard English” (“standard English” is defined as a certain type of English that is spoken by educated native speakers of English, such as that spoken by BBC and ABC news anchors).
4. Once students have a certain accent in English, it is almost impossible to correct/change it.
5. The English language is more logical and analytical than the Japanese language.
6. English speakers are more logical and analytical than Japanese speakers.
7. More people outside of Japan should learn the Japanese language.
8. Early introduction of English may lower a student’s Japanese identity (negatively correlated).
9. The Japanese language is the most beautiful language in the world.
10. English can be a better tool for Japanese students to develop logical/analytical thinking than Japanese.

11. The structure and writing system of the English language is more suitable for IT (information technology) communication than Japanese.
12. Japanese students should be more proud of their language and culture.
13. I like the sounds of the English language better than those of the Japanese language.
14. If I were born again, I would rather have English as my first language.
15. I'm afraid that English will eventually take over the Japanese language in Japan.
16. The early introduction of English may negatively affect students' Japanese learning (including reading and writing).
17. By learning English, students can become more aware of their own language and culture.
18. English language instruction should be conducted only through English.