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Exploring Mandarin Teaching and Learning in England: A Critical Examination of Native and Non-native Teachers' Views, Beliefs and Pedagogical Practices in Secondary Schools

By:

Xuexin Guo

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Abstract

With the growing trend for teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in England, it is essential to explore Mandarin teachers in England and their views, beliefs and pedagogical practices in the Mandarin classroom to promote the teaching of Mandarin. Since there is little research focusing on teachers' beliefs and practices regarding teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language in England, this study aims to explore native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs about teaching and learning Mandarin in England, especially in the context of the secondary schools. Three aspects are included in this study: Mandarin teachers' beliefs about teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language, Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in their classrooms, and the influence of teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices on how students learn Mandarin in class. A conceptual framework of factors influencing Mandarin teachers' beliefs is thus developed in this study in order to examine Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in the study, based on the studies of Woods (1996) and Borg (2003). Relevant literature around this topic is examined as well.

This is a piece of qualitative study. Semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, follow-up interviews and document analysis are the main research methods used in this study. The findings identified shared and differing beliefs among native and non-native Mandarin teachers in England, as well as factors influencing Mandarin teachers' beliefs, Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in secondary school classrooms, and the relationships between their practices, their beliefs, and students' engagement in class.

This research aims to draw more attention to the understanding of teaching and learning Mandarin in England, as well as contributing to the research about Mandarin teachers and Mandarin teaching in England for the future.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.0 Introduction to this chapter

This chapter is the introduction to the thesis. It consists of seven sections. The first section introduces the topic of my research. The second section consists of the study's background information. The context of the research is discussed in the third section. The fourth, fifth and sixth sections will present my motivations, the aim of the research, and the research questions of my study respectively. Finally, I will describe the structure of my thesis in the seventh section.

1.1 The topic

There are three important aspects to reveal about my study. Firstly, I will explore Mandarin teaching and learning in England as a second or foreign language. Secondly, I will focus on native and non-native Mandarin teachers and their views and beliefs in teaching and learning Mandarin. Finally, I will examine the impact of the teachers' views and beliefs on their pedagogical practices in secondary school classes.

1.2 Research background

In this section, I will explore the background information of my study. First of all, I will focus on Mandarin as a language, going on to then examine the trend of teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language in the UK. I will then explore the 'soft power' of China as a country in terms of second language education and the pedagogy of teaching Mandarin. Finally, the importance of learning a second language in China will be discussed.

1.2.1 Chinese and Mandarin: The language

First of all, it is important to understand Chinese and the Mandarin language when learning this as a second or foreign language. As for language itself, Chinese has a different language system than English and other European languages which are commonly taught in England, such as French, Spanish and German. China has a long history, and its language has been developed over thousands of years. Zhenduo Zhao, a famous Chinese linguist, explored the history of Chinese linguistics in his book. Zhao, Z. (2000) claims that China has a written history that expands thousands of years and it also has systematic Chinese characters, as well as a high level of

civilisation (p.1). As Zhao, Z. (2000) mentioned, one of the traits of Chinese is Chinese characters. He continues, positing that there is a "close relationship between Chinese characters and Chinese language, … [and] each Chinese character represents a certain meaning, has a certain form, and has its own pronunciation" (p.2). From the perspective of a non-native speaker, Forrest (1973) thought that Chinese has no "direct relations to European languages" (p.11). He also stated that most Chinese characters could "be recognized as much altered pictures of some natural object" (p.37).

When exploring the teaching of Chinese in the UK, researchers have found that before the introduction and development of teaching Mandarin, the official language of China, to the UK, the Chinese that many schools in England offered was Cantonese (Ye, W., 2017, p.11). Cantonese is a dialect of Chinese and is mainly spoken in the southern part of China (Ye, W., 2017, p.11). There is a large population of Cantonese speakers and there are various other dialects of the Chinese language across the country. Some researchers suggest that the reason Cantonese has been taught in a lot of schools with Chinese courses is because the Chinese population has become much larger in Britain in the past few years (e.g. Chan et al., 2007; Parker, 1999; Ye, W., 2017) and many Chinese immigrants in the UK historically came from Guangdong Provinces, Fujian provinces, and Hong Kong, which are located in southern China. Cantonese is, as previously stated, widely spoken there (e.g. Ross et al., 2014; Ye, W., 2017). Ye, W. (2017) pointed out that at the beginning of teaching Chinese in the UK, it was thus Cantonese that was commonly taught "in most complementary and community schools before the introduction of Mandarin into mainstream schools" (p.11). The majority of Chinese immigrants in the UK nowadays are mainly from mainland China, however; there is also an increasing number of international students from mainland China. Teaching Mandarin has therefore gradually become the mainstream trend in languages taught in complementary schools in recent years (e.g. Li & Zhu, 2011; Ye, W., 2017). Additionally, Confucius Institutes have been established across Britain. The expansion of Confucius Classrooms in schools in the UK have also made various contributions to the teaching and learning of Mandarin in the UK, which has promoted Mandarin to become the mainstream Chinese language that is taught as a second language in England.

Despite the various dialects in Chinese, Mandarin is the modern "standard Chinese" and "the official language of China", which is now taught in most British universities, primary schools and secondary schools (Chen & Han, 2018, p.3). According to Li Wang, an influential Chinese linguist, the definition of Mandarin is "a sound system based on the Beijing accent, a vocabulary stock based on the Northern dialect, and a grammar system regulated by contemporary textbooks" (Wang & Wang et al., 1983 as quoted in Gao, 2000, p.20). Compared to English, the pronunciation system and the written system are the two specialisations found in Mandarin Chinese. Previous researchers often regard these two systems as the two significant differences between Mandarin and English.

'Pinyin' (拼音) is the official pronunciation system for Mandarin, which helps non-native people recognise the sound of Chinese characters. It was created and publicised in 1958 and "has been used in China to teach character pronunciation and spread the use of Mandarin" (Gao, 2000, p.44). For non-native speakers, the sounds of Mandarin represent "the foundation of [their] speaking and listening skills [in learning the language]" (Xing, 2006, p.1), so when teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language, Pinyin is also frequently taught worldwide. Gao (2000) claimed that "with the help of Pinyin, a non-native speaker can learn the sound patterns of Mandarin, and therefore learn how to speak it" (p.74).

The written system in Mandarin is one which refers to the various Chinese characters. Gao (2000) suggested that "Hanzi (汉字, Chinese characters) is believed to have developed independently within China. … [And] Chinese characters evolved from drawing pictures of what was to be represented" (p.74). There are around 3,800 Chinese characters that are normally used in writing in the Chinese language, according to Gao (2000, p.75). Previous researchers hold the opinion that, if students wish to develop better ability in reading and writing Mandarin, they should learn how to read and write Chinese characters (Gao, 2000, p.24). As for non-native students, especially for English-speaking learners, recognising, remembering and writing the Chinese characters seem to be the hardest tasks when learning the language. This may be because the shape of Chinese characters is primarily picture-based, which is totally different from alphabetic writing (Xing, 2006, p.2). Xing (2006) also claimed that

"the lack of association between [Chinese] characters and sounds" in Mandarin could causes problems for English-speaking learners, compared with English (p.2).

Mandarin teachers therefore need to find some efficient teaching methods in teaching Chinese characters to non-native students. According to Ma, Gong, Gao and Xiang (2017), some studies exist regarding the teaching of Chinese characters to non-native learners (p.821). It is the Mandarin teacher's responsibility to understand how to teach Chinese characters in a practical way to English-speaking students (Xing, 2006, p.101).

Another interesting issue, which is related to teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese, is the history and development of teaching Chinese as a foreign language. When tracing back the history of China, the earliest "practice of teaching Chinese to foreigners … was [in] the Tang dynasty (seventh to the ninth centuries)" (Xing, 2006, p.9). This field was not well developed in China until the 20th century. From the 20th century, Chinese researchers began to focus on the area of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese as a second or foreign language (Xing, 2006, p.9). From that point up to now, the development of research regarding teaching and learning Mandarin as a foreign language is rapidly growing and has been widely researched since then. The rapid improvement in this research field is closely related to the increasing trend of teaching and learning Mandarin in many countries worldwide, including the UK. The trend of teaching and learning Mandarin will be explored in the next section, after exploring Chinese and Mandarin.

1.2.2 The trend of teaching and learning Mandarin in the UK

In recent years, teaching and learning Mandarin has become popular in the UK. Zhang and Li (2010) point out that, from the 20th century, "Britain started to re-examine its foreign language policy and practice as economic globalisation and multilingualism were rapidly changing the world, and the needs for new and different language skills became more apparent" (p.87). The Chinese government and the British government thus began to cooperate with each other by signing "a collaboration agreement on the promotion of Chinese and English language learning and teaching in China and the UK, including a school exchange programme administered by the British Council" (Zhang & Li, 2010, p.87). It is therefore evident

that teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language in the UK is developing.

From the Language Trends Survey taken by the British Council in 2016/17, it could be seen that the number of primary and secondary schools in the UK is growing. The study explored the language provision in these secondary schools in particular. The authors of the Language Trends Survey, Tinsley and Board (2017), found that during 2016 and 2017, a large number of secondary schools in the UK provided more than one second language that students could choose from. One of the schools in their report states that, within it, "all pupils do [Mandarin] Chinese in Year 7 and 8 and they choose options at the end of Year 8. They can do two languages out of Spanish, French or [Mandarin] Chinese" (p.55). Another report also written by Tinsley and Board (2014) mainly focuses on researching the teaching of Mandarin Chinese in the UK. The authors pointed out that there is an ongoing trend for learning Mandarin in the UK and that many students who decided to learn Mandarin have a clear aim of learning Mandarin in order to help in the development of their future career (Tinsley & Board, 2014). Tinsley and Board (2014) indicated that nearly all of the learners who chose to learn Mandarin were aware of the fast growth of the Chinese economy, along with its importance to the world. These learners had a strong feeling that understanding Mandarin Chinese "would be useful to them in the future, either to work in China or as an impressive addition to their CV. They saw job opportunities as being in China and some had very specific aspirations [from this perspective]" (p.79). The trend of teaching and learning Mandarin in the UK is therefore closely connected to the development of the Chinese economy and the attraction of future career paths which are in or related to China.

Some other researchers also posit that the trend of teaching and learning Mandarin in England has brought exemplified connections between China and other countries in the world. It also shows the importance of language education in globalisation. Ye, W. (2017), for instance, investigated the development of Mandarin education in the world, especially in the UK. Ye, W. (2017) suggests that the "Confucius Institute is such a bridge" for teaching and learning Mandarin, which "[promotes] communication, peace, global security and sustainable solutions to complex human problems" in the issue of globalisation and it presents the essential of education in language teaching (p.6).

It is clear, therefore, that the development and promotion of Mandarin Chinese in the UK are associated with the fast-developing economy in China. Mandarin education has thus expanded the influence of the language and the culture of China to the rest of the world as well. Just like Zhao and Huang (2010) claim, the trend of teaching and learning Mandarin has stimulated China and it has thus "finally moved from the periphery of world politics to the centre, attracting global interest in its culture and language" (p.6).

1.2.3 China's 'soft power' in teaching Mandarin as a second language

Despite the fact that there is an underlying trend of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in the UK, there are some problems regarding Mandarin education as a second or foreign language. One of the issues is "linguistic imperialism". The term was first used by Robert Phillipson in 1992. In Phillipson's book (1992), he defined the notion of linguistic imperialism in English as "the dominance of English, [which] is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages" (p.47). Furthermore, Phillipson (1992) explained that the promotion of English in the UK is carried out by the British Council, and the organisation has been "established as a key agency for nurturing the teaching of English worldwide, …with government, academic, and commercial interests radiating to and from it" (p.136). With the assistance of the British Council, Britain has promoted English to the world gradually. In Drogheda's report (1954), it was stated that the British Council had played an important role regarding the expansion of English education in Asian countries, and this had brought a lot of benefits (p.29). Additionally, the report illustrated that the promotion of teaching and learning in English worldwide spread British culture to other countries as well and it had gone "beyond the instrumental needs" (Phillipson, 1992, p.146). The teaching and learning of English has encouraged learners to:

> …turn to a desire to read English books, talk to British people, and learn about British life or some aspect of it. [In addition,] a knowledge of English is almost essential today for the study of many branches of science and technology, [and] for the study of English literature, history, and British institutions. (Drogheda Report Summary, 1954, p.32)

Consequently, it can be seen that the promotion of second language education in other countries benefits the language's source nation(s) in terms of the influence of the

culture and it is thus very important to the so-called "soft power" of that nation(s) in the world. This perspective could also be used to explore the teaching of other second languages, such as Mandarin in the UK and in other countries.

Many researchers have provided their opinions on the definition of a country's 'soft power' in the world. Nye (2004) defined softer power as "the ability to get what you want through attraction rather than coercion or payments", which is related to "the attractiveness of a country's culture, political ideas, and policies" (p.x). Ye, W. (2017) adapted this idea to define a notion of soft power in his study. Ye, W. (2017) suggests that a country's soft power "is related to the attractiveness of a country's culture, political ideals, policies and economic strength" (p.22). I agree with these opinions outlining the notion of 'soft power'. This idea is also applicable to the teaching and learning of Mandarin as a second or foreign language worldwide in recent years. Moreover, Ye, W. (2017) also argues that the implements of soft power in a country are accompanied with the country's "cultural events, exchange programmes, broadcasting and teaching" of its language, by means of "attraction, influence, persuasion and transformation" in the world (p.22).

Especially for the education of Mandarin as a second language, the role of Hanban (Confucius Institute Headquarters) is similar to that of the British Council. "The British Council ran English teaching operations in a large number of anglophile associations … and in institutes [worldwide]" (Phillipson, 1992, p.147). Hanban has likewise established many Confucius Institutes in many different countries in the world in order to assist with the promotion of teaching and learning Mandarin. As a result, some researchers regard the Confucius Institutes as the right tool for expanding the soft power of China (e.g. Cho & Jeong, 2008; Gil, 2009; Hubbert, 2014; Starr, 2009). After examining the different views on this issue, Ye, W. (2017) points out that some people who criticised the Chinese government by saying that the government of China was attempting to spread its impact on politics to the world by establishing Confucius Institutes in other countries. On the contrary, other people held the idea that the development of Confucius Institutes attempts to expand China's influence on the economy (e.g. Starr, 2009). Some scholars, however, mainly focus on the practice of Confucius Institutes in academia, rather than on other issues (e.g. Schmidt, 2010) (p.7). Some researchers in China, however, tend not to consider the

promotion of Mandarin as a way to increase the soft power of China. For example, Yang, R. (2010) quoted the speech of the head of Hanban, where the it was claimed that Hanban is not an organisation representing soft power and its goal is not "to impose Chinese values … on other countries. … [The Confucius Institutes] are designed to be an important platform to promote Chinese culture and teach Chinese language" (p. 238).

In my point of view, although there are still wide discussions and differentiations regarding the soft power of China in teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language, the development of teaching Mandarin in the UK may still be an irresistible trend in the future.

1.2.4 The importance of learning a second language in China

In order to explore China's promotion of teaching and learning of Mandarin in the world, it is important to understand some aspects of Chinese people's opinions on second language learning and the development of second language education in China.

Previous research has been concerned with the popularity of learning English as a second language for years in China. The starting point of learning English is primary school in many Chinese cities. In most primary secondary and high schools, as well as in universities in China, English has become part of the compulsory curriculum for students. Researchers also found that the amount of English learners in China is the biggest worldwide (Huang, 2018, p.3; see also Bolton, 2006; Crystal, 2008; Hu, 2005; Ye, W., 2017). Even though some scholars appear to be worried that the population's desire to learn English in China may be harmful to the study of the Chinese language and Chinese culture for Chinese students (e.g. Kachru, 2005), the Chinese government and many Chinese people are "in favour of the widespread [learning and] use of English" (Ye, W., 2017, pp.14-15).

Some researchers turned to investigate the reasons why Chinese people are motivated and encouraged to learn English as a second language (e.g. Cole, 2007; Ye, W., 2017; Zhang, 1997). They found that many of them treat the ability to speak English as a symbol or a key to success in their studies, jobs, careers and even their lives. This opinion "is universally acknowledged in contemporary China" (Ye, W., 2017, p.16).

In addition, Zhang (1997) discovered that a person's good English ability is often seen as success in China, and "the power of English makes individual learner's enterprising dream tangible" (p.39). These ideas echoed Robert Phillipson's (1992) concept of English linguistic imperialism, since he argued that "English serves the interests of some much better than others" (Phillipson, 1992, p.89). The advantage of having a good standard of English ability in China may represent an advantage when it comes to seeking higher levels or elite education in China (e.g. Cole, 2007; Ye, W., 2017). Ye, W. (2017) also argued that "the nationwide interest in English learning" could be seen as a way "to close the gap between China and developed countries" (p.21).

Chinese people also began to notice that, in order to introducing the Chinese culture to the world, they needed to expand the teaching and learning of Mandarin worldwide. After learning English and being exposed to English culture for many years, the Chinese government and its people were willing to steadily increase their own voice in the world because of the growth in the Chinese economy. The promotion of Mandarin is thus important to them in a similar way to the past experience of English education in China. The Confucius Institute is an example of such development, for instance (Ye, W., 2017, p.21). Additionally, a very famous and influential Chinese scholar, Xianlin Ji (季羡林, 2007), posited that China needed to contribute to world globalisation after learning from the West for a long time.

The Chinese government has therefore made a great effort to expand the teaching and learning of Mandarin in other countries, including the UK. There may be different contexts that need to be adjusted to for encouraging teaching Mandarin as a second language, however, so in the next section, I will focus on the context of England and explore the conditions of teaching and learning Mandarin particularly in England.

1.3 The context of the research

In this section, the context of the research will be discussed. When exploring teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in England, there are three main areas of the context that need to be examined. The first one is Hanban, which refers to the Confucius Institute Headquarters, and the Confucius Institute and

Confucius Classrooms in England. The second is the British government and its cooperation with China. Finally, it is also important to focus on local secondary schools that offer Mandarin in their curriculum for the purposes of my study.

1.3.1 Hanban, Confucius Institute and Confucius Classroom

When discussing the teaching and learning of Mandarin in secondary schools in England, one of the most important organisations that needs to be examined is Hanban. There are many Confucius Institutes established across the country under the management of Hanban, as well as Confucius Classrooms based in the primary and secondary schools in England. I will explore all of them in the next sections in detail.

1.3.1.1 Hanban and the Confucius Institute

Since China has become one of the fastest developing countries in recent years, its power and market are growing rapidly in the world. "As China's economy and exchanges with the world have seen rapid growth, there has also been a sharp increase in the world's demands for Chinese learning" (Hanban, n.d.). With the development of China, teaching and learning Mandarin have become popular worldwide trends. They attract large numbers of people to learn the language. Hoping to broaden the influence of Chinese as a second or foreign language in the world, the Chinese government has established some institutions to spread the influence of Mandarin, which means that "China began its own exploration through establishing non-profit public institutions which aim to promote Chinese language and culture in foreign countries in 2004" (Hanban, n.d.).

Following the trend of learning Mandarin, "the Chinese government has established many Confucius Institutes all over the world", including the UK (Hartig, 2015, p.245; see also Ye & Edwards, 2017). The institution which is in charge is called "Hanban" (Confucius Institute Headquarters), which has "a mission to increase the number of non-Chinese Mandarin speakers in the world" (Wang & Higgins, 2008, p.92). Hartig (2015) explains that the responsibility of Hanban also includes the "administration of the institutes, the supply of teachers, and the development and distribution of teaching materials" (p.246). Under the organisation of Hanban, a lot of Confucius Institutes have been built up across the world as branches of Hanban. Ye and Edwards (2017) claim that the establishment of Confucius Institutes has been stimulated by the forms

of second language institutes built in some European countries, such as the British Council and the Goethe Institute (p.843). The Confucius Institute is a non-profit institute and, according to the Chinese government, the main purpose of setting up the Confucius Institute is to "adopt flexible teaching patterns and adapt to suit local conditions when teaching Chinese language and promoting culture in foreign primary schools, secondary schools, communities and enterprises" (Hanban, n.d.). The Chinese government therefore believes that the Confucius Institute [illustrates the goal of] 'going outside' of Chinese culture (Ye, W., 2017, p.21).

The name of the 'Confucius Institute' is related to a famous ancient Chinese philosopher and educator, Confucius (BC551–479), who could be considered to be one of the main symbols of traditional Chinese culture and Chinese history (e.g. Ye, W., 2017; Zhu & Li, 2014). From the People's Daily report in 2015, there have been 500 Confucius Institutes established and 1000 Confucius Classrooms set up. These spread across 134 countries worldwide from 2004 to 2015 (Ye, W., 2017, p.7), while "more than 440,000 teachers were recruited" during this period (Ye & Edwards, 2017, p.843). For Britain in particular, based on the statistics in the research by Ye and Edwards (2017), there existed "25 Confucius Institutes and 92 Confucius Classrooms [across] England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland" up to the year 2017 (p.843). By the year of 2020, the Chinese government aims to increase the number of Confucius Institutes in the world to 1000, according to Xinhua News (e.g. Xinhua News, 2013; Ye, W., 2017).

Most of the Confucius Institutes are located and based in universities, colleges or education institutions. The operation of the Confucius Institute is under the guidance of Hanban (Zhe, 2010, p.1), while Hanban is supervised by the Ministry of Education in China (Hartig, 2015, p.246). Hanban has a close relationship with the governments of different countries and the Confucius Institutes in these countries are often set up for intimate cooperation with the local universities and colleges they are located in, particularly when it comes to the teaching and learning of Mandarin as a second or foreign language and in order to provide courses in language teaching and culture. "Usually [China] supply teaching materials and send over language teachers, while local partners provide accommodation, facilities and local staff" (Hartig, 2015, p.246). Many officials, media and researchers have noticed the development of the Confucius

Institute globally and more attention is being paid to this ongoing trend. As stated above, some have treated it as a presentation of China's soft power. There has also been some criticism about the establishment of Confucius Institutes from some researchers. Hubbert (2014), for instance, regards the development of Confucius Institutes worldwide as a threat globally. These advantages and disadvantages have been thoroughly discussed by researchers. Some researchers have praised the outcomes of the Confucius Institute after its establishment. Some of the previous studies claimed that the Confucius Institute provides valuable teaching materials and enough curriculum funding to benefit the development of teaching Mandarin as a second language (e.g. Hartig, 2012, 2015; Lo & Pan, 2016; Stambach, 2015; Starr, 2009; Wheeler, 2014; Ye, W., 2017; Ye & Edwards, 2017). Ye and Edwards (2017), for instance, point out that when the British government reduced funding for education in the past, Mandarin teaching had not been a priority, but due to the support of the Confucius Institute and Chinese government, this area now has more influence in terms of education funding (p.844). Moreover, concerning the number of Confucius Institutes set up until now, Lo and Pan (2016) state that "the achievements of the CI project are very remarkable" (p.523). Hartig (2015) also considers that in general, the Confucius Institute has been a success "in introducing knowledge about Chinese language and culture to the world", when examining the quantity of the organisations in the world (p.255).

There are, however, still many problems raised by other researchers regarding the Confucius Institute. The teaching quality is one of these problems, which has been discussed by previous researchers (e.g. CICRM Report, 2009; Hartig, 2015; Hays, 2008; Lo & Pan, 2016; Yang, R., 2010; Ye, W., 2017; Zhu & Li, 2014). After examining the teaching process and teaching content of the Confucius Institute, Hartig (2015) points out that the teaching resources provided by the Confucius Institute could influence the quality of teaching in Mandarin (p.251), for instance. Ye, W. (2017) also found that "teaching [in a Confucius Institute] mainly focuses on basic language skills and aspects of culture such as landmarks, music, dance, folklore, festivals and food" (pp.8-9). The teaching resources and teaching materials used for the Confucius Institutes when teaching this content may, however, not always be suitable to a different context or to students in different countries. Furthermore, the content may not provide an in depth understanding of the Mandarin language and

Chinese culture (e.g. CICRM Report, 2009; Hartig, 2015; Lo & Pan, 2016; Zhu & Li, 2014). The report by CICRM (2009), for instance, asserted that for the Confucius Institute in Australia, the "classroom psychology and teaching methodology from China are…not always suitable to the Australian environment" (p.29). Similarly, not all teaching methods from China may be appropriate in England either.

Another problem is Mandarin teachers being trained by the Confucius Institute (e.g. Hartig, 2015; Starr, 2009; Ye, W., 2017). In the study of Hartig (2015), the increasing demand for Mandarin teachers from China is an unsolved problem for Hanban (p.252). For the Mandarin teachers allocated by Hanban, their contracts always last one or two years and they have to return to China after the contract ends (Ye, W., 2017, p.9). From my previous conversations with Hanban teachers, most of them admitted that they preferred to go back to China immediately when the contract ends. Even though some Mandarin teachers may extend their contracts, this tends not to last very long and they were worried that the length of the contract could not provide continuity of teaching for their students. In addition, it is also hard for schools to find and employ capable local Mandarin teachers for the Confucius Institute's programmes (e.g. Starr, 2009; Ye, W., 2017). The quality of teachers may not always be the same within a particular Confucius Institute (Hartig, 2015, p.252).

To summarise, even though there are some problems faced by the Confucius Institutes in England, the contribution of Hanban and Confucius Institute has been important in the teaching and learning of Mandarin in England.

1.3.1.2 Confucius Classrooms in schools

Aside from the Confucius Institute, there have also been also many Confucius Classrooms set up. These are mainly based in primary and secondary schools in certain countries, because the main body of the Confucius Institute is located in universities throughout the world. In 2007, Hanban set up the first Confucius Classroom (e.g. Hartig, 2015; Hubbert, 2014). Confucius Classrooms are regularly in contact with the local Confucius Institute (Hartig, 2015, p.246)

There are many advantages to having Confucius Classrooms in schools in England.

One of the benefits of introducing Confucius Classrooms to schools in England is the plenitude of resources supported by the Confucius Institute. Teaching materials are mainly about the language of Mandarin Chinese and Chinese culture (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.88). There are also posters in Confucius Classrooms regarding Chinese culture, such as those depicting Chinese festivals, Chinese food and Chinese stories. The Confucius Classroom also facilitates Chinese cultural events being held in the schools. Tinsley and Board (2014) illustrated that Confucius Classrooms in England support the "displays and celebrations [in schools], such as Chinese New Year, … [and other] 'enrichment' or 'taster' activities. [So] many learners have opportunities to try Chinese calligraphy and to make and decorate dragons and lanterns, and they appreciate paper cuts given out as rewards" (p.88). The exposure of Chinese culture motivates students and fosters their interest in learning Mandarin. The support of Confucius Classrooms plays an importance role in providing teaching and learning resources of China and Chinese culture.

In addition, many Confucius Classrooms in England are "brightly decorated with materials from China, displays of pupils' work and cards or posters made by teachers to remind pupils of key words or expressions" (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.90). This is common in the secondary schools I have visited in England. In these secondary schools, every classroom was decorated with materials regarding different subjects, such as English, Maths, Science, History, French, Spanish, and Mandarin. This is because most teachers have their own classroom in schools in England, so they can decorate the rooms according to the subjects they teach. Students go to different classrooms for different lessons. This is totally different when compared with secondary schools in China, in which students stay in specific classrooms and teachers go to different classrooms to give lessons. Not every school with a Confucius Classroom in England has the ability to have a classroom be specifically set aside for Mandarin, however. "In [some] other [schools], Chinese lessons were being held in classrooms set up for other languages, with displays in French or Spanish" (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.90). Another benefit of the Confucius Classroom is that it might offer taster sessions in Mandarin, as well as cultural lessons to the students in primary and secondary schools (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.101). From my previous visits to some schools and in accordance with my own experience, I found that many primary and secondary schools in and around Sheffield share a similar situation. A lot of schools

want to try such taster sessions of Chinese, both in language and culture. These schools can contact the Confucius Institute or the Confucius Classroom in advance. Then, Mandarin teachers are allocated to their schools and hold "China Day" sessions. The content of "China Day" is varied, and it includes language, paper cutting, dancing, Chinese calligraphy, cooking, and so on.

Despite those taster sessions, however, not many schools have Mandarin as a formal curriculum in their school. This might indicate that this could need further development. When I had conversations with some of the Mandarin teachers I know, most of them see these taster sessions as a good opportunity to promote Mandarin Chinese to more schools and students. They also admitted, however, that it is very difficult for schools to put Mandarin into the curriculum. Another problem is that, if the students show an interest in learning Mandarin in the future after attending a taster session, it is very hard for them to find teachers or classes to learn the language if their schools do not offer Mandarin. Adding more Confucius Classrooms may thus be a solution to the problem and these might need more promotion in the future.

To sum up, Hanban, the Confucius Institute and the Confucius Classroom play different but important roles in teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in England, and they have a close relationship and intimate relationship with both the British government and local schools in England. This needs to be carefully reflected upon.

1.3.2 The UK Government

In recent years, some British scholars, along with the British government, have begun paying more attention to the development of Mandarin teaching in the UK, since they have noticed that Mandarin is becoming a useful language in the global economy. According to Reece (2013), "more service-led growth in China ought to play into the hands of British companies based in an economy where three quarters of annual economic output is from a wide variety of service industries". Mandarin is thus becoming a useful tool for people in the UK so that they can compete with others in terms of both job hunting and job security. The British Council also warned that "the ability of the UK's next generation to compete in the global economy is at risk, because the number of schools teaching Mandarin Chinese is still too small" (Reece,

2013). The UK government has therefore begun to encourage the spread of learning Chinese amongst students, especially amongst young children. Kershaw (2013) also states the importance of Mandarin teaching, saying that "without a workforce that can understand and communicate effectively with one of the world's biggest economies, there's a real risk that the UK will struggle to compete and fall behind as a result" (2013, February 4). From the speech given by Elizabeth Truss in 2014 (Department for Education, 2014), it can be seen that the British government is paying more attention to increasing the number of students learning Mandarin in England. In the speech, she stated that the British government is trying to entice more pupils in England to learn Mandarin. The aim of the British government is that, by 2020, the number of Mandarin learners in the UK should have doubled, and the number of Mandarin teachers in the UK "will rise to 1,200 by 2019, up from 263 [in 2013]", which was also claimed in the speech on June 6th, 2014. This is not easy for the government to accomplish, since to some British scholars and the British government, Mandarin is still considered as a challenging or 'elite' language which is difficult for English-speaking students to achieve (e.g. Tinsley & Board, 2014). This is also a common thought among non-native learners (e.g. Ye, W., 2017). They think Chinese is a very hard language to learn and they can never manage to make progress as non-native learners. While Mandarin is treated as a hard language, the British government still emphasises the importance of expanding the teaching and learning of Mandarin in Britain, since by learning the language, this will achieve the ability of "[opening] the door to another world. [People could get] access to the largest consumer market on the globe and have [more] business opportunities galore. … [Additionally,] Mandarin came second only to French as a language skill they want in future employees", according to Department for Education (2014). It can thus be seen that the role of the British government in promoting teaching and learning Mandarin in England is important. Even though there are still some problems that need to be solved, and some issues currently faced by the government, cooperation between China and the UK could provide the bridge in the development of Mandarin in England.

1.3.3 Local secondary schools

Local secondary schools in the UK also play an important role in teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language. Some secondary schools have

added Mandarin to their curriculum. Zhang and Li (2010) state that, until 2010, "it is estimated that CLT (Chinese Language Teaching) is available in about 10% of secondary schools in England, over 400 in number" (p.88). The number of secondary schools providing Mandarin lessons excludes the number of Mandarin private schools and Confucius Institutes in England, however. It is therefore evident that the amount of people teaching and learning Mandarin in Britain is increasing. In addition, in Tinsley and Board's survey (2014), they pointed out that "around 6% of state schools and 10% of independent schools in England offer [Mandarin] teaching in Key Stage 3 (ages 11-14)" in England up to 2014 (p.62). Nevertheless, after checking the curriculum of the secondary schools offering Mandarin, Tinsley and Board (2014) found that most of the secondary schools in their research arranged the Mandarin classes as an extra-curricular activity in their school and that Mandarin teachers are often hired from outside the school and thus do not belong to the school staff. Even though Mandarin is offered in the main curriculum in some schools, only a small number of students tend to choose to learn this language, since it may be the student's third language and they may not often learn it continuously (p.62). In the Language Trends Survey carried out in 2018, which was published by the British Council, a decline was shown in the number of entries for advanced levels of Mandarin, such as A Level Mandarin classes (Tinsley & Doležal, 2018, p.11). It is also evident that Mandarin is offered more to Chinese heritage students, even though it can also be seen that there was an increase in the entry of GCSE classes in Mandarin from 2011 to 2017 (pp. 10-11). Tinsley and Board (2014) also spoke about a similar problem in their study, where they claimed that some secondary schools that previously had Mandarin classes may no longer offer the language. This is because "it had 'led to fragmentation and unviable classes', while others, including those who had worked with Confucius programme, had not found it successful" (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.62). This demonstrates that there has been a reduction in Mandarin classes in England and exemplifies the failure of some Confucius Classrooms in some secondary schools.

The development of Mandarin teaching and learning has a close relationship with secondary schools and its teachers. Zhang and Li (2010) state in their report that some head teachers in secondary schools have made great contributions to the growth of Mandarin education in the UK: "An important factor that contributes to the fast

development of CLT in schools is the decision and foresight of some individuals, particularly heads of MFLs (Modern Foreign Language) and head teachers who understand the importance of Chinese and even its advantages as an MFL" (pp.88-89). With the help of the head teachers and Mandarin teachers in local secondary schools, the number of students who choose to learn Mandarin in secondary schools has increased.

Tinsley and Board (2014) support this idea, suggesting that one of the advantages of secondary schools in England that offer Mandarin lessons is that some schools (and by extension some of the parents of their potential students) "see Chinese as an 'elite' language and Chinese is therefore perceived as part of their high-quality offer" (p.95). There are still, however, some problems between the government and secondary schools which become present when Mandarin is added to the curriculum. One of them is that some head teachers are worried about the quality of Mandarin teachers. Zhang and Li (2010) claim that "A lack of qualified and experienced teachers is a constraining factor in the development of Chinese teaching in the UK as a whole, and some schools decide to give up Chinese shortly after starting because the students have not had a good enough experience with the trial course" (p.94).

I also have had similar experiences when having a conversation with Mandarin teachers in England. One teacher expressed how difficult it is for secondary schools to choose Mandarin teachers and how this has led to the closure of Mandarin lessons. It is therefore essential that researchers understand what is truly happening in secondary schools in order to investigate the topic.

In summation, the Confucius Institutes, the UK government, and local secondary schools are all essential elements that need to be considered in my study. By understanding the context of the research topic, it will help me to optimally design the research.

1.4 Research motivation

Initially, I became interested in studying Mandarin teachers in England from my work experience at a supplementary school in Sheffield. I had no teaching experience before I came to the UK to do my master's degree. I was lucky to be selected as a

Mandarin teacher in the supplementary school after attending the interview. When I became a Mandarin teacher, I began to make connections with other Mandarin teachers in the school. Some of them were local native Mandarin teachers and some were Hanban teachers allocated to the school from the Confucius Institute. I had a lot of conversations with them and it was nice talking with them, however, when I went back to the research and literature, I found out that there were few studies on Mandarin teachers in the UK. While a lot of studies have been done regarding teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language, few of them have focused on Mandarin teachers themselves, along with their views and beliefs on teaching and learning Mandarin. I thus began to have an interest in doing research on Mandarin teachers in England. I became gradually interested in this topic and in my master's degree, I only selected one specific school in the UK and investigated its Mandarin curriculum design from the Mandarin teachers' perceptions in that particular school. When I did my master's dissertation, I interviewed several Mandarin teachers', along with the head teacher. I surveyed their views and beliefs on the Mandarin curriculum design in the supplementary school I worked in. After interviewing these teachers, I found it interesting to talk to the Mandarin teachers, since many of them had lots of ideas on teaching and learning Mandarin in England and they were willing to share their thoughts. As a result, studying Mandarin teachers seemed to be an interesting topic for my PhD, while also being extension of my master's dissertation project. I wanted to broaden my research for the PhD by selecting more schools in the UK and by trying to explore the teaching and learning practices of Mandarin in second language acquisition as well.

Although teaching and learning Mandarin can happen in primary, secondary and higher education, I will focus on secondary schools in England in my thesis. I chose to focus on the secondary schools because I have more work experience as a Mandarin teacher in this environment, teaching teenagers in the supplementary school in Sheffield. From my observation of other teachers' classes and my own teaching experience in this school, I decided to do some research on teaching and learning Mandarin in secondary schools as a second or foreign language in England. I am further motivated to focus on this topic due to my observation of two Mandarin lessons in a secondary school in Sheffield. From that experience, I began to build up my ideas and research questions. This occurred because I got a lot of information

from my own observations, as well as from the conversations I had with several Mandarin teachers. I talked with both native and non-native Mandarin teachers. I got some interesting ideas from them, which encouraged me to do my research on studying native and non-native Mandarin teachers in secondary schools in England. After talking with native and non-native Mandarin teachers in that secondary school and observing their classroom practices, I found some interesting points and noticed that some differences might exist between native and non-native teachers' views and beliefs regarding teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language, as well as differing pedagogical practices in class. I thus decided to choose this topic as my research topic, in order to study native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs, as well as their pedagogical practices in teaching and learning Mandarin in secondary schools in England. I wish to explore more Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs and practices in England, both native and non-native, in order to make some contribution to this research area.

1.5 Research aims

This research will focus on exploring native and non-native teachers' views and beliefs regarding teaching and learning Mandarin in secondary schools in England. Mandarin teachers' beliefs about teaching Mandarin as a second language will be examined in the study. Also, teachers' pedagogical practices will be explored within it. Finally, the influence of teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices on students' learning of Mandarin will be discussed.

The research thus aims to explore the Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs regarding teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in England. Furthermore, I aim to examine whether similar and different views and beliefs between native and non-native Mandarin teachers in England exist and, if so, to compare them. I intend to build up my own conceptual framework of Mandarin teachers' beliefs. Finally, I aim to discuss the relationship between Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs and their pedagogical practices in the classroom, as well as the relationship between Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices and their students' engagement in class through classroom observations.

1.6 Research questions

I will carry out my study by researching these following questions:

(1). What are the views and beliefs of Mandarin teachers in teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language in England? What, if any, are the differences between native teachers and non-native teachers?

(2). How do Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs impact upon their pedagogical practices?

(3). How do the pedagogical practices in Mandarin classes influence students' learning engagement?

I will explain my research questions in detail below.

The three main research questions above will lead my research. The first question aims to explore Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language and attempts to find out if there are any differences between native teachers' views and non-native teachers' views, due to the fact that they may have differing backgrounds. The second question is designed to discover the influence of these Mandarin teachers' beliefs on their teaching practice and pedagogical practices. The last question aims to discover the impact of the teachers' pedagogical practices on the students' learning engagement in Mandarin classes.

1.7 Structure of the thesis

The thesis will be divided into five chapters. The first chapter is this one, the introduction chapter, which has introduced the topic of the study, the background, and the context of the research. My motivation, aim and research questions were also included in this chapter. The second chapter is the literature review chapter. Within it, I will review the literature relating to teachers' views and beliefs, teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language, language teachers' pedagogical practice and students' engagement. My initial conceptual framework of examining Mandarin teachers' beliefs will also be provided in Chapter 2. The third chapter is the methodology chapter, where I will focus on the research methods used in data collection and introduce the participants of my research. The methods of data analysis and the process of data collection will also be discussed in Chapter 3. The fourth chapter is the findings and discussions chapter. The data will be analysed and key findings will be present in the chapter. Discussions about the data will also be shown

in this chapter, and my final developed conceptual framework of Mandarin teachers' beliefs will be presented at the end of Chapter 4. The fifth chapter is the conclusion chapter, which will summarise the whole thesis and will draw conclusions to the study. The significance and limitations of the study will also be examined and recommendations for further research will be provided. Finally, the bibliography and the appendices will be shown at the end of the thesis.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.0 Introduction to this chapter

In this chapter, I will explore the relevant literature relating to my research. The chapter is divided into five sections. The first section reviews previous studies on teachers' beliefs and I will give my own definition of teachers' beliefs. I will then discuss the factors that influence their beliefs in the same section and build up my own initial conceptual framework, which is adapted from previous research. The second section discusses studies about teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese as a second or foreign language, issues regarding teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language in the UK, and issues surrounding the use of native and non-native Mandarin teachers in England. The third section examines language teachers' pedagogical practices in Mandarin classes, assessment practices in Mandarin teaching and the relationship between these and their beliefs. The fourth section discusses students' engagement in Mandarin classes and its relationship with Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practice in the classroom. Finally, a brief summary of this chapter will be provided at the end of this chapter in the fifth section.

2.1 Teachers' beliefs

The topic of teachers' views and beliefs is a significant issue that needs to be examined in my study. In this section, I will explore previous research about their beliefs, and then focus on research about the language teachers' beliefs, with special attention being paid to those of the Mandarin teachers. I will then investigate the definition of teachers' beliefs after examining the relationship between teachers' cognition and beliefs, as well as the difference between teachers' knowledge and beliefs. My own definition of teachers' beliefs will also be provided. Additionally, I will discuss the various factors that influence teachers' views and beliefs from previous literature. Finally, I will build up my own initial conceptual framework of factors influencing Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in this section.

2.1.1 Previous research on teachers' beliefs

There is a variety of research that examines teachers' beliefs in the past, so it is important to firstly explore how their beliefs have developed. I will then pay attention

to the specific research field on language teachers' beliefs, in particular to literature on Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs, in this section.

2.1.1.1 Development of research on teachers' beliefs

Research regarding teachers' beliefs appears to have become more abundant since the 1970s. Freeman (2002) regards the 1970s as a "critical turning point" with regards to the research on how the teachers were treated in the teaching process. Borg (2006) also agreed that most of the research about the teaching process focused on teachers' behaviours before the 1970s. In the 1970s, ideas about teaching began to be challenged by some researchers and perspectives on teachers' cognition have been changed in many studies on teaching. Borg (2006) states that from the studies in the 1970s, "teachers were not robots who simply implemented, in an unthinking manner… rather, teachers exerted agency in the classroom – they made decisions, both before and while teaching" (p1). As a result, researchers started to pay more attention to psychological issues in teaching rather than their behaviours in the classroom. According to Clark and Peterson (1986), there were some researchers studying teachers' cognition in the late 1960s and 1970s, for example, Smith and Geoffrey (1968) and Kounin (1970). Jackson's (1968) research seemed to be the most influential one as Clark and Peterson (1986) claimed that it was "one of the first studies that attempted to describe and understand the mental constructs and processes that underlie teaching behaviour" (p.255).

According to Freeman (2002), there are four influential publications that have focused on teachers' mental lives. Except for Jackson's (1968) book which has been mentioned above, Lortie's (1975) book and two reports were also very valuable studies (Freeman, 2002, p.3). One of the reports is the report of the conference which was organised by the National Institute of Education (NIE) in America in 1975. The NIE report (1975) concentrated on the inner lives of teachers in their teaching process and emphasised the importance of studying teachers' "psychological processes". It suggested that "it is obvious that what teachers do is directed in no small measure by what they think" (NIE report, 1975, p.1). Borg (2006) also agreed that this report marked a turning point that departed from the research on teaching at that time. Borg (2006) claimed that the conference report showed that:

...teaching was no longer being viewed solely in terms of behaviours but rather as thoughtful behaviour; and teachers were not being viewed as mechanical implementers of external prescriptions, but as active, thinking decision-makers, who processed and make sense of a diverse array of information in the course of their work. (p.8)

Research about teachers' thought processes therefore became more significant after this report was published.

After understanding the importance of studying teachers' inner lives, different researchers had their own opinions on teachers' thinking processes and their influence on teachers' behaviour. Clark and Yinger (1977) claim that:

A relatively new approach to the study of teaching assumes that what teachers do is affected by what they think. This cognitive information processing approach is concerned with teacher judgment, decision-making, and planning. The study of the thinking processes of teachers – how teachers gather, organize, interpret, and evaluate information – is expected to lead to understanding of the uniquely human processes that guide and determine teacher behaviour. (p.279)

From their research, teachers' thinking can be divided into three different areas: teacher judgment, teacher decision-making, and teacher planning from the teachers' perspectives (Clark & Yinger, 1977, p.279).

Shavelson and Stern (1981) also reviewed the research on "teachers' pedagogical thoughts, judgment and decisions" (p.455). In their study, they highlighted some factors that influence teachers' judgments and decision-making process. For example, "information about a student's achievement, participation and behaviour" influenced teachers' judgments and decisions in class (p.458). They also revealed the impact of "classroom and school environment" (p.465) on teachers' thinking. They stated that "the school environment, including those extra-classroom pressures in the school such as administrators and policies…and in the community (especially parents), set boundaries on teachers' pedagogical decisions" (p.466). The literature above shows how the research on teachers' thought processes has developed and the perspectives on their teaching processes have changed.

The development of researching teachers' cognition continued to grow in the 1980s and 1990s. The concepts of teachers' knowledge and beliefs has emerged within the study of teachers' cognition (Borg, 2006): "In the 1980s the study of teachers' mental lives became established as a key area of research in the study of teaching" (p.2). This

phenomenon was due to the volume of research in this area that had been undertaken and published during this time, and the rapid increase of studies had continued into the 1990s (e.g. Carter, 1990; Calderhead, 1996; Fang, 1996; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996). According to a study by Calderhead (1996), there are five aspects of teachers' beliefs, which are the teachers' beliefs on teaching, the subject, learning and the learners, how to teach, and the teachers' role. In my study, I will mainly focus on teachers' beliefs about teaching and how to teach a certain subject in class. Moreover, Fang (1996) states that teachers' beliefs represent an essential part of "teachers' general knowledge … in the classroom" (p.49), which are "shaped by many factors … [and] embodied among other [areas]" (p.50).

From then on, more and more studies in this research field have been carried out and published. As for language teachers' beliefs, there were not many studies until the mid-1990s, which will be discussed in the next section.

2.1.1.2 Studies on language teachers' beliefs

Even though studies on teachers' cognition have grown over the last 30 years, the studies about language teachers' beliefs still need to be developed. There is not much literature relating to language teachers' views and beliefs (e.g. Borg, 2003, 2006; Freeman, 2002). Freeman and Richards's (1996) book was an early publication on language teachers' cognition, which emphasised the value of researching what language teachers think about their teaching practices. Richards, Tung and Ng (1992) also claim that language teachers have their own opinions on language teaching practice and curriculum in their teaching process.

In addition, research regarding language teachers' beliefs is varied in specific fields. There are many studies on language teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching, for instance (e.g. Andrews, 1999; Borg, 1999, 2003; Burgess & Etherington, 2002; Farrell, 1999; Phipps & Borg, 2009), and studies on teaching reading (e.g. Graden, 1996; Johnson, 1992; Meijer et al., 1999) and writing (e.g. Burns, A., 1992; Tsui, 1996) are also numerous. Borg's (2003) study is a good review of the studies that have focused on different areas of language teaching and learning.

The area of second or foreign language teachers' views and beliefs has received even less attention from researchers, however. It finally started growing in the mid-1990s and became one of the important areas in the field of teachers' cognition (Borg, 2006, p.3). Woods's (1996) book on second language teachers' cognition in the language teaching process provided the angle of researching second language teachers' views and beliefs in the research area. Moreover, in Borg's (2006) book, he reviewed research on second language teachers' cognition, with studies amounting to nearly 200. The research focused on different aspects, finding that it was more concentrated on second language teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar, reading and writing, rather than in teaching listening, speaking and vocabulary in the field of second language education (Borg, 2003, p.98).

2.1.1.3 Research on Mandarin teachers' beliefs

There are only a few studies that address Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs. Ye, L. (2013) claims that existing research on second language teachers' views and beliefs shows that there are more studies on teaching English, French, Spanish and German as a second language (e.g. Duff & Li, 2004), rather than teaching Mandarin or Japanese (p.613).

According to Ma et al. (2017), there are five studies that focus on Mandarin teachers' beliefs on teaching Mandarin as a foreign language. Jiang and Hao (2010), for example, explored four Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs on teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language. Two of the Mandarin teachers were experienced and the other two teachers were beginners. They found that the experienced and novice Mandarin teachers had similar ideas about pedagogical practices in teaching Mandarin, but the experienced Mandarin teachers were influenced more by their previous experiences on teaching than novice Mandarin teachers. Additionally, Guo (2014) focused on the Mandarin teachers' emotions relating to their teaching process and it suggested that this aspect of Mandarin teaches' emotions should be considered in teacher education and teacher training programmes (pp. 824-825).

Nevertheless, it demonstrates that few studies on Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs

have been conducted and this area needs to be developed more in the future.

2.1.2 Teachers' cognition to teachers' beliefs

Before discussing the definition of teachers' beliefs, it is essential to understand their cognition and the difference between 'cognition' and 'beliefs'. Teachers' cognition is considered to be a broader term than teachers' beliefs by some researchers and the definition of teachers' cognition has been widely discussed. A study by Clark and Peterson (1986), divided teachers' thinking process into three categories:

- Teacher planning;
- Teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions;
- Teachers' theories and beliefs (pp.260-292).

From their study, the three categories united the definition of teachers' cognition. As a result, we could regard teachers' beliefs as a sub-theme under the definition of teachers' cognition.

Clark and Peterson (1986) also divided the "teachers' theories and beliefs" into two parts, one is "teachers' beliefs on students" and the other one is "teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning" (p.285). The latter part of the teachers' beliefs is the main focus in this study.

Some researchers provided their own definition of teachers' cognition. Kagan (1990), for example, defines teacher cognition as the teacher's beliefs and knowledge regarding the teaching process in the language classroom, including the teaching content and their students. Borg (2003) defines teacher cognition as "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think" (p.81), which is probably an accepted definition by many researchers. To other researchers, the definition of teacher cognition and teachers' beliefs are slightly different and will be explored in the next sections.

2.1.3 Teachers' knowledge and teachers' beliefs

Another issue that needs to be discussed before defining teachers' beliefs is the relationship between the two terms: 'teachers' beliefs' and 'teachers' knowledge'. Some researchers hold the opinion that teachers' knowledge is different from teachers' beliefs and the two terms need to be defined separately (e.g. Carter, 1990; Nespor,

1987; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Shulman, 1987; Wilson et al., 1987). Shulman (1987), for example, claims that the term 'teachers' beliefs' is the foundation of teachers' knowledge. In a study by Shulman (1987), there are seven aspects to the definition of teachers' knowledge. These include "general pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts, knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, content knowledge, curriculum knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge" (p.8). Moreover, Pajares (1992) regards teachers' beliefs as "suppositions, commitments and ideologies", which refers to the teachers' attitudes and values on teaching, while teachers' knowledge was about the "factual propositions and the understanding that inform skilful action", which was more practical and focused more on practice in the classroom (p.312). Likewise, Calderhead (1996) claims that teachers' knowledge may be more related to the facts in real life and teachers' beliefs could not always be true.

According to Erkmen (2010), Nespor (1987) provides clear clarification between teachers' beliefs and teachers' knowledge (p.18). Nespor (1987) points out four features that make teachers' beliefs distinct from teachers' knowledge. These included: the "existential presumption, alternativity, affective and evaluative loading, and episodic structure" (p.318). Nespor (1987) separated the meanings of teachers' beliefs and teachers' knowledge and defined teachers' beliefs as the "means of defining goals and tasks", and teachers' knowledge as "systems [that] come into play where goals and the paths to their attainment are well-defined" (p.319). From the two different definitions of teachers' beliefs and teachers' knowledge, it could be seen that teachers' beliefs are more related to the teachers' previous experiences and these experiences could influence the teachers' future beliefs in teaching.

On the contrary, some other researchers claimed that separating teachers' knowledge from teachers' beliefs is relatively difficult (e.g. Erkmen, 2010; Thompson, 1992; Woods, 1996). Thompson (1992), for instance, suggested that dividing the research between teachers' knowledge and teachers' beliefs could be hard for researchers. Similarly, a study by Woods (1996) examined second language teachers' views and beliefs in universities and found that it is hard for researchers to distinguish between teachers' beliefs and teachers' knowledge. In second language teachers' decision-

making process, Woods (1996) stated that the second language teachers' "use of knowledge …did not seem to be qualitatively different from their use of beliefs" (p.195) which made it hard to decide whether the decision was based on their beliefs or knowledge. Woods (1996) also suggested that in the second language teachers' classroom practices:

> In many cases, it cannot be clearly determined whether the interpretations of the events are based on what the teacher knows, what the teacher believes, or what the teacher believes s/he knows. (p.194)

He therefore used the term "BAK" to include second language teachers' "beliefs, assumptions and knowledge" (p.196), in order not to separate the notion of teachers' beliefs and teachers' knowledge. From my perspective, discussions of previous researchers regarding the subject of teachers' beliefs and knowledge could provide insight into the definition of teachers' beliefs in my study, which I will consider in the next section.

2.1.4 Definition of teachers' beliefs

Following the discussion on the differences among teachers' cognition, teachers' knowledge, and teachers' beliefs, another issue that should be paid attention to is that of terminology in describing the idea of teachers' beliefs. Different terms have been used to describe the notion of 'teachers' beliefs' in this research area, according to Borg (2006). When reviewing literature on teachers' beliefs, various terms have been found to be used. Borg (2006) summarised the different terms that researchers had adapted in his book. These were "teacher cognition" (e.g. Borg, 2003; Kagan, 1990), "conceptions of teaching" (e.g. Hewson, Kerby & Cook, 1995), "personal practical knowledge" (e.g. Connelly & Clandinin, 1988), "perspectives" (e.g. Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1986), "practical knowledge" (e.g. Calderhead, 1988; Elbaz, 1981), "practical theories" (e.g. Handal & Lauvas, 1987; Sanders & McCutcheon, 1986), BAK (e.g. Woods, 1996), "implicit theories" (e.g. Clark & Peterson, 1986; Clark & Yinger, 1977) and "belief" (e.g. Crawley & Salyer, 1995; Ford, 1994; Kagan, 1992a; Pajares, 1992; Tobin & LaMaster, 1995). Researchers hence need to understand the issues of the different terms used and similar to Pajares's (1992) idea, it is necessary for researchers to know the definitions of these terms in their studies. By examining these terms, some researchers found that different terms carried similar meanings, such as Clandinin and Connelly (1987), who claim that these different terms are just

"simply different words naming the same thing" (p.488). On the contrary, other researchers disagree with this idea and they suggest that these terms may be slightly different in their meanings.

In order to define the notion of teachers' beliefs, it is also important to understand the definition of belief in the first place. Looking back to 40 years ago, Rokeach (1968) provided a definition of 'belief' and he claimed that belief is "simple proposition, conscious or unconscious, inferred from what a person says or does" (p.113). This simple definition has provided insight into the term 'belief' and has been developed by other researchers in further studies. Pajares's (1992) study, for example, appears to be essential in understanding teachers' beliefs. In the study, Pajares (1992) argued that the definition of belief was "messy" because of the various terms used by different researchers. Pajares (1992) then claimed that there were various ways to construct the notion of 'belief' and he defined it as "an individual's judgement of the truth or falsity of a proposition, a judgment that can only be inferred from a collective understanding of what human beings say, intend, and do" (p.316). In addition, Richardson (1996) defined belief as "a proposition that is accepted as true by the individual holding the belief" (p.104). Belief could thus be thought of as the opinion that a person holds about various activities or a person's understanding of different issues.

Many researchers have their own thoughts regarding the definition of teachers' views and beliefs (e.g. Abelson, 1979; Borg, 2003; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Crawley & Salyer, 1995; Erkmen, 2010; Fang, 1996; Ford, 1994; Hewson, Kerby & Cook, 1995; Kagan, 1992a; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Nishino, 2012; Pajares, 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Rokeach, 1968; Thompson, 1992; Tobin & LaMaster, 1995; Wilson et al., 1987; Woods, 1996). Clark and Peterson (1986), for example, state that the definition of "teachers' theories and beliefs" is "the rich store of knowledge that teachers have that affects their planning and their interactive thoughts and decisions" (p.258). Furthermore, Kagan (1992a) claims that teachers' beliefs consist of the teachers' thoughts regarding classroom, teaching content and students' learning. Additionally, Richards and Lockhart (1996) define teachers' beliefs as "the goals and values that serve as the background to much of the teachers' decision making and

action" (p.30), while Erkmen (2010) defines teachers' beliefs as opinions "based on a [teacher]'s knowledge (not necessarily scientific knowledge) or what s/he perceives to be facts" (p.22). Moreover, Nishino (2012) defines teachers' beliefs by stating that "teachers' opinions and ideas about learning and teaching an SL or FL, [are] constructed by teachers themselves as they respond to their teaching contexts" (p.380). Then, Nishino (2012) explains the definition by declaring that "teachers' behaviours, decision making and classroom practices are constructed by their underlying thoughts and beliefs" (p.380), which shows the importance of researching teachers' beliefs as well.

Woods (1996) uses the term "BAK" to present "teachers' beliefs, assumptions and knowledge" (Woods, 1996, p.196), and he also emphasises that BAK is for teachers to "use it to explain their thinking and their behaviour" (p.196). According to Woods (1996), language teachers' beliefs are related to their thoughts and ideas about teaching and learning the second language (p.69).

Based on the previous research, I thus define language teachers' beliefs as:
The teachers' thoughts and ideas about the teaching and learning process in the language classroom, including their opinions regarding lesson planning, teaching content, teaching methods and students, as well as teachers' beliefs and influence over planning, behaviour, and teaching practices in class.

2.1.5 Factors influencing teachers' beliefs

After defining the notion of language teachers' beliefs, it is also essential to explore the factors that influence their belief system and how these factors impact the development of or even change the beliefs of language teachers. Plenty of previous research has focused on investigating the various factors that impact upon language teachers' views and beliefs. This is because our understanding of the different factors may benefit the development of language teachers' education and training and may also provide the chance for language teachers and researchers to understand the teaching practice in the classroom better.

According to previous studies, there are three main factors that are frequently mentioned and examined by many researchers. These are: the previous learning

experience of language teachers, teacher education, and contextual factors. These three factors are the most commonly discussed in the previous studies. In addition to these three elements, some other factors have also been explored by a few researchers, although they are not revealed in many studies. I will explore these factors in the next sections.

2.1.5.1 Previous learning experience

Many previous studies have supported the argument that previous language learning experience is an important factor that could influence language teachers' beliefs in different ways, for both novice language teachers and experienced teachers (e.g. Abduallah-Sani, 2000; Almarza, 1996; Bailey et al., 1996; Brown, 2005; Borg, 2003, 2006; Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Ebsworth & Schweers, 1997; Erkmen, 2010; Farrell, 1999; Feryok, 2010; Freeman, 1992; Golombek, 1998; Hayes, 2008; Kindsvatter, Willen & Ishler, 1988; Johnson, 1994; Lortie, 1975; Numrich, 1996; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Woods, 1996). Lortie (1975), for instance, used the term "apprenticeship of observation" (p.61) to represent teachers' previous learning experience in school and in this research, Lortie (1975) claims that the impact of apprenticeship of observation on teachers' beliefs may continue for a long time and may not be easy to change. Furthermore, Richardson (1996) and Erkmen (2010) also emphasise the influence of teachers as learners during schooling. Kagan (1992b) suggests, however, that even though teachers' beliefs may be related to their previous experiences as a student, sometimes the beliefs which were formed on these learning experiences may not be accurate or suitable for their teaching, since teachers may seek "learning styles, aptitudes, interests, and problems similar to their own" and the practical results are not always satisfactory (p.145). For language teachers' views and beliefs in particular, previous learning experience could influence their beliefs on foreign language teaching as well. According to Erkmen (2010), language teachers' previous language learning experience as students is essential to forming their beliefs on teaching a foreign language in the future, because "during schooling, future foreign language teachers also form images of their favourite teachers and teaching styles that they might later adopt" (p.23). Similarly, research by Richards and Lockhart (1996), cited the study of Kindsvatter, Willen and Ishler in 1988, which claimed that language teachers' views and beliefs could be affected by "their own experience as language

learners", which refers to the fact that "all teachers were once students, and their beliefs about teaching are often a reflection of how they themselves were taught" (p.30).

As a result, in my initial framework below, I will include the factor of previous language learning experience, which is adapted from the previous literature. I mainly used the research from Woods (1996) and Borg (2003) and combined their ideas. Woods (1996) claimed that the "early language learning experience" of the Japanese teacher in his study formed his initial ideas about second language teaching, which came from his learning experience in French (p.204). Likewise, Borg (2003) suggested that "schooling", which means the language teachers' previous second language learning experience, could impact their beliefs as a teacher (p.83). Language teachers' previous learning experience is thus one of the factors influencing language teachers' beliefs and this factor may also be relevant for Mandarin teachers' beliefs in England.

2.1.5.2 Teacher education and training

From the previous research, the second essential factor that may impact upon language teachers' views and beliefs is the teacher education and training experience. Many researchers are convinced that teacher education and teacher training programmes influence language teachers' views and beliefs, not only for pre-service language teachers, but for teachers and in-service language teachers as well (e.g. Almarza, 1996; Borg, 2003, 2006; Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000; Calderhead, 1996; Chiang, 2008; Erkmen, 2010; Flores, 2002; Freeman, 1992; Hobbs, 2007; Kagan, 1992b; Kindsvatter, Willen & Ishler, 1988; Llurda, 2005; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Ng, Nicholas & Williams, 2009; Özmen, 2012; Pajares, 1992; Richards, Ho & Giblin, 1996; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Seferoğlu, 2006; Sendan & Roberts, 1998; Woods, 1996). Some of these references will be addressed further on but by way of summary here. A study by Borg (2003), for instance, indicated that the "professional coursework" of the language teacher could influence their teacher cognition, which represents language teachers' previous teacher education and training (p.83). Richards, Ho and Giblin (1996) studied the views and beliefs of five Hong Kong trainee teachers and found out that their beliefs

are related to their training programme. Moreover, Almarza (1996) claims that teachers' cognition of the four language teachers in the study has changed after they have completed the PGCE training programme, while Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) and Sendan and Roberts (1998) also explored the language teachers' thoughts and ideas in the teacher training programme and both studies drew the conclusion that teacher training programme could impact upon language teachers' beliefs and may change their beliefs in different aspects. Similarly, in the study of Öztürk and Gürbüz (2017), teacher education plays an important role in constructing language teacher' beliefs, especially for pre-service language teachers (p.13).

Furthermore, plenty of researchers support the belief that language teachers' educational background may affect their beliefs about teaching. In my research, the notion of an 'educational background' refers to Mandarin teachers' degrees that they have gained from higher education. Some studies have explored the impact of language teachers' education experience on their beliefs. Woods (1996) states, for example, that second language teacher's beliefs about teaching grammar may be impacted partly by "teacher education" (p.205). In addition, in Richards and Lockhart's (1996) study, they found that according to Kindsvatter, Willen and Ishler (1988), "educationally based or research-based principles" may influence language teachers' views and beliefs, since "teachers may draw on their understanding of a learning principle in psychology, second language acquisition, or education and try to apply it in the classroom" (p.31).

I will adapt the research of Woods (1996) and Borg (2003) to establish my initial conceptual framework, which means adding teacher education and training experience as one of the factors which may influence Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in England.

2.1.5.3 Teaching context

The third factor that could influence teachers' views and beliefs is the teaching context. Some researchers have explored this factor in their work previously (e.g. Bailey et al., 1996; Borg, 2003, 2006; Burns, A., 1996; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Feryok, 2010; Johnson, 1996; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Spada

& Massey, 1992; Valencia, 2009). Burns, A. (1996) and Valencia (2009), for example, both suggest that the context of the institution or the school that the teacher works in could influence their ideas on teaching. Likewise, Borg (2003) emphasises the impact of the context on language teacher cognition. He uses the term "contextual factors" to explain his idea, which not only refers to the school or organisation that language teachers work in, but also includes the educational condition in society (p.83). Furthermore, Spada and Massey (1992) studied the novice language teachers' cognition and pointed out that their initial cognition about teaching may change in relation to the different school contexts. Johnson (1996), however, claims that language teachers' working conditions could impact upon their thoughts and some conflicts and tensions between language teachers' beliefs and the teaching reality therefore exist. Crookes and Arakaki's (1999) study supports this idea and they explored the tensions between teacher cognition and their decision-making process in the classroom.

So, Borg's (2003) study will thus be adapted in my initial conceptual framework to examine Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in secondary schools in England.

2.1.5.4 Other factors

As well as the three factors above, there are some other factors which could influence language teachers' views and beliefs. The first one is the previous teaching experience of the teacher (e.g. Borg, 2003, 2006; Burns, A., 1992; Chou, 2003; Faez & Valeo, 2012; Farrell, 2009; Johnson, 1994; Kumazawa, 2013; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Richards et al., 1996; Sun, 2012; Tsui, 2009; Ulichny, 1996; Woods, 1996) Farrell (2009), for example, claims that novice teachers' initial views and beliefs on teaching that were developed from their teacher education could be changed and reformed by their practical teaching experience in their schools and the contexts of the schools they work in (p.182). Similarly, Woods (1996) and Borg (2003) also claim that language teachers' previous teaching experience could impact their beliefs on second language teaching and learning. Moreover, Tsui (2009) states that language teachers' teaching experience could benefit their teacher development, while in Öztürk and Gürbüz's (2017) study, they agreed that previous teaching experience may influence language teachers' teaching process in both positive and negative ways (p.14). Other

references listed above will be discussed further on.

Furthermore, some researchers have found that language teachers' personality factors may also have an effect on their beliefs (e.g. Bailey et al., 1996; Erkmen, 2010; Kindsvatter, Willen, & Ishler, 1988; Richards & Lockhart, 1996). There are other factors which were discovered by the researchers, for example, Richards and Lockhart (1996), after examining the study of Kindsvatter, Willen, and Ishler (1988), state that "established practice, educationally based or research-based principles and principles derived from an approach or method" could also influence language teachers' beliefs, in addition to the factors mentioned above in their research (pp.30-31). Moreover, Bailey et al. (1996) found that teachers' reciprocal respect and their idea of maintaining interest and motivation may also influence their beliefs on teaching.

To sum up, by exploring previous research, three main factors influencing teachers' views and beliefs have been widely discussed. These are: previous learning experience, teacher education and training, and the teaching context. There are some other factors which may also impact teachers' beliefs, however; although these factors may not have been explored as much, such as previous teaching experience and teachers' personalities. I will build up my initial conceptual framework of the factors influencing Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in secondary schools in England in order to explore Mandarin teachers' beliefs in my study. I will adapt the previous research discussed in this section and my initial conceptual framework will be explained in the next section.

2.1.6 Initial conceptual framework

From the literature above, I wanted to adapt Woods's (1996) research framework and Borg's (2003) conceptual model to create a conceptual framework for my study. Woods's (1996) framework was established from an interview with an English language teacher in Japan. Woods (1996) explains the development of "BAK" in four aspects: "early language learning experience" (p.203), "early teaching experience and teacher education" (p.205), "later language learning and teaching experience overseas" (p.207), and "current teaching experience" (p.210). The first element refers to the teacher's experience of learning French as a second language in his childhood and the

second factor relates to the teacher's "early experience teaching ESL (English as a Second Language) and concurrent teacher education program" (Woods, 1996, p.203) after graduation, which had all changed his initial beliefs on teaching and learning a second language. Furthermore, the third factor of Woods's (1996) "BAK" is about the teacher's "experience of teaching English and learning Japanese in Japan" (p.203). This had influenced his teaching methods, since he had experienced a different culture. Finally, the fourth element refers to the "experience in current teaching setting" (Woods, 1996, p.203) in which the teacher had changed his teaching plans in order to meet the students' learning needs and purposes. Moreover, Borg's (2003) model of teachers' cognition includes: Schooling (previous experience of learning a second language), Professional Coursework (teacher training experience), Contextual Factors (educational condition in society) and Classroom Practice (teaching experience) (p.83).

As a result, these two frameworks share similarities in some areas, so I combined them to establish my initial conceptual framework and analyse my data. Since my research is about teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in England, however, I will create a framework based on this specific topic and make some changes to Woods's (1996) and Borg's (2003) models.

 The conceptual framework in my research includes five aspects. These are:

(1) Cultural background, government policies and society: This factor partly comes from Borg's (2003) 'contextual factors', but I added 'cultural background' and 'government policies' because teachers from China and England have different cultural backgrounds, which may influence their beliefs. Moreover, the government policies in China and the UK may also influence teachers' views towards teaching and learning Mandarin.

(2) Previous language learning experience: I combined Woods's (1996) and Borg's (2003) ideas together because the Mandarin teachers in my research may act based on their previous language learning experience. How these experiences influence their views and beliefs while teaching Mandarin is essential to how they conduct their lessons.

(3) Teacher education and training: Woods (1996) and Borg (2003) both mention this element and from my perspective, the Mandarin teachers in my study may have various experiences in teacher training and education which may shape their teacher cognition. It could also be argued from my previous teaching experiences and observations in some Mandarin classrooms that Mandarin teaches may be influenced by the teacher education and training.

(4) Previous teaching experience: This factor comes from Woods (1996), because Mandarin teachers may share different teaching experiences in China and England.

(5) Current classroom practice: This factor refers to current teaching experience where the teachers are teaching Mandarin in the UK. It is adapted from both Woods's (1996) and Borg's (2003) models and in my study, native teachers and non-native teachers may have different concerns when they teach Mandarin in class.

This conceptual framework contains my categories for researching teachers' views and beliefs. This may change after I collect my data, however, because some new aspects may emerge from my fieldwork and the current five aspects may change as well. I will reflect on any changes in my findings in Chapter 4 and develop my final conceptual framework in the findings and discussion chapter (Chapter 4) accordingly.

2.2 Teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese as a second or foreign language

In the second section, I will discuss the experiences of the teachers and of learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language. First of all, there is a brief review on previous studies about second language acquisition. In addition, literature regarding teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language, especially relating to Mandarin teaching practice in England, will be reviewed. Finally, as the main body of my research, native and non-native Mandarin teachers in England will be discussed in the same section.

2.2.1 Brief review of the research on second language acquisition

A survey of literature regarding second language acquisition has been done to investigate the relationship with teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language. There is much literature relating to this topic and researchers have various ideas about it. Ellis (1997) defines second language acquisition as "the way in which people learn a language other than their mother tongue, inside or outside of a classroom" (p.3). Ellis (2008) also emphasises that "the term 'second' is generally used to refer to any language other than the first language" (p.5).

For second language teachers, it is important to notice the difference between language learning and language acquisition. Krashen (1982) claims that second language acquisition "is a subconscious process; language acquirers are not usually aware of the fact that they are acquiring language, but are only aware of the fact that they are using the language for communication" (p.10). It is therefore similar to "'picking-up' a language" (Krashen, 1982, p.10). Second language learning, however, refers to "conscious knowledge of a second language, knowing the rules, being aware of them, and being able to talk about them" (Krashen, 1982, p.10). It can be seen that second language learning happens more often in second language classrooms, especially in Mandarin classrooms, because most of the students in the UK understand the aim or purpose of learning Mandarin in class. Payne (2011) states, therefore, that Krashen's theory "does not account for the reality that is the teaching and learning of MFL in the busy secondary school of today" (p.421) and this view resonates with my experience of teaching and learning Mandarin in secondary schools in England. From my own teaching experiences and previous observations, there are not many weekly Mandarin lessons in secondary schools. As a result, the teachers try their best to make opportunities for every student to practice using Mandarin in class, but it is still not enough for acquiring a language. Other researchers have also provided their thoughts about second language acquisition and second language learning. Terrell (1982), for instance, defines the difference between language learning and language acquisition as learning a language as a process with "the conscious cognitive-based study of grammar", but acquiring a language is "the unconscious formulation of grammatical principles" (p.122, see also Cook, 1991; Ellis, 2008). These two methods hence reflect two different learning systems (Terrell, 1982, p.122).

Many researchers usually use "communicative competence" to represent the second language proficiency of the learner (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991, p. 39). Ellis (2008) claims that communicative competence is the learner's "knowledge of both the L2 grammar and of how this system is put to use in actual communication" (p.6). In order to achieve this, Terrell (1982) suggests that "communication-based approaches generally produce results superior to any cognitive or habit-drill based approach" (p.121). Ellis (2008) states, however, that there are no significant differences in the learning outcomes between the grammar-translation method and the communicative-based method (p.850). Second language teachers thus need to consider what method they prefer to use in class for the communicative competence. Furthermore, second language acquisition is a way to understand a different culture. When people acquire a second language, they not only gain the language itself, but learn the social and cultural background of the language as well (Stern, 1970, p.58). In Larsen-Freeman's (1986) study, for example, the direct method and the audio-lingual method help the students to acquire the language and the culture at the same time. As a result, a teacher may use various ways to teach a second language and culture behind the language, such as playing videos or dramas, or reading novels in class. It may also help students' learning because "the learning of a second language necessarily entails readjusting these linguistic and cultural systems to some degree" (Hinkel, 1999, p.9).

As a result, teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language may share similar theories and ideas, as discussed above. There are also some different opinions on teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language in a few studies, however, which will be explored in the next sections.

2.2.2 Teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language

As discussed in Chapter 1, there is an ongoing trend for teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in the world and Confucius Institutes and Confucius Classrooms have been widely established worldwide. Because of this trend for teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language, the Chinese government has set a goal to recruit 500,000 Mandarin learners in China by 2020 (Zhao, X., 2015). More than 1.39 million students were learning Mandarin at the end of December 2015 in the Confucius Institutes and Confucius Classrooms in 135 countries worldwide

(Hanban, 2016). Studies in the area of teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language have therefore received more attention by Chinese scholars. Xing (2006) states, for example, that the growth of teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language is the result of the increasing research in this field:

> ...with an increasing demand for Chinese teaching both in and outside China, teachers and researchers of the Chinese language came to realize the importance of selecting teaching materials and teaching methodology. … This, consequently, led to the birth of research on the teaching and learning of Chinese as [a foreign language]. (p.9)

Furthermore, a study by Ma et al. (2017) reviewed and summarised most of the research regarding teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language from 2005 to 2015 in the four leading journals in mainland China. From their review, they found that research on teaching second languages like Mandarin Chinese has received more attention in the 10 years between 2005 to 2015 (e.g. Moloney & Xu, 2015; Zheng & Gao, 2006). This is because researchers in China aim to "facilitate interaction with other countries and promote participation in globalisation" by researching this area (p.815). According to Ma et al. (2017), before the growth of teaching Mandarin Chinese as a second or foreign language in China, research regarding teaching and learning English as a second language was prioritised in the area of second language education in mainland China (p.815). This shows the phenomenon of globalisation in China (e.g. Ma et al., 2017; Yang, R., 2010), and is also a reflection of English linguistic imperialism all over the world, (e.g. Phillipson, 1992) which was discussed in Chapter 1. Furthermore, the increasing impact of Mandarin Chinese as a second or foreign language has become more important in the world, which has also led to the growth in the field (Ma et al., 2017, p.816). The development of teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language is therefore essential and ought to be explored in depth.

Overall, researchers in China have studied the teaching of Mandarin Chinese as a second or foreign language in various ways, such as pronunciation, Chinese characters, vocabulary, grammar, and suitable teaching methods in the classroom (Ma et al., 2017, p.816). Based on the review by Ma et al. (2017), they pointed out that in the four leading journals in mainland China, there were 398 studies on language pedagogy of Mandarin, 357 studies in the field of learning and use of Mandarin, 54 studies about the policy and language planning of Mandarin, 52 studies on assessment or tests, as well as 48 studies on Mandarin teachers (p.818).

As discussed in Chapter 1, Mandarin Chinese has two special characteristics compared with English. One is the pronunciation system, which is Pinyin, and the other one is the written system, which refers to the Chinese characters. For the teaching of pronunciation in Mandarin, Ma et al. (2017) found 44 studies in China that related to this in their review (p.821). Researchers have examined the teaching and learning of Mandarin pronunciation in various aspects (e.g. An & Zhang, 2007; Chen, 2011; Mei, 2011; Wen, 2010), since the sounds of Mandarin Chinese, especially the tones in the language, are different from English (e.g. Perfetti & Dunlap, 2008). Chen (2011) discovered that the accuracy of the pronunciation may influence language proficiency in Mandarin for English-speaking students. In a report by Tinsley and Board (2014), their idea echoed the research of pronunciation in Mandarin and they emphasised that "some explicit teaching of tones is needed in the teaching of [Mandarin] Chinese as a foreign language" (p.68).

In addition, according to Ma et al. (2017), 24 studies had been published up until 2015 on the teaching and learning of Chinese characters in Mandarin (p.821). Some researchers have different concerns in this area, which aim to discover effective and appropriate teaching methods for non-native learners (e.g. Ding, 2006; Fan, 2013; Shen & Jiang, 2013; Zhang, 2008). Fan (2013) points out, for example, that by watching Chinese films and TV programmes, English-speaking students could acquire Chinese characters more easily. Moreover, Shen and Jiang (2013) stated that the recognition of Chinese characters is one of the most important aspects of developing Mandarin reading and writing skills for the learners.

Furthermore, there are plenty of studies related to the teaching approaches and teaching practices of Mandarin Chinese as a second or foreign language in the classroom from various aspects (e.g. Chen, Ye & Wu, 2015; Jiang, 2007; Shao, 2013; Xu & Yao, 2014; Yu, 2012; Zong, Zhu & Liu, 2012). Ma et al. (2017) discovered 290 studies on the pedagogical practices and teaching methods of teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language (p.820). Yu (2012) claims, for instance that understanding the suitable and effective teaching methods for Mandarin teachers could help non-native learners to "overcome 'the most difficult language learning' hurdle" in a better way to learn Mandarin (p.38).

It could be seen that the development of research regarding teaching Mandarin Chinese as a second or foreign language has increased gradually in China in recent years, especially over the past 10 years. The research aspects in this fields are various, such as in teaching pronunciation, teaching Chinese characters and teaching approaches. There are not many studies concentrating on the views and beliefs of Mandarin teachers' outside China, such as Mandarin teachers in England, however. Additionally, research about teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language published by scholars outside China is scarce. There is little relevant literature that relates to teaching Mandarin in the UK, which will be explored in the next section.

2.2.3 Teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in England

In terms of teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in the UK, I have briefly explored the most relevant literature in this field. As mentioned above, there are only a few studies relating to the topic of teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in the UK (e.g. Tinsley & Board, 2014; Wang & Higgins, 2008; Xie, 2013; Ye, W., 2017; Zhang & Li, 2010; Zhu & Li, 2014). Wang and Higgins (2008) and Zhang and Li (2010), for instance, specifically provide some insights which could help explain the teaching situation. They investigated the situation and development of Mandarin teaching and discussed how Mandarin schools are operated in England. Furthermore, Tinsley and Board (2014) examined different aspects of teaching and learning Mandarin in the UK, such as the general conditions across the country, primary, secondary, and complementary schools, Mandarin teachers' development, teaching resources, and the students who are learning Mandarin in Britain. In addition, Ye, W. (2017) also explored the conditions and development of teaching and learning Mandarin in England in general.

As explained in Chapter 1, in the UK, especially in England, the expansion of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese has been maintained by Hanban, Confucius Institutes, Confucius classrooms, the British government (particularly the British Council) and local schools for both primary and secondary education in England (e.g. Wang, P., 2009; Ye, W., 2017). Other institutions and organisations in the UK have

also supported the development of promoting Mandarin teaching, for example "the HSBC Education Trust has also been working with the British Council to help to spread Mandarin Chinese and culture [from the year of 2000]" (Institute of Education, 2013 as quoted in Ye, W., 2017, p.11). In England, the Confucius Institutes are responsible in supplying teaching resources and language teachers from China, whilst the British Council takes the role of providing facilities and staff (e.g. Hartig, 2015; Ye, W., 2017). Ye, W. (2017) points out, however, that the British government is less motivated to promote Mandarin because the most commonly taught and learnt modern foreign languages in England are still French, Spanish and German, even though Mandarin is one of the main choices among non-European second languages for the learners in this country (e.g. Worton, 2009) (pp.11-12). Furthermore, the attitude of British students towards Mandarin Chinese is changing, according to Gil (2009). This is partly related to the fast development of Chinese economy (e.g. Gil, 2009; Paton, 2014) and is also partly because of the collaboration between the British and Chinese government to promote the language (e.g. Stacey & Warrell, 2013). Paton (2014) states, for example, that due to the economic growth in China, students in England tend to choose to learn Mandarin for their future career and job opportunities. Some researchers have also found that the British government agreed to increase the number of schools providing Mandarin courses and the number of students who choose to learn Mandarin (e.g. Stacey & Warrell, 2013; Tinsley & Board, 2014; Ye, W., 2017).

There are different models of Mandarin courses in England. Some of the classes are designed by the Confucius Institute and based in universities for adults, and some other classes are evening or weekend classes, which are available for both young people and adults (e.g. Tinsley & Board, 2014; Ye, W., 2017; Zhu & Li, 2014). For the Mandarin curriculum in primary and secondary schools in England, some of the local schools have cooperated with the Confucius Classroom, and there were over 6,000 students registered in the Confucius Classroom programme in 2013 (Institute of Education, 2013 as cited in Ye, W., 2017, p.12). Instead, there are still primary and secondary schools in England that have established their own Mandarin curriculum with little help from the Confucius Classroom or Confucius Institute. These schools have their own Mandarin curriculum design and recruit local Mandarin teachers on their own.

As stated above, there are some advantages of establishing a Confucius Classroom in local schools, such as the teaching resources and funding that are provided by the Confucius Institute and the professional Mandarin teachers from China who are recruited. On the contrary, there are still some problems with this collaboration, which have been examined by some researchers (e.g. Tinsley & Board, 2014; Xie, 2013; Ye, W., 2017). Some of the problems are common among the Confucius Classrooms in England and in other countries, which has been mentioned in Chapter 1. In England, for instance, the contract length for Hanban teachers lasts for one or two years, which means a lack of stability and continuity in the supply of professional and qualified Mandarin teachers to schools in England. It also takes time for the Hanban teachers to get used to the education system and the teaching environment in England (e.g. Xie, 2013; Ye, W., 2017). Ye, W. (2017) suggested that "it is usually not until the second year, not long before their return to China, that teachers are sufficiently familiar with the teaching context [in the UK]" (p.13).

Moreover, the teaching materials and resources that Hanban provides to the local schools in England sometimes may not be suitable for the culture and environment and may be hard for the students to understand. Tinsley and Board (2014) explain the issue that even though schools in England that have Confucius Classrooms have received various teaching resources from the Confucius Institute, the teachers and staff in these schools found that**:**

> …these resources [are] largely inappropriate for their needs, … [and] they are unable to make best use of what they have been sent by the Hanban because 'everything is in Chinese' and so school librarians and other non-Chinese speaking staff are frequently unable to catalogue or to deploy them to the right student/teacher groups. (p.53)

From my previous conversations with the Mandarin teachers and my own experience, a lot of Mandarin teachers raised similar issues with the resources provided by Hanban. They were also concerned that the content of these resources and the textbooks that were offered by Hanban were not always fit for the UK curriculum. Sometimes British students have problems in understanding the content, because they have no idea about the cultural background of China. It is therefore hard for Mandarin teachers to escalate the teaching process in class and some students may lose interest because of this. For Mandarin teachers in England, the cultural barriers are not easy to

deal with and this needs more effort and collaboration between China and UK in the future.

On the other hand, however, regardless of the support from Hanban, there are also other problems and difficulties for people learning Mandarin in the UK, especially for students whose first language is not Mandarin. One of the basic problems for these students in England is that Mandarin is thought to be a difficult language for students to study, as it is very different from English and other European languages like French and Spanish, as discussed above. Zhang and Li (2010) agree that Mandarin and English have different language systems and "Chinese is seen as being very different from European languages, and there is not enough understanding of Chinese" (p.91). A BBC report in 2006 stated that Mandarin is treated as a difficult language for Western people for two main reasons. One is that Mandarin has many characters, rather than an alphabet, so the script may be tough for people to memorise. The other issue is that the pronunciation of Mandarin is different from English, which means it changes tones while speaking and it is not the same system as English (BBC, 2006). Furthermore, despite the fact that the trend for learning Chinese is becoming popular in the world, the secondary schools in England that have Mandarin in the curriculum are limited in number. According to Wang and Higgins (2008), this problem is related to a lower demand for learning Mandarin in schools in the UK. They state, therefore, that "there [is] a need to advertise the benefits of learning Chinese much more to the public" (Wang & Higgins, 2008, p.95). In addition, the different cultures and environments between China and England may serve as a barrier as well. Wang and Higgins (2008) agree that "any exposure to Chinese language in everyday life in the UK is extremely rare, so learning Chinese tends to become a very classroom-centred experience" (p.93). Zhang and Li (2010) also state that when teaching Mandarin in the UK, the teaching environment and methods are different from China, "as with other MFLs, Chinese learning and teaching is student-centred. This is primarily because of the British cultural tradition and educational experience that stress the students' learning process and experience" (Zhang & Li, 2010, p.91). Finally, the content of Mandarin lessons is not attractive, since in some schools, "their language teaching would have been mainly coaching in examination techniques" (Wang & Higgins, 2008, p.91), for example GCSE and A-level classes in Mandarin. Even though some Mandarin teachers in England have been trying to include more

attractive teaching content in class, the problems relating to Mandarin teaching materials, namely textbooks, need to be considered when teaching Mandarin in England because "it adversely affects the results of learning and teaching of Chinese, dampening the enthusiasm of students and teachers" (Zhang & Li, 2010, p.93). Zhang and Li (2010) also illustrate that "it is true that there are many textbooks available on the market, but few of them are designed with regard to the British context" (p.93). The situation of teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in the UK hence still needs to be developed in the future and research related to this field needs to increase in quantity and depth.

2.2.4 Native and non-native Mandarin teachers in the UK

Teachers are the core element of teaching in class. A survey of the literature has thus been done to reveal the role of teachers in teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language in England. From my visit to a secondary school in Sheffield and my own teaching experience, I found that one important difference among these Mandarin teachers is the teachers' first language. Therefore, I suggest that there are two main types of Mandarin teachers in England: native Mandarin teachers and non-native Mandarin teachers. 'Native Mandarin teacher' refers to a Mandarin teacher whose first language is Mandarin, while 'non-native Mandarin teacher' means a Mandarin teacher whose first language is not Mandarin, e.g. it could be an English native speaker teaching Mandarin. In my own research, I will include both native Mandarin teachers and non-native Mandarin teachers. I will not classify the two main types of Mandarin teachers into detailed categories, however, because the Mandarin teachers in my study may all have specific backgrounds and experiences besides their language. Categorising all teachers into such detailed types may thus be problematic. I will therefore explore the unique background of each native and non-native Mandarin teacher in my research and it may contribute to their different teaching beliefs and pedagogical practices.

The native and non-native Mandarin teacher may experience different teacher education in their own education system. Some native teachers take the teacher training programme in China before they come to the UK. These native Mandarin teachers are called "Hanban teachers" in some previous studies, as well as my own. For Hanban teachers, the Confucius Institute Headquarters has a teacher training

process which provides qualified Chinese teachers to schools worldwide (e.g. Ye & Edwards, 2017). By searching its website, a general introduction of teacher training programmes can be found. The institution fails to offer the outcomes of the training every year, however; it is hard to know how teachers deliver their lessons in practical situations. In a report by Tinsley and Board (2014), they suggested that Hanban teachers played an important role in promoting the teaching and learning of Mandarin in England and is also "a significant element…in the promotion of cultural and educational exchange more generally between the UK and China" (p.51). Even though Hanban teachers receive two months of training in teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language before arriving in different countries and destinations, it is difficult to comprehend their understanding of the British education environment in particular during their training (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.51). This problem was also revealed from my previous personal conversations with some of the Hanban teachers I know. They admitted that although they were fully trained in China before coming to England, they faced the problem of adapting to the UK teaching environment and system at the beginning of their teaching process, which may influence their teaching quality when they work in primary and secondary schools. It is therefore essential for the Hanban teachers to "receive some induction training from their sponsoring institution [after they arrived UK]" which concentrates on the British education system and teaching environment, in order to help them to meet the needs of the schools in England (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.51). This idea was agreed both by the schools I visited before and by the Hanban teachers I previously talked with. Another solution to this problem could be that in schools with Hanban teachers, there should also be "a UK-trained Chinese teacher, whether a native speaker or a non-native speaker who has spent time in China and is able to help the Hanban teacher settle in and ensure that they are deployed in the most effective way" (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.84). This requires the schools to recruit both Hanban teachers and Mandarin teachers who are educated or trained in England. Also, from my personal experience, some native Mandarin teachers have mentioned that the teaching quality of Hanban teachers is controlled by the heads of the schools and some of them may tend to prefer Mandarin teachers who have an educational background and teaching experience in the UK, as well as having the QTS qualification to be Mandarin teachers in their school.

On the other hand, for nearly all the non-native Mandarin teachers and some other native Mandarin teachers in England, they are so-called "UK-trained Mandarin teachers" and the foundation of their teacher training programme is usually the PGCE, which is provided by universities in the UK. Teachers who want to teach Mandarin must also go through this programme. I checked the website for the University of Sheffield as an example, which states that "the PGCE course prepares students to teach across the 11-18 age range in English, Geography, History, Mathematics, Modern Languages and the Sciences" (School of Education, n.d.). These participants will then get a qualification to teach in UK schools. Zhang and Li (2010) point out, however, that a problem for Mandarin teachers in their project was the lack of demand: "As there was little demand for Chinese from schools in the past, it is only recently that a couple of universities have offered nationally recognised teacher training programmes – PGCE (Post Graduate Certificate in Education) in Chinese" (Zhang & Li, 2010, p.94). There is also the Teachers' Standards (Department of Education, 2011) which provide instructions for these teachers to refer to. In the document, it provides rules and various forms for teachers, students, and tutors and it is different from the documents provided to native teachers by Hanban.

For native Mandarin teachers who are trained in the UK, they have particular characteristics compared with non-native Mandarin teachers in England. In general, these Mandarin teachers are Chinese nationals and have gained the qualifications of the PGCE and QTS in the UK. They may thus have their own advantages in the teaching of Mandarin in England. Tinsley and Board (2014) indicate that, for example, native Mandarin teachers who are trained in the UK could "combine familiarity with UK pedagogical approaches and understanding of the technical aspects of the education system with all the benefits of a native speaker teacher in terms of the authenticity of language and culture" (p.83). Moreover, for non-native Mandarin teachers in England, most of them also have the PGCE and QTS qualifications. They may also have particular advantages in teaching Mandarin to English-speaking students in England, since they are "excellent role models … [in that] UK nationals can attain a high level of written and spoken fluency in Chinese. [And] they are fully aware of the intricacies of UK education systems, exam requirements and school

culture" (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.83). One of the problems that non-native Mandarin teachers face, however, is the sustainability of their Mandarin teaching positions in schools after gaining the qualifications, even though the selection of PGCE courses on Mandarin among potential non-native Mandarin teachers has grown in recent years (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.83). These findings relate to my experiences, whereby some of the non-native Mandarin teachers who used to take these training programmes may have already given up teaching Mandarin after graduation, because it is very hard for them to find a Mandarin teaching position in schools in England. A non-native Mandarin teacher I personally know also mentioned that there is a lack of support from schools concerning the Mandarin curriculum while teaching.

Another issue regarding Mandarin teachers is that some schools in the UK still lack qualified Mandarin teachers (e.g. Tinsley & Board, 2014; Wang & Higgins, 2008; Xie, 2013; Ye, W., 2017; Zhang & Li, 2010). According to the survey by Wang and Higgins (2008), many Mandarin teachers in some of the schools have a master's or bachelor's degree, but few of them have a teaching qualification (p.94). They state that "the head teachers said they needed qualified teachers with an awareness of British culture" (Wang & Higgins, 2008, p.94). Zhang and Li (2010) also point out that:

> Less than one-tenth of the 200 or so teachers of Chinese in schools have qualified teacher status, and fewer than half of them have been exposed to any formal teacher or linguistic training. Those who have qualifications from the Chinese government in teaching Chinese are also few in numbers. (p.94)

Likewise, Tinley and Board (2014) claim that the issue regarding Mandarin teacher supply in England is the biggest problem for the development of teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language in England (p.96) Many British schools have trouble employing qualified Mandarin teachers, since many of the Mandarin teachers cannot not meet the requirements in their schools. Some head teachers in these schools emphasised that "there is not a shortage of Chinese speakers wishing to teach [Mandarin], but few have the right combinations of linguistic and pedagogic skills" (p.97). In my study, the teacher supply in secondary schools is an important issue which need to be explored. From my previous conversations with some of the Mandarin teachers, they expressed their thoughts and worries about the matter of Mandarin teacher supply in England. The demand for qualified Mandarin teachers is

one of the problems that many schools and Mandarin teachers in England are facing and it will influence the quality of teaching as well. This problem needs to be solved gradually in the future.

To conclude, for Mandarin teachers in England, there are two main types of teachers, which is based on their first language: native Mandarin teachers and non-native Mandarin teachers. They may have different backgrounds and teacher training experience. For teaching and learning Mandarin in secondary schools in England, the problem of teacher supply needs addressing in the future in order to recruit more qualified and professional native and non-native Mandarin teachers for secondary schools in England.

2.3 Teachers' pedagogical practices

As well as Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs of teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language in England, teachers' pedagogical practices in the classroom, particularly concerning Mandarin teachers, is another essential aspect of my study. In the third section, I will therefore concentrate on the teachers' pedagogical practices in the classroom and explore the previous research on teachers' teaching process and teaching methods. I will then focus on the Mandarin teachers' teaching practices in England. Assessment practices in Mandarin teaching will also be discussed in this section. Finally, previous studies on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices will be considered in this section.

2.3.1 Teachers' pedagogical practices in class

Teacher's views and beliefs may influence their pedagogical practices in the classroom. This can be shown in various language teaching methods. The role of a language teacher in the classroom is important, since "as a language teacher you must make decisions all the time" (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, p.1). Larsen-Freeman (1986) provides guidance for language teachers to learn different core teaching methods in language classes. She also presents cases of classroom observation and analyses principles and techniques for each method in her book. Larsen-Freeman (1986) listed eight common methods when teaching languages in the classroom. They are: the grammar-translation method, the direct method, the audio-lingual method, the silent way, 'suggestopedia', community language learning, the total physical response

method, and the communicative approach (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, p.xv). By examining these methods, I discovered that some of them are frequently in use in Mandarin classrooms. The grammar-translation method is often used when teaching Mandarin as a second language, for example. Larsen-Freeman (1986) illustrates it thus: "this method was used for the purpose of helping students read and appreciate foreign language literature" (p.4). Another method that sometimes appears in Mandarin lessons is the direct method:

> [The direct method] was revived as a method when the goal of instruction became learning how to use a foreign language to communicate. Since the Grammar-Translation Method was not very effective in preparing students to use the target language communicatively, the Direct Method became popular. (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, p.18)

It can be seen from my previous personal observations of Mandarin classes in England, however, that most Mandarin teachers combine various methods together in the actual classrooms to meet the students' needs. It also depends on the different situations in class and the students' level of Mandarin is another criterion Mandarin teachers need to consider when choosing suitable teaching methods.

Krashen (1982) also introduces teaching approaches in his research. In his study, he listed seven teaching methods: grammar-translation, audio-lingualism, cognitive-code, the direct method, the natural approach, total physical response, and 'suggestopedia'. Compared with Larsen-Freeman (1986), he focuses on examining the principles and requirements of these teaching approaches. He explains grammar-translation thus: "most grammar-translation classes are designed for foreign language instruction and are taught in the students' first language" (Krashen, 1982, p.127). For the direct method, Krashen (1982) clarifies that:

> All discussion, all classroom language, is the target language. This includes the language of the exercises and teacher talk used for classroom management. The method focuses on inductive teaching of grammar. The goal of the instruction is for the students to guess, or work out the rules of the language. (p.135)

Code-switching in second language classrooms is an important phenomenon for researchers to consider. Hobbs, Matsuo and Payne (2010) define code-switching as the use of two languages or "codes"; and the language teacher "alternate[s] between these languages in their classroom language" (p.45). Ellis (2012) also presents his ideas about the transition between L1 and L2 in second language classes. He explains

the condition of using L1 and L2 in language classes, saying that "avoidance of the L1 is recommended in foreign language, second language and immersion contexts" (Ellis, 2012, p.127). Sometimes, however, the teachers have to use the L1 to help the teaching and learning process. According to Ellis (2012), "theoreticians and many teachers share the view that it is important for the teacher to maximize exposure to the L2 in the classroom" (p.130). On the contrary:

> It is also clear that teachers often do make use of the learners' L1 …… [and] using the L1 is desirable not just because it helps teachers to meet the practical needs of managing life in a classroom but also because it can help language learning. (Ellis, 2012, pp.130-131)

As a result, code-switching in second language classrooms often depends on different contexts.

From my previous observations of several Mandarin classes in a secondary school in England, I also found that the issue of code-switching emerges frequently during the teaching process, no matter whether the teacher is a native teacher or a non-native teacher. They use the target language (i.e. Mandarin) to make an environment for students to listen, give simple instructions in the classroom, and ask questions. When teachers need to explain the meaning of the teaching content, they turn to English in order to make the students understand clearly. There is usually a combination between L1 and L2 in Mandarin classes and the transition usually depends on the situations in class.

2.3.2 Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in classes in England

In addition to the teaching methods and strategies mentioned above, there are some other approaches that are particularly related to Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices. Generally, the traditional teaching method of teaching Mandarin Chinese is recitation and repetition, because "it was believed that once a student memorized a good number of characters, phrases and grammatical sentence, this student should be able to speak, read, and write [Mandarin]" (Xing, 2006, p.9). These traditional methods of teaching Mandarin may not be appropriate and suitable to the different contexts of teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language in and outside China nowadays, however, so numerous studies about the teaching practices of Mandarin as a second or foreign language have emerged in recent years (e.g. Xing, 2006). As cited above, according to the review by Ma et al. (2017), there have been many of studies

concentrating on the pedagogical practices of Mandarin as a second or foreign language in China in the past 10 years between 2005 and 2015 (e.g. Shao 2013; Xing, 2006; Zong, Zhu & Liu, 2012; Zu, 2008). These studies are related to various aspects of the pedagogical practices of Mandarin as a second or foreign language, for instance, teaching practices in the classroom in general (e.g. Chen, Ye & Wu, 2015; Jiang, 2007; Shao, 2013; Xing, 2006; Xu & Yao, 2014; Yu, 2012; Zong, Zhu & Liu, 2012), teaching the grammar of Mandarin Chinese (e.g. Huang et al., 2007; Huang & Xiao 2012; Li & Deng, 2005; Lin, 2011; Luan, 2013; Mo, 2007; Peng, 2008; Wang, 2005), teaching the pronunciation of Mandarin Chinese (e.g. An & Zhang, 2007; Chen, 2011; Mei, 2011; Wen, 2010; Xing, 2006), and teaching the Chinese characters and writing (e.g. Ding, 2006; Fan, 2013; Shen & Jiang, 2013; Xing, 2006; Zhang, 2008).

For the pedagogical practices of Mandarin teachers specifically in England, Tinsley and Board (2014) summarised the practices of teaching and learning Mandarin in the classroom, including the teaching methods and teaching approaches that Mandarin teachers frequently used. They state that Mandarin teachers in England have various teaching practices around the four basic language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.85). For listening and speaking skills, they found that many Mandarin teachers in their research were using communicative teaching methods in the classroom and they often thought that "there was little difference in teaching [listening and speaking] between [Mandarin] Chinese and European languages" (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.85). For teaching the reading and writing of Mandarin in class, on the other hand, Mandarin teachers in England tended to show Pinyin and Chinese characters to their students at the same time, as "all the teachers used Pinyin to a greater or lesser extent and all presented [Chinese] characters to pupils" (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.87). Some Mandarin teachers in England, however, faced problems in their pedagogical practices in teaching Mandarin in class. One of the biggest problems is the classroom time allocated for Mandarin classes. Some of the Mandarin teachers emphasised that teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language could take more time for non-native students to make progress and have better learning outcomes, compared with the teaching of some modern European languages like French and Spanish. Lesson times for the Mandarin curriculum may vary in different schools in England, which may influence the

teaching quality of Mandarin as well (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.87). This problem was also raised by my colleagues in the Mandarin supplementary school I worked in and these Mandarin teachers thought that this was an issue that needed to be investigated in the future in order to find a better solution.

Furthermore, for the issue of code-switching in Mandarin classrooms in England, Mandarin teachers generally intended to use more English than Mandarin when giving instructions and explanations in class. Mandarin teachers tended to use Mandarin to praise their students in class, however, and to greet the students before and after class (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.85). This is the same as my previous observation experiences in some Mandarin classes in secondary schools in England. Moreover, in previous studies, researchers found that games and competitions were frequently used by many Mandarin teachers in Mandarin classrooms in England, in order to motivate the students and to practise the use of Mandarin in class (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.85).

Finally, it is also essential for Mandarin teachers to understand the relationship between education theories and 'real' teaching. Yang, S. (2008) notices that there are conflicts between theory and practice in teaching Mandarin and many teaching methods are not suitable to teach Mandarin (p.1564). Yang, S. (2008) suggests that "most language teaching approaches and methodologies are derived from Western values and therefore do not support the traditional methods that are taught and learned in the non-Western world" (p.1565). For Mandarin teaching, the old and traditional teaching method is that the teacher asks the students to read and memorise all the words and expressions and the whole class is mainly teacher-centred. This is close to the grammar-translation method in Larsen-Freeman's (1986) study. Larsen-Freeman (1986) explains that in the grammar-translation method, "the teacher is the authority in the classroom. The students do as he says so they can learn what he knows" (p.11). Although the teaching style in China has changed in recent years, the teaching environment may still be different from western education. In the UK, for example, students have more opportunity to try different activities in class. Adapting to the teaching environment in England thus becomes a real problem. Yang, S. (2008) points out that "in order to obtain a better understanding of foreign and second language

teachers' beliefs, it is important to know the factors that affect their behaviours, especially in cross-cultural situations" (p.1565). As a Mandarin teacher, it is necessary to recognise the different teaching environments when offering lessons, although it is a big challenge for language teachers as well.

2.3.3 Teachers' assessment practices in Mandarin teaching in England

In addition to examining Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in class, it is also important to explore Mandarin teachers' assessment practices in Mandarin teaching and learning, because language assessment is a key teaching process in second language classrooms. Some previous researchers have investigated the role of assessment in the language teaching and learning process (e.g. Brown, H. D., 2004; Hamp-Lyons, 2016; Hulstijn, 2011; Purpura, 2016). Brown, H. D. (2004) states that the definition of "assessment" in language teaching and learning process is an "ongoing process" and is a "wider domain" than the definition of "test" (p.4). Answering questions, writing essays, or listening and reading in class all qualify as language assessment (Brown, H. D., 2004, p.4). Hamp-Lyons (2016) also defines that language assessment is "something more like a kinder, gentler sort of test, … [and it also refers to] all the other things we can do to learn about someone's abilities" (p.14). Language assessment, therefore, could be divided into "formative assessment" and "summative assessment", which are based on the "function of assessment" (Brown, H. D., 2004, p.6). Brown, H. D. (2004) claims that formative assessment in language classrooms is often informal, to "focus the ongoing development of the leaners' language", such as giving feedback to the students. Summative assessment, on the other hand, means to "measure, or summarize what a student has grasped, and typically occurs at the end of a course or unit of instruction" (p.6). He suggests that the final exams of a course or module and general language proficiency exams are included in summative assessment (Brown, H. D., 2004, p.6). From my previous classroom observations, both formative and summative assessment are frequently used in Mandarin teaching and learning processes in secondary schools in England.

In terms of Mandarin assessment practices, Ma et al. (2017) state that more than 52 studies have been conducted on Mandarin language testing in the past 10 years (p.824). Previous researchers have examined various aspects of assessment in the teaching and learning of Mandarin as a second or foreign language (e.g. Brebner &

Mcallister, 2016; Cruickshank & Tsung, 2011; Hsiao & Broeder, 2012; Wang, J. 2008). Wang, J. (2008), for instance, suggests that it is essential to develop the evaluation standards of Mandarin worldwide. On the other hand, other researchers have focused on the practical elements of the Mandarin language exams and tests, such as the HSK (Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi) exam (e.g. Li, 2015; Li & Li, 2014; Tinsley & Board, 2014; Wang, X., 2006). Wang, X. (2006), for example, examined the validity of the HSK exam and its standards for evaluating Mandarin learners' language proficiency and performance.

In England the main exams include not only the HSK, but also the YCT, GCSE Mandarin, and A-Level Mandarin, which have been widely adopted in secondary schools. The HSK and YCT were both launched by Hanban and are both "international standardised" Mandarin proficiency exams (Hanban, n.d.). The HSK is designed for all non-native Mandarin learners and consists of six levels, while the YCT is provided especially for younger non-native Mandarin learners and consists of 4 levels (Hanban, n.d.). On the Hanban website, it states that the purpose of HSK is to test non-native Mandarin learners' language "abilities in using the Chinese language in their daily, academic and professional lives." (Hanban, n.d.), and the role of the YCT is to examine "young foreign students' abilities to use Chinese in their daily and academic lives" (Hanban, n.d.). Some Mandarin teachers in secondary schools in England thus use the HSK and YCT syllabuses and textbooks to do their teaching plans and design the teaching content for their classes. On the other hand, some other Mandarin teachers in secondary schools prefer the GCSE and A-Level Mandarin syllabuses for their classes, since these two Mandarin language exams are designed particularly for students in England. After examining the GCSE and A-Level Mandarin syllabuses, it can be seen that GCSE (Mandarin) aims to measure students' language ability and performance "in context and learn about the culture of the target language country" (Pearson Edexcel, 2017a, p.2). The exam also intends to develop British students' passion for learning Mandarin via "culturally engaging content" (Pearson Edexcel, 2017a, p.2). Furthermore, the GCSE in Mandarin could provide a foundation for students to progress to A-Level; even for their future careers (Pearson Edexcel, 2017a, p.2). A-Level (Mandarin), however, aims to "inspire all students who have an appreciation of the language, literature, film and culture of the Chinese-speaking world" (Pearson Edexcel, 2017b, p.2), which is an advanced level of

assessment and is more culture-based, requiring British students to obtain a higher language ability in Mandarin. As a result, in order to pass the A-Level, Mandarin teachers need to prepare more teaching materials and teaching resources regarding different aspects of Chinese culture, as well as "literary texts and films that includes contemporary and more classical titles, together with authentic source materials from China and the wider Chinese-speaking world" (Pearson Edexcel, 2017b, p.3). A Level Mandarin could, therefore, offer British students an opportunity to understand Chinese culture in depth.

Language assessment practices, especially the Mandarin language exams, are widely adopted in many secondary schools in England. Furthermore, the pedagogical practices of many Mandarin teachers in secondary schools in England are influenced by these exams in different areas, such as teaching goals, teaching plans, teaching content, and teaching methods. Some researchers indicate that Mandarin language tests are related to Mandarin teachers' pedagogy in class. Cruickshank and Tsung (2011) claim that the establishment of Chinese language proficiency tests benefits the development of Mandarin teaching and learning in the world (p.219). They also state that with the understanding of the requirements of the tests, "curriculum and teaching could focus more on proficiency and learners would have outcomes which could transfer to different schools and learning contexts, with accepted certification" (Cruickshank & Tsung, 2011, p.219). Hanban (n.d.), for example, suggests that there is a correlation between Mandarin teaching and the HSK and YCT tests and one of the roles of the two tests is to "promote learning through testing". In addition, for GCSE (Mandarin) and A Level (Mandarin), Tinsley and Board (2014) claim that in many secondary schools in England with Mandarin classes, the summative assessments that Mandarin teachers choose are often GCSE or A Level; sometimes YCT or Pre-U Chinese (p.89). Some teachers feel that when teaching Mandarin based on these exams, it is sometimes difficult to guide their students in exam preparation, since the measurement of language progression in England is not very "suited to measuring how learners are progressing in Chinese" (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.91). As a result, students may feel less motivated to take these exams, especially English-speaking students. Mandarin teachers also need to seek the balance between exam preparation and students' interest in class when preparing teaching content. Both teachers and students face exam-related pressure from these tests, however; teachers

have to prepare their teaching based on the exam syllabuses and encourage their students to make enough progress to pass the exams (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.91). Although Mandarin teachers face problems and challenges regarding assessment and exams, it is nonetheless evident that there is a close relationship between Mandarin assessments and Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in class.

2.3.4 Relationship between language teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices

After examining second language teachers' pedagogical practices, especially the teaching practices of Mandarin teachers in England, the relationship between Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs and their pedagogical practices in the classroom is another important area for researchers to understand. Melketo (2012) suggests that "relationships between teacher beliefs and practices [are] controversial and complex" (p.101). Some researchers are concerned that in order to understand teachers' behaviours and actions in the classroom, it is important to examine their beliefs first and this may help researchers to understand their practices in class (e.g. Gatbonton, 1999; Grossman, 1995). Gatbonton (1999) states, for example, that after exploring teachers' beliefs, the relationship between their beliefs and practices in class could be revealed (p.46). Further studies, such as those by Bell, T. R. (2005); Hobbs (2007); and Ye, L. (2013), support the idea that there is a link between teachers' beliefs and practices in class. Bell, T. R. (2005) claims, for instance, that "the more that is known about teacher beliefs, the more likely the profession will be to create models for foreign language teacher … [which] reflect relevant behaviours [sic] and attitudes of foreign language teaching" (p.259). This idea shows that there is a close relationship and connection between foreign language teachers' thoughts and their teaching practices in class. Hobbs (2007) also states that by exploring second language teachers' beliefs, it could benefit the understanding of the relationship between language teachers' beliefs and their practices (p.33). Ye, L. (2013) agrees with this opinion and additionally states that it could be also adapted to studying the connection between Mandarin teachers' beliefs and their practices in the classroom (p.613).

After exploring previous studies, some researchers have provided their ideas regarding teachers' beliefs and practices, which show that there could be a strong connection between the two (e.g. Clark & Peterson, 1986; Harste & Burke, 1977;

Johnson, 1994; Kagan, 1992a; Richardson et al., 1991; Woods, 1996). Johnson (1994) claims that it is important for researchers to discover teachers' thoughts and also their behaviours in class at the same time. Clark and Peterson (1986) hence created a model to explore teachers' beliefs, teachers' actions, and the relationship between the two areas (p. 257). This can be seen below (see Figure 1):

Figure 1: Clark and Peterson's (1986) model of teachers' thought and actions

TEACHERS' THOUGHT PROCESSES

CONSTRAINTS & OPPORTUNITIES

Teachers' Thought Processes

Teachers' Actions and their Observable Effects

A model of teacher thought and action.
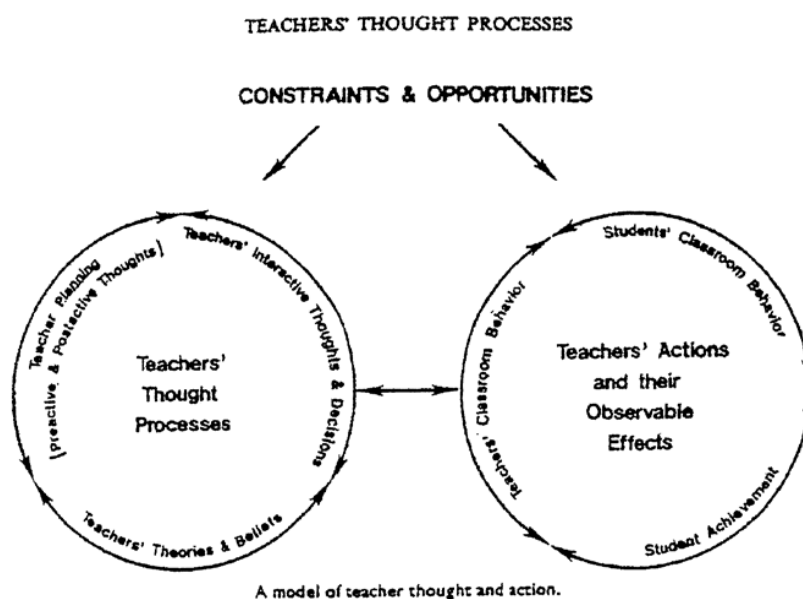
Based on the model above, Clark and Peterson (1986) consider that there are two dimensions in this model; one is the 'teachers' thought process' and the other is 'teachers' actions and their observable effects' (p.257). According to Clark and Peterson's model (1986), there is a relationship between teachers' thought processes and teachers' actions. They stated that teachers' beliefs "affects their planning and their interactive thoughts and decisions" (p.258). Moreover, the relationship between the teachers' thought process and teachers' action seems to be interactive, which means that teachers' thoughts and beliefs and teachers' actions and practices may influence each other in different ways. Likewise, other researchers have supported Clark and Peterson's study (1986) and agreed that teachers' teaching process in the classroom could be impacted by their thoughts and ideas (e.g. Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Fang, 1996; Farrell, 2003; Flores, 2002; Hobbs, 2007; Pajares, 1992). A study by Fang (1996), for instance, claimed that there could be a consistency between teachers' beliefs and their practice, which shows that teachers' thoughts impact on their actions (p.52). Pajares (1992) agreed that teachers' beliefs influence teaching practices in

class. He states that "the beliefs teachers hold influence their perceptions and judgments, which, in turn, affect their behaviour [sic] in the classroom" (Pajares, 1992, p.307).

Furthermore, for the relationship between language teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices in particular, a lot of research has argued that language teachers' views and beliefs could influence teachers' pedagogical practices in the classroom (e.g. Almarza, 1996; Bailey, 1996; Borg, 2003, 2006; Breen, 1991; Breen et al., 2001; Burns, A., 1996; Erkmen, 2010; Flores, 2001; Foss & Kleinsasser, 1996; Gatbonton, 1999; Johnson, 1992; Mullock, 2006; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Pickering, 2005; Richards, 1996; Richards, et al., 1992; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Smith, 1996; Wing, 1989; Woods, 1991, 1996). Woods (1991) and Smith (1996) claim that language teachers' views and beliefs shape their pedagogical practices in their language classrooms. Foss and Kleinsasser (1996) also state that language teachers' beliefs and their practice in the classroom have "symbiotic relationships" (p.441). Moreover, Woods (1996) summarises the teaching practices in three aspects: "the events which make up the teaching, the planning process of the teachers, and the interpretive processes of the teachers" (p.184). Then, Woods (1996) states that the whole process is related to teachers' beliefs, which means a teacher's beliefs play an essential role in language teaching and learning and especially impact pedagogical practices. One example in Woods's (1996) study is that different teachers use the same teaching material in different ways, because they have different teaching purposes (p.1). As a result, it may lead to different learning outcomes for the learners in the classroom: "There was somehow important differences in what they were doing these activities for, and therefore a difference in what they were doing" (Woods, 1996, p.1). This depends on teachers and their decision-making processes in teaching the language in class. He also indicated that "the teacher's beliefs, assumptions and knowledge play an important role in how the teacher interprets events related to teaching (both in preparation for the teaching and in the classroom)" (Woods, 1996, p.184). Furthermore, Johnson (1994) explored the beliefs of teachers who were teaching English as a second language and found that their beliefs impacted their teaching methods and approaches in class consistently. In addition, a study by Breen et al. (2001), also examined the relationship between language teachers' views, beliefs and

their teaching practice in class, which contributed to the research area. Like Woods's (1996) study, Breen et al. (2001) additionally found that language teachers who worked in the same schools may have had different teaching methods or approaches in class, but these various teaching practices reflected the similar principles in the schools or institutions shared among those language teachers. Breen et al. (2001) concluded that by examining the different practices of these language teachers, these various teaching methods are "widely adopted [in their] classroom practice ... [which are] expression of a specific and largely distinctive set of principles [in the schools or institutions]" (p. 496). Similarly, Borg (2003) also claimed that although teachers' practices are shaped by various factors, teacher cognition have a powerful impact on their practices in class (p. 91). As a result, it could be seen that language teachers' views and beliefs, especially foreign language teachers' views and beliefs, may influence their pedagogical practices in the classroom, such as decision-making, teaching planning, teaching methods, and approaches in different ways. It may be similar when exploring the impact of Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs on their teaching practice in Mandarin classes in my study.

On the other hand, some other researchers have been concerned that language teachers' pedagogical practices in the classroom could in turn influence the teachers' thoughts and beliefs in different aspects, which could be shown from many previous studies (e.g. Breen et al. 2001; Borg, 2003; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Mok, 1994; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Woods, 1996). Freeman and Richards (1996) claim, for instance, that "when teachers teach, they revise their planning decisions, respond to students' understanding and participation, and form new decisions that redirect the lesson" (p.164), which means that teachers' practices in class could impact upon and even change their thoughts on teaching. Borg (2003) also pointed out that language teachers' teaching practices could shape their cognition from their teaching experience (p.95). Likewise, Crookes and Arakaki (1999) claim that teachers' teaching practice in the classroom could benefit and improve their views and beliefs, and in their research, one of the teachers held the opinion that "as [teachers] have more practice, then [they] know in the classroom what [teaching methods] will work and what [methods] will not work", because these teachers have learned a lot from their practical teaching experiences and they could find more

suitable and appropriate ways to teach their students (p. 16).

Some researchers have also pointed out that sometimes, teachers' pedagogical practices could be different from their beliefs regarding teaching (e.g. Ashton, 1990; Ducharme, 1996; Duffy, 1982; Duffy & Anderson, 1984; Fang, 1996; Freeman, 1996; Pinnegar & Cater, 1990; Richards, 1998; Ulichny, 1996). Ducharme (1996) suggests, for instance, that what the teachers said about their thoughts and ideas might not always reflect their actual behaviours in the teaching process, since these may be a selection of their words during conversations (p.15). Freeman (1996) and Richards (1998) supported this idea. Furthermore, Fang (1996) claims that "the inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and their practices could be strongly influenced by the contextual factors" (p.53). This opinion is supported by other researchers (e.g. Burns, A., 1996; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Johnson, 1996; Kang & Cheng, 2014; Nishino, 2012; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2017; Spada & Massey, 1992; Woods, 1996). Woods (1996) states, for example that there are external factors that could influence second language teachers' practices and make their practice differ from their thoughts, which refers to the schools and organisations in which second language teachers operate (p.128). Burns, A. (1996) also pointed out that the teachers in their study found that the context of the schools or the institutions they worked in had a powerful effect on their teaching practices and their thoughts (p.162). Studies by Johnson (1996), Crookes and Arakaki (1999) and Kang and Cheng (2014) also discovered that the working conditions of the language teachers could impact language teachers' behaviour in the classroom, which may make these teachers' thoughts and beliefs in teaching depart from their previous views and opinions and tensions then may occur between the two (beliefs and practices). In addition, Fang's (1996) and other researchers' studies regarding the influence of the school context on language teachers' teaching practice may also be used when exploring the relationship between Mandarin teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices in class in England. As a result, it is essential for researchers to carefully examine foreign language teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices in the classroom in order to understand the relationship(s) between them.

I therefore suggest in this study that language teachers' beliefs have a close

relationship with teachers' classroom practices and may influence their pedagogical practices in the classroom in different ways. Furthermore, language teachers' teaching practice could in turn impact their beliefs on teaching in various aspects. This interactive relationship between teachers' beliefs and teachers' practices could be similar with Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs and their pedagogical practices in Mandarin classrooms in secondary schools in England.

2.4 Students' engagement

After exploring the research regarding teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices in the classroom, I also included some aspects about students' engagement in teaching and learning Mandarin to reflect the results of teachers' pedagogical practices. Ellis (2012) declares that "differences in the quality of learners' participation depend on the kind of activity they are involved in" (p.176). Ellis (2012) also points out that there are three aspects when researching learners' participation in second language classes. The first one is student initiation, like having a discussion or doing a task in class. The second one is asking questions in class and the third one is repetition. He claims, therefore, that these three features in learners' participation "can be found with some regularity in classrooms and … there are theoretical grounds for believing that they provide 'affordances' for language learning" (Ellis, 2012, p.178). Lawson and Lawson (2013), on the other hand, divide 'student engagement' into three different types: affective engagement, cognitive engagement, and behavioural engagement. They illustrate that affective engagement or emotional engagement is used "to describe students' social, emotional, and psychological attachments to school" (Lawson & Lawson, 2013, p.435). For cognitive engagement, some researchers have studied students' ideas about their schools, but others have explored it by observing the students doing class activities (Lawson & Lawson, 2013, p.436). Moreover, the range of research on behavioural engagement in students is quite broad, according to Lawson and Lawson (2013, p.435).

Many other researchers have focused on behavioural engagement in class. Zyngier (2008) claims, for instance that behavioural engagement is the measurement of the students' involvement in the classroom and also the students' participation in class. Some researchers, on the other hand, have explored both students' behavioural and academic engagement (e.g. Appleton et. al., 2008; Furlong & Christenson, 2008).

'Academic engagement' refers to the schoolwork or homework that students do in school (Harris, 2011, p.377).

The reason why I want to discuss learners in my research is that the learner is another essential element in the language teaching and learning process. Payne (2007) claims that "pupils, along with teachers, have direct experience of teaching and learning in the classroom" (p.96). Consequently, studying students' engagement may provide a different aspect for me to understand the influence of teachers' views, beliefs and their pedagogical practices. For students in Mandarin classes, there may be two kinds of learners. One is heritage learners, who may have a strong connection with Mandarin before they enter the class, e.g. they have Chinese-speaking family members at home or have an imbalance between their spoken and written Mandarin. The other is non-heritage learners, which means students who have never been exposed to Mandarin before. They may have different reasons to choose this language in the first place and this in turn may influence their engagement in class. Moreover, students' participation in Mandarin classes may reflect the effectiveness of the teaching methods.

According to Harris (2011), language teachers' thoughts and opinions regarding the issue of student engagement have not been investigated in depth (p.377). Only a few researchers have discussed teachers' understandings of students' engagement in the classroom (e.g. Brewster & Bowen, 2004; Cothran & Ennis, 2000; Ravet, 2007; Zyngier, 2007). Brewster and Bowen (2004), for example, state that the teacher plays an essential role in influencing students' engagement in the classroom. A study by Cothran and Ennis (2000), suggested that teachers are also affected by the students' engagement and if engagement is low, it may impact the teaching process in the classroom. In addition, Zyngier (2007) provides some strategies that teachers used to improve the students' engagement in class, including making the learning aim clear in each lesson, providing more opportunities for the more able students, listening to the students' voice, and so on (Harris, 2011, p.378).

Furthermore, previous researchers have found that teachers' practice in class impacts students' learning engagement in different ways (e.g. Brewster & Bowen, 2004; Clark

& Peterson, 1986; Cothran & Ennis, 2000; Harris, 2011). In the model by Clark and Peterson (1986), they claim that teachers' performance in the classroom influences their students' reactions and behaviours, which then impact upon their learning outcomes. They also suggest, however, that students' reactions and learning outcomes may impact the teachers' practice interactively. As a result, teachers may display different behaviours in front of different students (p.257). For teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language, relationships between students' engagement and Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices have not been revealed in much literature. According to Ma et al. (2017), studies related to teaching and learning Mandarin are more focused on the learners' attitudes and motivations for learning Mandarin as a foreign language and the relationship with their learning outcomes. There are 42 studies in this research area, which is not many (Ma et al., 2017, p.822). Ding (2014) points out that the motivation of learners who are learning Mandarin as a foreign language is often not very strong and their interest in the language is often related to their personal interests or cultural experiences. It can thus be seen that further studies are needed in this area and the relationship between Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices and students' engagement in the classroom could be explored in depth in the future.

2.5 Summary of the chapter
To conclude, in this chapter, I examined the relevant literature in four main areas: language teachers' beliefs, teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language, language teachers' pedagogical practices in the classroom, and students' engagement.

In the first section, I presented previous studies on teachers' views and beliefs, a definition of teachers' beliefs and my initial conceptual framework of factors influencing Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in England. In the second section, I explored the theory of second language acquisition, teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language, and native and non-native Mandarin teachers in England.

In the third section, I focused on language teachers' pedagogical practices in the classroom, the teaching methods frequently used, especially in teaching and learning

Mandarin, and assessment practices in Mandarin teaching and learning in England. The relationship between teachers' views and beliefs and their pedagogical practices was also explored in this section. In the fourth section, I concentrated on the concept of students' engagement and participation. I also examined the relationship between teachers' pedagogical practices and students' engagement in the classroom. Building on this, I will discuss the methodology of my research in the next chapter.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.0 Introduction to this chapter

In this chapter, I will concentrate on the methodology of my research. In order to explore the research questions and to achieve the objectives of the study, it is important to consider an appropriate research methodology to facilitate the research. This chapter is divided into seven sections. The first section is the research design of my study, which is mainly about the qualitative research. In the second section, I discuss the particular research methods of my study, including the methods of semi-structured interview, classroom observation, follow-up interview after classroom observation, and document analysis. The participants in my study themselves will be examined in the third section. These include Mandarin teachers and secondary schools. The data collection process will be provided in the same section as well. The fourth section will relate to issues regarding data analysis, including the data analysis process, data transcription, translation of the data and, furthermore, the way to analyse the data selected in the research. Additionally, I will talk about research ethical issues which may emerge during the study, along with the issues concerning the ethical approval of my study. This will be discussed in the fifth section. I will go on to consider researcher positionality in the sixth section. Finally, in the seventh section, I will summarise this chapter.

3.1 Research design

In this section, I will consider the research design of my study. Qualitative research methodology will be adapted when considering the ontological and epistemological positions of my research. I will review the reasons for choosing qualitative research and its advantages and limitations in the same section.

3.1.1 Rationale

After considering the aim and research questions of my study, I mainly focused on qualitative research. Many different studies have provided a definition of qualitative research (e.g. Bryman, 2012; Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2011; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Mason, 1996). Hennink et al. (2011), for example, claim that "qualitative research is an approach that allows you to examine people's experiences in detail, by using a specific set of research methods such as in-depth interviews, focus group discussions,

observation, content analysis, visual methods, and life histories or biographies" (pp.7-8). Moreover, Mackey and Gass (2005) defined qualitative research simply as "research that is based on descriptive data that does not make [regular] use of statistical procedures" (p.163). I decided to concentrate on several secondary schools in the UK and chose several native and non-native Mandarin teachers as participants. From these participants, I wanted to understand native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs, as well as their teaching experience, so qualitative research was suitable for my study. Furthermore, I intended to analyse the interview and observation notes in order to try to understand the cognition of Mandarin teachers and their pedagogical practices in secondary schools. Choosing qualitative research was therefore more suitable, since "qualitative research is a research strategy that usually emphasizes words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data" (Bryman, 2012, p.380).

Qualitative research is more related to words than it is to numbers, according to Bryman (2012, p.380). When I consider both the ontological and epistemological position of my research, the characteristics of qualitative research are more appropriate. Bryman (2012) concludes that the ontological position of qualitative research is "described as constructionist, which implies that social properties are outcomes of the interactions between individuals" (p.380). Furthermore, the epistemological position of qualitative research is "described as interpretivist, meaning that…the stress is on the understanding of the social world through an examination of the interpretation of that world by its participants" (Bryman, 2012, p.380). Mason (2002) also states that we can do qualitative research to "explore a wide array of dimensions of the social world, including the texture and weave of everyday life, the understandings, experiences and imaginings of our research participants" (p.1). My research aims to understand teachers' views and to explore their teaching practice in the classroom and the study is thus more related to a qualitative research. I therefore chose a qualitative research method in order to reveal Mandarin teachers' views, beliefs and their pedagogical practices in secondary schools in England.

3.1.2 Advantages and limitations

One of the advantages of qualitative research is that it offers an opportunity to learn

about people's ideas and behaviours. Hennink et al. (2011) assert that qualitative research "allows you to identify issues from the perspective of your study participants, and understand the meanings and interpretations that they give to behaviour, events or objects" (p.8). Tetnowski and Damico (2001) also claimed that qualitative research could make the researchers understand people and their behaviour in real settings. In qualitative research, the people who are engaged in research are regarded as 'participants' rather than 'subjects' and they share their personal stories, experiences and beliefs with researchers by joining in an interview or a focus group (Hennink et al., 2011, p.17). As a result, choosing qualitative research is a good way to investigate social issues and it is thus appropriate to use this research methodology when the research is related to people's views and beliefs. As for qualitative research on foreign language teaching and learning, Mackey and Gass (2005) state that qualitative research in this field may present conditions in a more natural way, including "both the broader sociocultural context (e.g. the ideological orientations of the speech community as a whole) as well as micro-level phenomena (e.g. interaction within the classroom)" (p.163). When exploring Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs, as well as their pedagogical practices in secondary school classrooms in England, choosing qualitative research may therefore be more appropriate.

On the other hand, qualitative research has its own limitations. The interpretation of data may not be fully correct, which means there may be some misunderstandings in the research. Quantitative researchers believe that qualitative research is based on the researchers' opinions (Bryman, 2012, p.405). Consequently, researchers need to concern the issue of overcoming bias during research. Moreover, qualitative methods have been criticised, since the research scale is very limited. In a qualitative research, when observations, focus groups or interviews are used, only small numbers of people are included. When it comes to studying the field of teaching and learning foreign languages, similar limitations may occur as well. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), "qualitative researchers tend to work more intensively with fewer participants, and are less concerned about issues of generalizability" (p.163), which means that, for qualitative research in foreign language teaching and learning, a large number of participants cannot be included to generalise the results. As a result, "it is impossible to know how the findings can be generalized to other settings" (Bryman, 2012, p.406). Even though the results of qualitative research may not be easily generalised, the

hypotheses have shown that qualitative studies could nonetheless be seen as significance contributions to research areas (e.g. Brown, J. D., 2003; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Brown, J. D. (2003), for example, suggested that "one of the great strengths often cited for qualitative research is its potential for forming new hypotheses" (p.485). These issues and limitations are important for researchers to attend to in their studies.

Consequently, the benefits and problems of choosing qualitative research need to be carefully considered well in advance before conducting a qualitative research study. In my study, I need to consider these advantages and limitations while designing my research and during my data collection and data analysis process.

3.2 Research methods

After examining the research design, this section includes the research methods I chose to use for my data collection. Semi-structured interview, classroom observation, follow-up interviews after observations and document analysis are the methods which I used, which will be further investigated in the section.

3.2.1 Semi-structured interview

3.2.1.1 Rationale

I chose to use interview as one of the research methods after considering my research aim and research questions. Wellington (2000) claimed that "the style and approach to interviewing will also depend on the purpose of the research" (p.72). One of the purposes of the research is to understand native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs of teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in England, so it is necessary to learn the teachers' thoughts for the research's purpose. Based on this, an interview is a better choice because it is a good method that can be used to hear peoples' voices. Wellington (2000) also stated that "interviewing allows a researcher to investigate and prompt things that we cannot observe. We can probe an interviewee's thoughts, values, prejudices, perceptions, views, feeling and perspectives" (p.71). Researchers can therefore understand the participants' ideas immediately through the interviewing process.

Teachers' beliefs are a challenge for researchers to study, because beliefs are

unobservable. One of the appropriate approaches is interviewing (Canh, 2012, p.91). In my study, I planned to conduct one interview with the Mandarin teacher who could not be observed for their teaching practice in class, while I conducted two interviews with the Mandarin teachers who also took part in the classroom observations in my study. One was before the classroom observation and the other was a follow-up interview after all the classroom observations completed. The interviews helped me to understand the native and non-native Mandarin teachers' general information and their ideas about teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language. For the Mandarin teachers whom I observed, the latter follow-up interview provided an opportunity for me to discuss some issues in my data collection with each teacher.

There are three main interview styles. These are "structured interview", "semi-structured interview" and "unstructured interview" (Wellington, 2000, p.74). Wellington (2000) stated that researchers need to consider the degree of structure when conducting an interview and, as mentioned before, the three degrees are structured, unstructured and semi-structured (p.74). In my research, I decided to use the semi-structured interview method in order to conduct my study, because a semi-structured interview is less formal than a structured one, and it is more systematic than an unstructured interview. It may help the interviewer get results during the interview process and it may make the participants feel less stressed during the interviewing process as well. Wellington (2000) agreed that the semi-structured interview "will overcome the problems inherent in the (unstructured interview) but avoid the inflexibility of the structured interview" (p.74). Cohen and Manion (1980) also indicate that, in a semi-structured interview, "the interviewer may have a number of key issues which she raises in conversational style instead of having a set questionnaire" (p.271). In the process of a semi-structured interview, although it includes interview guidance between the participants and the researcher, it also offers chances for interviewees to express their ideas in a relatively comfortable environment (Wellington, 2000, p.74). Mackey and Gass (2005) suggest that, a semi-structured interview is suitable for qualitative researches in understanding foreign language teaching and learning, because it could have "the freedom to digress and probe for more information", although "a list of interview questions was used as a guide [for semi-structured interview]" (p.173). This approach also encourages participants to talk about other issues during the interview. Even though the data may

seem irrelevant to the topic sometimes, researchers may find some unexpected results from the conversation. As a result, I used semi-structured interviews in my research.

3.2.1.2 Advantages and limitations

The main advantage of an interview in educational research is to let people talk. Researchers, however, are the people who can facilitate participants' voices being heard by others. This kind of relationship between the interviewer and interviewees cannot be established through questionnaires or observations. Wellington (2000) indicates that "the researcher's interview's function is to give a person or group of people, a 'voice'. It should provide them with a 'platform', a chance to make their viewpoints heard and eventually read. It offers people, whether they are employers, teachers, young pupils or students, an opportunity to make their perspectives known, i.e. to go public." (p.72). In my study, interview offered opportunities for the Mandarin teachers to express their thoughts and their stories could be shared with other people.

Another advantage of the interview is that it is adaptable to many situations. Bell, J. (1987) suggested that "a major advantage of the interview is its adaptability. A skilful interviewer can follow up on ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings, which the questionnaire can never do" (p.70). For researching issues regarding foreign language teaching and learning in particular, another advantage of the interview is that the results from conducting an interview may not be revealed directly in observations, especially for the participants' thoughts and ideas. Mackey and Gass (2005) claim, for instance, that "interviews can allow researchers to investigate phenomena that are not directly observable, such as learners' self-reported perceptions or attitudes" (p.173). Finally, if the participants could not adapt to other research methods such as focus groups, observation or questionnaires, then an interview may benefit the data collection process in order to get rich data, since the interviewees and researchers could communicate with each other and participants may be more willing to talk, rather than to write down their answers. And it is also much easier to conduct the interview in the interviewee's first language, in order to make them feel comfortable. This is particularly the case when compared to other research methods, which allow the participants to provide rich data and more information (Mackey & Gass, 2005, pp.173-174). By using semi-structured interviews in my study, I could interview the native Mandarin teachers in Mandarin in

order to make them feel that sharing their views about the topic during the interview process was easier, so that I could get more information for further analysis.

There are, however, some problems with this method. One of them is the issue of time. Bell, J. (1987) claimed that "interviews are time-consuming, and so in a 100-hour project you will be able to interview only a relatively small number of people" (p.70). An interview plan and a time schedule were therefore made before carrying out the research. There were not too many participants in my study after the participant recruitment took place. Another problem was that researchers cannot always avoid bias, both in the process of interviewing and in interpreting the data (e.g. Bell, J., 1987; Borg, 2006; Hall & Rist, 1999; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Bell, J. (1987) indicates, for instance, that "it is a highly subjective technique and therefore there is always the danger of bias" (p.70). Hall and Rist (1999) also suggested that one of the limitations of the interview method is that, sometimes when conducting interviews, researchers may include "selective recall, self-delusion, perceptual distortions, memory loss from the respondent, and subjectivity in the researcher's recording and interpreting of the data" (pp. 297-298). Researchers therefore need to try to avoid personal feelings and be relatively objective when analysing data. In my study, my previous teaching experience could be considered problematic, especially while I conducted the interviews with the native and non-native Mandarin teachers. Because of this, I carefully designed the interview questions and avoided questions which may have led to interviewees to give certain answers or have a trend in a certain direction. I also tried to avoid adding too much of my previous experience while asking questions and listening to the Mandarin teachers' response during the interviews. In addition, there is the issue of the responses which the interviewees give to the researcher. Mackey and Gass (2005) point out that interviewees may tend to give the answers they think the researcher(s) may prefer and hide their real views (p.174). This is understandable when doing interviews. In my study, in order to reduce the chance of this happening and encourage the participants to talk about their personal ideas, I designed some questions to check the interviewees' thoughts from a different angle and in a different way. I also used more open questions in order to encourage them to share their stories and views, following the advice of previous researchers (e.g. Mackey & Gass, 2005). Finally, some researchers have also indicated that, in order to get better results from the interview, it is essential to make the participants feel comfortable when

conducting them (e.g. Mackey & Gass, 2005; Wellington, 2000). I followed these suggestions by arranging the interview places based on the interviewees' choices, in locations with which the interviewees were familiar. I also designed "small talk" relating to the participants' personal stories and background information before asking the key questions, because Mackey and Gass (2005) found out that in an interview, researchers could "place the key questions in the middle of the interview, because the interviewee may be nervous in the beginning and tired by the end" (p.175).

As a result, there are advantages to conducting a semi-structured interview to explore native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in my study. Although there are still limitations, I had different ways to deal with them before and during the data collection process.

3.2.2 Classroom observation

3.2.2.1 Rationale

In order to explore Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in class, I needed to understand the situation in Mandarin classrooms in secondary schools from various perspectives. I visited the secondary schools which have a Mandarin curriculum and observed the Mandarin classes after interviewing the Mandarin teachers and getting the permission to visit from the schools and the Mandarin teachers themselves. In a study by Mason (1996), the research method of observation is a way to "involve the researcher[s] immersing [themselves] in a research setting, and systematically observing dimensions of that setting, interactions, relationships, actions, events, and so on, within it" (p. 60). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) also state that the reason for using observation in educational research is that "it offers an investigator the opportunity to gather 'live' data from naturally occurring social situations" (p.456). In my research, I wanted to understand how Mandarin teachers use their pedagogical practices in class through observation. So "in this way [by conduction observation], the researcher can discover what the situation really looks like and avoid depending on second-hand materials" (Cohen et al., 2011, p.456). Observation may also help the researcher discover issues that are not mentioned in interviews. Cohen et al. (2011) explained that "[Observation] enables researchers to discover things that participants might not freely talk about in interview situations, to move perception-

based data (e.g. opinions in interview) and to access personal knowledge" (pp.456-457). During my observation process, I therefore might have collected data regarding the teaching environment of Mandarin classes, the resources that the Mandarin teacher used in these classes, the Mandarin teachers' characteristics, the Mandarin teachers' behaviours (both verbal and non-verbal) and interactions with students and so on. I had an observation layout as guidance before I went to visit the Mandarin teachers' classroom (see Appendix 8).

There are two main types of observation styles: one is "structured observation" and the other is "participant observation" (Cohen et al., 2011, p.458). In my study, I decided to choose participant observation. Cohen et al. (2011) stated that "[participant observation is useful to] observe participants in their natural settings, their everyday social settings and their everyday behaviour" (p.465). In my study, I aimed to understand how Mandarin teachers in secondary schools in England teach Mandarin as a second or foreign language in the classrooms and how these Mandarin teachers perform in class. Using participant observation and observing Mandarin teachers in the natural class setting was therefore suitable. When it came to the level of participation in the participant observation, I chose to be "the observer-as-participant, [which means the researcher] is known as a researcher to the group, and maybe has less extensive contact with the group" (Cohen et al., 2011, p.456). By sitting in the classroom during my observations, I could not avoid meeting the teacher and students, so the teacher may have had to introduce me to the whole class. I tried to reduce to the chance of this happening by joining in the class activities and kept staying in the back, listening and observing the whole teaching process, which could help keep my identity as a researcher. Sometimes, the Mandarin teachers could have asked me to take part in the activities in class, so I stopped my observation. This kind of intersections with my own participation in the observation process were excluded from my data analysis at the latter stage to reduce my influence as a researcher upon the natural teaching and learning process. They were also excluded from the reflection of the analysis of the observation data.

When doing observations to explore the practices of teaching foreign languages in the classroom, researchers may use various ways to note down the key points in each observation by taking field notes, recording or videotaping for data analysis and

further actions, such as the language teachers' and students' actions and interactions, the activities in class and so on (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.175). For the observations in my study, all the secondary schools and Mandarin teachers informed me in advance that I was not allowed to do any recording or videotaping while visiting their school and observing their Mandarin classroom. This is because of child protection policies in the secondary schools. As a result, I could only take field notes when I did my observations in all the schools while sitting in the Mandarin classes.

3.2.2.2 Advantages and limitations

Classroom observation has a few advantages for researchers to carry out their research and collect data (e.g. Bell, J., 2010; Cohen et al., 2011; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Cohen et al. (2011) claim, for instance, that observation "enables researchers … to see things that might otherwise be unconsciously missed, to discover things that participants might not freely talk about in interview situations" (p.456). Bell, J. (2010) also agreed that observation is suitable for the researcher to get data from various aspects because "it can reveal characteristics of groups or individuals which would have been impossible to discover by other means" (Bell, J., 2010, p.191). This advantage remains, particularly in researching foreign language teaching and learning. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), by undertaking observations in the foreign language classroom, researchers could have the chance to investigate a lot of data regarding the teachers' and students' behaviours in the classroom, which might not be fully revealed by other research methods (pp.175-176). Additionally, they pointed out that, by doing the observation in the same context for several times, "the researcher can gain a deeper and more multi-layered understanding of the participants and their context" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, pp.175-176). In my study, I undertook classroom observation after conducting the interview with the Mandarin teachers and this offered me the opportunity to understand their practical teaching practices in the class and to examine whether they had followed through on their thoughts and statements regarding the teaching Mandarin in reality or not, with aspects such as their teaching methods, activities in class and teaching strategies. Moreover, I observed each Mandarin teachers' class several times. This was based on their class schedule, and it provided me with a deep understanding of their teaching practices, the students and the school. Another advantage of observation is that "observation is a highly flexible form of data collection" (Cohen et al., 2011, p.457). The researcher

may therefore get unexpected but interesting information when observing a class. It is the same in my study, the observation was not limited to the specific areas while I stayed in the classroom, although I was guided by the observation layout. Following this idea, I was able to get rich data and unexpected results after classroom observation.

There are, however, some disadvantages that researchers need to pay attention to during their research, as well as some issues that need to be noticed when conducting observations. First of all, the researcher needs to consider bias before and during the observation process. Cohen et al. (2011) pointed out that "many observation situations carry the risk and bias" (p.472). Bell, J. (2010) also had the similar opinion, saying that "solo observers are always in danger of accusations of bias or misinterpretation and particularly if you are researching in your own professional area" (p.192). There are thus two issues that the researchers need to pay attention to for observations: "validity" and "reliability", according to Cohen et al. (2011). In their book, they illustrated that "with regard to the validity of the observation, researchers have to ensure that the indicators of the construct under investigation are fair and operationalized" (Cohen et al., 2011, p.473). And for reliability, "the indicators have to be applied fully, consistently and securely, with no variation in interpretation" (Cohen et al., 2011, p.473). By sitting in the Mandarin classroom, I could not avoid meeting the teacher and students, but as mentioned above, I tried to reduce my impact upon the original teaching process while observing the class, which could help retain my identity as a researcher. Another issue is that the researcher needs to make sure of the aim and focus of the observation, since the observer cannot record everything happening during observation, so the researcher needs to know their interest before conducting the process (Bell, J., 2010, p.196). That's why, in my research, even though my observation was not limited to specific area, I focused on my research layout and tried to concentrate on the data which relevant to my research topic. Finally, the researcher needs to consider the 'Hawthorne effect' (Wellington, 2000) or the 'observer's paradox' (Labov, 1972). This means that when the researcher enters a natural setting as an outsider, the actions and behaviours of the participants and other people in the same context may change (e.g. Fraaenkel & Wallen, 2000; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Patten, 1999; Wellington, 2000). This could cause problems during the observation process "if [the researcher] is making an intervention into a natural

setting" (Wellington, 2000, p.197). In my research, I needed to be aware that my observation may influence the teachers' and the students' behaviour in classes when I entered their classrooms. The Mandarin teachers' behaviour may have changed and the students may have felt nervous or excited when they noticed me in the classroom as an outsider. As such, the students' actions may have also been different. In order to reduce the influence of the 'Hawthorne effect' or the 'observer's paradox', I intended to visit and observe the Mandarin class of each participating Mandarin teacher several times, a process which lasted at least one and a half months. Only one of the Mandarin teachers could be observed for one day and this was due to the school regulations. I observed the other participating Mandarin teachers several times. This could have made both the Mandarin teachers and the students familiar with my presence and, as a result, they could have behaved more naturally during the teaching and learning process.

3.2.3 Follow-up interview after classroom observation

After finishing the classroom observations, follow-up interviews with the participants in these observations is essential, and from previous research, the follow-up interview was about the participants' behaviours and actions in the observation and it served to double check the participants' views and thoughts regarding their behaviour, such as teachers' planning and teaching methods in class (e.g. Basturkmen, Lowen & Ellis, 2004; Erkmen, 2010; Hobbs, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Some researchers pointed out that teachers' views and beliefs may not always be shown in their practical teaching process and in turn, their behaviours in class may not be reflected in their belief systems (e.g. Hobbs, 2007; Woods, 1996).

As a result, undertaking the follow-up interview after classroom observation could help clarify the observation results. In my study, I had short conversations with each of the Mandarin teachers at the end of each observation if I had questions regarding their teaching process during the short follow-up interviews. These questions were about their teaching methods and strategies, as well as teaching activities and events which happened in the classroom, in case the Mandarin teacher may have forgotten them after a longer period of time. I asked about their ideas and reflections on these issues or problems and noted them down. Furthermore, when the observation ended, I conducted a longer follow-up interview with each Mandarin teacher in order to

double check their views and practices about the observations and in order to ask questions about the issues which emerged during the observation process, as well as to seek their ideas and opinions. Doing a follow-up interview after classroom observation also offered me the opportunity to ensure that my observation field notes reflected the Mandarin teachers' actual teaching practices.

3.2.4 Document analysis

Accompanying the methods above, I used the method of document analysis as well. Bell, J. (1987) suggests that document analysis "will be used to supplement information obtained by other methods" (p.53). Since Mandarin teachers' views of the teaching and learning of Mandarin in secondary schools in England have a relationship with the action of both the Chinese and the British government, analysis of the government documents may offer valuable data and can be compared with the practical situation. Mandarin teachers are central to my study, so I tried to get access to the teachers' teaching plans and the textbooks that the teachers used in class with permission from the Mandarin teachers themselves. This could have helped me understand each teacher's views and practice in another angle. I also tried to view the teachers' marking scheme and if possible, the students' marks and exam results, because these data may reflect the teachers' teaching practice as well.

To sum up, in order to explore both the native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs, as well as their pedagogical practices in the classroom, semi-structured interviews and classroom observations are the two main methods, accompanied with the method of follow-up interviews with the Mandarin teachers who had been observed after the classroom observations in the secondary schools. Document analysis can also be used when examining relevant files and documents about government policies, teaching plans and students' exam results if needed.

3.3 Participants and data collection

When the methods used for the data collection in the research have been determined, it is essential to understand the participants and the data selection process. I will focus on the selection of the participants in this section, and briefly introduce the participants' information as well, both the native and non-native Mandarin teachers, as well as the secondary schools recruited in my study. The data collection process

will be examined in the same section.

3.3.1 The method of selecting the participants

When selecting the participants in the research project, there are different ways of selection (e.g. Mackey & Gass, 2005; Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2014; Wellington, 2000). In my study, I decided to use the non-random sampling method (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.122) in order to select the participants, which, in this case, refers to native and non-native Mandarin teachers. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), non-random sampling is frequently used in the research of foreign language teaching and learning (p.122). Furthermore, Mackey and Gass (2005) note that "nonrandom [sampling] includes systematic, convenience, and purposive sampling" (p.122). Based on the scope of my research, I chose to use convenience sampling (e.g. Mackey & Gass, 2005; Wellington, 2000). 'Convenience sampling' means the researcher chooses the participants in the research based on the availability of the participants, such as participants who are accessible or willing to take part in the research (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.122). Teddlie and Yu (2007) also suggested that the advantage of convenience sampling is that participants are conveniently located and can be contacted easily. In my study, although there are many Mandarin teachers in the UK, not all of them were suitable to my research context, because I focused on Mandarin teachers who were teaching Mandarin in secondary schools in England. Using convenience sampling thus seemed more suitable and appropriate in the selection of my participants. The limitation of convenience sampling is that the researchers may have bias in the selection of the participants and the participants chosen may not represent the whole group that the research aims to study (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.122). Researchers thus need to pay attention to these limitations and notice that the research results may not be generalised to the whole group or in other contexts.

As a result, the participants of my study were 31 Mandarin teachers for interviews, including 27 native Mandarin teachers and four non-native Mandarin teachers. There were seven Mandarin teachers (all native Mandarin teachers) from four secondary schools included in the classroom observations and follow-up interviews after observation. I will introduce my participant selection process and the background information of the native and non-native Mandarin teachers, as well as the secondary schools, in the next sections.

3.3.2 Participant selection process

First of all, I conducted a selection process of native and non-native Mandarin teachers who are teaching Mandarin in secondary schools in England. I contacted the Mandarin teachers whom I knew were teaching Mandarin in secondary schools in England and asked them whether they were willing to participate in my study, both in the interviews and in the classroom observations. I explained the aim and the main content of my study and gave them the information sheet of my research for consideration. Some of the Mandarin teachers responded by saying that they were happy to take part in both the interviews and classroom observations and they also offered me some help and advice in contacting their school in order to seek permission for observation, while others only agreed to do the interview but refused the observation due to either their personal preferences or school regulations and policies. During the process of contacting the Mandarin teachers whom I know personally, one of them pointed out that there is an online forum for nearly 75% of the Mandarin teachers in the UK. I sent an email to the online forum, with an explanation of my study, my purpose and my requirements for the participants. Then, I sought their participation in the interview and classroom observation in my study, with the information sheet attached also attached. I received a few responses from the forum after the email had been sent. The Mandarin teachers who responded on the forum were only willing to take part in the interviews, however. When the Mandarin teachers responded that they were happy to participate, I replied to them in order to negotiate a time for the interview and the time for the interview with each teacher was arranged based on their responses. For the Mandarin teachers who permitted me to participate in observations, I negotiated the time(s) for observation(s) after conducting the interview with them. This time was arranged based on the school timetable, their teaching schedule, and their personal preference. After the selection process, I organised all the Mandarin teachers in my study into a chart. Both native and non-native Mandarin teachers were organised with their basic information and interview times, which will be discussed in the next sections. I therefore completed the selection of Mandarin teacher participants from both my personal contacts and the online forum for Mandarin teachers in the UK.

Along with the selection of Mandarin teachers as participants in the interview, I began

to contact the secondary schools I intended to visit. Firstly, I established a key informant in each school. The key informant is a person "who may be the key figure in a piece of qualitative research" (Wellington, 2000, p.73). In my research, a key informant was the key Mandarin teacher in each secondary school. By contacting the key informant, I was able to find interviewees, because even "if only one person is to be interviewed in an organization, e.g. a school, college or company, then it is vitally important to attempt to identify the key informant" (Wellington, 2000, pp.73-74). Then, when the Mandarin teachers (key informant) agreed that their Mandarin class could be observed, I contacted the secondary schools of these Mandarin teachers in order to seek permission for a school visit and classroom observation. I sent an email to each secondary school, explaining the aim and content of my research and also asked about their regulations. I also attached information letters for the school, pupils and parents in the email for their reference. The Mandarin teachers whom I observed helped me make contacts as well during the process. In the end, all the secondary schools of these Mandarin teachers worked in agreed that I could visit and observe the Mandarin class, provided I followed their school rules to enter their school.

Three of the four secondary schools I visited are located in Sheffield, while the other one is located in Manchester. All the schools that were included had Mandarin classes and I was allowed to observe only the Mandarin classes in their schools. In that case, I had to do some travelling to collect my data. I did not mind travelling but I did carefully consider the travel expenses and time involved. When I got the timetables of the Mandarin classes from each secondary school, I also arranged my visits with the Mandarin teachers carefully in order to gather various data, as well as considering other factors, such as school holidays and other times when access may be denied, e.g. during exam periods. As a result, I had a chart of all the secondary schools and Mandarin teachers in each school with the times for observations, which will be described in the next sections.

3.3.3 Native and non-native Mandarin teachers in the study

As mentioned above, in my research, there were 31 Mandarin teachers I interviewed in total, including 27 native Mandarin teachers and four non-native Mandarin teachers. Among the 31 Mandarin teachers, seven of them (four from secondary schools) agreed to participate in classroom observation as well. All of them were native

Mandarin teachers. The teachers I interviewed mainly worked in secondary schools in and around Sheffield, Manchester, London or some other areas in England. For some of the interviewees, the interviews were conducted face-to-face. This was the case if it was easy for me to travel around or their locations were in or close to Sheffield. For the other Mandarin teachers, I did the interviews by Skype or WeChat (a Chinese social media app) since their locations were some distance from Sheffield and it may have been too expensive and time-consuming for me to travel to them. All 31 Mandarin teachers agreed for the interviews to be recorded.

In order to protect the Mandarin teachers' personal information, I gave all the Mandarin teachers codes. 'Teacher N#' refers to native Mandarin teachers without observation, while 'Teacher NO#' refers to native Mandarin teachers with observation. 'Teacher NN#' refers to non-native Mandarin teachers. In each category of the pseudonym for the Mandarin teachers, the number after "Teacher N", "Teacher NO" "Teacher NN" is based on the order of the interview time in each category. "Teacher N1" thus means the first native Mandarin teacher without observation who was interviewed.

Below is the summary of the Mandarin teachers in my studies, including the pseudonyms of each one of the Mandarin teachers, their location, and how I interviewed them (see Table 1). The order of the Mandarin teachers in the chart starts with native Mandarin teachers without observation, then native with observation, and finally non-native Mandarin teachers:

Table 1: Summary of Mandarin teachers

Participant No.	Pseudonym	Location	Interview Access
1	Teacher N1	Sheffield	Face-to-face
2	Teacher N2	London	WeChat
3	Teacher N3	Sheffield	Face-to-face
4	Teacher N4	Sheffield	Face-to-face
5	Teacher N5	Sheffield	Face-to-face
6	Teacher N6	Sheffield	Face-to-face
7	Teacher N7	Sheffield	Face-to-face
8	Teacher N8	Sheffield	Face-to-face
9	Teacher N9	Sheffield	Face-to-face

10	Teacher N10	Sheffield	Face-to-face
11	Teacher N11	Sheffield	Face-to-face
12	Teacher N12	Greater London	Skype
13	Teacher N13	Greater London	Skype
14	Teacher N14	Sheffield	Face-to-face
15	Teacher N15	Greater London	Skype
16	Teacher N16	Sheffield	Face-to-face
17	Teacher N17	Sheffield	Face-to-face
18	Teacher N18	Greater London	Skype
19	Teacher N19	Oxford	WeChat
20	Teacher N20	Sheffield	Face-to-face
21	Teacher NO1	Sheffield	Face-to-face
22	Teacher NO2	Sheffield	Face-to-face
23	Teacher NO3	Sheffield	Face-to-face
24	Teacher NO4	Sheffield	Face-to-face
25	Teacher NO5	Greater Manchester	Face-to-face
26	Teacher NO6	Sheffield	Face-to-face
27	Teacher NO7	Sheffield	Face-to-face
28	Teacher NN1	Greater London	Skype
29	Teacher NN2	Greater London	Skype
30	Teacher NN3	Greater London	Skype
31	Teacher NN4	Manchester	Face-to-face

3.3.4 Secondary schools in the study

As discussed above, there are four secondary schools that I included in the study, which gave me permission to observe their Mandarin classes. I named the schools based on the order of my visits, and they thus became School A, School B, School C, and School D. Schools A, B, and D are located in Sheffield, while School C is located in Greater Manchester. For the three schools in Sheffield, I visited each one of these schools for several weeks and they all had two Mandarin teachers in each school. For School C, however, there was only one Mandarin teacher there and I could only visit and do the observation in this school for one day due to school regulations. I thus negotiated with the Mandarin teacher, Teacher NO5, and chose a day which had Mandarin classes for the whole day.

I summarised the information of the four schools, along with basic information of classroom observation, in the chart below (see Table 2):

Table 2: Summary of secondary schools

No.	Secondary School	Mandarin Teacher	Location	Observation Length	Mandarin Class Time	Students	Class Length	Class Type
1	School A	Teacher NO1	Sheffield	10 times (Two and a half months)	Every Wednesday Afternoon	Year 11	2 hours	In curriculum
2	School A	Teacher NO2	Sheffield	10 times (Two and a half months)	Every Wednesday Afternoon	Year 11	2 hours	In curriculum
3	School B	Teacher NO3	Sheffield	6 times (One and a half months)	Every Tuesday Afternoon	Six Form	1 hour	After school club
4	School B	Teacher NO4	Sheffield	8 times (Two months)	Every Monday Afternoon	Year 9 to 11	1 hour	After school club
5	School C	Teacher NO5	Greater Manchester	One day	Tuesday All Day	Year 9 & 11	1 hour	In curriculum
6	School D	Teacher NO6	Sheffield	8 times (Two months)	Every Tuesday Morning	Year 7 & 8	50 minutes	In curriculum
7	School D	Teacher NO7	Sheffield	8 times (Two months)	Every Tuesday Morning	Year 7 & 8	50 minutes	In curriculum

3.3.5 Data collection process

After I selected the participants, I conducted my research according to this process: interviewing native and non-native Mandarin teachers, observing seven native Mandarin teachers' classes and interviewing these seven teachers again for follow-up questions after observations.

First, I interviewed all the 31 native and non-native Mandarin teachers in my study and I sent the information sheet to all of them for consent in advance. Before each interview started, I reminded them of the aim of my study and the relevant ethical issues, then asked them to sign the participant consent form with me. After that, the interview began and I had my interview questions with me during the interview. I mainly asked them questions regarding their cultural background, educational background, previous learning and teaching experiences, general information about their classes and students, teaching aims and goals, their ideas about teaching Mandarin in the UK, the teaching strategies in their classes, problems they may face

and other areas to be defined e.g. during the semi-structured interview process (see Appendix 7). As mentioned above, all the Mandarin teachers agreed to recording during the interview, so I recorded the whole conversation between myself and the Mandarin teacher in each interview. In addition, I used English to interview non-native Mandarin teachers, while Mandarin Chinese was used when interviewing native Mandarin teachers. Each interview lasted between 30-90 minutes. For the Mandarin teachers I intended to observe, this step had to be taken before I went to their secondary schools, because it helped me to understand these teachers' views in advance and also decide what to observe in each class.

Next, I visited the four secondary schools for classroom observations in my study. I collaborated with the seven Mandarin teachers and observed their Mandarin lessons weekly, from six times (one and a half months) to 10 times (two and a half months), except for School C, which was for only one day. During the observation period, it offered me enough time to explore the teaching and learning environment of the Mandarin classes and the secondary schools, the language that the Mandarin teachers and the students used in class, the non-verbal behaviour of the Mandarin teachers, the teaching methods and strategies used, tasks and activities designed in class, the interaction between the Mandarin teachers and the students, the learning outcomes of the students, and so on (see Appendix 8). Since recording or videotaping were not permitted in all the Mandarin classes, writing field notes of each observation was essential for me to record the teaching process. Some researchers have provided advice in doing observation field notes (e.g. Wellington, 2000; Wolfinger, 2002). In my field notes of the observations, I could not note down everything happened in the Mandarin classroom. I therefore followed my observation layout and noted down the essential information and key events happened in the classroom. Since I focused on observing Mandarin teachers and their pedagogical practice in class, I recorded the information relating to the Mandarin teachers in my notes, as well as some aspects of the students in the classroom in relation to the teacher, including the language that the Mandarin teachers and the students used in class, the non-verbal behaviour of the Mandarin teachers (e.g. the gestures, the movement, body language) the teaching methods and strategies, events, tasks and activities designed, students' reactions, the interaction between the Mandarin teachers and the students in class, and so on. At the same time, I tried to get access to the teachers' teaching plans, textbooks, teachers'

marking schemes, and other documents related to the teaching process if possible.

Finally, I conducted the follow-up interviews with the seven Mandarin teachers after the observations. At this stage, I discussed the previous interview and any classroom issues that may have emerged during my observations with the Mandarin teachers. I asked the teachers some questions relating to the interview and observations and I also had the chance to listen to the teachers' comments as well. I also sometimes discussed the main themes and the documents in my study with the teachers.

This whole process was designed so it could provide me with the opportunity to understand the Mandarin teachers' views, beliefs, pedagogical practices, and the relationships between them. The next section concerns the preparation of my data analysis process to explore the themes and findings from the data gathered.

3.4 Data analysis

Issues regarding the data transcription and translation of the data collected will be discussed in this section. Furthermore, the data analysis method and the data analysis process in my study will also be considered in the same section.

3.4.1 Transcription of the data

Transcription after the interviews and follow-up interviews of the native and non-native Mandarin teachers in my study is the first step in analysing the data. It not only means to record all "the literal statements but also non-verbal and paralinguistic communication" (Cohen & Manion, 1980, p.293). I had all the recordings of the interviews and the observation field notes after I finished my data collection. For the interviews, I needed to transcribe the conversation into text in order to answer the research questions. For the observation notes, I also needed to organise and transcribe them into full text in order to make the data clear and manageable.

When transcribing the data, there is no need to note down every word in the interviews and observations and it is the same when doing qualitative research on second language education using interview and observation. Mackey and Gass (2005) claim that when doing transcription of the interviews and observations in researching teaching foreign language, "it is not always the case that every utterance of each

[teacher] on a tape will need to be transcribed. In some cases, only the features of interest for the study are transcribed" (p.222). In my study, I aim to explore the themes and sub-themes emerged from the data which is closely related to my research topic, that is native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views, beliefs and their pedagogical practices in secondary schools in England. It was therefore not necessary to write down every single word from each Mandarin teacher in my study.

As a result, I did the transcription of the interviews in the following process: First, I listened to the whole recording of each Mandarin teacher for the first time and noted down the key information and the time in the recording on a piece of paper while listening for further checks, ignoring information irrelevant to the research topic such as greetings or short personal conversations. Then, I replayed the whole recording and did the transcription based on my previous notes, following my interview questions as shown in Appendix 7. Finally, I double checked the transcriptions in the end by listening to the key points in the interviews. For the observation notes, however, since I was not permitted to do any recordings of the observations as I mentioned in the sections above, I did the transcription of the observations based on the observation notes, following my observation layout (see Appendix 8). I tried to manage to organise the notes in order to make it structured and clear for further analysis.

3.4.2 Translation of the interviews and follow-up interviews
Since I had included both of native and non-native Mandarin teachers who were teaching Mandarin in secondary schools in England, the interviews and follow-up interviews of the native Mandarin teachers in the study took place in Mandarin Chinese. Mandarin was the language that I used when I interviewed the native Mandarin teachers; as a result, they may have expressed their ideas more fluently during the interview process. After finishing the interviews and the data transcription, I translated the conversations into English. The reason why I chose to use Mandarin to interview the native Mandarin teachers is that the participants might feel more comfortable using their first language and it may also help them to express their thoughts and feelings freely. If English had been used in the interviews, the native Mandarin teachers may have felt worried and or less confident since their English might not be good enough for them to explain their ideas. It may also have been difficult for me to collect some of the information I needed in English and cause

misunderstandings between the interviewer and interviewees. Translation of the interview is thus an essential issue that I needed to consider.

One of the problems that researchers may face in the translation of interviews is the lack of equivalent words and phrases between the two languages and the expressions might be different. In order to interpret the interview results correctly, Fujishiro et al. (2010) suggest that researchers can "use conceptual rather than literal translations" (p.197). I followed the advice of previous researchers and tried to translate the meaning of the Chinese text in full. Although some words and expressions may be changed during translation from Mandarin Chinese to English, I have attempted to keep the original meaning of the words when translating and express the correct meanings from the interviewees

In addition, researchers need to eliminate bias and over-interpretation in translation interviews. Wong and Poon (2010) indicate that "the validity of the translation and interpretation is dependent on the purpose and epistemological orientation of the research" (p.154). Misunderstandings of the data thus may emerge and researchers may also interpret the data for certain purposes which may be influenced by personal feelings. As a researcher, I tried to follow the interviewees closely in the transcription process and ensure that the translation was not influenced by my own working experience and interpretation. If some confusion occurred during the translation, I turned back to the interviewees and seek further explanation of their ideas. If time permitted and the participants were available, I also showed the results of the translation to the Mandarin teachers and checked with them.

3.4.3 Data analysis method

After collecting data from the interviews and observations and finishing the data transcription and translation, I chose to use the thematic method to analyse the data. Mackey and Gass (2005) suggested that investigating the emerging themes from the data was one of the ways to code qualitative research. Moreover, the researcher also needs to look back at their research questions and relate the themes emerging from the data to literature already reviewed (p.241). Braun and Clarke (2006) also agree that "thematic analysis [could] be seen as a foundational method for qualitative analysis" (p.77). According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis can be defined as "a

method for identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (p.79). In my study, I aim to explore and examine native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views, beliefs, and their pedagogical practices in Mandarin classrooms. From the thematic method of coding, I want to explore several themes from the interviews, classroom observations and follow-up interviews after observations, in order to discover the findings from the data and draw my conclusions. Thematic analysis is hence suitable because "it minimally organizes and describes your data set in [rich] detail" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.79). Some other researchers regard thematic analysis as a way to enable themes to emerge from data (e.g. Rubin & Rubin, 1996; Singer & Hunter, 1999). As a result, the researcher needs to display the themes in their study.

In order to conduct the thematic analysis, it is important to understand the definition of a 'theme'. Braun and Clarke (2006) define a theme as "something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set" (p.83). They also pointed out that the key themes emerging from the data refer to the themes that are essential to the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.83). It is therefore the researchers' responsibility to decide what constitutes a 'theme' from the data in their study by referring to the research topic and research questions. In my research, I should consider my research aims and the three research questions while doing the thematic analysis in order to find the most relevant themes to the purpose of my research and my research questions.

Braun and Clarke (2006) provided a procedure for conducting thematic analysis in their research. The first step is "familiarising yourself with your data" (p.89), which means to look through the data several times and understand them. Then, the researcher needs to transcribe the data and to generate the codes to construct the themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006, pp.91-92). Finally, when the themes emerge, researchers need to review them and check whether the themes are appropriate or not (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.93). Mackey and Gass (2005) also suggest that when doing thematic analysis in second language research, researchers should consider how to organise the themes that emerge from the data (p.241). I followed the advice of previous research to analyse my data from the interviews, classroom observations, and follow-up interviews after observations. First, I listened to the recordings of the

interviews and follow-up interviews as well as reading through all the observation notes to combine them together. Then, I did the transcription and translation of the data and started to construct several themes in relation to my research questions. After several key themes emerged, I checked the themes with the original data to make sure they were relevant to my research aim and research questions and then organised them coherently.

Finally, a theoretical framework may also be developed after the thematic analysis, which could constitute the researcher's contribution to the research area (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.241). Several key themes emerged in the findings of my study and a final conceptual framework was also developed from the themes. I will display these findings and conceptual framework in the next chapter.

3.4.4 Data analysis process

As discussed above, I did my data analysis within the process: First, I listened to the interview and follow-up interview recordings as well as managing the observation notes. Second, I conducted the transcription and translation of the data in the study. Next, I adapted thematic analysis to do the coding and construct the themes. Finally, rethinking the key themes emerged as the findings were explored, as well as the development of the conceptual framework.

For the data of interviews from the Mandarin teachers, I listened to the whole recording of each Mandarin teacher for the first time and made notes to ensure I had understood the key information from each recording. Then, I replayed the recording and did the transcription according to my notes and my interview questions. In the end, I checked the transcriptions by listening to the interviews again to make sure everything was correct. For the interviews and follow-up interviews with the native Mandarin teachers, I did the translation from Mandarin Chinese to English based on the transcriptions and also the recordings if needed. I occasionally discussed the translation results with the interviewees to ensure I had accurately reflected most of their intentions in the translation process.

On the other hand, for the data of classroom observations from the Mandarin teachers, I managed to organise the observation notes of each classroom observation because I

was not permitted to do any recordings or videotaping during all the observations. In my field notes of all the observations, I could not note down everything that happened in the Mandarin classrooms. I therefore tried to make it structured and clear based on my observation layout, including the key information from each lesson, Mandarin teachers' behaviours, students' reactions, interactions between Mandarin teacher and students, and events that happened in class, as well as examples of conversation between the Mandarin teacher and the students and the activities designed in class. All these notes were organised for the thematic analysis.

Several themes emerged from the data gathered that could be organised as key findings of the study. A conceptual framework could also be developed following this.

3.4.5 Generalisation of the findings

When analysing the data in qualitative research, another issue that needs to be addressed is the generalisation of the findings. As mentioned in the previous sections in this chapter, however, the findings and results from qualitative studies cannot be generalised because of the scale of the research, the number of participants, and the research context (e.g. Bryman, 2012; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Wellington, 2000). As Bryman (2012) claims, researchers cannot generalise qualitative research findings to other contexts (p.406). Wellington (2000) also claims that the results of case studies cannot always be generalised because of sampling (p.98). My study is a qualitative research and case study. Because of the problem of qualitative research findings not being generalisable, as well as problems regarding the limitations in participant numbers in case studies, the findings of my study may not be easily generalised on a large scale or to different contexts.

Nevertheless, as discussed above, the hypotheses of qualitative research could make contributions to the research field (e.g. Brown, J. D., 2003; Mackey & Gass, 2005). On the other hand, some researchers point out that although it is difficult to generalise the findings and results of qualitative research, the results could be transferable to similar research contexts if researchers can describe the context of their study, the participants included, and their data collection and analysis process in their qualitative study (e.g. Cohen et al., 2011; Greenbank, 2003). My research findings and my conceptual framework could thus be adapted by other researchers when they conduct

research in similar contexts, as long as the context of the research, the participants in the study, and the data collection and analysis are clearly defined.

3.5 Research ethics issues

Concerning regarding the research design, the research approaches, the research methods, participants, data collection and data analysis, it is also important to understand the ethical issues in the research before conducting the study. According to Bell, J. (2010), before researchers conduct a research project, it is important for them to get the permission from the university, the department or the institution in which they work (p.44). I will therefore concentrate on the ethical issues in my study in this section and discuss the issues relating to ethical approval as well.

Since my research includes people working in secondary schools in the UK, both the native and non-native Mandarin teachers and the students, research ethics needed to be considered beforehand, since "ethics and morals play an important part both in educational and scientific research" (Wellington, 2000, p.54). Several issues should be considered for ethical reasons and it is essential to state ethics in educational research. Wellington (2000) suggests that "an 'ethic' is a moral principle or a code of conduct which actually governs what people do. It is concerned with the way people act or behave" (p.55). I list several ethical concerns below that I had to address before conducting the research.

First of all, I needed to get permission from the schools, the head teachers, the Mandarin teachers (key informant), the students and their parents before I commenced my field work, especially before conducting the classroom observations. I had to contact the secondary schools and the Mandarin teachers in advance and explain the aim and content of my research to them, accompanied by the information letters to the school, students and parents. I also needed to know the rules and principles of each secondary school I intended to visit beforehand. Secondly, when I conducted the classroom observation, if I needed to videotape or record the teaching process in the class, I had to also seek permission from the head teachers, the Mandarin teachers, the students, and parents. Even if only one of them (i.e. the head teachers, the Mandarin teachers, the students or parents) felt uncomfortable and refused for the recording or the videotaping to take place, I could not use these two

methods to collect data and could only gather data by taking field notes in the classroom while observing the class. In addition, it should also be noted that the participants, mainly the Mandarin teachers, may feel stressed if they know that they are participating in a research project. Thirdly, since the interviews and the follow-up interviews after classroom observations are the research methods in the study, audio recording is used to collect the data. The use of a recorder during the conversation should follow the consent of the participants, however. If the participants had not agreed to be recorded, I could only have taken notes to collect data. What's more, it is essential to get the consent from the participants before doing the interviews and follow-up interviews. I therefore had to provide the Mandarin teachers the information sheet and explain the aims and the process to them in advance. If they agreed to take part, we needed to sign the consent form for participation and it had to be explained that it is acceptable for them to withdraw at any stage. Furthermore, the security of the recordings is another essential concern after finishing the interviews. I put the results in a password- protected computer for which only I knew the password and could access. My supervisor was allowed to access the recordings after getting permission from both the participants and me. Finally, it is also important to ensure the confidentiality of the participants when analysing data, which in this case means both the names of the Mandarin teachers and the secondary schools, in order to protect their personal information and privacy.

After considering the ethical issues in my research, I submitted the ethical approval form to the School of Education in the University of Sheffield in order to seek ethical approval and permission from the department before carrying out the research. I also submitted the information sheet (see Appendix 2), participant consent form (see Appendix 3), information letters to the school, pupils and parents (see Appendix 4 to 6) along with the ethical approval form to the department. I followed the procedure of applying ethical approval for a research study in the university. In the ethical approval form, I explained the issues relating to the aims and objectives of my study, the methodology, the participants and the recruiting process of the participants, participant consent process, and the confidentiality and storage of the data in the form. Moreover, in the information sheet I provided for the participants, I included the information about my study, the aim of my research, and the data collection process. I also stated about the confidentiality of the participants and how to protect of their

privacy and personal information during the process and issues about recording the interviews. In addition, I mentioned that they could withdraw at any time during the study as well. Since there are both native and non-native speakers of English among the participants, both English and Mandarin Chinese versions of the information sheet were provided. The participant consent form was designed to be signed both by the participants and me, when the participants agreed to take part in the study after I informed them the aim and content of my study. Two copies had to be signed by each participant and myself every time we met; one for each participant to keep by themselves for further reference and the other one for me to keep and make a record of. All the signed participant consent forms were kept with me and could only be accessed by myself and my supervisor. Finally, the letters to the school, pupils and parents were written to inform the school, pupils and parents about the content and purpose of my study, especially issues regarding classroom observations in the school, including the videotaping and recording issue, in order to get permission. I also included that if they felt uncomfortable about any aspect of the observation, there would be no visit from me.

As a result, I received the ethical approval letter after I submitted all the documents required (see Appendix 1) and then I began to seek permission from the Mandarin teachers and the schools. The research procedure and data collection process began after I gained the ethical approval letter from the department and I got consent and permission from the participants and the secondary schools.

3.6 Positionality

Learning Mandarin has become popular in recent years. Many British students are curious about China, both its language and its culture. As a Chinese student who is studying in the UK, I am delighted to notice that more and more British people have begun to learn about Chinese culture and language. While doing my master's degree in Sheffield and especially after attending the module about teaching second languages in schools, I began to feel interested about the topic. Then I wrote my master's dissertation which was about teaching Mandarin in a complementary school in Sheffield. During this period, I decided to further my study in Mandarin teaching and learning as a second language, since I found this an interesting area that needs more attention. I therefore chose this topic for my PhD and wanted to investigate

teachers' cognition and practices about teaching and learning Mandarin in secondary schools in the UK.

Furthermore, I had been working as a part-time Mandarin teacher in a supplementary school under the Confucius Institute for nearly one year before deciding to choose this topic. From my observation of other teachers' classes and my own teaching experience in the school, I wanted to explore teachers' views about Mandarin teaching and learning, which may benefit teachers' teaching in class since I also want to improve the quality of my teaching in Mandarin as a teacher myself.

In addition to my identity as a researcher, I am a Chinese national studying in England and a part-time Mandarin teacher working in a supplementary school in England, mainly teaching secondary school students. This positionality provides me with the benefit of being able to understand Mandarin teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices in teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language in England, but may also influence my analysis of the data in my study as a researcher. I therefore need to take advantage of my increased understanding and minimise my bias during and after the data collection process in my research.

3.7 Summary of this chapter

In this chapter, I explored and discussed the methodology of my study. My study is a piece of qualitative research. The reasons for choosing qualitative research, as well as the advantages and limitations, were examined in the first section. In the second section, I explained that semi-structured interview and classroom observations are the main research methods used for collecting data regarding the participating native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views, beliefs, and their pedagogical practices in secondary schools in England. After conducting interviews with the Mandarin teachers in my research and classroom observations in the secondary school classes, follow-up interviews with the Mandarin teachers who had been observed were conducted, while documents relating to the Mandarin teachers' teaching and learning processes were analysed as well. Then, in the third section, the issues regarding the participants in my study were explored, including the native and non-native Mandarin teachers, the secondary schools recruited, and the data collection process. The fourth section considered the issues about data analysis. After data had been gathered, I

transcribed the data from interview recordings and observation notes first and then translated quotes from the native Mandarin teachers in their interviews from Mandarin Chinese to English. Then, I chose to use the method of thematic analysis to explore the themes and sub-themes emerging from the data that related to the Mandarin teachers' views, beliefs, and their pedagogical practices. The findings that emerged from the data will be displayed and discussed in the next chapter in relation to the previous literature and my initial conceptual framework outlined in Chapter 2. Other issues about ethics and researcher positionality were covered in the fifth and sixth sections of this chapter.

Chapter 4 Findings and Discussion

4.0 Chapter introduction

In this chapter, I will present the data collected from the interviews with 31 Mandarin teachers and the observation results from seven teachers in four schools. The data from the follow-up interviews with the seven teachers in the four schools is also included. This chapter is a combination of the findings from my data collection process and the analysis and discussion regarding these findings. I will select the important themes from the Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs and the pedagogical practices that emerged from the data analysis. These selected themes were those that appeared most frequently and the most common themes mentioned by the participants in the interviews and observations. Some of the individual views of the Mandarin teachers in the study have not been included, however. Some sections in this chapter may thus be more descriptive and include more data and findings, while other sections in the chapter may contain more discussion and exploration of the relationships with the previous literature.

The first two sections describe the findings from my interview data about Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs. The first section is the descriptive findings of the shared beliefs of both native and non-native Mandarin teachers, while the second section describes the findings of the different views and beliefs that emerged from the native and non-native teachers' interviews. Then, the third section discusses the factors that influenced the beliefs of the native and non-native Mandarin teachers. The first, second and third sections are related to my first research question:

What are the views and beliefs of Mandarin teachers on teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language in England? What, if any, are the differences between native teachers and non-native teachers?

Moreover, the fourth section contains the descriptive findings of the seven Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in their classroom from my observations. I also try to discuss the relationship between these Mandarin teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices in the same section. The findings and discussion in the fourth section are related to my second research question:

How do Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs impact on their pedagogical practices?

Finally, the fifth section includes the descriptive findings from my observations of the seven Mandarin teachers on student engagement. I will explore the relationships between the students' engagement and the Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in their Mandarin classes. This section on student engagement discusses my third research question:

How do the pedagogical practices in Mandarin classes influence students' learning engagement?

It is also noteworthy that when the Mandarin teachers in my study talk about the term 'Chinese' in their interviews and follow-up interviews and when I quote their words, 'Chinese' refers to Mandarin, the official language, not other Chinese dialects.

4.1 Shared beliefs between native and non-native Mandarin teachers
4.1.0 Presentation
In this section, I will mainly describe the views and beliefs that were shared between the native and non-native Mandarin teachers in my study. From the interviews with the 31 native and non-native Mandarin teachers in secondary schools in England, four key views and beliefs were shared between them, they were:
- Mandarin teachers think that students' interest is the most important aspect of teaching Mandarin in England;
- Students' self-study ability in Mandarin is highly valued by teachers;
- It is important to teach Chinese characters at the beginning of learning Mandarin;
- Mandarin teachers need to focus on the use of Mandarin for students.

In the next few sections, I will examine these four shared beliefs in detail.

4.1.1 The importance of students' interest in Mandarin teaching
From the interviews of the 31 Mandarin teachers, the phrase that was most frequently mentioned by the teachers is 'students' interest'. According to Dörnyei (2000), the definition of motivation is "responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it"

(p.520). Most of the Mandarin teachers in the study held the opinion that students' interests and motivation are the most essential aspect of teaching and learning Mandarin. To these Mandarin teachers, interest was the first step that leads students to learn a subject. Teacher N19's idea is a good example. She said: "It is better to use interest as a leader and it is more efficient. Because when I am in class, I am afraid of seeing students feeling bored."

Most of the teachers agreed that as a Mandarin teacher in a secondary school in England, they needed to motivate their students first. Teacher NN2, for example, said that he wanted his students to be more interested in learning Mandarin. He said: "You want kids to be motivated in any subject really. I would put motivation first". Teacher N16 held a similar idea. She found enthusiasm for learning to be very important. If the students lose interest in learning the language, even if the teacher forces them to learn, the students are not interested and it becomes a passive learning experience.

When be asked what the key element is in a Mandarin class, some teachers said that the class needs to be interesting and fun in order to keep students' attention. Teacher NO5, for example, thought that Chinese classes needed to be fun and "students are very happy to learn". The teachers always wanted to make their classes fun for the students to learn the language.

The reasons for Mandarin teachers regarding students' interest as important were different. Teacher N4 explained that she did not want to add pressure to her students. She said:

> Here [in the UK], I feel that since you have come, I can't make your class time too difficult in the morning, because after all you may have been under great pressure at school. I'm not here to destroy your interest. Of course, you must learn something …but I want to make this thing [which refers to 'learning'] as fun as possible. I think that interest is mainly oriented towards my class.

In other cases, some teachers thought that making classes interesting was the best way to encourage students to go to Mandarin class and learn the language. Teacher N6 said: "Children must first be interested in language…After you make them feel interested, they will go to [Mandarin] class." Teacher NO2 agreed that: "If they [the students] are interested [in the language], they will do their best to learn. Therefore, learning is more active. They will have a great desire for knowledge." Furthermore,

some teachers thought the issue was also related to the sense of cooperation between teachers and students in class. Teacher N17's beliefs about Mandarin teaching were:

> The student's motivation is very important because it is a matter of mutual cooperation. Foreign language teaching, which can achieve great results, of course, should stimulate students' interest in learning, so that they can follow the guidance of the teacher, and then they can read more, write more and practice more, and be able to use this language to communicate more.

Since Mandarin is a second or even a third language for students in secondary schools in England, interest becomes more fundamental. Teacher N9 explained that the reason why she mainly emphasises the cultivation of interest is because she finds that if there is no interest for British students, it is really difficult for them to learn a second or third language. Teacher N10 also agreed with this view and she told me that she has benefited when her students are interested in learning the language. She thought that students' interests and teachers' teaching influenced each other. She felt that if the students were interested, sometimes it gave her more inspiration, then she could think of more interesting things to teach in the next Mandarin classes.

4.1.1.1 Keeping highly motivated students interested

Students learning Mandarin in secondary schools are different in terms of their motivation and interest. In general, some students are motivated before going into the classes, but others may not be (Toshalis & Nakkula, 2012, p.14). According to my interviews, some students who are learning the language are very interested in Mandarin and highly motivated, but others lack interest.

I asked the teachers whose students were highly motivated about the reasons why the students are interested in learning Mandarin, and they shared various stories from their students. Teacher NN3, for example, said she always had the students who were really motivated, either by the language or the culture. Teacher N19's students, however, chose Mandarin because they thought it could benefit their future jobs, so they were willing to improve their Mandarin ability. Teacher N19 explained: "It is actually related to the future development of [the students] themselves. …If you choose a course in high school, the subject will be directly related to the major you want to study in the future." Students in her class were thus highly motivated to learn Mandarin. Tinsley and Board (2014) state that:

> …where pupils were most enthusiastic about learning Chinese, they were already convinced about the value of learning languages in general and saw

languages as important for expanding their horizons and giving them opportunities to visit and find employment in other countries (p.80).

The students' motivation in Teacher N19's case is a good reflection of Tinsley and Board's report.

Teacher N11's students were highly motivated for different reasons. Her students were fascinated by the Chinese characters. She said: "when they learn Chinese, [which refers to Mandarin, the official language], they have an interest in seeing the evolution of those Chinese characters, and then they will…explore some of the novel points, to arouse their interest themselves". Teacher NO3 also shared the reasons for her students choosing Chinese. One reason is because their parents or their grandparents are Chinese. She said: "…one student in our class is like this. He is very good at Chinese, and he is a quarter Chinese. But he still wants to learn Chinese." She also had people wanting to learn more about Chinese culture and understand China in her class and some students who are also influenced by the learning environment.

Teacher N12 found an interesting phenomenon in her highly motivated students, which she shared with me in her interview:

> If [the students] have participated in [some] competitions [in Chinese], they are more likely to continue learning Chinese. We also have a sister school in China and we organise a trip to China every year…People who returned [from the trip to China] had increased confidence and interest. So, these children, no matter what their qualifications or foundations are, you can all obviously feel that their learning is very enthusiastic and they have made remarkable progress.

In her experience, students who had experienced Chinese before learning it or who had travelled to China often had a stronger interest in learning the language.

In terms of students with a strong interest in learning Mandarin, the main issue for these students' teachers is to keep these students interested. According to Ma et al. (2017), one of the strategies to keep students interested in learning Mandarin is to allow the students experience Chinese culture (p.821). In my interviews, the way that Teacher N15 did this was to help the students understand and appreciate Chinese culture, which was a good example. She shared that: "I think culture is important. If you have interest and curiosity for the culture of this country, you will be willing to know more about [the language]."

Apart from experiencing Chinese culture, many teachers in my research had their own other methods to deal with this issue. Teacher NN2, for example, shared his travel experience in China to attract his students' interests. He told me that: "[Last year], I went to China for a month. I was in Beijing. When I came back, I [got my students to] look at the photos. The rivers were frozen [in China]. [The students] they loved [to hear] it [my experience in China]. And I think that helps." Moreover, Teacher N1 used games and activities in class: "there will be some activities, exercises, we will use some of the games. … [The aim] is to try to not to let them feel bored, and then they can learn something."

On the other hand, when the teachers faced students of different ability in the same class, keeping the advanced students' interest was also important. Teacher N12 suggested that:

> In fact, when you have been with them for a while, you know who is learning well, who is not good at learning and who does not speak well. What you can do then is to encourage those who are better or who are interested in learning Chinese and let these feelings continue.

For Teacher N12, it is the teachers' responsibility to deal with different levels of ability and to encourage students who are more interested.

Another interesting point that Teacher N15 mentioned in the interview was her belief that creating a culture for the whole Mandarin class is important for students to retain their enthusiasm. She practiced her ideas in her class and the results sounded positive. She shared a lot of experience with this issue:

> I want to keep students' interested … [I make] an effort to create a class culture that helps them have a sense of pride that "I am a student in the Chinese class", and every student in this class can be shaped in this way. There is a consensus that they can help each other. Each individual has different personalities, but we come here to learn [the language], so we have a common goal. ... I encourage them to mutually assist and support each other as a group. I found this actually helpful for the entire class.

From the above interviews, it can be seen that Mandarin teachers use different strategies to keep students interested when they are highly motivated in class.

4.1.1.2 Motivating students who lack interest

Although some students who are highly motivated, a lot of Mandarin teachers face the problem that other students lack interest in learning Mandarin. From the report by

Tinsley and Board (2014), students' motivation in learning Chinese is a challenge for many Mandarin teachers in the UK (p.91). They used several Chinese teachers' examples to illustrate their ideas. One Chinese teacher working in a local high school said that "pupils in the high school are much less motivated and quickly lose interest" (p.91). Another teacher in their report also said that "Chinese requires double the effort of other languages and some pupils are not prepared for that" (p.91) which leads to a lack of learning interest. In my interviews, the same problem of some students lacking interest appeared in the accounts of some of the Mandarin teachers. This was difficult for these teachers to deal with. Their students are in different situations. Teacher N2, for instance, found it hard to teach Chinese culture in class: "Not every English-speaking student would be interested in some Chinese culture issues, especially some festivals and historical stories, which are especially stressed in TCFL learning." Moreover, Teacher NO6 found it difficult to teach her students, which she thought might be because students in Year 7 and 8 [whom she is teaching] are not mature: "the first thing that comes is the problem of interest…Their cognitive model is not yet fully mature. They will think: 'Wow, so many things [in class] and it's boring'". She said that she still could not find an efficient way to solve this problem at the moment, so what she could do is teach the language based on her students' age. She said that she simplifies everything that needs to be taught, then does a lot of activities in class, and lets her students review the language taught in various ways. She was not very satisfied with her practice in class, however, because the reality of her students is not the same as what she expected and as she mentioned, a lot of interesting and important teaching content could not be taught in her class.

As a result, these Mandarin teachers first have to tackle the issue of motivating their students in class and they take students' motivation as their priority in teaching Mandarin. Teacher N2, for example, thought that the foundation of her class was to motivate her students. She claimed that: "the most important element which facilitates my teaching is that students need to be strongly motivated to learn Mandarin; this will make the class go well and be highly efficient." For Teacher N2, if the students are not motivated, they will not look at anything related to Chinese in their own time at home.

For the non-native teachers, motivating students was also important. Teacher NN2

told me that he was eager to motivate his students to learn the language: "I want to use my Chinese, and I want to motivate the children. They've got this chance that I've never had. We didn't have Chinese when I was at school". Although he was very enthusiastic, the reality seemed challenging for him, however. Moreover, Teacher NN3 also held similar beliefs about the importance of motivating students and she said that: "It is the language teacher's responsibility to encourage [the students]." She also claimed that: "I think if students themselves haven't got enough motivation to learn, the teacher should motivate them. … [If not], they're not going to have success."

Furthermore, Teacher NN4 focused on the decline of students' interest in learning the language and he used his teaching experience as an example. He had experienced students losing interest in his classes:

> The start is usually a 'honeymoon' period. [To the students], Chinese is new and exciting. After a few weeks, people realise that if they want to make serious progress, they have to be able to read and write characters and that requires doing homework and working outside class. ……That's a huge struggle [for them].

Consequently, the problem of how to motivate students' interest in learning Mandarin appears to be a serious issue for many Mandarin teachers in the UK. From my interviews, a lot of Mandarin teachers have made efforts to find solutions to this problem. The methods that they used in their classes will be explored in the next three sections.

4.1.1.3 Meeting students' needs

The interviewed teachers practised various methods for motivating students' interest in learning Mandarin in their classes in England. The first method that some of the teachers mentioned in the interviews was meeting their students' needs in learning the language. Toshalis and Nakkula (2012) state that in secondary schools, every student is different and they need be motivated according to their individual different needs (p.13). Teacher NO1 paid great attention to what her students needed and wanted to learn in class. She claimed that: "I think the needs of my students is the biggest goal, rather than my own design of lesson plans." Teacher N10 regards students' needs as more significant at the beginning of the process of learning Mandarin. She explained that:

> I'm afraid to scare them away, so I teach what they want to learn, what they are initially interested in, like Tai-Chi, using chopsticks etc., and they [the content]

are more cultural. This is because I did not really want to increase the burden on them at the beginning.

As a result, when some of the Mandarin teachers planned and designed their lessons, they often prepared the teaching content according to what their students are interested in and want to learn. Teacher N5 said:

> [The students'] points of interest are related to each individual, and you may need a week or two know them. Probably after a general understanding of the interest for everyone, I will prepare some interesting topics and activities depending on their points of interest.

Teacher N11 is another example. She offered her ideas on meeting students' needs by saying:

> I am more in favour of considering my students' perspectives, understanding what students need, listening to their needs, and then designing courses. When teaching [British students], you may not understand them as much as Chinese students. You also need to know what they think and they will learn more easily… [That's why] I still need to get information and feedback from the students…Some of the reactions your students give you may not be the same as you predict. [For example], sometimes, you may not have thought that something would be a particularly interesting activity, but then they seem to be particularly into it and then can't stop.

Teacher N11 always changed her teaching plans based on her students' feedback and amended her teaching process by examining her students' reactions in class.

4.1.1.4 Building students' confidence

The second method that many of the teachers mentioned was building up their students' confidence in order to motivate their interest. The first strategy that some of them mentioned was to encourage students while teaching, especially when teaching a foreign language. That is because "students are often afraid to speak in a foreign language" as Teacher NN1 said. Teacher NN4 claimed that he usually encourages his students by using lots of praise in class. Teacher N2 also suggested that encouragement was used more with younger students than with high school students in her classes.

Another strategy that some teachers used in making the students feel more confident is increasing their sense of accomplishment. Teacher N12 described her methods thus:

> [I] use interesting ways to meet the child's sense of accomplishment. [For example], when introducing new words, I would ask 'what do you think it might mean?' Maybe they know the two separate Chinese characters in that word, then [I] would ask them 'what do you think this new word means?' So, one thing is to satisfy the child's sense of accomplishment, and I hope to attract

[them] in that way.

Teacher N16 also paid attention to the same issue and she thought that teachers should not compare students with others in their progress: "I think there is a sense of accomplishment and self-confidence in the children, you should encourage them, rather than comparing [them] with others. Otherwise it will damp down their enthusiasm."

Furthermore, Teacher NN4 took his students outside the classroom and asked them to use the language in real life. He thought that this was an efficient method to build up students' confidence: "I bring [the students] to the airport, and the kids work at the café, serving coffee to the Chinese passengers. I [want to] bring [the language] alive in a meaningful way. And if you're actually learning Chinese, now we are here at the cafe to practice in real life. The students are so happy and they won't forget it."

In terms of teaching and learning Mandarin, one particular belief that was raised by some of the teachers is that Mandarin teachers need to give their students an impression that Chinese is not a difficult language for them to learn in order to build up students' confidence in learning Mandarin. Traditionally, Chinese is often regarded as a difficult language for Western people to learn. Ma et al. (2017) state that many researchers hold the opinion that Chinese is a "challenging task for students from both Western countries and Confucian heritage countries (e.g. Japan, Korea and Vietnam)" (p.821). The reason why Chinese is regarded as difficult is because "Chinese is fundamentally different from alphabetic languages in terms of phonology, orthography and morphology" (Shen & Xu, 2015, p.82). For students in the UK, Tinsley and Board's (2014) survey discovered that the majority of students in the UK have the impression that Chinese is not easy to learn and achieve, especially when they compare Chinese with other languages taught in their schools (p.74). They also point out that this impression could be changed after students actually start learning Chinese at school, however:

> …the perception of Chinese as a difficult subject is less marked in learners who are actually studying the subject than those who are not. Where pupils are well-taught and there is sufficient curriculum time available, they derive considerable satisfaction from 'cracking the code'. (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.74)

When talking to students who were currently learning Chinese, these students thought that learning Chinese was the same as other languages such as French and Spanish.

Tinsley and Board (2014) explain that:

> In comparing Chinese and other languages, although pupils felt that with Chinese they were 'learning two languages' because they had to master the characters as well as the sound system, they also recognised (without prompting) that many aspects of Chinese were simpler than French or Spanish. [One student in the survey said:] 'learning Chinese, although certainly a challenge, is not as hard as it seems from the outside.' (p.78)

Mandarin teachers in the UK need to notice, however, that the impression of Chinese being a difficult language may prevent students from choosing to take the language at school. This may reduce the number of students and limit the promotion of teaching and learning Chinese in schools (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.78). As a result, in order to maintain students' interests in learning Mandarin, Ye, L. (2013) claims that Mandarin teachers should "seek to maintain an appropriate balance in the classroom, acknowledging both students' simultaneous enthusiasm for Chinese…and their difficulties in learning to read and write Chinese characters" (p.620).

From the data in my interviews, some teachers echoed the idea of previous studies. For example, Teacher N15 explained her ideas on how to promote students' confidence in learning Mandarin in her classes:

> …originally, they may have a preconceived idea that Chinese is a difficult language, but after they came to school, they now feel that Chinese is as simple as French and German…Because I think kids need confidence. If they think it is too hard for them, they are not interested and they will not do it. Moreover, it is easy to give people a preconceived concept that it is very difficult to speak Chinese. In fact, it is not the case, even if there may be many kinds find the difficulties. But if you always say [Chinese] is difficult [to your students], they will not be very confident…For the students at the beginner level, when they see the students at the advanced level, they know that if they reach that stage, they will be like that. This is also very important for them. They can communicate in Chinese and they will feel: 'Wow, we can communicate with Chinese people'.

Teacher NO2 also shared his thoughts about not giving his students the impression that Mandarin Chinese is hard to achieve: "I always say that you're not teaching the mother tongue, and it is second language teaching, so we need to make it easy. Chinese can be learned and it is not that difficult. We can learn, foreigners can learn."

4.1.1.5 Use of games, activities and competitions in Mandarin classes

The third strategy that emerged in my study is that many Mandarin teachers designed and used various games, activities and competitions in their classes in order to

motivate their students. This strategy echoes the idea in Tinsley and Board's (2014) report, which is mentioned in Chapter 2. In my interviews, most of the teachers believed that using various games, activities and competitions would be helpful to attract their students' attention. They also said that games were a way to check students' learning results. Many teachers said that they have to think of various ideas and use a lot of different games and activities to keep students' interest and motivation to learn Mandarin high, especially in schools where Mandarin is in the compulsory curriculum. The teachers shared many different views and examples in their interviews regarding games and activities. Teacher NN3 said: "I find it's difficult to not use games in my class. So, I like playing games. I create a lot of activities and students get more engaged." Teacher N2 also suggested that including certain types of content to attract students' attention is essential. When she taught a lesson, most of her students got involved in the classroom games or activities. N2 also said:

> Interaction methods, classroom games and activities are utilised often to improve atmosphere and strengthen students' learning motivation. For kids, I mean younger students, we would do more games or activities more frequently as they might not concentrate on listening in class more than 20 minutes.

Many other teachers' beliefs about using games and activities on students' motivation were similar to the two teachers above. Teacher N4 said, for example: "I sometimes use some small games in the classroom, for example Bingo. I found out that children actually quite like this method, and I also have some reward methods for them when playing games." Teacher N10 added, "I discovered that when doing activities [in class], everyone will feel very happy." Teacher N14 included role playing in class: "I feel that role-play is quite fun. I have different designs for role-plays that are based on different themes and are quite interesting. Furthermore, I think children like to play games too."

For Teacher N15, games were a part of encouraging students to enjoy the classes:

> In secondary school, I discovered that I actually like to use a variety of games. I find that not every teacher is willing to do a lot of games, but I think for me, I like this, because students feel very happy. … I like to do a variety of games in the classroom. I think this is to make them feel that classes are more fun.

Teacher N16 felt that students enjoyed stories and songs as well as games:

> [I] try to liven up the classroom by using some small games. If you teach the texts, you can make it like a story. I tell stories to encourage the children to cultivate their interest in learning. And they like to go on the stage. We have some Chinese songs too.

Furthermore, in Teacher N17's opinion, games actually promote learning:

[The students] especially like to play games. For example, one person acts in the front and others guess the word. … When teaching children, there are more games and of course more tasks [while teaching]. … They prefer games and they can speak better and faster, and they can also write more Chinese characters [when playing games].

For some of these Mandarin teachers, the aim of using games and activities while teaching is not only to develop the students' motivation, but to encourage the students to learn more when playing games or doing activities as well. Teacher N9's view is a good example and she highlighted that:

I think the most important objection of teaching here [in the UK] is to keep the students interested in learning, and arousing students' interest is more important in my lessons. So, I use some of the games, also some videos to make them aware of how to use these Chinese words, and know how to speak the language. I am more concerned about the combination of games and words. I found some particularly interesting games which are relevant to the language and my students like these games. They learn more quickly [through games].

Even for older students, such as students from Year 11 to Sixth Form, games and activities are still preferred. Some teachers who were teaching these age groups of students had experienced success using this strategy. Teacher NN1 said that even though her Year 11 and 12 students were a little bit older, she still played games with them. Teacher N6 also believed that the older children still prefer games because children are competitive. She added that even if she gives them a sticker as a prize, the students are very happy. In her classroom, there are hence many activities for the students to do.

Additionally, some teachers in my study combined games and activities with competitions, since they considered that most students in secondary schools have a sense of competition among their peers. Teacher NN1 stated that her students could be quite competitive when playing games, while Teacher N16 also claimed that her students all had a sense of competition, especially between boys and girls. They thought, therefore, that competitions in games and activities may encourage students' learning. Other teachers' similar ideas are listed below:

The best teaching techniques and methods for learning the language effectively are short activities, and they are very stimulating. To my students, they are highly competitive. Therefore, they are attracted to competition. (Teacher N12)

Children like to compete. When games and competition are combined, they really learn unconsciously…Sometimes, I just think that they don't need games anymore. But in fact, they never hate games and it can ease the class

atmosphere. (Teacher N15)

> There are groups in my class that compete with each other and then the groups can hold discussions between them. So, I think the key point is still interest. [And] with competition, everyone has the motivation to learn. (Teacher N19)

There are still problems regarding the use of games, activities and competitions in Mandarin classes, however. Some of the teachers mentioned that sometimes if the students get too absorbed in the games, it can be difficult for teachers to stop them and continue teaching the content. Teachers were also concerned that there are not many other effective ways besides games and they worried that students may lose interest and stop coming to class if they stopped using them. This barrier stopped them from teaching the language in depth. As Teacher N3 mentioned: "What I need to consider as the top priority in teaching Mandarin is to motivate my students. Therefore, I have to plan many games and activities."

From the findings above, it can thus be seen that most of the Mandarin teachers believed that students' interest is significant in teaching and learning Mandarin in England. Moreover, they all used various methods to motivate their students and keep their interest.

4.1.2 The importance of students' self-study ability

The second important theme that was similar between native and non-native Mandarin teachers is that it is essential in teaching and learning Mandarin in secondary schools that students possess the ability to self-study. This view is related to students' interest and teachers held the opinion that after the students have developed an interest in learning the language, teachers then need to develop their students' ability to self-study. This ability then contributes to their language learning results. Teacher NN2 claimed: "I figured out that if they're motivated, they can learn on their own a bit more. I put motivation first and if you can motivate the kids, and they can do more [in learning] for you." Teacher N8 also supported this idea and she explained that it benefits both teachers and students: "I think the best way for them to learn is to promote their motivation and then they can actively learn…I think this is also easy for teachers. For students, what they have learned by themselves is actually more solid." Consequently, the Mandarin teachers had various ways to develop their

students' ability to self-study in learning Mandarin.

4.1.2.1 Self-study outside the Mandarin classroom

Some Mandarin teachers in my study suggested that the ability to study independently could not only be trained in class, but could also be developed outside the Mandarin classroom. Teachers thought that learning outside the class played an important role and they had their own methods to encourage their students. Teacher NN2 had created an online Google classroom for his students and he put a lot of extra Chinese resources and materials there for his students to use. These resources were on various interesting topics and they are not compulsory, so the students seemed to feel less pressure and start to enjoy the Google classroom. Teacher NN2 then provided some details regarding his Google classroom:

> If [the students] they are happy, then they will go to the Google classroom. I put all these [materials in it], like YouTube videos, Youku (a Chinese website) videos, and BBC programmes about China. I put them on the Google classroom and I told them 'look, this is optional. if you want to do it, you can, but you don't have to.' [One example is that] they came back and the guys watched a TV show about cooking in China. And then we went to test [cooking one dish]. We bought the stuff and we tried cooking it. Although one boy messed it up and he put vinegar in it instead of soy sauce, and he said it was actually disgusting. But it's still really nice. It is just to motivate them and then they go and study in their own time. And I think it especially goes down well with the younger ones.

From his experience, students really benefited from the google classroom and it made them enjoy experiencing Chinese culture. It may also encourage them to learn Mandarin actively on their own, since they like the language and culture better.

Furthermore, teachers believed that if students are interested in learning Mandarin, they may tend to be active in learning the language after class by themselves. Teacher N8 shared one story as a good example:

> I have a British child and when we taught the Chinese characters for animals, I gave them a few words about different animals, around seven to eight animals. After he came home, he found a few more Chinese characters about other animals himself, which were not taught in class. Then he shared them with me happily in class. So, if they are interested in your course, they really do [more].

Teacher N15's experience was about using songs in the classroom. She believed that in order to make the students learn by themselves, the teachers should provide them with a lot of platforms to explore on their own. She thinks this is very meaningful to both teachers and students. She said:

We have learned some interesting songs in Year 7, and now they are singing them every day after class because they think it's fun. They also share their own YouTube channels about the songs with me and the channels may link to a Chinese movie beside the videos, then they will watch the movie slowly. So, you need to give them a platform, and then [students] can generate greater interest outside of class. This is far more meaningful than what you do in class, and the effect will be even greater…Because you have provided them with a variety of platforms, they will go to see the movies outside class. You give them some extracurricular opportunities, and then they may open a website in China freely, such as Youku. They may find some interesting movies on their own, then they might search for themselves at home and ask me [some questions] after they finish watching them. They are very active in learning new things.

Except for using websites and online resources, some teachers in my interviews also mentioned that holding activities about China and Chinese culture outside class "is a good opportunity for the students to acquire the language themselves unconsciously" (e.g. Teacher N9). One way is to bring non-native students together with students whose first language is Chinese and facilitate friendships. As Xing (2006) states, "for non-native students, every native speaker, not just educated people, was a potential teacher" (p.64). Moreover, she emphasises that listening in the target language is the beginning of foreign language acquisition (Xing, 2006, p.64). In my research, Teacher N15 and Teacher NN2 agreed with this idea and they had already put it into practice. Teacher N15 expressed her view that as a teacher, she needs to improve their interest in Chinese, so she organised a lot of activities. When organising the activities, she always paired non-native students with native-speaking Chinese students to do group work. She provided some examples of activities she had held before and they had all had a positive influence on her students:

For example, ...we annually organise a Chinese cultural exchange and Chinese New Year celebration. My students organise them mainly by themselves…and after my students participate, they're really proud of themselves. ... And we have so many international students [from China] in our school. So, I have selected some students who speak in Mandarin to pair up with our English students in the activities. They will help each other outside class.

Teacher NN2 also used the same strategy. He thought it was a great chance for non-native students "to be exposed to the language in natural settings" while talking with native speakers in cultural activities:

We make dumplings after class one Saturday in every term. There are also some kids from China there at the time. [The students] they're happy. They're learning about Chinese culture and getting closer to their Chinese friends during this activity.

No matter what kind of strategy teachers use, it is essential to assist students to learn

by themselves outside the Mandarin class. Moreover, self-study ability in class is also important according to many Mandarin teachers. This will be discussed in the following sections.

4.1.2.2 Student-centred classroom

In order to develop students' self-study ability in class, some teachers hold the view that the class needs to be student-centred. Erkmen (2010) illustrates that the class that is "student-centred" represents "students that are encouraged to play an active role in the learning process" (p.33). As for the Mandarin teachers in my study, the student-centred classroom is also important, which echoes previous research (e.g. Zhang & Li, 2010). Teacher NO5 regarded the student-centred class as student-oriented and most of the time it is the students who perform as the main body of learning the language. Teacher N6 agreed that Mandarin classes in the UK should be student-centred.

Many of the Mandarin teachers in my research had made various efforts to help their students understand how to find resources and learn by themselves in class. Teacher N13 offered me her approach in cultivating students' self-learning ability in class, which had been successful for her students:

> I started it to teach them how to use the dictionary, then how to use the iPad [to learn]. These things are tools of self-learning. If they have the tools for self-study, and if they are interested, they will not always need me as a teacher. They can consciously learn [themselves]…Learning by yourself is important. For example, when we teach the topic of school, I asked them to introduce their school and find information themselves. After they have searched and learned the names of various courses and the names of different classrooms, they do not need me to teach them. They will find words by themselves.

Teacher N15 shared similar views to Teacher N13 and she thought that the meaning of being a teacher is not to 'give' students the knowledge, because students will ignore and forget the knowledge easily. She said that to her, 'meaningful' teaching means that students can actively learn. When the teacher and students come to a topic, the teacher is happy to share knowledge and pass it to the students and students are willing to accept and explore it:

> In fact, I think the most important thing [in the Mandarin classroom] is the students themselves, that means, they can discuss during the class, they have tried to work by themselves, and they feel that they have learned a lot by the end of each lesson.

Teacher NO1 claimed that especially when teaching speaking and writing in

Mandarin, she hoped that her students would learn independently, so she always trained her students to check the dictionary. She was very proud of this and she explained it in detail:

> My students can all look up the dictionary, and I encourage everyone to bring their own mobile phones to the class. Once they come up, if they ask me: 'How to write the word, teacher?', I always say: 'What about your cell phone? Took out the phone and look up the dictionary.' Almost all my students are like this, [they can] check the dictionary themselves. I think [when teaching writing], if they finish writing this essay independently, it is half of the success, because they completed it themselves, [which means] they know how to write [an essay].

In the interview with Teacher N1, it was clear that she paid a lot of attention to student-centred teaching. In order to be student-centred, she thought that when preparing lessons, the teacher should be clear in their mind that "it is not the teacher's responsibility to provide everything to the students", and the teachers need to try to mobilise the students' own resources. She explained her strategy in detail:

> That is to make the students to ask me questions, so there are always some attractions for the students inside the class. The students themselves are even willing to discover what they want to learn…For example, if you teach one part of the lesson, and then let them discover the other part, or even tell them that there are activities that allow them to find out the answers on their own, I think it is very important.

When asked how she designed activities in class, she continued:

> We often do more group activities in class. After you tell them about the content of the activity and the requirements, I let them discover how they should do it themselves, so your instructions must be very clear. This is very important. Then I separate them into groups, they will negotiate with each other internally to do this activity.

Teacher NO5's experience was slightly different from other teachers, although the main aim was still related to the self-study ability of the students:

> [In our school], we now have a new idea and it is called 'flipping the classroom'. [That is], we try to let the students finish things that they can learn on their own in their homework, such as the study of new words. And then we concentrate on training and practising the language in the classroom. This can save a large part of the class time. Our school encourage students' self-learning ability. There are times when some of the things they can study [themselves], you can just [let them] to do [on their own]. So, the teacher's responsibility is to focus on those things you should explain [to the students], and then give them enough time to practice in the classroom. This is consciously related to the students themselves.

4.1.2.3 Interaction between students in Mandarin classes

As the main body of the student-oriented Mandarin classroom is students themselves, Mandarin teachers in the study also mentioned that the teachers need to create

opportunities for their students to interact with each other and learn from their peers in the classroom. Some teachers asked the students to help each other during the class, for example, which benefits the students considerably. Teacher NN2 had this kind of experience; he stated that he always asks the students with a better grasp of the language to help their classmates so they can all be successful in learning. Teacher N1 similarly asked students to help their peers while doing group work in class. She did not want all the students' attention to be focused on the teacher, so if a student asked her a question, sometimes she would shift the question to another capable student if possible. She suggested that:

> When a student asks a question, the teacher can take the advantage of this opportunity to ask another student: 'Can you answer it?' and then all the students can think about the answer together. It is an examination and promotes the process of thinking …and it can also be a competition among the groups or within the groups.

Other teachers use some of the higher ability students as language models in class so that others can learn from them. Teacher N15, for instance, said that when the students perform well or make progress in learning Mandarin, she always encourages the students to share their learning methods with each other:

> I often encourage the students to share their learning experiences in the classroom, [about] what we have learned in class. Whoever's test score is good, I will let them introduce their learning experience immediately.

Teacher N8, however, allocated students to be her teaching assistant in class in order to let them teach each other:

> I recommend the children to learn the words themselves, then to allow them to teach each other, so it is the best way is to make them understand [the knowledge] on their own. Of course, teachers need to explain the content, if they cannot fully understand. When their foundation is better [than others], they can be named as the teacher's assistants in the classroom, and then teach the rest of the group of the students.

4.1.2.4 Pinyin as a tool

As discussed in Chapter 1, Pinyin is the sound system which was created by Chinese scholars in the 20th century. It helps learners to recognise the pronunciation of Chinese characters in teaching and learning Mandarin. The importance of teaching and learning the Pinyin system in Mandarin has been discussed in previous research (e.g. Gao, 2000; Xing, 2006). Gao (2000) states that Pinyin is an 'aid' for people to learn Mandarin, especially the sound of the characters (p.53). Understanding the

Pinyin system particularly helps non-native students while learning the pronunciation and therefore assists in the speaking of the language (p.74).

Some of the ideas of the Mandarin teachers in my interviews echoed previous studies. They believed that Pinyin is important and is a useful tool for students in England to learn Mandarin in and outside class by themselves (e.g. Teacher NN2, Teacher NN4). They also believed that if the students can grasp Pinyin well, it may improve their self-study ability in learning Mandarin. Teacher N13 suggested, for instance, that: "We must understand [Pinyin]. This is because this is a tool, but it is just a tool." Teacher N14 agreed that Pinyin is just a language aid. Besides, Teacher N16 thought that Pinyin is very important for Chinese language learning and that Mandarin teachers must teach it seriously and start to teach it early.

Teacher N15 stated that Pinyin definitely needs to be taught and that it is used as a tool, which was a similar idea to the teachers above. Then, she continued to explain how she taught pronunciation by using Pinyin in her class:

> Generally, my method is, for example, when teaching the word 'Apple', I will not give them Pinyin, nor the Chinese characters [at first]. I will ask them to listen to [my pronunciation] and follow me [to speak out the word]. So, there is no preconceived idea [of what the Pinyin looks like] …After I introduce this pronunciation, they will establish the correct pronunciation, and then there will be Pinyin and Chinese characters [shown].

She used this method because she thought that every student needed to use Pinyin as a tool to learn Mandarin. Even though students should learn to recognise Chinese characters in the end, it requires a process and having knowledge of Pinyin could make them feel much less frustrated. She said:

> [Pinyin] is like a crutch. It first helps you to walk, and then you can run without it. For example, when I teach a new lesson, I probably would use Pinyin. Then I would try to block the Pinyin during their practice. But when they learn something new [during the lesson], there is a Pinyin for them to build their self-confidence. So, they can speak [the new words] out with more courage. And slowly by the second or the third lesson, these words have been learned and the students have already established this pronunciation, which means the pronunciation has already built up in their own brain, so when they become more confident, Pinyin will be moved away.

It is interesting to notice that Teacher N12 used similar methods when teaching Pinyin in her class. She said:

> I tend not to teach Pinyin first. I just want them to pronounce because the English-speaking children always recognise [Pinyin as] the English alphabet,

and then they may mess them up. So, I'd rather them copy my tone and repeat it again and again. What I mean is to let them listen first and then copy that tone. Then teach them that Pinyin. Because they are native speakers of English, they are affected by their own pronunciation system.

From the data above, it appears that students' self-study ability is valued by many Mandarin teachers, especially for secondary school students. There are different kinds of strategies to develop this ability and teachers made efforts to improve their students' ability in and outside the Mandarin classroom. For teaching Pinyin, however, although most of the Mandarin teachers agreed that teaching Pinyin is essential in Mandarin and it is a useful tool for self-learning, some teachers worry that Pinyin may disturb the learning of Chinese characters, since they believe that teaching and learning Chinese characters is much more important in Mandarin classes. This will be discussed in the next section.

4.1.3 The importance of teaching Chinese characters

The third belief that was shared between native and non-native Mandarin teachers is that they agreed that teaching and learning Chinese characters is especially important in Mandarin: "Characters are an essential aspect of the Chinese language" (Ye, L., 2013, p.619). A lot of researchers found out that in terms of non-native students learning Mandarin, the ability to read, remember and write Chinese characters is always regarded as one of the final goals for both the teachers and the students. Moreover, Chinese characters need to be paid more attention in teaching and learning Mandarin (e.g. Allen, 2008; Gao, 2000; Liu, 1983; Ma et al., 2017; Samimy & Lee, 1997; Tinsley & Board, 2014; Xing, 2006; Ye, L., 2013).

In my study, the Mandarin teachers believed that it is essential to teach Chinese characters because characters are a special characteristic of the language. Teacher N6 mentioned that "there is a separate strategy for teaching Chinese characters, because this is different from other languages and requires special methods." Some of the Mandarin teachers thus emphasised Chinese characters in teaching and learning Mandarin as a foreign language. Teacher NN2, for example, said:

> There is a lot of practice in how to write Chinese characters [in my class]. Writing Chinese characters is interesting. I show why characters are important by looking at the meaning of these characters.

As for native teachers, Teacher N3 also emphasised the importance of writing Chinese character in Mandarin class. Teacher N5 also held the idea that if the students

never learn Chinese characters, they cannot learn the language well:

> For the students, learning Chinese characters may need more effort, but I feel that if they don't learn Chinese characters from the beginning, they are not learning Chinese...So I'm in class, I teach Chinese characters quite often... Sometimes they think Chinese characters are too difficult, then I tell them the culture behind the characters. They are particularly happy to listen and they are very interested. Of course, there are a large number of people who don't learn Chinese characters; some people will say that learning Pinyin is more important, but for me, because there are too many homonyms in Chinese characters, if you only learn Pinyin, you can't learn Chinese well at all.

Teacher N14 agreed with Teacher N5. Furthermore, she also emphasised that it is harmful to the students if teachers only teach Pinyin in class because they will not gain the ability to read Chinese characters:

> My point of view is that in the end, the students still have to learn how to read and write. If you want to teach them Chinese well, then teaching them the Chinese characters [is more important] …So I don't specifically emphasise Pinyin, although I still let them know that there is a Pinyin [for each Chinese character] … I want them to write that character, because in fact, the aim of teaching the characters is mainly to [make them] read more, and I think if the teacher emphasises too much on Pinyin, they may feel 'why should I write characters?' so I do not care how the student remembers the tones [and pronunciations], but they have to know and remember the characters.

Furthermore, Teacher NO6 wanted her students to have the foundation of Chinese characters, even though it is not taught much in her lessons:

> I think letting the children build up a system of Chinese characters in their mind is important, because Chinese characters are fun. If they can learn several Chinese characters every week, they may also find it very interesting. And I think it is necessary to cultivate the children's awareness of Chinese characters. For them, I hope that I could set up a concept of Chinese characters. I did not force them to write and read, but I want them to know that the special part of Chinese is the Chinese characters.

4.1.3.1 Teaching Chinese characters at the beginning

To learn Chinese characters well, Ye, L. (2013) suggests that the "students need to learn three aspects simultaneously: the pronunciation sometimes represented in pinyin using the Roman alphabet, the written form, and the meaning" (p.610). Previous studies have debated whether Chinese characters should be taught and when they should be taught. There are only a few studies related to the topic of teaching and learning Chinese characters in CFL (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.68). Many researchers confirm that Chinese characters should be taught early in teaching and learning Mandarin as a foreign language (e.g. Allen, 2008; Liu, 1983; Ye, L., 2013). Liu (1983), for instance, argues that, "[Chinese] characters should be taught at the very

beginning because the sounds, the syntax, and the characters are interrelated in a higher-level structure and they should be integrated from the first lesson" (p.66). Allen (2008) agrees with this statement and points out that Chinese characters should be taught at the start point of learning Mandarin. As a result, many popular textbooks for teaching and learning Mandarin have begun to include Chinese characters from the first lesson for beginners (p.245). In addition, in Ye, L.'s (2013) research on native and non-native teachers' belief on teaching Chinese characters, most of the teachers in this study thought that Chinese characters need to be taught from the start of the lesson (p.615) and "learning characters from the beginning makes it less difficult … [and] if learning characters is delayed, then students are likely to rely on pinyin" (p.619). Tinsley and Board (2014) also point out that "the learning of Chinese by non-native speakers will be more successful if teaching starts early and includes the learning of characters from the start" (p.68).

From my interviews, the teachers had similar beliefs to the above studies on when to teach the Chinese characters to students. They also thought that characters should be taught at the beginning of the Chinese course. Teacher N12 said: "In my own class, I will ask them to write Chinese characters at the beginning [of Year 7]." Teacher NO1 also claimed that in order to teach Chinese characters at the beginning, she never writes Pinyin on the board and ask her students to adjust to the writing system gradually:

> I got them to write [Chinese characters]. I never wrote Pinyin on the blackboard. I just put those Pinyin on my hand-out. I don't mean not to teach Pinyin, I'm talking about another way [of teaching Pinyin and Chinese characters]. … [The students] must learn Chinese characters at the beginning of the first lesson. I just tell them what the Pinyin is, but I never wrote Pinyin on the blackboard. All [I write on the board] are characters, and forcing them to recognise them.

Like Teacher NO1, Teacher N13 also thought that it could be dangerous if the teacher teaches Pinyin first, because the students may think Pinyin is a language, so she always introduces Chinese characters first: "In the first lesson I will introduce Chinese characters, … and then introduce Pinyin."

As a non-native teacher, Teacher NN3 thought that even though the Chinese characters seem difficult, students would not succeed in learning Mandarin without learning them. Teacher NN3 thus always introduced Chinese characters first:

I would always introduce the Chinese characters initially, and explain [to the students that] the meaning of the characters will change with different sounds and in different tones and how it will change. Then, I ask them to see the different Pinyin links to different written words, because they look very different from English words, … If you have students who wouldn't learn the [Chinese] characters, that was very frustrating. … [and then] reading and writing is massively affected. So, if they have not learned the [Chinese] characters, that was always a problem.

4.1.3.2 Difficulties in teaching Chinese characters

To many teachers and researchers, Chinese characters is the hardest and challenging area for the learners, especially for students whose first languages are Roman alphabetic languages (e.g. Shen, 2004; Xing, 2006)**.** In Samimy and Lee's (1997) study, they found out that over half of the teachers in their study "selected writing (characters) as the most difficult aspect in learning CFL" (p.47). Besides, Ma et al. (2017) mention that Chinese characters are "an enormous challenge" for a lot of students as well (p.821). Compared with students from Asian countries like Japan and Korea, Wu, Gao, Xiao and Zhang (2006) point out that it is more challenging for students from America and Europe to learn to write the characters. Ye, L. (2013) also claims that "Chinese is one of the more challenging languages for English speakers to learn due in large part to the nature of its written orthography" (p.610).

The Mandarin teachers in my study were also facing the same problems and this was a big challenge for them. Teacher N8 illustrated that when Pinyin is included in the textbooks, students tend not to look at the characters and there are no good solutions for this problem. She said:

> The students all have Pinyin on each character in the textbook, and as long as the teacher asks you to read [the text], they can just look at Pinyin. In fact, I don't think they really think much of what characters look like. I guess they don't really look at [the Chinese characters].

Teacher N10 also assumed that: "Teaching Chinese characters has always been a big difficulty in Chinese language teaching. So, for those kids, I think that they look at Chinese characters just like we see Arabic." Teacher N19 agreed with the idea there are difficulties in teaching Chinese characters and it is especially hard in writing:

> Writing [is always the problem], because our Chinese characters are too different from their letters. Under these two language systems, to them, Chinese characters are not very memorable. I think they really don't mind writing. They think it is very funny and they feel like they are drawing [while learning to write Chinese characters] ...You cannot do too much, and there is no tradition here. I

feel that most of them only know Pinyin and only write Pinyin.

As a non-native teacher, Teacher NN4 thought the biggest difference between teaching Chinese and other languages was reading and writing Chinese characters, which is because it can take too long to write new words. He also faced challenges when teaching non-native students:

> I think there is a myth in the West that Chinese is impossible because of the Chinese characters and also the tones. … [For Chinese] characters, I think for secondary school students, they need to know it. For example, when they use their phones to input Chinese characters or be able to use a dictionary. … The challenges of the course are the reading and writing Chinese characters and people say it is very difficult.

4.1.3.3 Strategies for teaching Chinese characters

Since teaching and learning Chinese characters is important but difficult, Mandarin teachers have their own strategies for teaching Chinese characters, which they promote strongly in their classrooms. Tinsley and Board (2014) pointed out that "it was difficult to remember characters and it required constant practice" (p.79). According to the interviews in this study, the teachers used different strategies to teach their students how to remember and write Chinese characters.

Among the non-native Mandarin teachers, Teacher NN2 shared with me that he asked his students to write the characters by hand and avoided typing the characters into the computers:

> I don't use PowerPoint on them because they get fed up with PowerPoint. Every lesson they go into the classroom and they get PowerPoint. They've got PowerPoint everywhere else. So, I avoid it and say 'look, in Chinese, the writing is completely different. ……they need to write, and they need the pen in their hand.

Teacher NN3, however, tried to encourage the students to write, regardless of the stroke order of the Chinese characters. As a non-native teacher, when teaching Chinese characters, she did not force the students to write very accurately: "[even though] the stroke order of the characters is wrong, if my student can write this, I would still be very proud of them."

Native Mandarin teachers, on the other hand, shared other ways of teaching Chinese characters. Teacher N2 mentioned: "All the students liked the way I corrected their Chinese characters, since they regarded mastering Chinese characters as a great achievement." Moreover, Teacher N15 talked about her experience regarding

teaching Chinese characters in detail and she used an interesting activity to attract students' interest in writing characters:

> My teaching method is to put Pinyin as the second step. The first step is to clarify the shape of the characters with some simple pictographs and use these characters to arouse their interest. Many students feel that writing Chinese characters is a huge challenge. I will hold Chinese character writing contests, that is, you don't need to completely remember all the details of this Chinese character. I just let [the students] stand at the back [of the classroom], then ask them to look at this word. If they think they can try [to write] it, they will write it on the blackboard. If you forget, you must go back to look again, then come back and write. It is constantly adding impressions of the Chinese characters in the repeated process. And they do not have pressure. That is, they do not think that they will fail in the end and the classmates can help each other to check [whether the character is] right or wrong, and to impress each other.

Furthermore, Teacher N17 suggested that she usually taught the Chinese characters gradually from the simple ones to the more complex ones, so the students may accept the characters more easily:

> I think that when teaching Pinyin, Chinese characters should be introduced too…It should start with the simple characters of simple strokes, and then the students can learn some words with slightly more complicated strokes as your teaching content progresses. I feel that this is a gradual transition.

To summarise, despite the fact that these Mandarin teachers faced the problem of teaching Chinese characters and they tried different methods to solve it, many of them believed that teaching the students about the way to remember and write Chinese characters is important in teaching Mandarin as a foreign language and it should be taught at the beginning of the learning process.

4.1.4 The importance of using Mandarin after class

The fourth belief shared among native and non-native Mandarin teachers is related to the teaching outcomes of Mandarin. Mandarin teachers in my study believed that if the students could use the language at the end of their learning, it would meet the teachers' aim of teaching Mandarin as a foreign language. The use of the language should happen both in and outside the classroom in teaching and learning Mandarin. Teacher NN2, for example, felt satisfied about his students' outcomes if they could use the words they had learnt in their own sentences in class; he would also feel that his teaching goal had been achieved. Teacher N17's view supported Teacher NN2 and she supplied that she focused on how the students used the language after class as well:

> After they finished their classes, they can go and practice what they have

learned in Chinese [is important]. If they can immediately go to practice, [using the language to] make Chinese friends, go shopping and go to the restaurant, they can make progress quickly.

She thought, therefore, that the most important factor of a Chinese class is that the student has learned something and can use it. Teacher N2, Teacher NO5 and Teacher NN4 also held the view that using the language in the real life is the aim of teaching and learning Mandarin:

> For secondary school students, I believe 'using the language' would be the ultimate aim of language learning instead of just knowing [the language]. I hope they can really use Chinese they have learnt some day in the future. (Teacher N2)

> In the British secondary schools, the most important point of foreign language teaching is the students can be very effective using the language they have learnt. (Teacher NO5)

> [The students need to have] a sense of achievement and progression. When the children they learn a language, they can communicate with the others, and that's the whole point. But they need to have a deep understanding of the culture and when you're teaching Chinese at schools, [you need to] teach them about how to get this involved in [their] life. (Teacher NN4)

4.1.4.1 Create the language environment

Since Mandarin teachers regard the use of Mandarin as the ultimate aim of teaching and learning the language, some of them shared that there are two main approaches to help the students understand how to use the language. One of the strategies is to create a language environment in the Mandarin classes, which echoed previous studies (e.g. Wang & Higgins, 2008). For students in England, it is hard to create a Mandarin-speaking environment outside the classroom, as Teacher N2 said: "Students here do not have a Chinese speaking environment other than Chinese classes, therefore, it is hard for them to master everything steadily." Teacher N16 agreed that it is important for the students to have a language environment in the UK and it is their teachers' responsibility to create it:

> In the learning environment [of England], we have to create this language environment on our own, because what the children usually hear at school is English and communication is basically all in English, so it is very unfavourable to learning Chinese. Therefore, we should actively cooperate with parents to create a learning environment, so that they can be exposed to the language as much as possible. The environment is more conducive to their Chinese learning.

As a result, Mandarin teachers need to create the language environment in the

classroom. Some teachers who created this environment wanted their students to be exposed to Mandarin more in the class by doing listening during teaching. Teacher NN2 mentioned that he mainly did a lot of listening exercises in class. Teacher NN1 agreed that listening to the target language benefits the students' language acquisition, which reflects Krashen's (1981) theory on second language acquisition about 'comprehensible input':

> I think actually hearing Mandarin all the time [in class] is really interesting, because they learn words you don't teach them. [For example], I didn't realise I say 'lovely' [in Chinese] a lot and all of my students they picked up the word 'lovely', and they use it all the time because I did 'teach' it. They just learned it because I say it. I always use Mandarin when I am teaching Mandarin, I think that's really, really important.

Other teachers, on the other hand, emphasised making opportunities for the students to practice speaking Mandarin more in the classroom. Teacher N2 stated, for example, that she placed a lot of attention on speaking practice, since she believed that speaking is essential for language learning. Teacher N3 recommended that when teaching Mandarin, teachers need to use various ways to let the students practise the language. She said: "in my class, over half of the time is for the students to practice speaking. Practice needs to be repeated in different ways, like role-play." Teacher N15 also asked her students to practise a lot themselves in class. Teacher N14 used different scenarios while teaching in order to let the students practise using Mandarin in class:

> In fact, I really like use tasks as the teaching method. That is, I think that there is a goal in each lesson and the goal is the students can use [what they have learnt] later. For example, when you teach the lesson of going shopping, the students can play as guests to buy things in the classroom and then practise directly.

Teacher NO4 regarded this issue from a slightly different perspective and she explained that the reason why she made her students practise speaking Mandarin a lot in class is because it is very difficult for the students to use the language after class. She thought that the problem was related to the lack of class time and also the environment in the UK by comparing the different teaching situations in China and in the UK:

> There is only 2 hours for the Mandarin classes in a week here [in England], but there may be 20 hours of classes per week in China. [The students who learn Mandarin as a foreign language in China] can talk in Mandarin after class, and those students will review [the language]. They can go out to practice the language and find the Chinese people to practise after class as well. Here [in England], the students are located in their own native language environment, so expect all the exercises in the classroom, [they seldom have other opportunities to use Mandarin]. So, after I came here, I talk to them in Mandarin as much as

possible, this is to let them practise speaking Chinese in the classroom. Because after class, they may not have the opportunity to speak [Mandarin].

4.1.4.2 Speaking Mandarin in class

The second approach that some teachers mentioned in their interviews is that they need to speak Mandarin to their students in class while teaching in order to perform as a model to the students. The students may thus get used to hearing and speaking Mandarin gradually in class and it helps the students to understand how to use Mandarin.

For native Mandarin teachers, some teachers tried to use more Mandarin in class. Teacher N2 claimed, for instance, that although it is not realistic to teach the class totally in Chinese, since students here are at the very beginning level, she tried to speak Mandarin to her students as much as possible in class. Teacher N12 supported the idea that Mandarin teachers need to increase their use of Chinese in the classroom so that the students gradually become accustomed to listening to Chinese. Teacher N15 added that if teachers use more Mandarin in class, students may feel less scared about speaking the language and they will also try speak more themselves:

> I think it is very necessary to insist on speaking Chinese, that is, if you try to say more, the students they will try to speak as much as possible. If they do not understand [your words], you can point to some things, do gestures, or probably convey a simple meaning of the words. And then slowly they will get used to [listening to Mandarin in class]. Basically, most of my class is speaking Chinese, and my students can try to speak Chinese as much as possible.

As a non-native teacher, Teacher NN1's view was similar to Teacher N15. She insisted that she always spoke in Mandarin while teaching in the classroom and she also collected students' feedback on how her students feel when Mandarin is frequently used in class:

> The students are a little bit scared to start with [listening to Mandarin], so at the end of each class, I always spend the last two or three minutes talking to them in English. Just asking them: 'did you understand?' 'did you like it?' It is difficult, but it is fun and it is better than teaching [the language] in English.

Additionally, she thought that in a Mandarin class, the teachers should be speaking Mandarin and the students should be speaking Mandarin. The students should also be reading and listening to Mandarin, she said, adding: "I want to see as little English as possible."

The Mandarin teachers here believed that in teaching Mandarin as a foreign language,

it is important to ensure that students can actually use the language after learning. Creating a language environment and using Mandarin more frequently while teaching are two useful approaches.

To sum up, in my study, four beliefs were shared between native and non-native Mandarin teachers regarding teaching and learning Mandarin in secondary schools in England. The first belief is that Mandarin teachers think students' interest is the most important aspect of teaching Mandarin in England. They therefore need to keep the interest of highly motivated students and motivate other students in various ways, such as meeting students' needs, building up students' confidence, and using games, activities, and competitions during class. Secondly, Mandarin teachers valued students' ability to self-study in Mandarin. They thought that this ability could be developed outside the classroom and it could also be trained in student-centred teaching in the classroom. They valued the interactions between students on their own in the class and also treated teaching Pinyin as a tool for self-study. The third belief shared among the teachers is that it is essential to teach Chinese characters and it is better to teach Chinese characters at the beginning of the Mandarin lessons. Although there are difficulties in teaching Chinese characters in class, the Mandarin teachers had their own different methods to promote the teaching of Chinese characters. Finally, the fourth belief is about the importance of using Mandarin after class for their students. In order to achieve better outcomes, they created a language environment in the classroom and they also tried to speak more Mandarin while teaching.

Some views and beliefs that differed between native and non-native Mandarin teachers emerged from the data, however. These different views and beliefs will be presented in the next section.

4.2 Differences in native and non-native Mandarin teachers' beliefs

4.2.0 Presentation

In this section, I will mainly describe the findings about the different views and beliefs between the native and non-native Mandarin teachers that emerged from the 31 interviews. I interviewed 27 native teachers in the study. Compared with the

number of native teachers in the study, however, there are only 4 non-native teachers as I could not reach any others. There is, therefore, an imbalance in the number of native and non-native teachers and the representation of their views and beliefs.

4.2.1 Native Mandarin teachers' beliefs

According to the data, six views and beliefs emerged from the interviews with native Mandarin teachers in my study, they were:

- Native Mandarin teachers may be more professional in teaching Mandarin as native speakers;
- Native Mandarin teachers need to lower their expectations of their students;
- Methods of teaching Mandarin are different from teaching other European languages and various teaching methods could be combined in class;
- It is important for Mandarin teachers to interact with students in class;
- Native Mandarin teachers emphasise students' learning outcomes;
- Native Mandarin teachers emphasise the importance of classroom management in classes.

In the next sections, the six beliefs will be discussed in detail. These six beliefs in particular diverged from the views of non-native Mandarin teachers in the research regarding teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in secondary schools in England.

4.2.1.1 Being 'professional and proud' as a native speaker

The first belief among the native speaking teachers in my study is that some Mandarin teachers regard themselves as more professional as a native speaker in speaking and understanding the language. Previous research has shown that native language teachers may have advantages in terms of their knowledge and language skills about the target language (e.g. Cook, 1999; Stern, Allen & Harley, 1992). Some of the teachers in my interviews echoed the opinion and they thought that as a native Mandarin teacher, knowledge of the language is the fundamental element of a native teacher. Teacher N16 stressed that: "The Chinese language teacher's own knowledge of the language should be rich." Teacher N6's idea supported Teacher N16's and she added that both professional knowledge and experience are important: "Experience is important, but it should follow the [Chinese teacher's] own professional knowledge.

Both of them are [essential] and are complementary."

In addition to their advantages in their knowledge of the language, native Mandarin teachers also claimed that they have the advantage of comprehending Chinese culture better compared with non-native Mandarin teachers. Xing (2006) states that "native speakers of any given language …know the culture and understand the society in which they live" (p.238). This is particularly valued by native Mandarin teachers who are teaching Mandarin as a foreign language outside China. In Ye, W.'s (2017) study, native Mandarin teachers insisted that "the dissemination of Chinese language and culture enhanced [native Chinese teachers'] understanding and appreciation of their own culture" (p.65) and many teachers in the survey supported this idea, saying that they feel much prouder of China and its culture after they came to the UK to teach Mandarin. Two of the native Mandarin teachers in my study highly appreciated this view as well. Teacher NO2 asserted that "as Chinese teachers, we have a certain understanding of the Chinese culture. We can not only speak Mandarin, but we have a deep understanding of the Chinese culture as well." Teacher N13 also talked about this issue with enthusiasm and she believed that native Mandarin teachers could not be replaced because of their knowledge of the language and their understanding of the culture:

> What can't the foreign teachers teach? It is our ability as a Chinese teacher to understand Chinese characters. [Chinese teachers also know] how can Chinese characters be remembered by the students…Foreign teachers do not have this ability. They cannot understand Chinese characters and culture to this extent.

It should be highlighted, however, that a native speaker of the target language could not always become a professional native language teacher (e.g. Ellis, 2004). Ellis (2004) also states that some native speakers of the language may not be aware of the correct use of some language features and may not always be able to explain them clearly, since they may only use these language features unconsciously. This is the reason why a native speaker of Mandarin may not always become a good Mandarin teacher, especially for teaching non-native speakers. Teacher N3 supported this perspective and she emphasised that for teaching Mandarin in the UK, it is a risk for native speakers to suppose that they can teach Mandarin just because they can speak the language. Teacher N19 also noticed this issue and she clarified that "a person who can speak this language cannot represent that he or she is a good native Mandarin

teacher." For many native Mandarin teachers, therefore, professional knowledge of the language is very important in becoming a good teacher.

4.2.1.2 Expectations of students in England

The second belief is about native Mandarin teachers' expectations of their students when teaching Mandarin, in relation to understanding the teaching style and students' differences in England.

4.2.1.2.1 Understanding the teaching style in England

The second belief among native Mandarin teachers in this research is that native Mandarin teachers should lower their expectations of the students they teach in England, regarding their language learning progress. First of all, native Mandarin teachers in secondary schools in England need to understand the British teaching style. Katz (1996) claims that "teaching style … affects the way techniques and procedures are applied in the classroom" (p.58). When I asked the teachers about the difference between the teaching style in China and the UK, some of them held the idea that some native Mandarin teachers sometimes tend to be very teacher-centred and are used to teach large classes. This turned out to be one of the main problems that native teachers from China had faced, because many of them had been trained in how to teach university students or adults in China. When they came to the UK, however, some of the native teachers had been allocated to primary or secondary schools and they did not know how to teach young children at first (e.g. Teacher N7, Teacher N17). Teacher N17 also mentioned that: "Schools [in the UK] are different from the schools in China… normally the teaching methods of teaching Chinese in China are very traditional."

Similarly, Teacher N15 shared her experience that some Chinese native teachers she met needed more time to get used to the educational environment and the culture in England, because native teachers may take every event held in the school very seriously, which may be different from the situation in England. She therefore thought that Chinese native teachers should have a more relaxed view about school events.

Consequently, Teacher N15 suggested that when teaching Mandarin, it takes time for native teachers to get used to the education system and teaching style in England:

It takes time [to adapt to the British education system]. If you're from China, it's like you are thrown into a complete 'new world', experiencing new [teaching] rules in England and a very different educational climate here.

In order to understand the teaching style in England, native Mandarin teachers in my interviews suggested that as native teachers, they need to try to adapt to the different educational, teaching and learning culture of secondary schools in England. Teacher N13, for example, noted that native Mandarin teachers need to know the customs of the country and the requirements of the school they are working in. The Chinese teaching style may not be suitable in England sometimes:

[Native Mandarin teachers need to] understand the customs and habits of the local people in England, especially those relating to the children, and the Chinese way [of teaching Mandarin as a second language] is completely infeasible here. And ... the tradition of each school is different too. So as a [native] teacher, you should certainly not use [the methods of] what you are used to and your traditions [in China]. It takes time to understand them.

Teacher N19 added that native teachers also need to get used to the teaching traditions and system of the secondary schools in England. She said:

I think as a Chinese teacher, you need to understand the system of the secondary schools here, including how the students are rewarded and how these rewards and punishments are applied to these students. We cannot adapt our previous teaching experience [here]. For example, Chinese teachers may think that 'I can criticize the students.' But [in the UK], it is not suitable to do it [directly].

Moreover, Teacher N19 continued to explain her idea that native Mandarin teachers need to understand the teaching styles both in China and in England. Otherwise, native Mandarin teachers may face cultural conflicts while teaching:

A good Chinese teacher should be concerned with the UK [conditions], he or she should understand [the teaching style in UK], and also have a solid foundation in Chinese language. It means that you have a very clear understanding of the basic grammar and the language knowledge of Chinese and then [understand] Chinese teaching style and Chinese culture. [These kinds of native teachers will] bring more knowledge to the students. At the same time, he or she must also understand the British teaching style, understand the British education and teaching system, what the Ministry of Education hopes the students to master and to what extent, and then familiarise [themselves] with the methods of teaching management in the school. Although it is teaching a foreign language, [native Mandarin teachers] must adapt to the local environment, the teaching theories and education system of the entire country...Otherwise, you may face many conflicts in your teaching process. Many conflicts are cultural conflicts. [For instance,] you thought that what you have said was good for the students, or it was helpful to them, but actually it was something unacceptable culturally. Schools have regulations for teachers and they need to observe the students' reactions. For example, … it's normal for Chinese teachers to tell a student to work hard. In the UK, however, you can't say it in front of everyone …So you really have to adapt to [the custom].

4.2.1.2.2 Understanding students' differences

Secondly, native Mandarin teachers in secondary schools in England should know their students' different learning abilities well and understand the differences between students in England and in China. Teacher N15 supported that: "in order to be a good Mandarin teacher, understanding your students is very important." Knowing British students well help native Mandarin teachers in various ways when teaching Mandarin in schools. Teacher N2 said: "understanding your students will be very helpful in arousing learners' attention." Teacher N11 thought that it may help the teacher to design the games and activities in class: "[When doing a competition game in class], if you know more about the students, you may have a better understanding of their level and their performance. So, your design of the games probably will match their ability better."

Teacher N1, on the other hand, suggested that it is important to understand the nature of students in secondary schools in England and it benefits the planning of the lessons:

> The students themselves feel that they are very mature, so you can't only give them simple tasks. However, they are not so mature actually, and you cannot treat them as an adult. So, the teacher must be familiar with the students' learning style in this age group, and then arrange suitable activities. The teacher always needs to pay attention to the students.

As a native Mandarin teacher, it is not suitable to compare British students and Chinese students, since students in the two countries are different in their learning habits. Teacher N4 thought that: "I cannot really compare the group of children I teach in England with students in China", as the educational environments in the two countries are not the same. Teacher N16's idea supported Teacher N4's:

> At first, I always compared the children here with Chinese children of the same age, and that caused a lot of pressure to the children [in England]. Later, I gradually changed my mind. The children here could not be compared with children in China.

Native Mandarin teachers, therefore, could not always be too strict. It also takes time for native Mandarin teachers to get to know what to expect from the students here and how British students learn.

Teacher N6, however, focused on the differences between primary and secondary school students in England. She said: "[I]f you go to teach secondary school students, the teaching methods are different from teaching students in primary schools." Furthermore, Teacher N6 mentioned even among students in the same Mandarin class,

the language level of each student may vary, so she divided the students into different groups according to their levels and gave them different tasks to do in class. Teacher N1 had also experienced the same problem and she stated that when native Mandarin teachers have students of different language levels in the same class, the teacher needs to provide them with different tasks. Then she shared her own strategy with me:

> Because every student is different, and what we can currently do to the higher ability children is to give them an additional question in class. For example, I have two questions on that topic and make them translate. Some children can quickly finish in two minutes, and some of the children may need five minutes. Then I will give the quicker students an extra question to translate on the blackboard or let them help their classmates in translation. [The] teacher should always notice every child in the classroom while teaching.

Teacher N8 supported Teacher N1's view on giving different tasks to different levels of students: "For example, when doing a task, I will tell them that 'all of you need to complete the first question, and then if you think you [can do] a little bit better, you can do both questions.'"

In addition, some of the native Mandarin teachers highlighted that as a native Mandarin teacher, it is important to admit that every student is different and Mandarin teachers need to design their teaching content and teaching methods according to their different language abilities. Teacher N20 believed that Mandarin teachers must teach students in accordance with their aptitude:

> For example, I have a student and he is not doing very well in Chinese compared with other students. Therefore, the method of teaching him is totally different from that of other students. I tell him how to write patiently, and ask him to keep practising, so that he can remember the stroke order of each character and know how the Chinese characters should be written. [The teaching strategy] is actually based on the students' ability.

Teacher NO5 also used different teaching methods because the students' ability may vary in different age groups in the school. Moreover, the design of the Mandarin classes differs across year groups:

> All students in the Year 11 who choose learning Chinese are the best students in the school. But now our language department provides the opportunity to all the students from Year 8, 9 and 10 to choose to learn Chinese. Compared with students in Year 11, the ability of the students from Year 8,9 and 10 is uneven. So, I cannot simply emphasise their basic skills like [what I do with] the students in Year 11, otherwise the students will feel that learning Chinese is too boring. I have to put more energy into giving them some simple and vivid things in order to make them notice why it is useful to learn Chinese instead of French or Spanish.

Moreover, Teacher NO1 emphasised that she treated her students in different ways

regarding their different abilities by setting personal learning goals to every student, providing suitable teaching materials based on their language ability, and using different strategies to encourage their learning:

> You must admit that every student is different. I never speak to my students and say that 'I have taught it three times. Why don't you understand?' or 'Other students can understand, but why don't you still understand?' ...Because you must understand that every student is different. Some people can understand after repeating three times, but some people can't understand even after a hundred times. You have to accept your students are not the same...So every time I ask them that 'do you want to take part in the test of HSK, or GCSE, or you do not want to take any tests?' ... Once, a student came to ask me 'teacher, what do you think about my current level of Chinese?' I told him that 'you may only get C with your current level.' He then said: 'I'm very happy to have C.' So I said: 'I'll be a little bit happier if you get a higher score, but if you feel too much pressure about it, C is fine.'

In the end, she summarised that:

> ...a Mandarin teacher has to make sure to understand them [regarding their language ability]. Like I said, some students who are not good at writing, their speaking may be very good; some students are not good at speaking, but their listening and writing may be good enough. So you have to accept your students are not the same, and then depending on the student, the design of the teaching content will be different.

4.2.1.2.3 Lowering expectations of students

As well as understanding the teaching style in England and the students' differences, native Mandarin teacher stated that they may lower their expectations for the students in England according to their situations, because sometimes native teachers may forget that their students are not Chinese and their motivation is not the same as Chinese students. As a result, they may have very high standards in terms of expectations of the learning outcomes students should achieve in learning Mandarin. This may not be very realistic for non-native students, however. Teacher N1 shared, for example, that she had high expectations of her students at the beginning, but these were not suitable for British students. She therefore lowered her standards and adjust to the students' ability:

> After coming to teach in England, I really found out that I cannot overestimate their language level in Mandarin…To the children in England, Mandarin is a completely unique language to experience and is very different from the European languages they are learning at school.

Likewise, Teacher N10 lowered her demands of the students in her Mandarin classes, especially in speaking:

> I think that the demands on [the students] cannot be too high.…If you really ask

for such high requirements, I think they are unlikely to reach [them]… [For speaking], my opinion is that if I can understand what they speak, most Chinese people can, even if they may have a foreign accent. Anyway, you cannot scare people away…I didn't know much about this when I first came here, I expected their ability to be very high. However, I found it difficult because if they do not have any foundation in the language and do not have much time to learn [Mandarin], I think it will be very difficult to push forward…We have to meet their standards or requirements, and we should try to lower our expectations to them; that is, do not scare them away first, and then teach slowly.

As Teacher N10 mentioned, native Mandarin teachers have to teach Mandarin according to the students' context in England by lowering their expectations and also by teaching the language in a much slower pace.

Teacher N14's idea agreed with Teacher N10 and she stated that she had to teach Mandarin slowly and review the teaching content all the time, in order to reinforce the students' memory:

> Children here may easily forget what they have learnt [in the Mandarin lessons] when they come the next week, because they may not be able to review [the teaching content of each lesson], and they cannot experience Chinese after class. So they are less likely to practise. I think the learning speed of British students is slow. For example, after you teach this lesson this week, then the next week you need to review the previous lesson taught first. The review may take half of the class time before you can start a new lesson.

Equally, Teacher N17 believed that the Mandarin teaching process should be slower in England: "The students' progress is much slower than in China…When teaching Mandarin in the UK, the teaching process should be slowed down and teaching requirements need to be lower too." Moreover, Teacher NO4 and Teacher NO7's views were also close to those of the teachers above; they also needed to repeat the teaching content in class because of their students' progress:

> I think the Mandarin teacher cannot teach too much content in one lesson…so I teach slowly to keep them interested. The next lesson I generally review the content of the first lesson so that the students can remember it. (Teacher NO4)

> Their progress is really slow. Based on their progress, the teacher has to adapt to their learning process and repeat [the same content] with them.…sometimes you may discover that their comprehension of the language knowledge was relatively low. If you did not explain the content clearly to them, they could not completely understand it. So, when doing sentence translation, [for example,] you still have to tell him what the meaning of each word is. You also have to correct their wrong sentences over and over again, and tell him the right one. After that they will fully understand. If you do not explain to them clearly, they may not know the meaning of each word and only remember the meaning of the sentence. (Teacher NO7)

For Teacher NO4 and Teacher NO7, students in England felt slow to learn compared

with non-native students learning Mandarin in China, especially compared with the previous non-native students they had taught in China themselves.

Consequently, the second belief held by native Mandarin teachers in secondary schools in England is they need to lower their expectations of their students and slow down the pace of teaching the language. This often came after they had understood the teaching style and students' differences in England.

4.2.1.3 Combining Chinese and British teaching methods

The third belief held by native Mandarin teachers is that methods of teaching Mandarin are different from teaching other European languages and they could combine various teaching methods in class.

4.2.1.3.1 Difference between teaching Mandarin and other languages

Many of the native Mandarin teachers in the interviews emphasised the difference between teaching Mandarin and teaching European languages. Teacher NO5 regarded teaching reading and writing in Mandarin as different from teaching other languages:

> I think these two points are very important [in teaching Mandarin], and you have to give the students enough time to improve. So, I will say this is why teaching Chinese is not the same as teaching other foreign languages. Sometimes, for teaching Chinese, we need to have either a small class size, or a longer time than any other subjects, so as to ensure the quality of Chinese teaching.

In addition, Teacher NO2 claimed that Chinese characters are the key point that make Mandarin teaching different from other languages:

> Because of the special nature of teaching Chinese, [when teaching Chinese characters], it requires the students to follow the handwriting with me. I think this is a very good way to teach them to write strokes and Chinese characters.

Teacher N19 supported the opinion that teaching writing is different and she thought that speaking in Mandarin is also different:

> I found that when teaching Chinese to the native speakers who speak English, it is a completely different language concept to them, especially in speaking and writing. … For the British students, this is a completely different language, so their learning difficulties and obstacles must be much higher than those Chinese students.

On the other hand, Teacher N15 regarded teaching Chinese culture is a big difference:

> Chinese lessons, I think, need to make the students have a sense of the culture that is contained in the language itself. Comparing with other languages there is a different way of teaching Chinese, and then the learning style is certainly not

the same too, so this is the [native Mandarin teachers'] strength.

Moreover, Teacher N13 thought Mandarin teaching has its own special strategies, which is an advantage for native teachers:

> French and Spanish are the traditional foreign languages taught in the UK. But Chinese has many special teaching strategies. So, I think our Chinese teachers should take advantage of these teaching materials and teaching methods.

Teacher N5's views seemed to be a good summary of the native teachers' opinions on the differences between Mandarin and other commonly-taught European languages (which refers to the languages that are more commonly and widely taught in secondary schools in England, such as French, Spanish and German). Teacher N5 believed that teaching Chinese is unique and he divided it into three key differences: Chinese characters, vocabulary, and culture. He therefore needed to use different teaching methods when teaching these areas:

> In fact, teaching Chinese and teaching English are quite different. The first point is about Chinese characters, and it is very different [from English] ... In fact, you need to explain the characters to your students. This is the biggest difference when you are teaching Chinese...You need to spend a lot of energy to teach Chinese characters, because Chinese characters contain a lot of issues, including culture. When I talk about the meaning of Chinese characters, I involve a lot of cultural concepts.

Furthermore, Teacher N5 stated that another difference between teaching Mandarin and other European languages is the language habits. He believed that it is relatively easy for English-speaking students to learn the grammar of Mandarin Chinese because the entire sentence structure is nearly the same. However, the use of the unique sentence patterns may not be the same between English and Mandarin. He suggested that: "from this perspective, there are some problems about the word order in the sentence. You need to make changes according to different people's characteristics when you are teaching." Another point Teacher N5 claimed is that Chinese culture is completely different from other cultures, and it is totally different from Western culture:

> When you are teaching, you need to explain many cultural issues to them. In fact, sometimes foreigners have a big difficulty in understanding Chinese culture. They may ask me 'Why do Chinese people do this?' Because they do not have this concept in their own culture. So you need to use the experience of your life to explain and tell them the meaning and background of the cultural phenomenon. This is also a very important part of teaching [Mandarin].

4.2.1.3.2 Combining the different teaching methods

Although the native Mandarin teachers regarded teaching Mandarin as different from

teaching other European languages, some of the native Mandarin teachers claimed that Mandarin teachers could take the best things from both systems. That is, they could combine teaching methods from both countries to teach Mandarin, because there are some useful methods that native Mandarin teachers could borrow from teaching European languages. This may also work better with the British students. Tinsley and Board (2014) confirm that "active learning methods used for other languages work equally effectively with Chinese and are appreciated by learners" (p.92). In my study, some native teachers' views echoed the previous research and they believed that it is necessary to combine Chinese and British teaching methods. Teacher N19 and Teacher NO2 are two good examples. Teacher N19 learnt from the interactive methods in teaching English as a second language and used it in Mandarin classes in order to develop students' interests:

> It is really necessary to combine Chinese teaching methods with the Western methods. I think the best thing is for me to use [in the Mandarin class] is some of the interactive methods that I have adapted from teaching English, in order to mobilize the atmosphere of the class. …I use some of these interactive teaching methods, and then students develop interest as the starting point.

Teacher NO2 agreed that combining the two different teaching methods is important when teaching Mandarin in England, stating, "There are only a few teaching methods in teaching Mandarin as a foreign language that you can consider. We can learn from the English teaching methods and combine the methods together."

It is not easy for native Mandarin teachers to familiarise themselves with English teaching methods, however. Some teachers suggested that if the native teachers could be provided with more training in English teaching methods, they could then incorporate the teaching methods from both systems in a better way. Although it is very difficult to put into practice, native teachers believed that a mixture of teaching methods from China and England may benefit the teaching and learning of Mandarin in England.

The third belief among native Mandarin teachers in the study is that they think the methods of teaching Mandarin and teaching European languages are different. They also believed, however, that they need to combine the British teaching methods with traditional teaching methods in order to adjust to the teaching and learning environment in England.

4.2.1.4 Interactions between teachers and students in class

As stated above, although most of the Mandarin teachers in the study emphasised the importance of the student-oriented classroom and how it benefits the students' self-study ability in learning Mandarin, many native Mandarin teachers in the interviews still believed that the interactions between teachers and students are also essential when teaching the language in a student-oriented classroom. Some of the teachers stated that their interactions with students in the Mandarin classroom often occurred while teaching. Teacher N19 claimed that her interaction with the students in her class is very strong and sincere and her students have a strong interest in learning by themselves. Teacher N6 also illustrated that she brought a lot of interaction into her classroom. Additionally, Teacher N1 explained her view:

> The students are very active and they are willing to interact with you. In the classroom here, it is necessary to let them become active themselves. Then the teacher mainly plays a role in mobilizing the enthusiasm. Then, we must have an interactive communication. [Otherwise], if you tell them all the things, it is hard to know whether they are willing to learn or not in the end, and what they understand or did not know [during the teaching and learning process].

For the students, some teachers declared that students enjoyed the interactions with them in class more compared with other teaching methods. Teacher N2 held the view that the students may be less interested in grammar correction. She asserted, however, that they like to get involved in classroom interaction and answering questions in forms of competition. Teacher N4 agreed with this idea and she said:

> Interaction in the Chinese classroom should be effective, that is, if the class teacher is just talking [by him or herself] and the children are just listening, in fact you do not know whether they are listening or not. The teacher is a person who can interact with them, and [a person] who can mobilise your children's enthusiasm to tell you more.

Moreover, some stories were shared by the teachers about what kind of interactions they did in their teaching practice. Teacher N6 used a lot of teacher-student interaction regarding teaching new vocabulary and she asked questions to the group of students when introducing new words. She believed this encourages the students to think actively in class:

> When I teach [Mandarin], I try to talk as little as possible and I want to listen to my children talking…I think that although I am a teacher, I am more like a coach or organiser [in the classroom] and when I'm organising these [activities], I want them to do it themselves. I ask them to work as a team, may be in two or four people…You always have to control these kinds of activities in terms of the balance between its entertainment and teaching content. Because sometimes

if there is too much teaching content [in the activity], they may think it is very boring…Let's say, when I introduce a new word, I do not tell them its meaning directly, I will let them discuss [the meaning of the words] with their companions first, and ask them 'what do you think this means?' Then, I will give them a similar word and ask 'do you think there is any difference between the two words?' In fact, most of the time the children are able to find out the answer. If nobody can provide the correct answer, then I will ask other questions…So you have been holding the child's attention, but not just telling them the answer directly.

Additionally, Teacher N7 also used interactive methods when teaching new words and she encouraged her students to ask questions in class. She thought that students in England are more active and take the initiative to communicate with the teacher. As a result, in order to make the students learn Mandarin actively, she allow them to interact more with the teacher. She said: "I let them memorise words in interactive ways. I also encourage some of this mutual competition [in learning Chinese vocabulary]." Teacher N14, on the other hand, considered that teachers should walk around the classroom while teaching to check the students' progress:

The teacher's interaction with the children, the so-called interactive comparison, is more frequent [in my teaching]. Because I think a good teacher should not always stand in the front, and they need to go around each group's table from time to time. The teacher should ask the children questions and ask the children whether they understand it or not [all the time].

Finally, Teacher NO2 offered his ideal teaching process to me and he put the teacher and students' interaction as the main body in the process:

I could notice that they have a very strong self-learning ability and they also liked their own learning methods…In general, [when teaching Mandarin here], it should be like the teacher teaches [the content] for part of the class time, teachers and students interact with each other for part of the time. Then, students could practise between each other. In the end, there is time for the students to ask questions [to the teacher], and also time for teachers to correct the students' errors.

As a result, it can be seen that the fourth belief among the native Mandarin teachers in the research is that they pay more attention to their interactions with the students and that they regard this as a benefit to their teaching process in the classroom.

4.2.1.5 Emphasis on teaching and learning outcomes

The fifth belief of native Mandarin teachers in the study is that they were highly focused on teaching and learning results in Mandarin. Some native Mandarin teachers expressed the importance of teaching and learning results and they paid a lot of attention to them. Teacher N2 always checked whether her students could remember,

understand and recall the content of each class:

> [I consider] if students reach the teaching aims I set in this lesson or not… If they can speak out what they have learnt in this class when they are asked at the end of class or at the beginning of next lesson. If the results are mostly positive, I will regard the class as a relatively good class.

Teacher N17 also emphasised the learning outcomes of her students:

> I still pay more attention to the learning outcomes [of the students]. I hope that they can speak fluently and read the texts. I also hope that they can write the new words correctly after each lesson and can understand some of my questions.

Teacher N19 suggested that in order to get better teaching and learning results, it is better to use Chinese methods for the examinations and inspections.

> It is more effective and it is easier to produce results. When using Chinese assessment methods, their grades were relatively easy to improve, and their interest in learning was also kept. Actually, for the students the best result is that when they finished their lesson, they feel they have learnt a lot.

In order to obtain better teaching and learning outcomes, Teacher N1 and Teacher N15 used various ways to repeat the teaching content in class which helped to improve their students' memory:

> There will be a lot of repetition in my teaching. One of the important things for children to learn is to keep them repeating. We just change the language pattern to repeat it, but make it less boring. If you just ask the students to read after the teacher, they may be tired very soon, and sometimes they may not care what they have read. So when they finish reading, they cannot remember. (Teacher N1)

> [In order to get better results], you must make sure to review the teaching content from time to time, then you will deepen the impression and they will not forget. So I regularly use word cards, and do a variety of [activities]. (Teacher N15)

On the other hand, Teacher NO1 and Teacher NO3 held the idea that doing exercises may help the students' learning outcomes in Mandarin classes. Teacher NO1 focused on the different formats of exercises in grammar, but Teacher NO3 linked these exercises with the students' future exams:

> Students' exercises are more important than anything else, you have to give students the opportunity to do more in class.… As for secondary school, practice and exercises [are frequently used]. For example, if I teach several grammar points, today, then there will be exercises for today's syntax…The students must finish it because this is an exercise. It is very serious. Sometimes when you see them [becoming] tired, I will do the exercise by using handcrafts, such as making a paper fan. I ask them to write down the grammar learned today and fold the paper into the shape of a fan. [The aim of the exercise is] I want them to write down every grammar point and remember all of them. (Teacher NO1)

The main principle of my class is to practise more. There is a lot of practising, combining what the students have learned before together with the exams they are going to take. (Teacher NO3)

In particular, Teacher N15 stated that the small number of students in Mandarin classes may lead to better learning results, since the teacher can pay attention to each student's learning in class:

The number of students in the class is relatively small, you can ensure that your attention to each student is enough and the foundation of the student may be more solid. Each student [in class] can get the teacher's attention, so the study results will be better.

4.2.1.6 Classroom management

The sixth belief among the native Mandarin teachers in my research is that many native Mandarin teachers emphasised discipline in the class and made a lot of effort in classroom management.

When interviewing the non-native teachers, most of the non-native Mandarin teachers in my study claimed that to them, there were few problems about classroom management. Teacher NN1 said: "You don't need to manage their behaviour and I've never really had any problems." The strategy that Teacher NN1 used in classroom management was to give the students some harder activities when they became noisy in class, "so that they never had any problems." In Teacher NN2's class, he neither experienced difficulties in classroom management and he explained that: "[in my class], because there's only twelve of them and they all work hard, there's no discipline problems."

Teacher NN3, on the other hand, admitted that sometimes the students were not very well-disciplined in the class, and how she dealt with this issue was basically teaching those who were listening and leave those who were not paying attention alone. She summarised that: "I have never really had problems with students' behaviour."

On the contrary, to many of the native Mandarin teachers, discipline in the Mandarin class is essential and sometimes they found it hard to manage English students' behaviour. Ye, W. (2017) claims that for many Mandarin teachers in the UK, it is difficult to manage the students' behaviour in class. One of the Mandarin teachers in

Ye, W.'s (2017) research stated that for Mandarin teachers from China, it is a big challenge for them teaching younger children in British schools, although they had received training about classroom management before they came to the UK (p.57).

The native Mandarin teachers' views in my study supported this previous research. Teacher N2, for instance, had problems with classroom management in her class, and there was always another local teacher in the classroom to help her manage the students' behaviour:

> Compared with Chinese students, British students are more active and sometimes it is not necessary to obey the [traditional] teacher-student relationship [in China]. Therefore, the classroom discipline, for me, would be an issue. Fortunately, there is always another teacher in classroom in charge of the whole environment.

Teacher N8 also made a lot of effort in classroom management:

> When we are in class, [I have to remind my students of] classroom discipline many times before the students could calm down and listen to my teaching instructions.

Teachers N9 worried about the classroom discipline in her class and she had not found solutions for it:

> Classroom discipline in my classes must be maintained. I dare not manage them too strictly. However, sometimes I find serious problems with students' behaviour in my class.

Furthermore, Teacher N10 also found it hard to manage class discipline and she worried that her English was not good enough to give instructions for managing students' behaviour:

> [There are] many times that even if I wanted to maintain the discipline, my English is probably not good enough in terms of classroom management instructions. It always affects my teaching.

Teacher N11, on the other hand, emphasised that classroom management is important and suggested that good classroom discipline could benefit the teaching process:

> I think that the class can be very lively, but it must not go beyond the rule. Because when the noise reaches a certain level, the students cannot focus on learning and it affects the teaching process as well.

When the students' behaviours were not very appropriate for the classroom, native Mandarin teachers worried that it would affect the both the teaching process and the students' learning outcomes. Teacher N17 and Teacher N19 provided opinions on this issue. Teacher N17 said that if the students keep talking in the classroom, they may not focus on the teaching content properly:

When teaching children, it is often necessary to find ways to control the order in the classroom. I will say that the first issue in the classroom is discipline…For the issue of classroom management, I still find it difficult, because my students sometimes cannot stop talking in class. They may think of something else except the class content too. Besides, if I ask one student to read a text or answer a question, the other students may do something else.

Teacher N19 also had problems when holding student group discussions in class and she had trouble with the issue of her students not focusing on the discussion topic all the time:

The teacher should be strict in classroom management. If you just be friendly with the students, it will not work. After all, students' behaviour must be managed, so there is a set of management methods.… there is a disciplinary issue when the students are having discussions, they may begin to chat and there are signs of gossiping. So, the teacher has to be strict about it. If you don't keep the discipline, sometimes when I let them discuss in groups, they start chatting.

After coming to the UK, the native Mandarin teachers "had learned a lot about British classroom management and pedagogy during their stay" (Ye, W., 2017, p.57). Some native Mandarin teachers in my interviews also shared their own techniques for classroom management. Teacher N16 admitted that she always set up the rules in class at the beginning, since it is important and useful for both teachers and students and it shows respect to both sides. If a serious behaviour problem occurred, she may ask the parents to come to school:

I have a strong sense of classroom principle and I have my own discipline in class. [I think] if a teacher is talking at the moment, students should listen to the teacher. When a student wants to ask the teacher a question, the teacher will listen too. So we both want to respect each other…Moreover, in the classroom, we must…set up the discipline in the first class. I tell them these principles clearly [in the first lesson] and let them clearly understand. Sometimes if someone accidentally makes a little mistake later, I can point it out to them. If it is a serious behaviour problem, I will call the parents to come and we have student, parents and teacher together to discuss and solve this problem.

Moreover, Teacher NO6 found that it was useful to let the students go out and calm down for a short time when they had behaviour problems:

I am obsessed with classroom discipline and I can't tolerate it when nobody in my class listens to me or keeps talking on their own. So when someone is talking in my class, I will ask them to go out for five minutes to calm down.

To sum up, for these native Mandarin teachers in secondary schools in England, their views and beliefs on teaching Mandarin as a foreign language related to six main areas. First of all, native Mandarin teachers felt proud and professional as native speakers in teaching Mandarin. Secondly, native Mandarin teachers believed that they need to understand the teaching style and students' differences in England. As a result,

they believed they should lower their expectations of their students' language ability and teach Mandarin at a slower pace. The third belief is that the methods of teaching Mandarin are different from teaching other European languages. They found, however, that there are still some good teaching strategies in teaching other languages, so they recommended that native Mandarin teachers could combine these different methods together. Furthermore, the fourth belief identified was that even though the Mandarin classroom could be student-oriented, it was important for the teachers to interact with the students in various ways in the classroom. The fifth belief is that native Mandarin teachers paid attention to the students' learning outcomes in Mandarin and finally, that native Mandarin teachers emphasised the importance of classroom management in their Mandarin classes.

On the other hand, the non-native Mandarin teachers in my study had some different views and beliefs about teaching Mandarin in secondary schools in England. Their beliefs will be discussed in the next section.

4.2.2 Non-native Mandarin teachers' beliefs

According to the data in my research, four views and beliefs emerged from non-native Mandarin teachers that diverged from those of the native teachers. They were:

- Non-native Mandarin teachers are good language models to non-native students;
- Non-native Mandarin teachers believe that methods of teaching Mandarin are similar to those of teaching other foreign languages;
- Non-native Mandarin teachers are more familiar with the British education system and the students' learning styles;
- Language proficiency is still an obstacle for non-native Mandarin teachers.

These four beliefs will be discussed in detail in the next sections.

4.2.2.1 Non-native teachers as a language model

From the interviews with the non-native teachers, the most frequently mentioned word was 'model', which means that the non-native Mandarin teachers saw themselves as models to the British students. According to Medgyes's (1992) research, although the research is about native and non-native English teachers, the situation is similar and Medgyes (1992) states that "only [non-native speaking teachers] can serve as imitable models of the successful learner" (p.346). Then he continued claiming that

"if all language teachers are native speakers the students would reach the conclusion that one has to be born in [that country] to learn to speak [that language]" (Medgyes, 1992 as quoted in Burns, T., 2014, p.10). Llurda (2005) also suggests three advantages of non-native speaker teachers in his book. Two of them are "Non-native speaker teachers provide models of proficient L2 users in action in the classroom; non-native speaker teachers present examples of people who have become successful users" (Llurda, 2005 as quoted in Burns, T., 2014, p.11), which shows that the role of non-native teachers as a language model in class is essential in teaching and learning a second language.

From my interviews, non-native teachers' beliefs agreed with the previous research. There are not many non-native teachers currently teaching Mandarin in England. Teacher NN2 said: "there are not many of us, I mean non-native [Mandarin] teachers in the UK, in England." All the non-native teachers I interviewed claimed, however, that if there is a non-native teacher teaching Mandarin in class, it will give the students the impression that Mandarin is achievable, since they can see a British person speaking this supposedly difficult language. Teacher NN3 talked about her experience as a Mandarin teacher in a summer school held by the British Council. The leader of the school wanted Teacher NN3 to join the team, although Teacher NN3 thought that the students may have preferred native speakers. Teacher NN3 then gave the details of the experience, which is a good example to show the importance of non-native teachers as a language model in Mandarin classes:

> [The leader of the school] said she wanted me because I wasn't Chinese, the students will see a British person who had a mixed background…She [the leader] said: 'You are good role model. You make it possible for the children to think, I can learn Chinese'. If you've got a native speaker, you get the benefit of the knowledge from a native speaker. But she felt that the students didn't feel they could actually learn the language…I've discovered that the students actually like having a person who was born in Britain and who has learned Chinese.

Teacher NN3 also shared her experience from another school and the head of the school supported her as a non-native speaker, which confirmed her view: "[The head of the school] says he is very happy having me on the team because it makes it possible for young children seeing it's a [British] person speaking Chinese and talking with Chinese people. [For the non-native teachers], their tones might not be brilliant, but they realise it's a possible language and the head teacher thinks that's important."

Teacher NN4 also expressed his ideas about non-native teachers as a model in his class. He said: "someone like me will have some advantages, because perhaps I can be seen as a model for the kids like, 'Well, he's got a British face and he can speak Chinese, maybe I can.'" Non-native teachers therefore have an advantage as a language model of Mandarin. All the non-native teachers thought it would benefit the students' learning and make the students think the language is not hard to learn and can be achieved in class.

4.2.2.2 The methods of teaching Mandarin are the same as teaching MFL

The second belief that emerged from the interviews is that they thought the methods of teaching Mandarin are the same as teaching other modern foreign languages (MFL), such as French, Spanish and German. When I asked about the teaching methods they used in Mandarin classes, Teacher NN1 said: "one of the things that people seem to think is that Mandarin is totally different to other languages. I've taught French, you can use nearly all the techniques for all these languages." From Teacher NN1's opinion, it might seem that non-native teachers may not think teaching Mandarin is different from other languages. It is interesting to note, however, that one of the native teachers, Teacher N13, agreed with the idea that non-native teachers can treat Mandarin the same as other languages. She claims that: "many schools in the United Kingdom now prefer to use foreign/non-native teachers who have learned Chinese rather than Hanban teachers. There are many [advantages] for English-speaking teachers in the United Kingdom to teach Chinese, because the classroom is livelier, and they have a lot of games. They all use French and Spanish language teaching methods. They turn [French and Spanish language games] into Chinese language games." Although only two of the teachers mentioned this, it is still an interesting belief about non-native teachers and it also can be examined deeper in the future.

4.2.2.3 Familiarity with the education system and students' learning styles

Another belief that was mentioned by non-native teachers is that they are familiar with the British education system and the students' learning style. This advantage helped them feel close to their students and that they could understand their students much better (e.g. Burns, T., 2014; Tinsley & Board, 2014; Xing, 2016). Llurda (2005) states that one of the advantages of non-native teachers is they "often have more

appropriate training and background" (Llurda, 2005 as quoted in Burns, T., 2014, p. 11). Xing (2006) also agreed that as non-native Mandarin teachers, "it is relatively easy for them and their students to gain mutual understanding because they share the same or similar cultural roots" (p.16). This idea was reflected in the interview with Teacher NN4. When asked about the teaching strategies he used in class, he said: "I'm just trying to use a variety [of methods], like pair work and group work. I've been taught how to teach in this country…I really like task-based learning and I really like as much target language as possible [in class]."

4.2.2.4 Mandarin proficiency as an obstacle

Most of the non-native teachers in this study worried that their language proficiency in Mandarin was not good enough. They had the idea that they could only teach the beginner level or lower levels of students and they thought their pronunciation and writing was poor. Teacher NN4 said, for instance: "I have no formal qualification in Mandarin, but I did HSK level 3. I have lived in Beijing for two and a half years and used Chinese every day…On my placement, I did beginners' Chinese." Teacher NN2 also thought that language proficiency was a problem for him: "My Chinese is not as good as French…I keep going to China every year to practise my Chinese. But for me, I'm always under the impression that my Chinese is not good enough." When teaching Mandarin in class, non-native teachers also have problems such as explaining grammar or phrases. Teacher NN3 faced this problem: "When I was doing my teaching, I often panicked [that] I wouldn't be able to teach grammar correctly. I found that I actually ended up explaining the grammar in an easy way for English learners." From the interviews above, it appears that it is difficult for non-native teachers to achieve high language proficiency in Mandarin in a short time and they regard it as the main problem they need to overcome when they teach Mandarin in class.

To sum up, in this study, non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in teaching Mandarin as a foreign language in secondary schools in England related to four different areas. Firstly, they regarded themselves as good language models when teaching Mandarin to non-native students. Secondly, they thought that the methods of teaching Mandarin were similar to those of teaching other languages. Thirdly, they held the opinion that they are familiar with the British education system and British

students' learning styles. Finally, they still had problems with their Mandarin proficiency and they found this to be an obstacle to them while teaching.

Native and non-native Mandarin teachers in this research both identified their own advantages and problems in teaching Mandarin in England. Some of the Mandarin teachers, both native and non-native, suggested that it was better for Mandarin teachers in England to cooperate in teaching, which may benefit both teachers and students. This issue will be discussed in the next section in detail.

4.2.3 Cooperative teaching in Mandarin classes

According to previous research, Orton (2014) suggests that in order to facilitate students learning Chinese better, "Collaboration between L1 speaker teachers based in China and L1 speaker teachers based outside China, as well as between those two groups and L2 speaker teachers based outside China" (p.524) are recommended. In my interviews, some Mandarin teachers, both native and non-native teachers, had similar ideas regarding cooperative teaching in Mandarin classes. There are two models of teacher cooperation: one is between native and non-native Mandarin teachers and the other one is the cooperation between Hanban teachers and local native Mandarin teachers.

4.2.3.1 Cooperation between native and non-native teachers

One model for Mandarin teachers' collaboration is between native and non-native Mandarin teachers. This was suggested by Teacher NN3, who held the idea that: "second language teachers should understand both the target language and the culture embedded within the target language." The teachers also need to understand the culture in England. Then, she said: "I think for young people, it's good to have someone [non-native teachers] who can relate to them as they are idols, plus have someone [native teachers] who knows as much as they can about the culture [of China] as well … which can be very fascinating."

Teacher NN4, a non-native teacher, also shared his positive experience of working with native teachers. He said:

> We have some great Hanban teachers. There are three of them and they have become good friends of mine. They draw their subjects alive in a way that I couldn't. And I think with the subject of Chinese, you need native teachers like Chinese teachers and you will see people like me. And when the Confucius

classroom works, it can be very successful.

From Teacher NN4's words, it can be seen that he holds positive a view of native and non-native teachers' collaboration because of his own experience.

Furthermore, Teacher N15 regarded collaboration from another angle. She thinks that Mandarin teachers who speak English as their first language have difficulties with their pronunciation, which is still not very accurate, and then they use their 'foreign accent' to teach their students. She was therefore worried about students' pronunciation if there is only one non-native teacher in the classroom. She also praised non-native teachers in class, however, saying that "I believe that they [non-native teachers] are also very hardworking and understand China very well." Then she suggested that: "if you [non-native teacher] take a Chinese diploma and then teach Chinese, teaching beginners is more than enough. But it is certainly a difference in culture." What Teacher N15 preferred was that native teachers teach the knowledge in class, while non-native teachers help to organise the teaching, because she thinks that non-native teachers are more familiar with the UK children, the school situation, and the assessment system, "so they are in control of the classroom, in helping Chinese move smoothly in class." From the interviews, therefore, collaboration between native and non-native teachers seems to benefit Mandarin teaching in classes by taking advantage of both kinds of teachers' strength.

4.2.3.2 Cooperation between local native teachers and Hanban teachers

Another model of teachers' collaboration that was mentioned by the Mandarin teachers is collaboration between local native teachers and Hanban teachers. This kind of collaboration can be seen in Tinsley and Board (2014). They suggest that:

> The presence of native speaker teachers or assistants from China could be more effectively exploited to support classroom teachers… [It] could help to ensure that the benefits both of Chinese native speakers from China and UK-trained and experienced practitioners are fully exploited to benefit learners (p.92).

In my interviews, this idea was only raised by Teacher N15 when I asked about her working experience in her school. As a local native teacher, she had rich experience in joint teaching with Hanban teachers and she commented a lot about her previous experience regarding this issue.

First of all, she expressed that there are some disadvantages of Hanban teachers. She

stated, "Hanban teachers, or teachers assigned from China lack understanding of the UK educational environment." She then admitted, however, that Hanban teachers also have certain advantages:

> …their strength may lie in that they have just come from the country, so they actually know more about the language patterns that are newly emerged, the catchphrases in Mandarin nowadays, or some of the domestic circumstances… [They know] what is popular now, what is fun, and children like it. Moreover, Hanban teachers have also been carefully selected. The quality of Hanban teachers sent every year to our school is really high.

Teacher N15 thus suggested that local native teachers need to help Hanban teachers to adjust to the entire environment, including the situations in the classroom and the students' circumstances. As a result, according to Teacher N15, the best way of collaborating between local native teachers and Hanban teachers should be for the Hanban teachers to assist with the teaching and listen to the lessons for the first year to familiarise themselves with the whole situation and gradually start teaching independently from the second year. She also provided an example from her experience:

> My Chinese Hanban teacher stayed with me for three years, and in the first year she basically listened to every lesson, and I really didn't give her any important or independent tasks. In the second year, I gradually gave her more [teaching tasks], and in the third year basically I gave my whole GCSE class to her.

Teacher N15's idea is a good example of cooperation between local native teachers and Hanban teachers, which could be adapted by other Mandarin teachers in England.

To conclude, there are two models of cooperation in Mandarin classes. One is the collaboration between native and non-native Mandarin teachers while teaching; the other is cooperation between Hanban teachers and local native Mandarin teachers. Although there are some of these practices in Mandarin classrooms already, this teaching cooperation still needs to be developed in the future.

After examining the native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs about teaching in secondary schools in England, I will discuss the factors that influence native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in the next section.

4.3 Factors influencing Mandarin teachers' beliefs

4.3.0 Presentation and initial conceptual framework

In this section, I will discuss the factors influencing native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in my study, which have been explored in the two sections above. From my literature review chapter, I have adapted models from previous research and created my initial conceptual framework regarding the factors that influence Mandarin teachers' beliefs in secondary schools in England. These cover five areas:

(1) Cultural background, government policies and society: this factor is adapted from Borg's (2003) "Contextual Factors", and I added 'cultural background' and 'government policies';

(2) Previous language learning experience: this factor combines Woods's (1996) and Borg's (2003) ideas together;

(3) Teacher education and training: this factor is adapted from both Woods (1996) and Borg (2003);

(4) Previous teaching experience: from Woods (1996);

(5) Current classroom practice: this factor refers to current teaching experience and is adapted from both Woods's (1996) and Borg's (2003) models.

After my data collection, however, some new influencing factors emerged from the findings. I therefore categorised all the factors into three new dimensions: 'external factors (the context)', 'education and teaching experience' and 'internal factors (personal factors)'. I will discuss all these below and then develop a new conceptual framework at the end of the section.

4.3.1 External factors - the context

The first group of factors that influences native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in secondary school in England is 'external factors'. The term 'external factors' was adapted from one of the themes in my initial conceptual framework, which is 'cultural background, government policies and society' and also combined elements of Borg's (2003) model about 'contextual factors'. Furthermore, other added elements that emerged from the data will be discussed and may be related to other previous research.

In terms of the external factors that influence Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in

secondary school in England, there are six sub-elements in this dimension. These are: 'Confucius Institute and Confucius Classroom'; 'Education System'; 'School Curriculum'; 'School Support'; 'Students' Ability and Learning Styles' and 'Exam Pressure'. They will be discussed in detail in the next few sections.

4.3.1.1 Confucius Institute and Confucius Classroom

As stated in my initial conceptual framework, the government policies in China and the UK may influence teachers' views of teaching and learning Mandarin in England. After examining the data, however, one of the particular external factors regarding teaching and learning Mandarin in England is the influence of the Confucius Classroom in secondary schools, which are supported by the Confucius institute. As discussed above in Chapters 1 and 2, Confucius Classrooms are established in many secondary schools in the UK. The initiative provides funding, teaching resources, and teachers to local schools to expand the teaching and learning of Mandarin. Some of the Mandarin teachers in my study were working in Confucius Classrooms or had collaborated with one. When I asked them about their thoughts regarding Confucius Classrooms in their schools and the Confucius Institute, only one teacher, Teacher NO5, said her school had a negative experience in cooperating with the Confucius Classroom and they had decided to stop the collaboration. That was because the previous teachers allocated from China could not adjust to the British teaching style and the teaching process assigned by the Confucius Classroom did not fit with the school's education system and curriculum. Other teachers, however, showed positive views about it and said that the Confucius Classroom offered them great support in their teaching. Teacher N15, for example, claimed that the support in terms of funding and teaching resources from the Confucius Classroom really helped her and promoted her teaching processes. She therefore did not worry about the continuity of the Mandarin curriculum in her school because of this support.

From the interviews, the native Mandarin teachers were reluctant to express their opinions on the impact of the Confucius Institute on their Mandarin teaching process. The non-native Mandarin teachers in my study, however, who were working with the Confucius Classrooms, were more willing to talk about their experience with the Confucius Classroom and they all held positive opinions. Teacher NN4 was currently teaching Mandarin in a grammar school and the school he worked in had a Confucius

Classroom. Teacher NN4 said:

> Because the Confucius classroom is linked with the Chinese government, they have some regulations. But I haven't had any problems with it in our school and it worked well because Chinese was on the curriculum already. I certainly felt no interference from the Chinese government and there is nothing negative.

Teacher NN4 then provided suggestions on future collaborations between the school and the Confucius Classroom and he thought that providing funding and resources were not enough for a successful collaboration. He claimed that it is not only down to the Confucius Institute; secondary schools also need to make more effort. He suggests that: "[for the secondary schools], Chinese needs to become more mainstream. If they don't do that, Chinese will always remain on the edge of the curriculum."

Teacher NN3's opinion was similar to Teacher NN4's. She said:

> I have to say, I really enjoyed being in the Confucius Classroom. And I really enjoyed having the Hanban teachers in the school. Overall, I found it a very positive experience…I do know schools that have trouble and the head teacher are not very supportive because obviously there's lots of stipulations by Hanban, which some schools would find very difficult to sustain…But my experience of the Confucius Classroom has been very positive.

As a result, it is noticeable that the Confucius Institute and Confucius Classrooms do influence Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs, even though this was not reflected by many of the teachers in my study.

4.3.1.2 Education system

In Borg's（2003）model, 'contextual factors', which represents the educational conditions in society, influence language teachers' cognition (p.83). Other researchers have also provided evidence of the impact of education system on Mandarin teachers (e.g. Zhang & Li, 2010; Yang, R., 2010; Ye, W., 2017). Ye, W. (2017) claimed that Chinese teachers considered that there are both advantages and disadvantages in the Chinese and British education systems: "When you compare Eastern and Western education, they have their own strengths and weakness. … [We need] to learn from each other" (Ye, W., 2017, p. 62).

For the Mandarin teachers in my research, the sub-factor of the education system also mainly influenced native Mandarin teachers views and beliefs, which was reflected in their second and third beliefs explored in previous sections. As stated previously, native Mandarin teachers believed that they need to understand the British education

system and teaching style after they come to England and they also need to learn from the British teaching approaches for secondary school students. This confirmed the findings from previous research and some native Mandarin teachers clarified its influence in their interviews. Teacher N2 said: "the teaching environment and learning atmosphere [in the UK] were attractive to me." Moreover, according to previous research, Chinese classrooms are often teacher-centred, but classrooms in Britain contain more interactions and emphasise the students' learning differences (e.g. Hu, 2003; Mittler, 2012; Ye, W., 2017; Zhang & Zhong, 2003). Teacher N7's experience is a good reflection of this and she explained how the difference influenced her idea of teaching Mandarin in detail:

> The two education systems are completely different, In Chinese classrooms, there is more time for the teachers to teach and students have less time to discuss. For example, in a 45-minute lesson, the teacher has to speak 30 minutes, the students may only have 10 minutes to discuss. In the UK there are more interactions between teachers and students.

After teaching Mandarin in America, Teacher N1 came to be a teacher in England. she also needed to adjust to a brand-new education system. She stated that: "I think that the British education system is very different from the United States. British teachers are stricter than America[n teachers]."

From the data and previous research, it is evident that the education system may influence Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs. It seems from this study that it may influence native Mandarin teachers more.

4.3.1.3 School curriculum

The third sub-factor in the dimension of 'external factors' is the Mandarin curriculum in secondary schools in England. Curriculum design and curriculum time in secondary schools could both influence Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language.

4.3.1.3.1 Curriculum design

As stated in previous research, the design of the curriculum in secondary schools may influence Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs. For teaching and learning Mandarin in England, Tinsley and Board (2014) state that "in schools where the language is well established, Chinese has found a place alongside other languages taught" (p.93).

However, in some other schools, the Chinese curriculum is not well arranged and designed (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.93). From my interviews, I also found some similar situations, although this does not happen in every school. Some of the schools only offer an after-school club or lunchtime club for Chinese and students can choose to attend and learn the language or not. For the schools that had arranged Mandarin in the curriculum, one school offered Mandarin to all students in Year 7 and 8 as part of the compulsory curriculum and students could decide whether they wanted to continue learning Mandarin or not when they moved into Year 9.

The design of the Mandarin curriculum thus may influence Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs, since many of the teachers in this study claimed that they regard Mandarin teaching as different depending on whether the Mandarin class is in the curriculum or an extracurricular activity. Mandarin teachers who were teaching in after-school clubs or lunchtime clubs agreed that if it was just a club-based classroom, they were more concerned about the students' interests and motivation. Teacher NN2 was one such example, who was teaching lunchtime lessons in Mandarin and paid more attention to motivating his students. Teacher N2's ideas were also influenced by the curriculum; she claimed that from the perspective of course forms, she is teaching optional courses and after-class club sessions, which is a significant element that impacts her teaching. She continued that: "if this is just an optional course, students would barely remember language points or grammar even after the whole semester". So, she also needed to focus on the learning interests of her students and using more activities in class. Furthermore, Teacher NO4 felt she had to keep her students motivated, thus she slowed down the teaching process and let the students practise more when teaching after-school classes:

> I think the Mandarin teacher cannot teach too much content in one lesson, and it is important to practice more. …… My class is after school and is not a formal lesson, so I teach slowly to keep them interested.

For Mandarin classes that are in the schools' curriculum, Mandarin teachers' concerns were slightly different and they needed to focus more on the students' learning progress and outcomes. Teacher N1, Teacher NO1 and Teacher NO5 all mentioned that they preferred more traditional methods, firstly because they wanted their students to learn more and make good progress in Mandarin. They were less worried about students' absence in class too, as Teacher N1 said: "because our Mandarin class

is in their curriculum, so the students must come and learn Chinese."

Some Mandarin teachers also hoped that Mandarin could become part of the main curriculum in more secondary schools in England and they thought it may help to promote the language and also benefit the teaching and learning process. As a non-native Mandarin teacher, Teacher NN4's opinion was representative:

> I think the sad thing is that some schools do not have Chinese properly on the curriculum. They rely on a Confucius classroom and Hanban teachers for a year or two, then the teachers leave. And that doesn't really work. What you need is to properly put Chinese on the curriculum, having local teachers and Confucius Classroom coming along, and it can grow.

4.3.1.3.2 Curriculum time

Apart from the design of the school curriculum, research shows that the curriculum time allocated may influence Mandarin teachers' beliefs. In Tinsley and Board's (2014) report, when they asked teachers about the time allocated for Mandarin classes, the "lack of curriculum time … was seen a major challenge. … [To some native Mandarin teachers], the greatest challenge was adapting to a [curriculum] in which languages are only taught for one day per week" (p.91). They also point out that in terms of the curriculum time for Mandarin teaching in particular, students need more time to learn the language and make fair progress. In most secondary schools, however, the time allocated is not enough for the students to achieve much, especially for beginners (p.97).

The situation in my study seemed a little different from previous research. In my interviews, I asked a similar question to the teachers: "do you think the time is enough for teaching Mandarin in your school and for the students to learn this language?" It is interesting to note that most of the teachers said they thought the time for teaching was enough for the students to learn Mandarin at school, since most of their secondary school students were at the beginners' level of learning Mandarin and the teachers understood that students may have pressure in other subjects. Only a few teachers said they thought the teaching time was not enough for Mandarin. These teachers all reflected their own teaching experiences and expressed that the curriculum time was not enough for Mandarin in their schools. Their views are listed below:

In terms of this language, the amount of time they have arranged for this lesson is obviously not enough. (Teacher N1)

[The time is] not enough for learning Chinese …Students would barely remember language points or grammars even after the whole semester. (Teacher N2)

I found it difficult because if they do not have any foundation of the language and do not have much time to learn. (Teacher N10)

Class time is a bit short, and I think the time is not balanced in different year groups. (Teacher N15)

I feel [the class time is] very tight. (Teacher NO5)

In the relatively short class time, these teachers therefore needed to focus on the students' interest (e.g. Teacher N2 and Teacher N15), the students' practice (e.g. Teacher N1 and Teacher NO5) or lower their expectations of the students (e.g. Teacher N10).

Most of the Mandarin teachers in my research agreed that students needed to spend time learning and reviewing the teaching content after class if they wanted to learn Mandarin well. Teacher N3, for example said that the class time is enough, but "[the students] need to work hard themselves after class if they want to learn Mandarin better." Many Mandarin teachers hence paid attention to the students' interest to encourage them to learn more and also emphasised students' self-study ability in and outside the classroom.

To summarise, the school curriculum could impact both native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in terms of the curriculum design and curriculum time in secondary schools

4.3.1.4 School support

The fourth sub-factor in the 'external factors' group is the 'School Support' for teaching and learning Mandarin and it basically emerged from the data gathered. Tinsley and Board (2014) suggest that the influence of school support and their perspectives on Mandarin are important to Mandarin teaching. "A good environment will encourage and support spreading the teaching of Chinese. However, if the heads have different or contrasting opinions over students learning Chinese, it is harder for

teachers to teach the language in school" (p.93).

From both the previous research and the data in my interviews, if the secondary schools are less supportive of Mandarin classes, the Mandarin teachers could face greater challenges when teaching the language. Teacher N7 claimed, for instance: "[In our school], their emphasis on Chinese is not enough. I must show them the importance of Chinese, such as society's needs, and China's status in the world."

In the research by Tinsley and Board (2014), it showed that some schools in the UK "described Chinese as 'alien' to the department, … [and is] in opposition to 'MFL' as if it were a different category of subject altogether" (p.93). This opinion is similar to what I found in my research. Teacher NO6 mentioned that in her school, teachers who were teaching French and Spanish may not like the school to have Mandarin classes, as their class time was reduced and then allocated to the Mandarin classes. They had the idea that the Mandarin classes occupied their original teaching time. Sometimes, therefore, other teachers showed opposing attitudes towards teaching Mandarin in their school. Teacher NN4 also held the same idea and he claimed that:

> I do think it can be seen as a threat to French, German, Spanish teachers because they think that's not fair. [They may think that] 'why is Chinese getting the funding as a new subject?' And they are worried basically about the result that students may choose Chinese and no other languages.

Furthermore, another problem that some Mandarin teachers are experiencing in their schools is that some of the schools misunderstood the methods for teaching and learning Mandarin, since some heads of language departments do not know much about Mandarin teaching and their ideas may not be up-to-date. Moreover, their ideas are not related to the students' current learning experience in Mandarin. "One Head of Languages said that she thought that Chinese tended to be taught more traditionally [and other modern foreign languages could be more interactive]" (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.93). This was reflected by some Mandarin teachers in my interviews. They expressed awareness that the opinions and attitudes of the heads of the language departments in their schools did influence their teaching in Mandarin and even their job opportunities in the school. Teacher NO5 said that the head of school does not like Mandarin teachers from Hanban, preferring native Chinese-speaking teachers with a PGCE or trained in the UK. This is because the head had assumed that the Hanban teachers' teaching methods and quality would not be suitable for UK students.

Another teacher, Teacher NN3, had also experienced similar problems. She said that in her school, what languages are offered in the school depends on the head's ideas. When she joined the school, the head of languages showed great interest and support for teaching Mandarin, so she got the opportunity to teach it. She said, "[t]he [previous] head teacher was extremely proactive about Chinese and the Confucius Classroom, and he had a much more open mind. So there was full support from him." After the head changed, however, the new head of the language department did not favour Chinese, so the class time was reduced. When the third head was appointed, they only preferred Spanish to be taught as a second language in the school, so there were no Mandarin classes any more:

> [When the head teacher changed, the new head teacher] thought if he couldn't do Chinese, no one could do it. So he actually made me redundant along with another [Mandarin] teacher [in the school]. And then we had another head teacher at the end of this academic year…He just closed classes of other modern languages like French…So Spanish is the only language students can be taught from Year 7 now.

Finally, she concluded that it is very hard for Mandarin teachers to teach if there is little support from the school. A lot of Mandarin teachers, especially non-native teachers, therefore have to give up teaching Mandarin and turn to teaching other MFL.

On the contrary, there are also many secondary schools that strongly supported teaching and learning Mandarin in their schools. "In some schools, the introduction of Chinese is seen as a way of revitalizing the position and perception of languages within the school" (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.93). If the school showed great support on promoting Mandarin teaching, it was a great help to the Mandarin teachers. Teacher NN4 showed positive views about the growth in Mandarin teaching in some schools in England. He said:

> There are some very good schools that [have] a lot of experience. Now they are teaching Chinese and I just think Britain has to help our young people to be prepared for the future. They need to be learning Chinese.

Teacher N1 had experienced support from the school, since it was a highlight having Mandarin classes in the school. The school was promoting Mandarin teaching strongly and she could focus on her teaching strategies herself:

> Because the language classes in their school [are] a strong point and a highlight of their school. When the school recruits new students, it will promote this special field in strength. Therefore, Chinese is also an advantage compared with other schools.

Likewise, Teacher N15's school had cooperated with China, so she could get highly motivated students in her class. She felt that the school supported the idea that Chinese culture and language is important to the students' learning interests and she could use various opportunities to train self-study ability and build up her students' confidence:

> The school is very supportive because [to the staff in the school], they all think that the cooperation with China, including the promotion of Chinese culture and Chinese language, is very important to them. So from that point, they give us great support.

On the other hand, the teaching and learning aims of the school may influence Mandarin teachers' beliefs. For Teacher NO5, her school emphasised the students' learning outcomes: "After coming to this school, I discovered that the school aim is to make students gain good test results. It is totally different from the previous school." Accordingly, she tended to pay more attention to the students' exam results and used more traditional teaching methods in class.

To conclude, the support offered by secondary schools in England has a strong impact on native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs. Mandarin teachers could either benefit from their support, or face challenges in teaching if their school is less supportive.

4.3.1.5 Students' ability and learning styles

The fifth sub-factor in the dimension of 'external factors' is the students' language ability and their learning styles in England. Previous research and the data gathered in my study all showed that this sub-factor has a strong impact on Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in teaching Mandarin in secondary schools.

4.3.1.5.1 Students' ability

In Tinsley and Board's (2014) study, they claimed that students' ability may influence Mandarin teachers' beliefs and practices in the UK. In many secondary schools in England, the requirements for students being permitted to learn Mandarin is based on their study ability and exam performances: "Chinese is only for the most able [students]" (p.99). Some Mandarin teachers in the research also had similar experiences. Teacher N13, for example, said that in her school, only the students whose performance and scores were at 'positive l' could choose to learn Mandarin,

which regards Chinese as an 'elite' language that only students who have a high ability can learn. Teacher N15 had also experienced ability selection for learning Mandarin in her school: "In our school, it tends to select some of the best students to learn Chinese. It will make the number of Chinese classes and the number of students decrease." The advantage of such selection is that these Mandarin teachers tended to concentrate more on keeping the students' interested and the learning outcomes of teaching and learning Mandarin. It may, however, influence the promotion of Mandarin in England, as Tinsley and Board (2014) suggest. They declared that "expansion of Chinese within a school is therefore difficult to manage" (p.99).

Another issue related to students' ability is that some Mandarin teachers have to change their teaching strategies according to their students' language ability. Teacher N2 said she had to lower her expectations of the students' progress according to the students' language proficiency level and she always needed to examine the learners' reactions in class to check whether they could understand the teaching content or not. Teacher NO5, on the contrary, paid more attention to her students' learning results and used more traditional teaching methods in her Mandarin classes, since her students were highly motivated and had strong study ability:

> The quality of the students in this school is very high. These students are willing to learn. You don't need to use some kinds of activities to encourage them to learn, because they are very motivated. So in this case, I began to gradually return to more traditional teaching methods.

4.3.1.5.2 Students' learning style

As well as students' ability, students' learning styles in England is the other key element which influences Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in secondary schools. Some researchers have discovered different learning styles between China and in England (e.g. Dias & Harris, 1990; Packer, 2006; Ye, W., 2017). Researchers have found that the learning style in China is more about memorising knowledge, while in the UK, interactions such as tasks, activities, and group work are much more favoured by teachers (Ye, W., 2017, p.14).

The Mandarin teachers in my study echoed the previous research and some of them stated that by understanding the students' differences in learning styles, they needed to adjust to the learning style of British students. They found that the learning style of

students in England is not the same as Chinese students and other Asian students. Teacher N1 assumed, for example, "I think the students here like to think and they can always raise some questions. The children's thoughts are very active." She therefore thought that interaction with students was important when teaching Mandarin. Teacher N6 held the opinion that teachers need to motivate the students to learn and to support them, since "the middle school student is a very special group… [and] they value the chance of language learning." Teacher N11 and Teacher NO4's beliefs supported Teacher N16's and they both regarded students' interest as important in teaching Mandarin in England because of their students' learning styles. As a result, Teacher N11 slowed down her teaching process and tried to make her class more relaxed: "British students' learning style is not the same as Chinese students, so the teaching process should be looser and freer. In fact, it can be seen [that my class] is quite relaxed."

Teacher NO4, however, used more activities in her class in order to motivate her students:

> Students in the UK sometimes are a bit naughty, and do not have strong motivation to learn. It is not the same in the classroom as in China. ……Then in class, I think if I give them activities to make them learn Mandarin, they will be better.

Additionally, Teacher NO6 and Teacher NO7 both mentioned that students in the United Kingdom are different from not only Chinese students, but also students in other Asian countries, because Asian culture differs from Western culture. They had both changed their views on Mandarin teaching and learning and also their practices as a result. Teacher NO6 explained her opinion as follows:

> For example, in South Korea, the students are very respectful. They are not very active and they will not ask questions even if they do not understand the teaching content. But after coming here, the children are particularly active [in class] … almost all the classroom activities and teaching mode are not the same as my teaching experience before, so that is completely new to me.

Teacher NO7 expressed that students' learning style differs not only in class, but after class as well. She needed to encourage the students more in England to ensure they have good progress:

> Asian students may think if they could not answer the teachers' questions in class, they would be embarrassed. [However], in the United Kingdom, it is very different. That is, when you call the students to answer the question, they may think it is not a big deal if they do not know the answer. So you can only encourage them to learn. And if you are teaching students from Asia, you can

ask them to remember the new words learnt when they go back home and then test them the next week. British students do not seem to be used to it. You can tell them about the method, but you can't force them to learn after class. For example, when you tell them that there will be a quiz for the new words the next week. many students will not review after they go back home.

Mandarin teachers may also use different methods in the same class, such as for Teacher N10, she did more interactive activities with some students, while focusing on other students' self-study ability if they prefer to learn by themselves. That is because "some students are very active in communicating with me. Other students will may be willing to read and write on their own."

In contrast, if students are highly motivated, Mandarin teachers may tend to concentrate on the students' learning results. Teacher N15 planned her teaching according to her students' needs:

My students want to get good results [in learning Mandarin], so I prepared carefully on how to teach them in a better way, then they really want to learn [Mandarin more] and to improve their performance in class.

In Teacher NO5's case, her Mandarin teaching beliefs and practices were also strongly influenced by her highly motivated students. One of the reasons that she focused on students' learning outcomes and used more traditional Chinese teaching methods is because of her current students. She clarified that:

My students told me that they do not like the teacher only to let them to play games in Mandarin classes. They found that they had only learned a few things when that kind of class finished, and they do not write down any words into their notebook. They told me that, 'we would rather have a teacher who writes all the important points on the blackboard. Then we could write down the key points. I think I learned a lot after class. And we would rather go to such a teacher's class.'

Teacher NO5 no longer lets her students play all sorts of games in class and she insisted that her ideas had really changed because these students were completely different. That is to say, she believed that Mandarin teachers cannot adjust their previous teaching methods all the time and their current students should always be the key element that influences their teaching style. When talking about her students in her current secondary school, she explained that:

I don't need to worry about the students doing nothing, or talking to their classmates and not learning in class. They all love to study, and they have many questions to ask you. During the process of your communication with them, you will find that this is a very enjoyable process. I do not need to plan a variety of games. So now when I go into the classroom, the most important thing is to give them assignments and some feedback, then I can see them improve step by step.

Moreover, the teaching instructions that she used in class had also changed into very

direct instructions:

> For example, I would say: 'OK, we are now going to do a translation exercise.' Maybe if I was in my previous school, I would go through all kinds [of activities] and let the students do translation exercises through those active forms. At this school, I can tell them directly that, 'OK, now we will translate these sentences.' In this case, they are all doing it, and they don't need me to find a way [to encourage them to do it].

On the other hand, researchers have explored that the relationships between Mandarin teachers and students are different in China and in the UK (e.g. Hu, 2002; Nisbett, 2003; Ye, W., 2017; Yu, 2001). Chinese teachers are often treated as "the source of authority and knowledge. Students owe respect and are not supposed to challenge teachers" (Ye, W., 2017, p.14). In the UK, however, "the relationship between teachers and students is more egalitarian" (Ye, W., 2017, p.14). In my interviews, some of the Mandarin teachers suggested that the different views on the relationship between teachers and students in the two countries affected their views and beliefs about teaching Mandarin as a foreign language. Teacher N7 explained the change in her beliefs after she became a Mandarin teacher in England; the biggest change to her was the relationship between teachers and students:

> The relationship between teachers and students is not the same. In China, the class is very teacher-centred and students have few opportunities to refute. It is usually the teacher who allows the students to ask questions in class. So there is not much initiative in China. However, the students here are more active, they take the initiative to ask you some questions, and to communicate with you, which is a big difference.

To sum up, the Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in this study were strongly influenced by their students' language ability and learning style. They need to adjust to the differences in students' ability and learning styles in England. These two aspects had changed their beliefs in various ways.

4.3.1.6 Exam pressure

The sixth sub-factor that influences Mandarin teachers views and beliefs is exam pressure. Tinsley and Board (2014) claim that when we assess the students' progress in Mandarin during the exams like GCSE and A Level, it is not suitable to measure based on the standards of other European languages: "Teachers feel that curriculum guidelines and tools for measuring progression which have been developed for the most commonly taught Western European languages are not always suited to measuring how learners are progressing in Chinese" (p.91). Mandarin teachers may

therefore face pressure when guiding their students to prepare for exams, because "they need to be able to show that their learners are making progress and that they will be able to achieve the required grades at GCSE" (p.91).

Only a few of the teachers in my study mentioned the influence of exam pressure. That is because not all the students who learn Mandarin go on to take exams and for those Mandarin teachers who did have students taking Mandarin exams, they did not have much pressure around exam preparation. Teacher NO5, for instance, stated that when she was teaching Mandarin in her previous school, she did not experience much pressure concerning tests, so she concentrated on the students' motivation at that time, by including many games and activities:

> As long as the students can learn [Mandarin] happily and as long as they can learn something after school, it was fine. So, we are encouraged to do a lot of group activities and we also have to have a lot of games while teaching.

For the Mandarin teachers whose students did have to take Mandarin exams in the near future, however, they paid more attention to exam preparation and how the teaching content linked to the exams. Teacher N19 claimed that she made students remember and write Chinese characters, because writing Chinese characters is essential to passing the exams. She said: "I really [have to] force them to remember these words. Because they may also face [these words] for the exams in the future." Furthermore, Teacher NO3 and Teacher NO7 emphasised the teaching and learning outcomes of Mandarin. They both made their students practise Mandarin and do more exercises in class, because their students needed to pass exams at the end of the school terms. Teacher NO3 explained, "I want the students in my classes to take some exams in the future. So the textbooks we use are the HSK's standard tutorials, which are closely related to exams. It is a combination of practice and exam preparation in my class." Teacher NO7 also planned the teaching content based on the exam requirements: "[Both the students and me] have the pressure for the exams, so I must follow the outline of the exam to compose the content of the class."

Consequently, although not many of these Mandarin teachers in secondary schools in England were influenced by exam pressure, it impacts some of the teachers' beliefs, especially those who need to help their students prepare for exams in their Mandarin classes.

4.3.2 Education and teaching experience

As discussed in Chapter 2, Woods's (1996) framework of factors that influence second language teachers' beliefs consist of four aspects: "early language learning experience" (p.203), "early teaching experience and teacher education" (p.205), "later language learning and teaching experience overseas" (p.207) and "current teaching experience" (p.210). Furthermore, according to Borg (2003), three of the factors from his model are: "Schooling", which is the language teacher's previous learning experience of a second language; "Professional Coursework" which means the language teacher's training experience; and "Classroom Practice", which represents the language teacher's teaching experience in class (p.83). From the data gathered here, it appears that many of the Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs are influenced by these factors and can be analysed according to Woods's (1996) and Borg's (2003) models.

Moreover, looking back at my initial conceptual framework, there are four initial related themes: 'Previous language learning experience'; 'Teacher education and training'; 'Previous teaching experience'; and 'Current classroom practice'. After examining the data, I changed some parts of my initial framework and summarised them as 'Education and Teaching Experience', which can be divided into four sub-areas: previous learning experience, education and training experience, previous teaching experience, and current teaching experience. These four areas will be discussed in the next sections.

4.3.2.1 Previous learning experience

Many previous researchers have been convinced that previous language learning experience could significantly influence language teachers' beliefs in various ways, both for novice language teachers and experienced teachers (e.g. Almarza, 1996; Bailey et al., 1996; Borg, 2003; Ebsworth & Schweers, 1997; Farrell, 1999; Freeman, 1992; Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996; Richards & Pennington, 1998; Woods, 1996 etc.). In my initial framework, I therefore used 'previous language learning experience' to name this factor, which combined Woods's (1996) and Borg's (2003) ideas together. Woods (1996) stated that the "early language learning experience" of the Japanese teacher in learning French as a second language in his childhood provided him with these initial ideas about second language teaching and learning

(p.204), and his "later language learning experience overseas" changed his views in different aspects (Woods, 1996, p.207). Borg (2003), also claimed that "schooling", which is the language teachers' previous learning experience of a second language, may influence their teacher cognition (p.83). In the study of Richards and Lockhart (1996), by citing the study of Kindsvatter, Willen and Ishler (1988), suggested that language teachers' beliefs were impacted by "their own experience as language learners", which meant that "all teachers were once students, and their beliefs about teaching are often a reflection of how they themselves were taught" (p.30).

For non-native language teachers, researchers have pointed out that their previous learning experience could influence their views and beliefs more strongly and the teaching methods they regard as effective are adapted from their learning experience as well (e.g. Burns, T., 2014; Erkmen, 2010; Medgyes, 1992; Merino, 1997; Üstünlüoglu, 2007). Medgyes (1992) concerned that non-native language teachers usually "adopted language learning strategies during their own learning process" (pp. 346-347). Merino (1997) suggested that the advantages of non-native second language teachers is that they "have learned about how the [target] language works during their own learning process" (p.75). Üstünlüoglu (2007) also declared that non-native teachers "have the experience as second language learners of [the target language] and this experience makes them aware of the target language" (p.65). The non-native Mandarin teachers in my study thought that the methods for teaching Mandarin were similar to those of other European languages and this was partly due to their previous learning experience. Teacher NN3, for instance, said that when teaching Mandarin, she borrowed some teaching methods from her previous Chinese learning experience in the past as well: "I am used to the educational system since I was at school…[and] students really benefited from flash cards, which is something used when I was learning my Chinese as well."

Non-native language teachers' learning experience may also benefit their beliefs regarding their understanding of the students' feelings and problems their students face. Erkmen (2010) held the view that "teachers of non-native speakers of [the target language] may also feel that their students are similar to them" because they have the similar learning experience of the target language (p.24). According to the non-native Mandarin teachers in my research, they regarded themselves as a language model to

their students in order to show that Mandarin is an achievable language. Moreover, they could also understand their students' feelings because they had had similar learning experience before as students. This was already explored in the discussion about non-native Mandarin teachers' beliefs in previous sections.

When looking back at the shared beliefs among native and non-native Mandarin teachers, most of them thought that it was important to teach Chinese characters at the beginning of the teaching process. The factor that impacted upon the non-native Mandarin teachers regarding this belief was also related to their previous Mandarin learning experience. As Ye, L. (2013) found, the reason why non-native Mandarin teachers believe that it is essential to teach Chinese characters early is because non-native Mandarin teachers' learning experience in Chinese characters "enabled them to be both very effective and very motivated language learners themselves" (p.621).

As for native Mandarin teachers in my research, one of their beliefs is that they regarded themselves as professional native speakers and they could understand the Chinese language and culture in depth. It is revealed by Üstünlüoglu (2007) that native language teachers "are assumed to be reliable informants when the role of informant is considered" (p.65).

For some of the native Mandarin teachers, their previous learning experience of second languages had influenced their Mandarin teaching strategies, as Teacher NO6 said: "[the] teacher's learning style would affect your teaching model". Teacher NO6 explained that she had treated learning English as a second language very seriously when she was a student and she worked very hard in learning English. She therefore wanted her students to get better results in learning Mandarin now. Teacher N10 supported that her Mandarin teaching processes were partly adapted from her learning experience, saying, "We also learnt a foreign language, ……When we started learning a foreign language, we probably started with some words, then short sentences and so on. … I taught [Mandarin] with some similar process". When teaching Chinese characters, Teacher NO2 mentioned that the method of teaching Chinese characters he used was related to previous learning experiences of Chinese characters: "I remember when I was a child, I had this kind of experience. When writing Chinese characters, teachers would take our hands to write. I think this is a

very good way to teach them to write strokes."

In contrast, previous language learning experiences had also become a negative learning model to some native Mandarin teachers, which they wanted to discard in their own Mandarin teaching processes. Teacher N19, for example, used more interactive methods in her class because her learning experience before was not very enjoyable: "just like when learning English, it was a bit boring. The teacher let us read text, taught new words, and then explained the meaning." She did not want her students to have the same "boring" learning experience.

Teacher N12 also stated that her experience of learning Chinese at school was too boring and she wanted to make some changes as a teacher. She used many extra resources from the museums in her class:

> I want to make classroom education interesting, so I combine the museum resources [within the teaching content] …My own idea is to be creative and not too restrictive. In fact, I do not prefer the Chinese educational method because it is like 'spoon-feeding' and it made me feel miserable in the past...Therefore, I hope to help my students learn by using the methods that are interesting and relevant to students' own experiences in their lives.

As a result, it seems that Mandarin teachers' previous learning experiences, especially in second languages, influenced their views and beliefs in various ways.

4.3.2.2 Education and training experience

Another important factor that influences language teachers' views and beliefs is their education and training experience. Many research studies have evidenced that teacher education and teacher training influences language teachers' beliefs, including pre-service and in-service teachers (e.g. Borg, 2003; Brown & McGannon, 1998; Cumming, 1989; Freeman, 1993; Llurda, 2005; Richards, Ho & Giblin, 1996; Sendan & Roberts, 1998; Woods, 1996).

Consequently, I put 'teacher education and training' as one of the factors that could impact native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in my initial framework. This factor is adapted from both Woods (1996) and Borg (2003). After examining the data, however I changed the term to 'education and training experience' and in the next sections, I will discuss this factor from two aspects: teachers' education background and teacher training experience.

4.3.2.2.1 Educational background

As discussed above, several researchers have identified that language teachers' educational background may influence their beliefs. In my study, 'educational background' mainly represents the degrees that Mandarin teachers' have achieved from their higher education experience, which could be related to teaching or not. Woods (1996) illustrated that in the research, the Japanese teacher's view about teaching and learning grammar was influenced partly by his "teacher education" (p.205). Richards and Lockhart (1996) cited the study of Kindsvatter, Willen, and Ishler (1988) and discovered that "educationally based or research-based principles" had effect on teachers' beliefs and it means that "teachers may draw on their understanding of a learning principle in psychology, second language acquisition, or education and try to apply it in the classroom" (p.31).

Examining the data from my research, some of the Mandarin teachers also claimed that some of their views and practices regarding teaching and learning Mandarin as a foreign language were related to their educational background. Teacher N2 had put the education theories she had learnt at university into practice and found out that only some of the theories were suitable for teaching Mandarin in England:

> The teaching work in the UK could facilitate me to practise my classroom teaching with theories I had learnt and I found that not every theory mentioned in textbooks was suitable for practical teaching.

Teacher N8's view on providing her students with more activities and chances to practice using Mandarin in class was based on her educational background as well. She said that she preferred this kind of approach "because this is also related to my own educational background."

Additionally, Teacher N12 is a good example of a teacher who had combined her education background in British Museology with her own teaching practices. Since she believed that teaching and learning Mandarin should be interesting and creative, she introduced various resources and materials from different museums, in order to teach Chinese characters more vividly:

> [I] pay more attention to the application of the museum's online learning resources in the classroom…For example, in Year 9, when I teach the names of the different rooms in a house, the Chinese character 'kitchen' has a character 'bean' inside. This returns to the benefits of museum resources, because you can

find museum resources online about grains. There are pictures, including cultural introductions there. When teaching the topic of money and banking, there are also pictures related to the previous currency of China [in the online museum resources] …I will look for pictures for them to take a look at, and then connect them to these cultural points.

For non-native Mandarin teachers, Teacher NN1 presented that the reason for insisting on speaking Mandarin while teaching is because of her educational experience in China:

When I went to study in China, Mandarin lessons were taught [all] in Chinese and it was really difficult to start with. But my Chinese never went down [after that]. So, when I came back, I started teaching in the same way.

Furthermore, in terms of PGCE programmes in the UK, researchers have found that it influenced the beliefs and practices of trainee teachers (Almarza, 1996) and that their beliefs developed after attending the programme (Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000). Only Teacher N15 in my study, however, reflected the impact of her PGCE programme on her Mandarin teaching process. She had learnt some practical teaching approaches during the programme:

In fact, when you go to school, the mentor told you what to do, and then your task was to follow these students and to follow your teacher every day. I just learned from him, so the knowledge I learned is more meaningful and I can directly put what I have learned into practice. For me, it is learning how to become a teacher.

4.3.2.2.2 Teacher training experience

In addition to their educational background, language teachers may also be influenced by their teacher training experience. Borg (2003) put "Professional Coursework" as one of the elements influencing teacher cognition, which means the language teachers' training experience (p.83). In my study, 'teacher training experience' refers to the teacher training activities, programmes, seminars, and other kinds of sessions the Mandarin teachers attended after they started to teach Mandarin in secondary schools.

Some teachers benefited from the teacher training they had attended and their views on Mandarin teaching in England had developed from these training programmes. Teacher N2, for example, gained the concept of game-oriented teaching from a teacher training session, in which the topic mainly focused on teaching Mandarin to British children. Teacher N2 said that "It brought me useful ideas for how to teach children in the UK." Teacher N19 also benefited from the training sessions held by the Confucius Institute and she started to include more interactions in her own classes:

> I attended an experienced teachers' training session offered by the Confucius Institute and after teaching for a semester, I still felt I had benefited from it. I consciously added a lot of interactions in class and increased [my students'] enthusiasm.

In addition, Teacher NO1 and Teacher NO5 demonstrated the importance of teacher trainings for them. Teacher NO1 had often attended some professors' lectures and training offered by the school. After listening to these sessions, she absorbed the content from them and put them into her teaching practice. Teacher NO5 also valued the teacher training experience since most of them were focused on the British context:

> When we attended teacher training, many theories are based on the United Kingdom. For example, they told us that we should focus on the students and students should do more exercises in class.

To sum up, teachers' educational background and teacher training experience could highly impact both native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in different aspects.

4.3.2.3 Previous teaching experience

From my initial framework, it was evident that previous teaching experience may influence Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs. In Woods' (1996) research, the Japanese teacher deepened his understanding while teaching Japanese overseas. He wanted to meet his students' needs and also highlighted the importance of students' motivation. He also adapted English teaching methods from his previous teaching experience (pp.207-209). Woods (1996) therefore states that "later language learning and teaching experience overseas" (p.207) influence language teachers' views and beliefs. Richards and Lockhart (1996) also claimed that, from Kindsvatter, Willen and Ishler's (1988) study, one of the elements that influences teachers' beliefs is the "experience of what works best", which means that "many teachers' experience is the primary source of beliefs about teaching. A teacher may have found that some teaching strategies work well and some do not" (p.31).

From the interviews in my research, previous teaching experience only influenced some of the Mandarin teachers, which is slightly different from previous research. Only Teacher N1 and Teacher N17 noticed that their previous teaching had influenced their current ideas about teaching Mandarin. Teacher N1 noted that her previous Mandarin teaching experience in America had impacted her when she came

to England, because she had really learnt a lot from the experience in the United States:

> Because before teaching in the United States I had little experience in teaching elementary schools and middle schools. In fact, there are times when the methods do not work or are inappropriate…My biggest change was in the United States… I found that in the United States, the classroom is totally different [from China], especially the teaching objectives for the younger students. I used to teach grammar and textbook knowledge a lot, but basically in the primary and secondary school classrooms [in America], the teacher cannot always teach grammar directly.

She therefore used various ways to make the grammar simple and easy to understand and when she came to England, she adapted the same methods when teaching British secondary school students.

Teacher N11, on the contrary, realised that she had adapted some Chinese traditional teaching methods from her previous teaching experience in China:

> I feel that when you are teaching [Mandarin in England], you will consciously apply the pattern of your own Chinese class, just like I teach Chinese in China. [In my class], It is almost like what we usually do in China, teaching Pinyin and then doing the practice. It seems that these are more traditional methods [that I always use].

Previous teaching experience, therefore, did impact some of the Mandarin teachers' beliefs about Mandarin teaching. It was not particularly evident for most of the Mandarin teachers in my study, however.

4.3.2.4 Current teaching experience

According to my initial conceptual framework, current classroom practice was an influence on Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs. After gathering the data, however, I renamed it as "current teaching experience". Research by both Woods (1996) and Borg (2003) illustrated that language teachers' current teaching experience strongly impacted their beliefs. In Borg's (2003) model, "Classroom Practice" means the language teachers' teaching experience in class (p.83). Furthermore, Woods (1996) claimed that "current teaching experience" represents the "experience in current teaching setting" (Woods, 1996, p.203). In Woods's (1996) study, the Japanese teacher made progress in his teaching planning and decision-making from his current teaching practice and also his ideas about the motivation of his current students (p.210).

From the data in my interviews, some of the Mandarin teachers were also highly impacted by their current teaching experience. Teacher N1 conveyed that she had only a little teaching experience in secondary schools before coming to England and at first, she was not very familiar with the secondary school she worked in. She therefore gradually built up her ideas about teaching secondary school students while teaching Mandarin in England:

> There is a big difference between the classroom in secondary school and the classroom for adults in the UK… Later, I had some experience in teaching my secondary school students' class, and then I became more confident after I was more familiar with the atmosphere of the class. My attitude in teaching Mandarin developed and the students became more respectful. I also became familiar with the school rules and understood how to deal with the students' learning and behaviour issues in certain circumstances.

Teacher N4 and Teacher N16's interviews also supported that their teaching practice in their current schools had impacted upon their beliefs about Mandarin teaching. Teacher N4 claimed that the reason why she thought students' interest was important was related to her current teaching experience:

> Especially when I am teaching nowadays, I am concerned with teaching Mandarin in a different way. Now, I feel that since the students come [to learn Mandarin] because of their interest, then I do not want to destroy their interest in my lesson.

Teacher N16 also noticed that from her current teaching experience, she valued that in order to make the students learn by themselves in class, it is essential to teach Pinyin first: "I think that based on my personal teaching experience at the moment, teaching Pinyin is very important, and we must teach it seriously and teach it early."

In addition, Teacher N2 also suggested that her current ideas on teaching and learning Mandarin in England had developed from the perspective of her practical teaching experience, which had significantly impacted her. She explained that after teaching different classes in England, she summarised the different teaching approaches according to the different students' age groups: "the concept of Chinese teaching and my methodology had changed since I experienced different teaching environments from kindergarten to adult teaching." Teacher NO1 had also learnt a lot from her current teaching experience and since she was also teaching different age groups of students, she understood how to teach different students effectively:

> Because I am teaching many students from various age groups, so I can summarise [my experiences]. I would be clearer on what is the best way to teach the adult and what is the most efficient way to teach a single student or for

the whole students in a secondary school class.

In another study, Richards and Lockhart (1996) cited the model of Kindsvatter, Willen and Ishler (1988) and stated that the "Established practice" affected teaches' beliefs: "within a school, an institution, or a school district, certain teaching styles and practices may be preferred" (p.31). It means that teachers may adjust to a particular teaching style in the school where they are currently working, which in turn influences their views on teaching and learning.

The interviews with Teacher NO5, Teacher NO6 and Teacher NO7 reflected this idea from the above study. Teacher NO6 and Teacher NO7, who were working in the same secondary school, both stated that there is a specific teaching system in their school and they had adapted to the teaching style in their school when teaching Mandarin. Teacher NO5 also claimed that her beliefs in Mandarin teaching were influenced by her school's teaching objectives and in the current school, she believed that traditional teaching methods were suitable for achieving students' learning results. She explained this issue in detail:

> One of the points in our school for the teachers was very interesting. That is, no matter what kind of teaching methods you use, as long as you can prove that your students are learning, the school does not care how you teach… [So] I think many teachers in our school tend to return to more traditional teaching methods. So this is actually relevant to the school.

Consequently, current teaching experience had a strong influence on these Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs about teaching Mandarin in secondary schools in England.

4.3.3 Internal factors - personal factors

The third dimension of factors that influence native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in secondary schools in England is 'internal factors', which means the Mandarin teachers' personal factors and personal issues. The data gathered from the interviews shows that these internal factors influence Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in different ways. Internal factors are related to personal issues for Mandarin teachers in England and these can be separated into four areas: nationality and personal characteristics of Mandarin teachers, Mandarin teachers' family background, Mandarin teachers' personal experience, and communications between language teachers, which will be discussed in the next sections.

4.3.3.1 Nationality and personal characteristics

In my initial framework, I identified that Mandarin teachers from China and England have different cultural backgrounds which may influence their beliefs. From the data collected in the interviews, one of the internal factors that shapes Mandarin teachers' beliefs is teachers' nationality, which can be examined especially for native Mandarin teachers. Ye, W. (2017) interviewed many Chinese Hanban teachers and found that teachers tended to become prouder of their Chinese identity after being in the UK for several weeks. This is called 'Chinese pride'. They think China is becoming more and more developed nowadays and this sense of pride will influence their teaching of language and culture. As for the native teachers in my study, some teachers also expressed pride in their nationality and regarded it as a big advantage for them when teaching Mandarin in the UK, particularly in teaching Chinese characters and culture. As mentioned above, Teacher N13 spoke highly of the advantages of native teachers in teaching Chinese characters and she felt that non-native teachers do not have this ability to teach Chinese characters in depth. She held the idea that only native Mandarin teachers could explain the Chinese characters in an interesting way which would help the students to remember. She explained her idea with her own example:

> I teach two or three Chinese characters in each lesson, and I make up stories to explain the characters. I don't know whether [the story] is true or not. It doesn't matter if it's true or false, as long as the students can remember.

Teacher N13 also claimed that native teachers are more capable of explaining Chinese culture because they can put the cultural phenomena into the Chinese context with which they are familiar. She thought these abilities meant that native Mandarin teachers are essential in Mandarin classes and they cannot be replaced in the teaching process. Furthermore, Teacher NO2 expressed his idea that most native Mandarin teachers have a basic understanding of Chinese culture, which contributes to their teaching in class. He also said that: "This is the influence of Chinese tradition. [We also have] the sense of understanding ancient poetry and idioms, and the ability to explain cultural phenomena."

Another element emerged is that the teacher's personal characteristic may influence their beliefs. Richards and Lockhart (1996) state that in the research by Kindsvatter, Willen, and Ishler in 1988, they claimed that one of the elements that influences second language teachers' beliefs is "Personality factors", which means that "some teachers have a personal preference for a particular teaching pattern, arrangement, or

activity because it matches their personality" (p.31). This was only implied by one teacher in my study, Teacher NO3. Teacher NO3 is a quiet person and she was not very talkative during our interview. She told me that she always prefers the students to practise more in class, so she offered a lot of chances for the students to do exercises. Then, she gives the students feedback according to the results. When I asked the reason why she holds this idea, she said that one of the reasons is related to her personal characteristics: "it is possibly [because of] my own personality. For me, personally, it's still the best [method] I have ever used. It is related to me."

4.3.3.2 Family background

Previous research has illustrated that a language teacher's family background may influence their beliefs on language teaching. This factor always refers to the teachers' family members and friends (e.g. Altan, 2012; Flores & Day, 2001). In Altan's study (2012), teachers' beliefs could be influenced by their peers and family. Likewise, in my study, native and non-native Mandarin teachers' beliefs were impacted by their family background, which mainly includes the Mandarin teachers' family members (e.g. parents, husband/wife and children) and their friends.

Teacher NN4, had a close connection with China because of his previous education and personal life and because of his family. He knew China well and had lived in China before becoming a Mandarin teacher. The reason why he was interested in Chinese was because of his parents and his wife. He said: "I have had a deep interest in China, probably it is because of my parents' self-interest." Moreover, because his wife was Chinese and he learnt a lot about Chinese teaching style and culture, which had helped him to compare the two education systems in order to find a better way of teaching Mandarin himself. Because of his family members, he concluded that he would always have a passion for Chinese.

Teacher NN2, as a non-native teacher, had been influenced by both his family and his friends. He said that he had had many Chinese friends since secondary school and from listening to his friends talking, he finds Chinese is an interesting language. He said: "I have lots of friends who speak Chinese." He therefore wanted to learn Mandarin and he did not treat Mandarin as a hard language to achieve. This idea had influenced his teaching and he always told his students that Mandarin is achievable.

When he got married, he went to China with his wife, a Chinese national. During his stay in China, he learnt Chinese and made great progress. Although he still had the idea that Mandarin is an obstacle for his teaching and his Mandarin proficiency is not good enough, he said: "I go to China every year to improve my language".

For native Mandarin teachers, Teacher N6 and Teacher N16 were both influenced by their children and both of them had changed their views on teaching Mandarin. They now held the view that Mandarin teachers need to understand the learning habits and styles of British students and lower their expectations while teaching. Teacher N6 shared that, "I think the change of my views is because I have my own child… Now, I think from the perspective of a child's growth, my entire concept of education has greatly changed."

Similarly, Teacher N16 stated that her opinion on Mandarin teaching had changed because of her child. When she observed her child's learning process and language progress in Mandarin, she found out that as a Mandarin teacher, it is essential to understand students' differences and stop comparing them with other students regarding their learning progress. She said:

> There is no way [for me] to compare my child with his classmates [in his Mandarin progress]. So, my requirement for my students now has also changed that if they can learn more than they did yesterday, I will give them a reward. This is a kind of progress [in my beliefs], instead of comparing them with other students in a class.

Teacher NO2, on the other hand, had been influenced by his wife in a different way. He used his methods to teach his wife Mandarin; however, he had also learnt some British teaching methods from his wife. He therefore usually combined the Chinese and British teaching methods together when he taught his students:

> My first student was my wife and she asked me to teach her Chinese. She actually taught me how to teach [British] students. She is a university teacher and her teaching experience is very rich… For the teaching process, she also taught me [how to teach]. For example, read a text alone for the first time, and then the teacher and student could read together. [Or] we first recorded the sound of [reading the text], then listening to the recording. I have learnt a variety of ways [from her], so I do not use just a single method to teach [Mandarin] in my class now.

4.3.3.3 Personal experience

The third sub-factor in 'internal factors' is the personal experience of Mandarin

teachers, which developed from my data analysis. It means that Mandarin teachers'
previous and current personal experiences in or related to China may influence their
Mandarin teaching beliefs. This sub-factor mainly influenced the non-native teachers
in my study. Teacher NN2 and Teacher NN3 both mentioned their personal
experience and their relationship with their beliefs on Mandarin teaching.

Teacher NN2 expressed the influence of his travel experience and his stay in China
and he thought it was very different and interesting to see Chinese people' lives and
also discover the beautiful scenery in China. He said: "I went to China for my gap
year to see if I really wanted to study Chinese." When he lived in China, he was
determined to learn the language in depth and found it motivating. He used pictures
he took in China in his classes and shared his travelling experiences in China to
motivate his students as well.

Equally, Teacher NN3 had also learnt from her travel experience in China and after
staying in China, she noticed that the teaching styles and methods of Mandarin were
similar with teaching other foreign languages. Moreover, she noted that it was helpful
if the teacher could speak both Mandarin and English in class. She said: "When I was
in China, I just spoke in Chinese, but I didn't understand everything. So it's nice to
mix the use [of both languages]."

4.3.3.4 Communication between language teachers

The fourth sub-factor in 'internal factors' is the communication between language
teachers, which also developed from the data. It means that the informal
communications between language teachers, including private chats, quick
discussions after-class, and small talk may influence Mandarin teachers' beliefs. It not
only represents communications between Mandarin teachers, but also between
Mandarin teachers and teachers who teach other languages. In my study, this sub-
factor mainly influenced the native Mandarin teachers and some of them said they
benefited greatly from these kinds of informal communications.

Some of the native Mandarin teachers, for instance, were willing to communicate
with other native Mandarin teachers and learn from them. They could learn many
practical teaching methods and put them into practice in their own class. Teacher

NO1 claimed that she always learnt from other teachers on teaching vocabulary and listening and she had changed her strategies:

> I often look at other teachers [at how they teach Mandarin], such as learning from other teachers on how to teach new words, how to teach vocabulary, and how to interpret vocabulary. And then I changed a lot, especially in listening.

Teacher N9 also agreed that: "I communicate with other teachers. Then the teachers tell me a better way [to teach the language]. I will then summarise them." Likewise, Teacher N14 said she used more games and activities in teaching Mandarin after learning strategies from other native Mandarin teachers and she had also started to interact with her students more while teaching:

> When you come here and discuss the teaching methods of many teachers, you may feel that the textbooks are not always liked by the children. Then, in order to teach the texts, you might design the lesson into small units of games and let them to play. And my interaction with the students in class [is more frequent] as well.

In addition, Teacher NO5 had learnt from the previous local native Mandarin teacher in her school and she combined her teaching methods with the previous teacher's. She discovered both advantages and disadvantages of traditional Chinese teaching methods and western teaching methods, so she now believes that it is better to use a mixture of methods in teaching Mandarin. She clarified that:

> Their former teacher was also a local native teacher and the previous teacher was very strict with them. The previous teacher's teaching method was more traditional. He always emphasised the basic skills of the students. I think after I took over [the class], the students are relatively better at speaking, and they can understand a more 'real' Chinese language or a more authentic China. Because in my class, I generally introduce them to a lot of the differences between the East and the West, for example their different lives. However, the two methods both have good sides and bad sides. The basic skills of students taught by the previous Chinese teacher are very strong, compared with other students. You can just let them learn by themselves in class and the results are very good. These students' ability in writing and Pinyin are very strong as well.

As well as the communication between Mandarin teachers, some Mandarin teachers were also willing to share their problems with local teachers teaching other modern foreign languages in their school in order to improve their teaching practices. Sometimes, they even went to listen to how the local language teachers teach secondary school students and learn from them. Teacher NO6, for instance, said she benefited greatly from communicating with the local language teachers. Since there was always a language teacher listening to her class, she could get feedback and make amendments to her teaching methods. She had hence learnt many teaching methods in

England and she combined her strategies with those methods in her current class. She also learnt the games and activities that the local teachers used and adapted them to Mandarin teaching in her school:

> [The local language teachers] will give me feedback every week to tell me how your teaching is this week, and the most important thing is that this feedback is not only providing you with direction. They will tell you exactly what happened in the classroom. For example, children may play with the glue stick and you did not notice. Every time a teacher will sit in my class and observe me in this lesson. What's more, their evaluations are very specific. For example, 'the setup time is too long today', or 'when you move to a certain point in class, you should speak a little bit faster' like very specific things…The local teachers give us many suggestions. They teach other foreign languages to the students and the classes are already accustomed to such methods, so [if I adapt from their methods], the students see familiar methods used in Chinese classes and they know how to do the tasks and activities.

Similarly, Teacher N1 often discussed her issues with the other local language teachers in her secondary school and she had adapted their methods for teaching secondary school students. She also observed some of their language classes and as a result, she was more familiar with the British teaching style afterwards:

> I followed the guidance of the local [language] teacher and discovered some better measures. Then I gradually adapted to the teaching methods for secondary school students and how to deal with the issues in their age groups…According to the teachers [I talked to and observed], I can see what kind of problems they have in class, what words they have written down on the board, and sometimes even what scenarios they used [in their activities] in class.

4.3.4 Summary of the factors influencing Mandarin teachers' beliefs

According to the data collected and the discussions regarding factors that impact upon Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs, there are three main dimensions: External factors (the context), education and teaching experience, and internal factors (personal factors and issues).

Firstly, for the external factors, there are six sub-factors, including the Confucius Institute and Confucius Classroom, education system, school curriculum, school support, students' ability and learning styles, and exam pressure. Secondly, for the factor of education and teaching experience, four areas are included: previous learning experience, education and training experience, previous teaching experience, and current teaching experience.

Finally, for the internal factors, this can be divided into four sub-elements, which are:

nationality and personal characteristics of the Mandarin teachers, Mandarin teachers' family background, Mandarin teachers' personal experience, and communications between language teachers. A summary diagram of the final developed conceptual framework, including all these factors, will be provided at the end of this chapter.

4.4 Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in class

In this section, I will describe the pedagogical practices of the Mandarin teachers in my observations and also discuss the relationship between their beliefs and pedagogical practices in teaching Mandarin in secondary schools. A relative consistency in the Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in the classroom can be seen. Additionally, their beliefs and pedagogical practices influence each other. The pedagogical practice of Mandarin teachers may also be influenced by the school context and the policy. This section attempts to answer my second research question: "How do Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs impact upon their pedagogical practices?"

4.4.1 Examples of methods used in Mandarin classes

Previous researchers have claimed that teachers' practices in the classroom may not always follow their beliefs and, without examining their teaching practices, what the teachers claim is not always reliable (e.g. Ducharme, 1993; Richards, 1998; Woods, 1996). It is still worth taking a look at the teaching practices that some of the Mandarin teachers described in their interviews; however, I could only get permission to observe seven Mandarin teachers' classes among the 31 Mandarin teachers in my study.

Some of the Mandarin teachers in the interviews provided various examples of their teaching practices in the classroom and also the teaching methods they frequently used. They used traditional methods, such as translation and flashcards, as well as interactive methods, like games, activities and competitions. I will discuss these practices below.

4.4.1.1 Traditional methods: Translation and flashcards

Some native and non-native Mandarin teachers in my study were used to using traditional teaching methods when teaching Mandarin in class. Translation exercises

and flash cards are often used. Teacher N2 and Teacher N15 explained that they usually preferred grammar translation methods in their classes. Teacher N2 said that: "grammar translation methods are actually still used frequently in my class at the beginners level." Teacher N15 described her practice in translation in detail:

> I found that with my Year 8 students, in particular, I've been making them do translation tasks. I usually give them the text [for translation] and give them a bit space under the text to write [the translation results].

Flashcards were not only used by native Mandarin teachers; non-native Mandarin teachers also liked this method to teach new words. Teacher NN1 used flashcards to do matching in class. He said, "I quite like these flashcards. You can do a lot of things with flash cards. You can do matching games and you can play with them on grabbing the right flash card [when learning new words]." Teacher NN3, however, used flash cards in a more traditional way: "I use very traditional methods. We have flashcards, and I make [my students] create flash cards [themselves], which is one side Mandarin and the other side in English."

As well as traditional teaching methods, some of the Mandarin teachers provided examples of interactive teaching methods that they used in class. This will be explored in the next section.

4.4.1.2 Interactive methods: Games, activities and tasks
Mandarin teachers in the interviews used interactive methods more frequently, which include games, activities and tasks designed for the Mandarin lessons.

For the games used by some Mandarin teachers, some of the games were adapted from the games in teaching other European languages, other games were created by the Mandarin teachers themselves. Teacher NN1, Teacher N8, Teacher N9, and Teacher N11 provided examples of the games they played with their students. Teacher NN1 and Teacher N8 had created their own games to help the students memorise the Chinese characters and the stroke order:

> I split the students into two groups and I announce the Chinese characters to the students from each group. When hearing the characters, the first student has to run up to the board and write down the characters. Then, the student comes back, gives the pen to the second student, and the second student need to write the second one and so on. I use this activity to help them to memorise the Chinese characters. (Teacher NN1)

In my classes, I often play games after teaching new Chinese characters. I will give the students some time to become familiar with the new words, and then [get them to] stand in a line. Each person holds a whiteboard pen in their hands to prepare to write on the board. Then, they need to write the character in accordance with the correct stroke order. Each person only writes one stroke and through the entire team, they complete a character. If a student misses the stroke order or forgets how to write it, he or she will be out. In the end, we just write all the characters we learnt in this way. (Teacher N8)

Additionally, the game that Teacher N9 used was a game she created on her own to review the teaching content at the end of each lesson:

I invented a game called 'saving the princess', and we have a map and a princess. After I finish teaching the content, the students have to pass through the map to save the princess. This game is not purposeless, because I add the teaching content into it.

Moreover, Teacher N11 used games like Bingo to motivate her students:

Children are taught with games, like Bingo. I put the new words with the pictures, and also divide the students into two groups. In the game, if one group speaks out one new word first, then the other group needs to choose to say another one in order to make them into a line. The students like it very much and their enthusiasm is very high. It feels like teachers can use this game to make lots of things interesting.

For the activities used in Mandarin classes, some Mandarin teachers offered their own practices in the interviews, such as Teacher N2 and Teacher N15. Teacher N2 usually made scenarios about her teaching content or used task-based methods in her class:

It will get learners involved into learning activities which are similar to realistic Chinese living scenarios. For example, when it came to the lesson talked about Chinese measuring words and Chinese cuisine, as well as the way of ordering dishes in Chinese restaurants, we made the classroom into a Chinese restaurant and did role plays of waiter/waitress and customers to make dialogues of ordering dishes. Besides, we imitated market sellers and customers when the class talked about money, it was a great way for recognising and utilising actual money.

Additionally, Teacher N15 let her students do an 'act and guess' activity to review the new words learnt in class, which is also a good way to check the students' learning:

I give a word to a student, and then ask up to two people to stand in the front, then the student will do an action. The student must know the meaning of the word, but s/he cannot speak it out, they can only use gestures. For example, when s/he sees 'British', s/he may pretend to drink tea. Through this activity, you can know that if the student is doing the right action, you also know they understand the word at a glance. If s/he does something different, the teacher will know that the students still need to review the new words again. And if two people in the front can speak out the word smoothly, that means they know the correct pronunciation of the word. [This activity] shows that the understanding of Chinese characters can be checked, and then the pronunciation can basically be checked too.

For the tasks that Mandarin teachers created for their students, Teacher NN2 provided a good example. He explained how the tasks were being used in his class. After the students' self-study ability had been developed, Teacher NN2 thought that it would make teaching much easier, since students had already realised they could go online and looked at anything they were interested in. One of the tasks that he created was asking his students to make posters in class and it was also an assessment to check the words they had learnt before:

> We have got exams at the end of each unit. Instead of having an [actual] exam, what I did with them was [tasks]. If the unit has been about family and friends, what I wanted them to do is asking them to bring in a picture of someone [they know] and they are going to make a 'wanted' poster, like a criminal poster. And they put the word 'wanted' on it, brought the pictures of their friends, and they put like the 'wanted' character on it. Then, they looked up a few words [for the posters]. … [For example], one of these wanted posters is of their friend called 'Dave' who is wanted because of stealing chocolate. [The student wrote] 'he has a mum, a dad, two cats, a dog. His family is big.' They are used to doing this as a normal end of the unit test. They have actually designed a poster, but they do not realise that they have literally just done a piece of controlled assessment.

Even though the examples above showed some of the practices that some Mandarin teachers did in their Mandarin classes, the examples shared by these teachers may not be proved through their actual teaching practices in class, since I have no observations of these teachers. I will therefore present the Mandarin teachers pedagogical practices from my observations in the next section.

4.4.2 Pedagogical practices in Mandarin classrooms

In this section, I will describe the pedagogical practices of the seven Mandarin teachers in the four secondary schools that I observed and the methods they preferred to use in their Mandarin lessons.

4.4.2.1 Teacher NO1 in School A

Teacher NO1 was teaching two different Mandarin classes in School A, both of which were exam preparation classes. One class was preparing for the HSK Level 1 exam (which is a Mandarin proficiency exam established by China) and the other was for the GCSE and A-Level Chinese exams. During the 10 observations, Teacher NO1 usually used her teaching approaches consistently.

In the HSK exam preparation class, she always asked her students to make flashcards of the words and phrases by themselves in each class. The students could then use these cards to review and remember the words required in the exam. Teacher NO1 got her students to write down the word in Chinese on one side of the card and write down the Pinyin and English meanings on the other side. Students could then use the cards to learn the words by themselves. They could do personal work, do pair work to help each other to review the words, or test each other. Teacher NO1 also asked them to check their learning results in pairs or check the meaning by themselves. She regularly did oral checks in class. For example:

> Teacher NO1 (T): How to say 'to learn' in Chinese?
> Student 1 (S1): "学习"[answered in Chinese].
> T: Good. [Turned to the next student] How to say 'English' in Chinese?
> S2: "英文" [answered in Chinese].
> T: Good. [Then continued asking]

Moreover, when the students were writing the cards, the teacher asked them to read aloud the words in Chinese while writing. Sometimes, when there were some words or phrases that students could not understand, she would explain them in detail. When the students asked the meaning of 'rice cake', for instance, Teacher NO1 explained the cultural background of the word. She described how to make rice cakes to the students as well.

After making the flashcards, Teacher NO1 then gave the students the HSK mock exam papers to do by themselves. When the students were finished, she checked the answers and explained each question to the students. If one student asked a question about the word meaning, the teacher sometimes passed the question to other students:

> S1: What's the meaning of "重要"[in Chinese]?
> T: [Turned to other students] Does anyone know the meaning?
> S3: Is it… 'important'?
> T: Yes.

For the mock exam papers, Teacher NO1 usually left the reading exercises for the students to finish after class and did listening and writing exercises in class. For the listening test, the teacher helped the students to pick up key words while doing listening tests and guided them on how to make choices. Sometimes she played the recording twice and explained the listening content to the students. For the writing exercise, however, Teacher NO1 pointed out their errors and asked the students to correct themselves.

In the GCSE/A Level exam preparation class, it was more student-oriented and task-based. Teacher NO1 gave different tasks and work to different students based on their level and the exams they needed to attend, such as essay writing for A-Level students, translation and making flashcards for GCSE students, writing Chinese characters, Pinyin and meanings on the board for the lower level students. Each student therefore had their own task to do and the students were concentrating hard.

Sometimes, Teacher NO1 asked the students to help each other with how to write essays in Mandarin. The students could mark and correct their writing themselves and the teacher could guide them while doing the activity. For speaking, she allocated students into pairs and they did a mock speaking test with each other, and for reading, she asked the whole class to translate reading texts in the past exam papers together.

To summarise, both the HSK exam and the GCSE/A Level exam classes were mainly focused on exam preparation and the classes were flexible according to the students, which means the students spent more time learning by themselves and were guided by the teacher. The teacher was more like an instructor or guide to help the students and the teaching methods used in class were mainly Chinese traditional methods. There were still some interactions between teachers and students observed, however. Furthermore, it was a student-oriented classroom.

4.4.2.2 Teacher NO2 in School A

Teacher NO2 taught an HSK level 3 exam preparation class in School A. After observing his classes 10 times, I found that he used various teaching methods in class, but there was still a consistency in his teaching process.

Since it was an exam preparation class, Teacher NO2 followed the textbook all the time. He usually asked the students to finish the exercise in the textbook themselves and while doing the exercises, he checked and corrected the answers frequently, especially in sentence translation. When teaching a new lesson, he focused on explaining the new words in the text first to the students and he used a mixture of Chinese and English to teach. For example, in one class:

T: What's the meaning of 检查[in Chinese]?

S1: To exam? Examining!

T: Yes, examining. We just said it means examine to check.

S1: Could we say 'to examine the details' in Chinese?

T: 可以. We can say 检查你的中文语法.

Then, he wrote the next word 锻炼 (to exercise) on the board to help them to make phrases with this word:

S1: Could we say 锻炼信心 (to exercise the confidence)?

T: Very close, we say 增强信心, but we can say 锻炼智力 (to exercise the intelligence).

S2: Could we say 锻炼…?

T: 锻炼什么？ (to exercise what?) We need a noun after the verb, 最常见的是锻炼身体 (the most common one is body exercise).

T: [Turned to the next word] [in Chinese] 帮助. 大家都知道是吧？帮助朋友，帮助小动物 (Does everyone understand 'to help'? helping your friends, helping the animals).

Sometimes he also used pictures to help the students memorise the new words and students usually followed the teacher to read each new word 2-3 times. Then the teacher would ask the meaning of the word:

T: 下一个 [Next], 复习 (to review).

S1 & S2: (repeat) 复习 [repeated the process 2-3 times].

T: OK. What's the meaning of 复习?

S2: To review?

T: Yes, you're right.

In his class, different students had different ways to remember words; they may prefer to write on the board, write on cards or do pair work. Sometimes, one student wrote down the words in Chinese and asked the other classmate to give the meaning. The classmate needed to read the word in Chinese and answer the meaning in English.

After finishing teaching the textbook, Teacher NO2 gave the students past exam papers to do by themselves first, and he was like a guide to answer students' questions, such as "what's the difference between the two words?" Teacher NO2 also encouraged his students a lot while they were doing the exam papers. After the students finished the exam papers, he checked their answers, corrected the errors, and then explained the grammar points to them, such as the tenses in Chinese. He also taught them some exam tips while checking the exam papers.

The class was very student-centred and Teacher NO2 encouraged his students using their own ways to learn in class. Students could also use an electronic dictionary or

dictionary apps on their mobile phones to check the new words. Dictation activities were sometimes used and the teacher asked the students to test each other and write the words learnt in the previous lessons on the board.

In the final observation, Teacher NO2 tried a new teaching technique. He wrote down a dialogue in Chinese on the white board and then required the students to write down the Pinyin of the dialogue. Then the students needed to read the sentences one by one and translate them into English.

For Teacher NO2, the class was also student-centred and students spent more time learning by themselves in class. Although he tried some different teaching methods, it was still an exam-based class and the teaching process still seemed more traditional.

4.4.2.3 Teacher NO3 in School B

I went to Teacher NO3's class eight times, but I only observed her class six times. The first two lessons were cancelled because there were no students present. After the two cancellations, Teacher NO3 complained while waiting for the students, she said that because Mandarin was not part of the fixed curriculum in School B, there was no attendance registration required for the after-school club and students' attendance was very flexible. From the observations, it can be seen that the students' attendance was not very stable, just like Teacher NO3 said.

Teacher NO3 was teaching two different classes in School B, both of which were HSK exam classes. She taught one beginners' class and one advanced class and both classes were after school clubs. During the observations, there were four formal classes and two cultural classes. The cultural classes were mainly about Chinese calligraphy and the formal classes were language classes.

Since the classes were exam-based classes, Teacher NO3's teaching process was stable in the observations. She usually reviewed the previous lessons at the beginning, then taught the Chinese characters, the new words and sentences, and did translation exercises. Sometimes, she designed several pair works or group works for the students to do which were based on the teaching content. At the end of each class, she made a short review and summary of the lesson.

When teaching Chinese characters and new words, Teacher NO3 asked the students to copy down the words in their notebooks following what the teacher wrote on the board. She also checked and observed the students' actions while they were copying. After teaching the new words, students were told to listen to the teacher's pronunciation and followed the teacher to read the new words. For the first time, Pinyin and Chinese characters were both shown, and for the second time, there was no Pinyin. Teacher NO3 could thus check the students' learning outcomes by asking them to make sentences with these words.

Teacher NO3 would then do translation exercises, asking the students to translate Chinese into English or English into Chinese. She sometimes designed a short question and answer activity after doing translation and required the students to answer the teacher's questions in Chinese. Afterwards, the whole class read the dialogue in the text books following the teacher and did role play based on the dialogue. The role play was carried out twice by exchanging the roles between the partners.

Various activities were used by Teacher NO3 in class to review the teaching content. The teacher said a word in Chinese and students said the same word in English, for instance, or creating scenarios with the students' friends to make sentences. When teaching numbers in one class, the teacher created games about numbers. In one game, the teacher spoke out the numbers in Chinese and students wrote down in Chinese; in another, the teacher got one student to write down several numbers and the other student needed to read the numbers aloud. She also let the students make their own dialogues about asking for phone numbers in pairs and the students were required to take notes during the dialogues.

Since it was still an exam preparation class, Teacher NO3 included some exam exercises during class as well. She followed the textbook and did the exercises on reading, filling in the blanks, and listening. For the listening tests, she always played the recordings twice. First, she played the whole content; for the second time, the teacher stopped to explain the new words and asked the students to take notes and then repeated it again. For the reading and writing, she asked the students to read and write first and then corrected the mistakes. At the end, she sometimes did a dictation

exercise or sometimes taught the students to write 2-3 Chinese characters. Teacher NO3 usually wrote Pinyin on board while teaching, however; the students were only required to know and recognise the Chinese characters.

In the last two observations, Teacher NO3 paid more attention to speaking. She spent two weeks doing the speaking task. She provided the students with a sample speech for self-introduction and asked them to prepare to introduce themselves following the sample. Then in the next lesson, each student needed to do this oral task in class.

To sum up, although it was an exam preparation class, Teacher NO3 used a mixture of traditional teaching methods and interactive methods. There were many exercises for the students in the teaching process and it seems that the traditional methods were more frequently used by Teacher NO3.

4.4.2.4 Teacher NO4 in School B

From the eight observations of Teacher NO4 in School B, it seemed that her teaching process and teaching strategies were mainly consistent, even though the teaching content could be varied. Teacher NO4 was teaching one Mandarin class at the intermediate level in School B, which was also a Mandarin class preparing for the HSK exams. Teacher NO4's teaching process was similar in all the lessons. First of all, she reviewed the characters learned before. Teacher NO4 asked one student to write down the Chinese characters that the student remembered on the board and let others guess the meanings. In one class, for example, a student wrote 中 (middle), 山 (mountain) and 人 (people) on the board.

Secondly, Teacher NO4 taught new words. She asked the students to follow the teacher to read twice and explain the meaning of each word in the textbook. Thirdly, Teacher NO4 taught new sentences and she always asked the students to practise after understanding the sentences. In one lesson, for instance, she taught sentences regarding asking people's names. She got the students to ask each other's names by using the sentence: 你叫什么名字？ （What's your name?） When she noted that students were facing problems with particular words or sentences, she designed a short activity quickly to help them. In one class, students had problems resolving the

words 'you' and 'I' in Mandarin. She therefore did a task about pointing out 'you' and 'I' after hearing sentences like 我叫汤姆 (My name is Tom), and 你是大卫 (You are David).

After teaching the sentences, she often left some time for the students to practice themselves. She divided them into groups and let them introduce themselves to each other in one lesson, or introduce the nationality of five famous people from different countries in another lesson. Sometimes, activities for the whole class were designed. In one lesson, she made the students take turns to ask questions and answer questions about their nationality. She used traditional exercises in class as well, such as filling the blanks of the sentences in the textbook. At the end, she often reviewed the content from the whole class.

From the observations of Teacher NO4, it could be seen that her teaching process rarely changed and was also exam-based. She used various ways to practice and made the students feel interested at the same time. Like Teacher NO3, Teacher NO4 wrote Pinyin on the board all the time; she seldom required her students to write down many Chinese characters, only some simple ones.

4.4.2.5 Teacher NO5 in School C

Because of the regulations in School C, I only had the chance to visit the school on one day and observed three different Mandarin classes taught by Teacher NO5 that day. The Mandarin course in School C is in the curriculum and the classes I observed were two Year 9 classes and one Year 11 class.

In the first Mandarin class for Year 9 students, Teacher NO5 announced the exam results from the last week and explained the answers to the exam paper. After that, she began to review the previous lessons, asking the students to say a word learnt in Mandarin and in English, such as words about fruits, vegetables, money, and time.

Then, Teacher NO5 asked the students to do a reading exercise and a writing exercise by themselves. After checking the answers, she began to teach a new lesson about shopping. She taught the new character 还 (also) and let the students write down the

character five times in their notebooks, including the Pinyin and English meaning. Next, she taught new sentences and grammar with the new word and let students create their own sentences by following the example: 我买苹果，还买橙子 (I buy apples, and buy oranges too). Finally, she did a translation exercise at the end of the lesson on the same topic.

In the second Mandarin class for Year 9 students, it was mainly for the students to self-study with the computers. Teacher NO5 provided the students with a task and the students needed to finish the classwork by the end. While doing the class, the students needed to do a dialogue with Teacher NO5 one by one, mainly answering the teacher's questions about school life.

The third Mandarin class I observed was with the students in Year 11 and they were preparing for the GCSE Chinese exam at that time. Teacher NO5 first asked the students to do a reading exercise in pairs and then explained the new words in the reading text to the whole class. She also checked the answers to the reading exercise and asked the students to read aloud in pairs.

Since the topic in that lesson was about jobs and occupations, Teacher NO5 asked the students questions about jobs. For example, 你理想的职业是什么？ （What's your ideal job?），你爸爸的职业是什么？ (What is your dad's job), and 你妈妈的职业是什么？ (What is your mum's job?). Then, she made them ask their partners the same questions.

Afterwards, she taught new words in this lesson and let her students make sentences with the new words in pairs and then speak out the sentences in the whole class. Finally, she designed a group work task called 'sentence solitaire'. She divided the students into three groups and everyone in the group had to say two sentences within the format 要是…我就… (If… I would…). All the sentences would then be presented to the whole class.

From the observations of Teacher NO5, she generally used more traditional teaching methods in her Mandarin classes and she provided many opportunities for the

students to learn by themselves.

4.4.2.6 Teacher NO6 in School D

In School D, there was a fixed teaching process for every subject in the school. The Mandarin course thus had to follow the same teaching rules in School D, since the Mandarin course was in the school curriculum. For Teacher NO6 and Teacher NO7, the teaching process was repeated in the eight observations and they both taught the same teaching content in the parallel classes of Year 7 and Year 8, as they prepared the Mandarin classes together. There were eight Mandarin classes in Year 7 and eight classes in Year 8. Each of them taught four classes in each year group. The two teachers sometimes taught the same content using different approaches, however.

In Teacher NO6's Mandarin classes, she usually taught the Mandarin process thus:

- First of all, doing registration and checking the homework;
- Secondly, doing starter exercises and checking the answers;
- Thirdly, teaching the new words in the new lesson and asking the students to write down the Pinyin and English meaning of the new words in their notebook;
- Playing a game to review the words taught;
- After that, teaching sentences: letting the students read all the sentences in Chinese in full at first. Then, reading these sentences between the groups of boys and girls. Finally, covering Pinyin and asking the students to read the sentences personally with Chinese characters only;
- Afterwards, teaching the grammar points and asking the students to copy the grammar patterns in their notebook;
- Next, doing a group work or an activity;
- Finally, giving hand-outs and homework to the students.

Teacher NO6 used various games to review the new words in class. For example, one of the games was 'where is SpongeBob?', which involved asking the students to read the new words in different groups. She also used games to help students learn the sentences, such as 'SpongeBob one day'. She showed the sample sentences like 七点起床，八点吃饭…(Getting up at seven. Having breakfast at eight…) and then let the students follow the examples to do dialogues in pairs. Another game was Bingo, in

which students were required to read sentences in Mandarin and then translate into English.

For the activities and tasks used near the end of each lesson, I noted that there were various activities adapted while teaching. She did pair work in several lessons, for instance. She let the students create their own dialogues following the teacher's example or the pictures. In another lesson, the students did a class survey, which involved interviewing three classmates about their daily lives.

When Teacher NO6 taught Pinyin in the new term, she usually made the students read aloud in the whole class. If someone's pronunciation was good, she would ask the whole class to follow that student. She also did pair work to practise Pinyin by using the Pinyin cards in class. She asked the students to listen to the teacher's pronunciation and found the right card. Then, the students would try to pronounce the sound themselves.

Teacher NO6 in particular used hand gestures to guide the students' pronunciation. Sometimes, if the class time was not long enough, she would skip some content. Moreover, she also paid a lot of attention to classroom management in her class.

4.4.2.7 Teacher NO7 in School D

Likewise, Teacher NO7 followed the same teaching process in School D and she also repeated the teaching process in the parallel classes in the eight observations. In addition, the teaching content was the same as Teacher NO6's.

Teacher NO7's teaching process was:

- Firstly, doing registration and checking homework;
- Secondly, doing a starter exercise;
- Thirdly, teaching new words and asking the students to write down Pinyin and English meanings of the new words in the notebook;
- Playing a game to review the words taught;
- After that, teaching sentences and grammar patterns, and asking the students to copy the grammar patterns into their notebooks;
- Next, doing a group work or an activity;
- Finally, giving a hand-out and homework to the students.

Despite the fact that Teacher NO7's teaching process was similar to Teacher NO6 and the teaching content, activities and games used in class were also the same, Teacher NO7 sometimes used different teaching techniques and did the games and activities in different ways. After teaching new words, for instance, Teacher NO7 would ask the students to follow the teacher and read the new words. It was her special way to review the words and later she asked the students to read themselves. Furthermore, when teaching sentences, she often asked the students to do translation exercises between Mandarin and English. Additionally, after teaching grammar, she also let the students translate the sentences by themselves.

It seemed that Teacher NO7 had more time to do games and activities in class, even though most of the games and activities were the same as Teacher NO6. She did pair work about talking about the items in the students' rooms and school bags, for example, or finding the locations by looking at pictures. Games like 'Beat the teacher', Bingo, and 'Find the angry birds' were also observed. For the classroom survey mentioned above, the time provided for the students in Teacher NO7's classes was more flexible.

Teacher NO7 also sometimes asked her students to do self-study in class. After doing exercises in class, she told her students: "Please check the answers by yourself."

When teaching Pinyin in the new term,　the general teaching routine of Teacher NO7 was the same as Teacher NO6. She sometimes had different teaching approaches, however. In the pair work using Pinyin cards, for instance, her usage of the cards was different. Teacher NO7 asked the students to show the tone cards first. Then, she asked them to find the six simple 'finals' in Pinyin from the cards and show to the teacher. After that, the students needed to find 'initials'. Finally, the students had to listen to the teacher's pronunciation and find the finals and initials to make up a character.

Consequently, although the teaching process and content for Teacher NO6 and Teacher NO7 were similar, they made slight changes according to their own classes and the teaching methods were different between the two teachers.

4.4.3 Relationship between Mandarin teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices in class

In this section, I will discuss the relationship between Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs and their pedagogical practices in class by examining the literature and the data from the seven Mandarin teachers' interviews, observations, and follow-up interviews.

4.4.3.1 Impact of Mandarin teachers' beliefs on their pedagogical practice

As stated in Chapter 2, in Clark and Peterson (1986)'s model, there is a relationship between teachers' thought processes and teachers' actions (p.257). They claimed that teachers' beliefs "affects their planning and their interactive thoughts and decisions" (p.258). Other researchers supported the study and agreed that teachers' views and beliefs could impact their practices in class (e.g. Abdullah-Sani, 2000; Fang, 1996; Farrell, 2003; Flores, 2002; Pajares, 1992).

For language teachers, a multitude of studies have confirmed that language teachers' views and beliefs could influence teachers' pedagogical practices in the classroom (e.g. Bailey, 1996; Breen, 1991; Breen et al., 2001; Borg, 2003; Burns, A., 1996; Gatbonton, 1999; Johnson 1992; Richards, 1996; Smith, 1996; Woods, 1991, 1996). Woods (1991) and Smith (1996) claim that language teachers' views and beliefs shape their pedagogical practices in language classrooms. Woods (1996) suggests that language teachers' beliefs "play an important role in how the teacher interprets events related to teaching" (p.184). Borg (2003) also stated that "teachers' cognitions emerge consistently as a powerful influence on their practices" (p.91).

From the data collection, it can be seen that most of the Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs influenced their pedagogical practices in class. Teacher NO1, for instance, believed that Mandarin classes should be student-centred and students need to have the ability to self-study. She said that she used a lot of traditional Chinese teaching methods in class and she always asked her students to make flashcards of new words: "I do not do flashcards myself, I let the students themselves do flashcards and they make the cards after each test." She also expressed the importance of understanding students' differences in her interview. From the observations, Teacher NO1 followed her beliefs and used many traditional teaching methods. She let her students make

flashcards and provided different tasks to different students.

Teacher NO2 expressed that after his teaching practice, his views about teaching and learning Mandarin as a foreign language had not changed and he still thought that the students' needs were important in teaching: "There are some basic methods and basic concepts that I have not changed. My basic attitude is still based on the needs of students and it must be based on their requirements." Since his students were preparing for the HSK exams, he mainly focused on the exams in class and he tried to develop their self-learning ability. Teacher NO2 also believed that encouraging students to ask questions was important, so when the students had questions in class, he always let them ask. That was because:

> I do not want to let them feel depressed or negative for too long. This kind of negative emotion has no help in learning. When they encounter problems, they ask me after thinking by themselves. It may reinforce their impression of the answers.

Teacher NO3 held the idea that students' practice was essential in teaching and learning Mandarin. She said, "I feel that it is very important to practise more. … practice [needs] to be from words, sentences, dialogues, and then goes to free expressions." As a result, in her class, she did group activities or group exercises. She also frequently asked questions to the students and let the students ask questions of the teacher. Furthermore, she suggested that her exercises in class were related to the students' lives, which was reflected in her practice.

In Teacher NO6's class, she usually used gestures to teach pronunciation. This action was based on her initial beliefs:

> Because I think people's bodies have memories as well as brains. …I think the body memory is mechanical, and your body will remember it when you repeat [the same gestures] several times.

Finally, after observing Teacher NO7's classes, I found that her class discipline was very good. When ask for the reasons, Teacher NO7 expressed that she already understood how to manage a classroom before becoming a Mandarin teacher in England:

> In fact, you have to give the students a feeling that class is serious…If they feel that you are a serious person, their behaviour will be better. You must give them the impression that you take classroom discipline seriously from the

beginning…Otherwise, they may not listen to you.

To sum up, Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs influenced their teaching practices in different ways. From the data gathered, however, it appears that Mandarin teachers views and beliefs are also impacted by their pedagogical practices in class. This will be discussed in the next section.

4.4.3.2 Impact of Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practice on their beliefs

Despite the fact that teachers' beliefs may influence their teaching practice in the classroom, in turn, research has stated that teachers' teaching practices in the classroom could influence their cognition (e.g. Burns, A., 1996; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Johnson, 1996; Spada & Massey, 1992). Crookes and Arakaki (1999) indicate that "as you have more practice, then you know in the classroom what will work and what will not work" (p.16). It is the same with language teachers; their practices may impact their views and beliefs in both positive and negative ways (e.g. Breen et al. 2001; Borg, 2003; Golombek, 1998; Woods, 1996). Woods (1996), for instance, used a Japanese teacher as an example to show that his teaching practices changed his initial ideas on students' learning purposes.

In my study, Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices also influenced and changed their views and beliefs. Teacher NO2, for example tried the technique where he asked his students to write Chinese characters on the board in order to remember the new words and the results seemed positive. He therefore noted that it was a good way to motivate his students and develop their self-learning skills:

> They may think that writing on the board is more fun and more interesting. Then, after writing [the words] out, they look at each other and check the answers. It is a sense of competition.

Teacher NO4 also changed her views after teaching Mandarin in secondary schools. She had focused on the students' progress a lot in the past, but after teaching in School B, she used more class time to review the previous teaching content since "there was only one 45-minute class per week, if they do not have homework, then they may easily forget what we learnt in class." As a result, she slowed down the teaching process in class. Furthermore, Teacher NO4 also paid more attention to students' interests in class. From the observations, she gave the students some activities while teaching and used pictures inside the PowerPoint. When I asked about

the reasons, she said that after teaching secondary school students for some time, she summarised that "the students would have more interest [when] having some interesting activities or pictures in class."

Although it was not visible in every Mandarin teacher, the pedagogical practices in Mandarin classrooms may influence the teachers' views and beliefs in some respects.

4.4.3.3 Impact of the school context on Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practice

Previous research has shown that the context of the school sometimes shapes teachers' teaching practice. Spada and Massey (1992) and Burns, A. (1996) indicate that the school may affect teachers' practices in class and may influence the teachers' views. For language teachers, Breen et al. (2001) claimed that language teachers who teach in the same school may hold similar beliefs, even though their actions in class may vary (p.496). After examining my data, most of the Mandarin teachers in my observations were impacted by the contexts of their secondary schools. The influence may be strong or insignificant between different Mandarin teachers and different schools.

The pedagogical practices of Teacher NO3 and Teacher NO4 were slightly affected by School B. Since the Mandarin courses in School B were allocated after school, Teacher NO3 and Teacher NO4 had to slightly change their teaching methods and tried to find a balance between students' interests and exam preparation. For example, Teacher NO3 said:

> There is no pressure on the students because this is not a compulsory course. They just come because of interest… In general, they do not have [the] pressure of school credits, so I can only attract them as much as possible. However, I think that if I keep teaching the exam content, they may lose their interest. And when they have other issues, they may give up Mandarin class finally. So maybe I need to add more cultural content like Chinese calligraphy and movies to attract them.

Teacher NO4 supported Teacher NO3 by stating that:

> In this school, the aim is to attract and keep the students, and the students are all coming after class. Since the motivations for teaching and learning differ, the teaching methods I use are different. So, I mainly focus on motivating the students and I don't want to make them feel that it is difficult to learn Mandarin.

On the contrary, Teacher NO5, Teacher NO6 and Teacher NO7 were strongly influenced by the context of the school. Teacher NO5, for example, had turned to

using traditional teaching methods in her Mandarin classes, which was because in School C, they valued the students' exam results and students in the school also preferred doing direct exercises rather than games. She found that in this school, teachers did not need to worry how to raise students' interest and what the teachers needed to consider was the students' progress. Furthermore, the pedagogical practices of Teacher NO6 and Teacher NO7 had adjusted to the teaching process in School D, which can be seen from the observations. Since School D had special teaching systems, both of them had to amend some of their teaching process and practices. As Teacher NO6 pointed out:

> The school pursues equal opportunities. They have a very strict system. Unlike in other schools where they may pay attention to the personal characteristics of the teachers, you will be slowly assimilated into their system, and you will agree with this model. They will minimise the teacher's teaching characteristics, so that all of their students can get equal opportunities. That is the concept of teaching in the school.

Consequently, Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practice may be influenced by the context of the school. The impact of this may be stronger for some Mandarin teachers than others.

4.4.3.4 Impact of policy on Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practice

In addition to the influence of the school context, some Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in the UK are affected by the policies of the Confucius Institute, especially the Hanban teachers. Tinsley and Board (2014) found that in England, Mandarin teachers from Hanban used more Pinyin when teaching Mandarin in primary and secondary schools (p.87). "This policy [about teaching Pinyin] … confirmed that the policy [of the Confucius Institute] was to focus on oral skills at both primary and secondary level" (Tinsley & Board, 2014, p.87). This idea was also reflected in the classroom observations of Teacher NO3, Teacher NO4, Teacher NO6, and Teacher NO7. These four teachers were all from Hanban and all paid more attention to teaching Pinyin in class. They usually wrote Pinyin instead of Chinese characters while teaching new words and sentences in class.

Furthermore, these teachers spent more time on speaking rather than writing in their Mandarin courses. This may also depend on the Mandarin proficiency level of their students, however. As for Teacher NO6 and Teacher NO7, I observed that they

tended to focus on speaking more because their students were not at a high level of writing in Year 7 and 8. When I asked their reasons for writing Pinyin instead of Chinese characters in class, only Teacher NO4 admitted that she was partly influenced by this policy, but she emphasised that it was also related to the students' language ability and self-learning ability:

> If there are a large number of Chinese characters, they really cannot recognise… Pinyin is a self-learning ability…After they go home and see a new text, they know how to read it… in English-speaking countries, Pinyin is probably easier for them to learn… as long as it can provide them with the convenience of reading.

For Teacher NO3, Teacher NO6 and Teacher NO7, however, they declared that the reason for writing Pinyin was mainly related to the students' language proficiency. Teacher NO3 is a good example; she explained that as well as the language proficiency, it may also be because of the exam requirements:

> This is not stipulated and it is based on student conditions…I think they understand Pinyin faster…Since we mainly focus on their expression. When they see Pinyin, they know how to say the word. The design of the HSK exam does not require them to write Chinese characters at lower levels too.

The four Mandarin teachers' practices may thus reflect the statement in Tinsley and Board's (2014) study, which indicated that "to Hanban teachers, [it helps them] to avoid putting too many demands on pupils which might be daunting for them" (p.87).

To sum up, Mandarin teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices in secondary schools influence each other. Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practice in the classroom may be impacted by the school context and policy, especially for Hanban teachers.

4.5 Students' engagement in Mandarin classes and the relationship with teachers' pedagogical practice

In this section, I will present the data on the students' engagement from the observations of the Mandarin classes taught by the seven Mandarin teachers. I will then discuss the relationship between the Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices and their students' engagement in Mandarin classes. This section will try to answer my third research question: "How do the pedagogical practices in Mandarin classes influence students' learning engagement?"

As stated in the literature review chapter, some researchers have discussed different

aspects regarding students' engagement (e.g. Ellis; 2012; Lawson & Lawson, 2013). Only a few researchers, however, have explored students' engagement in the classroom from teachers' perspectives (e.g. Cothran & Ennis, 2000; Ravet, 2007; Zyngier, 2007). Previous researchers have found that teachers' practice in class impacts students' learning engagement in different ways (e.g. Brewster & Bowen, 2004; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Cothran & Ennis, 2000; Harris, 2011). In Clark and Peterson's (1986) model, they claimed that teachers' performance in the classroom influences their students' reactions and then their learning outcomes. They also suggest, however, that students' reactions and learning outcomes may impact the teachers' practice interactively (p.257).

For Mandarin teachers in England in particular, Tinsley and Board (2014) point out that from earlier research, "many teachers used games and competitive activities to ensure all pupils had a chance to speak and practice the language. Pupils clearly enjoyed these and were keen to respond" (p.85). It could be seen here that in Mandarin classes, the students were often more engaged in the games, activities and competitions. From the observations of Teacher NO3, Teacher NO4, Teacher NO6, and Teacher NO7, students became more enthusiastic when playing games and doing activities and their participation in the classroom was higher. In Teacher NO6's class, for example students really enjoyed and engaged with the group competitions. When playing games like Bingo and 'where is SpongeBob?' the students were willing to participate. Teacher NO6 noted that her students "know how to play games well and the effect is very good", but when doing translations, the students may be less engaged. Teacher NO6 hence used games and competitions to motivate the students often. Furthermore, particularly for Teacher NO6, her students seemed to enjoy doing the gestures while learning the pronunciation. They all put up their hands and followed the teacher's actions to read aloud. Their enthusiasm was high and it could be seen that they really liked this activity, since most of the students were smiling while doing the gestures.

Similarly, in Teacher NO7's class, games like 'finding angry birds' and activities like the group interview of the classmates' daily routines seemed to be enjoyable for the students. After teaching the new vocabulary, there was always a small game designed to help students memorise the vocabulary. Teacher NO7 also noticed that when doing

group competitions, students may feel less bored. Moreover, when asking questions, she sometimes let the students choose a classmate to answer the question, then the person who answered could choose the next person. When doing this practice in class, it can be observed that students became more focused and engaged. The results were also satisfying, just as Teacher NO7 said, "they will not feel bored and their own choice is also more interesting."

In contrast, for the other three teachers, Teacher NO1, Teacher NO2 and Teacher NO5, the relationship between their pedagogical practices and the students' engagement was not so convincing. This may be because their students are highly motivated and used to self-learning in class. It may also be related to the content of the class, which was mainly exam preparation in Teacher NO1 and Teacher NO2's classes. In Teacher NO2's class, for example, his students were highly motivated and had their own ways of learning Mandarin themselves. I could tell that the students were satisfied with this learning mode and they all worked very hard. In addition, it could be seen from the observations that students in Teacher NO5's class were also highly motivated and they paid a lot of attention to their exam results, so her students were engaged in the whole teaching process in order to make progress.

To summarise, from previous research and my data collection, students may be more engaged in games, activities and competitions in Mandarin classrooms. This could only be observed in some teachers' practices, however. This may thus need further development in future studies.

4.6 Summary of the chapter
4.6.1 Summary of the key findings
In this chapter, I explored and discussed the findings from my data collection regarding native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views, beliefs and their pedagogical practices in secondary schools in England. The five sections in the chapter are closely related to my three research questions:

(1). What are the views and beliefs of Mandarin teachers about teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language in England? What, if any, are the differences between native teachers and non-native teachers?

(2). How do Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs impact upon their pedagogical

practices?

(3). How do the pedagogical practices in Mandarin classes influence students' learning engagement?

From the data collection process and the data analysis, I selected some key findings about my research topic. I will conclude all the findings below.

First of all, there are four shared beliefs between native and non-native Mandarin teachers in my research. These are:

- Mandarin teachers think that students' interest is most important in teaching Mandarin in England. Keeping the interest of highly motivated students and motivating students in various ways are thus essential, such as meeting the students' needs, building up students' confidence, and using games, activities and competitions during teaching in class;

- Students' self-study ability in Mandarin is highly valued by teachers. This ability could be developed outside the classroom and in student-centred teaching in the classroom. The interactions between students themselves and Pinyin are useful;

- It is important to teach Chinese characters and it is better to teach Chinese characters at the beginning of learning Mandarin. There are various methods to teach Chinese characters;

- Mandarin teachers need to concentrate on opportunities to use Mandarin for students outside class. By creating a language environment in the classroom and speaking more Mandarin while teaching, it may help to facilitate better learning outcomes.

Secondly, some different views and beliefs were held by native and non-native Mandarin teachers in my study. Native Mandarin teachers held six beliefs particular to them:

- Native Mandarin teachers are proud and professional as native speakers teaching Mandarin;

- Native Mandarin teachers need to lower their expectations of their students after understanding the teaching style and the students' differences in England;

- The methods of teaching Mandarin are different from teaching other European languages, such as French and Spanish, but native Mandarin teachers could combine the various teaching methods of different languages together while

teaching Mandarin;

- It is important for Mandarin teachers to interact with students in various ways in the student-centred classroom;
- Native Mandarin teachers paid more attention to the students' learning outcomes in Mandarin;
- Native Mandarin teachers emphasised the importance of classroom management in classes.

On the contrary, the non-native Mandarin teachers had four main beliefs that were unique to them. These are:

- Non-native Mandarin teachers are good language models for students when teaching Mandarin to non-native students;
- The methods of teaching Mandarin are similar to those of teaching other foreign languages;
- Non-native Mandarin teachers are more familiar with the British education system and the students' learning styles;
- Non-native Mandarin teachers regard their language proficiency as an obstacle in teaching Mandarin.

Since native and non-native Mandarin teachers both have advantages and disadvantages when teaching Mandarin in England, one suggestion is that Mandarin teachers in England could cooperate in the teaching process. The two models of cooperation could involve either native and non-native Mandarin teachers or cooperation between Hanban teachers and local native Mandarin teachers.

Thirdly, there are three main factors that impact both native and non-native Mandarin teachers. These are external factors, education and teaching experience, and internal factors. Some other sub-factors emerged under the three main factors and I developed my final conceptual framework from these. The final version of the developed conceptual framework of Mandarin teachers' beliefs will be explained in detail in the next section.

Fourth, from the observations, some relative consistency could be seen in the Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in the classroom. In addition, Mandarin

teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices influenced each other and their pedagogical practice may be influenced by the school context and policy.

Finally, from my observations, it appears that students in Mandarin classrooms may be more engaged in games, activities and competitions. The relationship between students' engagement and teachers' pedagogical practice in Mandarin classes needs to be developed more in depth in further studies, however.

4.6.2 Summary of the conceptual framework

In addition to the key findings which have been summarised above, from analysing the factors that influence native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in secondary schools in England, I developed my initial conceptual framework by adding other relevant themes that emerged from my data. Below is the final version of my conceptual framework (see Figure 2):

Figure 2: Summary of conceptual framework
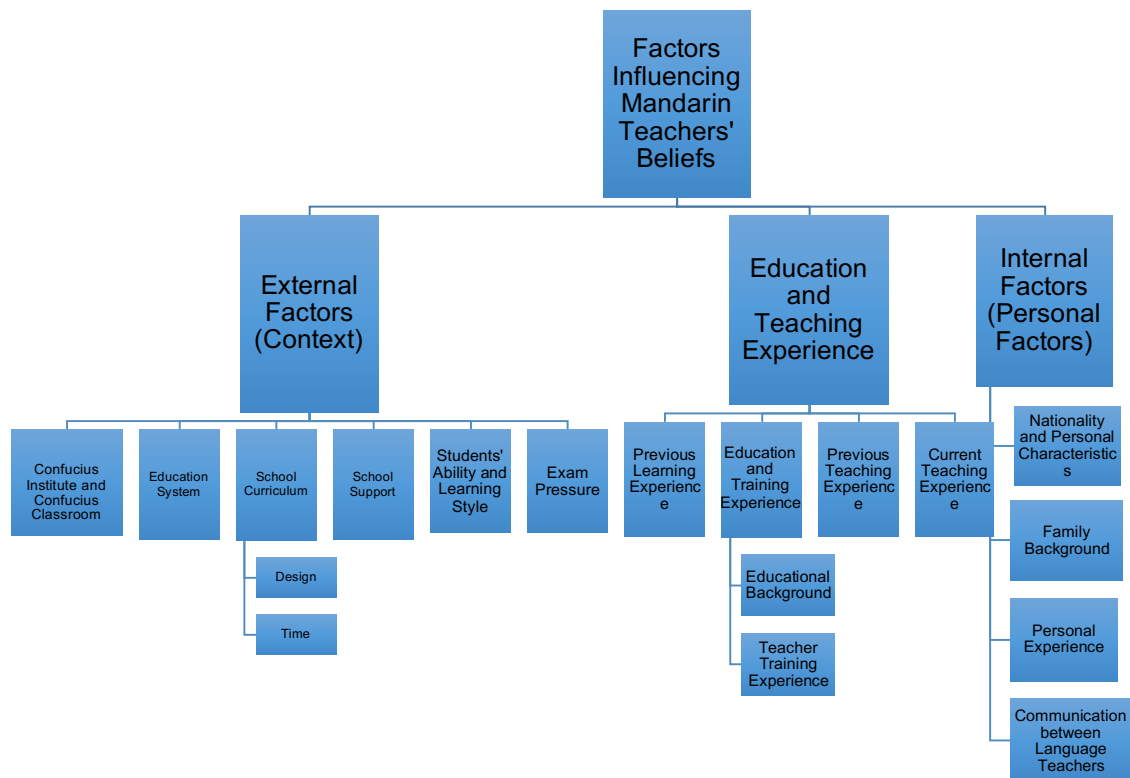
From the diagram above, when examining factors that influence native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in secondary schools in England, there are three dimensions. 'External factors' represent the context and are adapted partly from my

initial conceptual framework. 'Education and teaching experience' is adapted from the main part of my initial framework. Lastly, 'internal factors' represents teachers' personal factors and issues and is newly developed from the data.

Firstly, for the external factors, there are six sub-factors. These are: Confucius Institute and Confucius Classroom, education system, school curriculum (including curriculum design and curriculum time), school support, students' ability and learning styles, and exam pressure. Secondly, for the 'education and teaching experience' group, there are four sub-factors, which are: previous learning experience, education and training experience, previous teaching experience, and current teaching experience. Finally, for the 'internal factors' group, there are four sub-factors, which are: nationality and personal characteristics, family background, personal experience, and communication between language teachers.

It needs to be noted, however, that this conceptual framework may only be used in certain contexts, that is for Mandarin teachers in secondary schools in England. When modifying the conceptual framework in other contexts, it is therefore necessary to examine the different situations carefully. It may be risky to adjust this framework to explore language teachers' beliefs about languages other than Mandarin in England, for example. If researchers want to adapt this conceptual framework to explore teachers' beliefs in other languages, they need to carefully examine the context. On the other hand, when exploring Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs regarding teaching Mandarin in other levels in England, such as in kindergartens, in primary schools, in higher education, and in life-long learning, this conceptual framework could be adapted in certain parts.

Furthermore, this conceptual framework only examines the factors that impact Mandarin teachers in England, so Mandarin teachers in other countries such as America, Australia, and some Asian countries such as Japan and Korea may be influenced by other factors. When adapting this conceptual framework to other contexts or countries, researchers may thus need to examine which aspects of the conceptual framework could be relevant.

Chapter 5 Conclusion

5.0 Introduction to this chapter

This chapter draws the final conclusion of the thesis and is divided into seven sections. The first section contains the overview of findings from the data gathered, while the second section explores some other issues which emerged from the data. These issues may not appear to be closely relevant to the research topic of this thesis, but might be interesting to study in future research. The third section explains the conclusions of this study, while the fourth section focuses on the significance of the research, along with its contribution to the research area. The fifth section also discusses the recommendation for Mandarin teachers in a secondary school setting, which is closely related to the findings in the study, while the sixth section discusses the limitations of the research. Finally, the seventh section is about the further studies and researches implicated from my thesis, and my own reflections at the end of the process.

5.1 Overview of the findings

In my study, I aimed to explore the views of native and non-native Mandarin teachers, along with their beliefs and their pedagogical practices in secondary schools in England. I used various research methods to examine this topic, engaging 31 Mandarin teachers in interviews (27 native and four non-native speakers) and participating in classroom observations with seven teachers. From the interviews, classroom observations and follow-up interviews, several key findings and new findings emerged, as evidenced by the data collection. Various themes regarding native and non-native Mandarin teachers views and beliefs have been discussed in the study, along with factors influencing Mandarin teachers' beliefs and Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in the classroom.

Firstly, there are four shared beliefs between native and non-native Mandarin teachers. These are:

- Mandarin teachers think that students' interest is the most important aspect of teaching Mandarin in England;
- Students' self-study ability in Mandarin is highly valued by teachers;
- It is important to teach Chinese characters and it is better to teach Chinese characters at the beginning of learning Mandarin;

- Mandarin teachers need to focus on the use of Mandarin for students outside class.

Secondly, different views and beliefs are held by native and non-native Mandarin teachers. Mandarin teachers held six key beliefs:

- Native Mandarin teachers think that they may be more professional in teaching Mandarin as native speakers;

- Native Mandarin teachers need to lower their expectations of their students;

- Methods of teaching Mandarin are different from teaching other European languages and teachers could combine various teaching methods in class;

- It is important for Mandarin teachers to interact with students in class;

- Native Mandarin teachers emphasise students' learning outcomes;

- Native Mandarin teachers emphasise the importance of classroom management in classes.

Four themes emerged from the non-native Mandarin teachers' beliefs. These are:

- Non-native Mandarin teachers are good language models to non-native students;

- Non-native Mandarin teachers believe that methods of teaching Mandarin are similar to those of teaching other foreign languages;

- Non-native Mandarin teachers are more familiar with the British education system and the students' learning styles;

- Language proficiency is still an obstacle for non-native Mandarin teachers.

Some Mandarin teachers went as far as to suggest that there are two models of teacher cooperation; one is between native and non-native Mandarin teachers and the other one is the cooperation between Hanban teachers and local native Mandarin teachers. Thirdly, there are three main factors that impact both native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs. I built up and developed my conceptual framework regarding these factors. They are:

- External factors (the context): Confucius Institute and Confucius Classroom, education system, school curriculum (including curriculum design and curriculum time), school support, students' ability and learning styles, and exam pressure;

- Education and teaching experience: previous learning experience, education and training experience, previous teaching experience and current teaching

experience;

- Internal factors: nationality and personal characteristics, family background, personal experience, and communication between language teachers.

Fourthly, a relative consistency in the Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in the classroom can be seen. Additionally, their beliefs and pedagogical practices influence each other. The pedagogical practice of Mandarin teachers may also be influenced by the school context and the policy. Finally, students in the Mandarin classrooms may be more engaged by games, activities and competitions.

The findings listed above are the most important and relevant findings from the data gathered. Some other issues did, however, emerge from interviews with the Mandarin teachers in the study. Although these issues were not necessarily common beliefs among the Mandarin teachers who participated in my study, these themes may still be worth exploring by researchers in the future, since they are also related to the development of teaching and learning Mandarin in England. I will analyse these issues in the next section.

5.2 Other emerging issues on teaching Mandarin in England

In addition to the findings summarised above, some other interesting issues emerged from my data collection, which could be explored in further research regarding teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language in England. This section will take a closer look at the issues according to the data gathered.

5.2.1 The development of Mandarin teachers' careers in England

The problems regarding Mandarin teachers' career development in England have been noticed by some researchers (e.g. Hartig, 2015; Tinsley & Board, 2014; Wang & Higgins, 2008; Ye, W., 2017). Wang and Higgins (2008) state, for instance, the problem regarding Mandarin teachers' career development is related to a limited demand for learning Mandarin in secondary schools in England. This was also spoken about by some of the Mandarin teachers during my interviews. In the interview with Teacher NN3, for instance, she worried that as a Mandarin teacher, she may lose her job and could not continue teaching Mandarin when the new academic year began, although she was very eager to teach the language herself.

Furthermore, the difficulty for native Mandarin teachers in finding a job in schools in the UK is particularly strong. Tinsley and Board (2014) pointed out that one of the reasons that finding jobs in England for native Mandarin teachers is so difficult is their linguistic ability to teach other European languages, such as French and Spanish. They stated that "unlike other language teachers, Chinese teachers tend only to teach Chinese and do not speak other European languages. … [It] can leave Chinese teachers feeling somewhat marginalized" (p.93). It is why for the PGCE programmes in universities in England they ask for Mandarin plus another foreign language and native Mandarin speakers have had to do subject development courses in French, German or Spanish. Some native Mandarin teachers in my study held similar opinions and pointed out that this is a big limitation for native speaker Chinese teachers when they are attempting to teach or even when applying for the position as a Mandarin teacher in the school. In the interviews, these native Mandarin teachers claimed that most language teachers in England are required to be able to teach at least two different second languages in order to arrange a full-time schedule for their teaching. The reason is that in many schools, the class time for Mandarin is not enough to fill in a full-time teacher's timetable. As a native Mandarin teacher, they therefore need to make great effort to keep their teaching position in the school or even simply when applying for a teaching job in England. Teacher N16 thought that the road to being able to teach Mandarin in England was a long and difficult one; she also believed that this could not be overcome quickly. She states that:

> I feel that the plight of native language teachers is that most of the schools [in England] require that, if native Mandarin teachers want to teach Mandarin at school, they also need to know how to teach languages like English, French, Spanish or German, which is quite difficult [for native Mandarin teachers]. Just understanding English is not enough sometimes, you will need to master a third language, and it is hard for us to learn those languages and to be able to teach those languages.

The view of Teacher N16 exemplified the point of view of some native Mandarin teachers in England and also points out the difficult current situation for many native Mandarin teachers in finding a teaching position. It is clear that some time is still needed to make some improvement in the current condition.

As a non-native Mandarin teacher, however, Teacher NN4 suggested that better English proficiency of native Mandarin teachers may help them teaching Mandarin in class, because they could be a model for the students as a person speaking a second

language fluently. He explained that, "if the teachers from China can speak very good English, sometimes they are great models for the kids as well. Kids [may] think that 'Well, they can speak amazing English, so I should be able to speak amazing Chinese'". Teacher NN4 also shared his idea about the development of teaching and learning Mandarin in England. He states that: "When talking about the current condition of teaching Mandarin in the UK and also about the future, it still needs a long time to develop and expand, [since] it is on the edge of exploding, but it is not there yet." He pointed out the existing problems of teaching Mandarin in the UK nowadays. From his perspective, the problem is that only a limited number of schools in England offer Mandarin in the curriculum: "the [solution could be] getting more schools to have placements [for Mandarin teachers] and there is a long way to go."

The government, therefore, needs to pay more attention to schools in order to solve the problems of Mandarin teachers' careers and also to improve the situation of the development of Mandarin teachers in England. This may encourage more Mandarin teachers to continue teaching the language with interest and improve the teaching quality of Mandarin in England as well.

5.2.2 Decrease in student numbers at advanced levels of Mandarin

Another issue indicated from the data analysis is that there is a decreasing number of students in advanced level Mandarin classes, especially for English-speaking students. As stated in the Language Trends Report in 2018 (Tinsley & Doležal, 2018), students who take A-Level Chinese classes in the UK are mainly Chinese heritage students. This was also claimed by some of the Mandarin teachers in my study. Teacher N12 mentioned, for example, that the number of students learning Mandarin has decreased recently in many different schools. The school she worked in had also experienced a similar situation. Teacher N12 explained that: "[the level of the students] are similar in Year 7 and Year 8, and then there are less of them continue learning. So this is a very common trend and [my school] is not a special case." Teacher N19 also spoke about her experience regarding the decreasing numbers of students and said that "the number of students who choose Mandarin courses is still very small compared to German, French, and Spanish." Some other Mandarin teachers also mentioned that if the student felt that they had achieved their target grade in the GCSE exam in Mandarin, they may not want to continue at the higher level, which is A-Level

courses in Mandarin. They expressed concern that, since it is too difficult for English-speaking students to learn Mandarin in depth and they need to make great effort in order to make progress, they may not choose to continue learning Mandarin, especially after taking GCSE Mandarin exams. This problem is therefore still not easy to solve and may need further effort and further studies.

5.2.3 Mandarin for all students

Some Mandarin teachers in my study were focused on the matter of how to promote teaching Mandarin to more students and schools in England, because some teachers have already noticed that teaching and learning Mandarin is not as popular as advertised in the reports or newspapers. Teacher N19, for example, shared that in her school "if the student is likely to get good test scores in learning other second languages, s/he will not tend to choose Mandarin." She therefore felt that, on the whole, teaching and learning Mandarin in England is actually not as widespread as some officials and some Mandarin teachers think. She then compared the trend of second language teaching and learning in China to explain:

> …it is just like there are not too many Chinese people learn French or German and more people choose to learn Japanese and Korean in China. Because people always learn the languages of neighbouring countries … [and] the connection is closer. On this side, French, Spanish and German are still dominant in the European continent.

When it came to the current situation, she suggested that Mandarin teachers in the UK could focus on promoting GCSE courses in Mandarin, even though this is also difficult because GCSE courses in second languages are not compulsory.

Moreover, as a non-native Mandarin teacher, Teacher NN4 emphasised the importance of the equality of experiencing Mandarin for all the students in secondary schools. He stated that:

> I think everyone should be given the opportunity to learn the language. And there's nothing wrong with someone doing any of the levels [in Mandarin]. At least they engaged with China and Chinese and learned something.

Teacher NN4, however, admitted that if the students want to go through the GCSE level in Mandarin, they have to work to make progress. He still concentrated on expanding the opportunity of learning Mandarin to more students, because in his experience, teachers might not know who will end up enjoying learning Mandarin in class:

> Some kids who have been very good at French, Spanish and German may not get ahead in Mandarin. However, some students, particularly boys, who have been really negative about French, Spanish and German, just fall in love with Mandarin because they are fascinated by the puzzle aspects of this language and they just really enjoy it. [So] you never quite know who is interested in the language and who is not. This is why I think everyone should be given the opportunity to learn Mandarin.

On a national level, some of the Mandarin teachers therefore hoped to make some changes on the current situation, which consists of a majority of students in a particular position. To clarify, students who choose to learn Mandarin for GCSE levels tend to go to independent schools and may have more privileged backgrounds. It is therefore suggested that the Chinese and British government could forge more collaborations and make changes to improve these conditions. It would also be better to stop believing that Mandarin is too hard for students in the UK to learn, since there are some very good schools in England and their performance in teaching Mandarin to a high level is very respectable, which was a point raised by Teacher NN4 in his interview.

To sum up, even though these three issues are not quite relevant to the research topics in this study, they are interesting and it is essential that they are examined in future studies, since they reflect the conditions and problems of teaching Mandarin in England from Mandarin teachers' perspectives. Furthermore, addressing these issues may contribute to the development of Mandarin teaching and learning in the country in the future.

5.3 Conclusions of the study

My study mainly focused on examining native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs on teaching Mandarin as a second or foreign language in secondary schools in England and their pedagogical practices in the classroom. By using semi-structured interviews and classroom observations as the key research methods, I found out the shared and different beliefs held by native and non-native Mandarin teachers, along with some Mandarin teachers' teaching practice in class.

Firstly, various themes have been discussed regarding the Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs. I would like to draw the conclusion that there are different kinds of beliefs among Mandarin teachers in English secondary schools and that it is

interesting to explore them. Some of these beliefs are similar amongst native and non-native Mandarin teachers, while there are also a variety of different beliefs between native and non-native Mandarin teachers. In order to examine the Mandarin teachers' beliefs, it is thus essential to discuss the factors which influence these beliefs. From the data collected, it can be seen that there are various factors that impacted upon the Mandarin teachers in the study.

Regarding pedagogical practices, after observation, I conclude these pedagogical practices revealed most of the beliefs that Mandarin teachers professed during the interviews. Their teaching practice also showed that language teachers' beliefs and practices influence each other, which echoes previous research (e.g. Breen et al., 2001; Borg, 2003; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Woods, 1996).

Lastly, when it came to the students' engagement in the classroom, although there was not much data to analyse this issue, there was still evidence gathered from observation which showed that students' engagement and language teachers' pedagogical practices have a close relationship between one another and may impact each other interactively in different ways.

5.4 Significance of the study and contribution to the field

In my research, I explored Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs about teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language. This is a particular aspect of second language teaching and learning, because teaching Mandarin is related to a different cultural background when compared with western culture. In previous research, this aspect has been often neglected and there is little focused literature (e.g. Guo, 2014; Jiang & Hao, 2010; Ye, L., 2013; Ye, W., 2017). Since Mandarin has a different language system, some teaching and learning theories and strategies in the West are not suitable for Mandarin teaching. I wanted to conduct the research in order to raise awareness of the teaching and learning of Mandarin in England and therefore explore the ideas that Mandarin teachers in secondary schools in the UK might have.

After participating in the study, this might have resulted in the Mandarin teachers who took part in the interviews and observations to reflect on their own teaching experiences. The study offered them the chance to rethink their thoughts and views

regarding teaching Mandarin as a foreign language, especially in England, which might help them in their future teaching practices in the classroom.

Furthermore, during the process of finding the participants, I sent an email to ask about their willingness to participate in an online forum for Mandarin teachers in the UK. It is a large online forum, which may include almost 75% of the Mandarin teachers across the country. Even though only a few of the Mandarin teachers responded and took part in my study, this email could remind the Mandarin teachers of their thoughts about teaching and learning Mandarin. In addition, I also received a response from a head teacher in a school, who showed great interest in the results of my study. She explained that, as a head teacher, she really wanted to know more about what Mandarin teachers thought about teaching Mandarin and it could benefit her work as well. My study may therefore provide an angle for head teachers in schools in the UK or for other researchers when it comes to understanding what Mandarin teachers' views are on their teaching process and even their roles as teachers.

I have also established my own conceptual framework in order to explore Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs regarding teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language. This framework aimed to examine the factors influencing Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs. It could contribute to the research area, since this is a new framework adapted to research Mandarin in the field of second language teaching and learning. The development of my conceptual framework from my data may also provide new insights for other researchers. With this framework, they might be able to examine the factors that influence Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs in other contexts outside of teaching Mandarin in secondary schools in England. In my study, I therefore hoped that I could make a contribution to the field, especially regarding teaching and learning Mandarin as a second or foreign language.

5.5 Recommendations

After doing this research, a lot of findings and themes developed. In this section, I wish to make some recommendations for Mandarin teachers and secondary schools in England based on these findings and research results.

5.5.1 Recommendations for Mandarin teachers in England

According to the views, beliefs and pedagogical practices of the Mandarin teachers in my study, it is important for current Mandarin teachers in England to understand both the teaching and learning styles in England and the language itself. For native Mandarin teachers, it is essential to adjust to the teaching and learning environment in the UK and take advantage of being a native speaker of Mandarin. While the language proficiency may cause problems for non-native teachers when they teach the language, it is valuable to have non-native teachers in the field.

The Mandarin teachers in my study also believed that Mandarin is different and harder for English-speaking students to learn when compared with other commonly taught European languages, which suggests that students need to take more time to learn this language. It is, however, also suggested that Mandarin teachers could stop emphasising that Mandarin is hard to learn and progress in to their students, because this will make these students less motivated. After they understand these ideas, Mandarin teachers need to carefully design their lessons, which should be based on the students' difference, ability and interest. If Mandarin teachers know more about their students and their learning abilities and styles, it may be easier for them to plan the teaching process in class.

5.5.2 Recommendations for secondary schools in England

Firstly, the starting age at which students can begin to learn Mandarin varies from secondary school to secondary school. According to Tinsley and Board (2014), secondary schools in the UK have different starting points for Mandarin classes, "with some schools starting in Year 7 and others not till Year 10" (p.62). It is recommended that if time and policy permit, students should start learning Mandarin at an early age, as many Mandarin teachers agreed that learning Mandarin usually takes more time than French and Spanish in order to achieve better learning outcomes. It also needs to be noted that when secondary schools introduce Mandarin to their curriculum, the aim should relate more to enriching the language experience of the students. Just as Tinsley and Board (2014) suggest, it needs "to be part of a rich language experience more generally rather than 'special' or 'different' from the wider offer" (p.95). Furthermore, from some of the interviews with the Mandarin teachers, it is still a common situation and trend that in some schools, Mandarin is not a subject that

everyone can choose. Teachers often consider students' performance and marks in other subjects and then select students who have expressed their interest in Mandarin to participate. Only the top students can learn Mandarin in some schools. This may in turn influence the development of teaching and learning Mandarin in the UK. Mandarin should be a language offered to all students (as stated by Teacher NN4), not only to the more able ones. There clearly needs to be some time and effort allocated for Mandarin teachers and schools to expand the Mandarin curriculum in the future.

Secondly, for teacher education and training opportunities, there are only a few training opportunities, particularly for teaching and learning Mandarin in England. This is despite the fact that teacher training experience is important and could benefit Mandarin teacher's beliefs and practice. This was stated by many of the Mandarin teachers during the interviews. Some of them noted in the interviews that there is a lack of teacher training programmes or courses provided and that resources for teacher training are unbalanced in the UK. As a result, they are worried that this may influence the teaching quality of Mandarin, which will in turn impact the development of Mandarin teaching. The Mandarin teachers in my research also mentioned that one reason for lacking professional and qualified Mandarin teachers is the lack of teacher training programmes at the moment, which could prevent the development of potential Mandarin teachers, both native and non-native Mandarin speakers. As Tinsley and Board (2014) state in their report, "the barrier to increasing the number of places is the lack of schools offering training placements" (p.26). Just as Teacher NN4 claimed, if there are more training opportunities for Mandarin teachers in the UK, this could help the improvement of the teaching quality of Mandarin.

Finally, as mentioned in Chapter 4, some Mandarin teachers in the study recommend cooperative teaching in the Mandarin classroom, which could be considered by secondary schools and head teachers. Hanban teachers, local native teachers, and non-native teachers all have their advantages and disadvantages, so considering better ways to combine and take advantage of their strengths may benefit the development of teaching and learning Mandarin in the UK in the future.

5.6 Limitations of the study

There are some limitations to the study. Since this research is mainly based on the

participating teachers' views, beliefs and their teaching methods, I have not included learners in the research process, even though student engagement has been explored in the research. Moreover, the results of this study cannot be generalised and used to represent the situation in the whole of the UK, because the scale of participation in my research is simply not large-scale enough for that (e.g. Bryman, 2012; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Wellington, 2000). As Bryman (2012) and Wellington (2000) claim, in qualitative research and case study, the generalisation of the findings is related to the research scale and the number of participants. One obstacle of my study was that some teachers refused to take part, stating that they were concerned that if they participated in any research, this could be a risk to their career. Some other views and beliefs may therefore exist among native and non-native Mandarin teachers in England that have not been revealed here.

In addition, the results of the observations on Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices are slightly limited and only explore native Mandarin teachers' teaching process, because only seven teachers agreed to be observed during my data collection. Other teachers refused to take part in the observations because of the child protection policy in their schools or due to the schools' regulations. Teacher NN2, for instance, told me at the end of the interview that the school policy in his school does not allow outsiders to observe classes in order to protect the children. As a result, the practices of the Mandarin teachers in my study cannot represent the whole range of Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in England.

It also needs to be noted that the conceptual framework I developed in my study may only be used in certain contexts. When adapting the conceptual framework to other contexts, it is important to examine the different situations carefully for other researchers and teachers. The limitations of this study might offer ideas and chances for some future researchers in this area, which I will discuss in the next section.

5.7 Further studies and reflections

As there some limitations and other issues were revealed in this study, this provides topics for me to study and explore in further research. I could include more aspects regarding the students in the teaching and learning process of Mandarin. It may provide evidence that could aid in the understanding of Mandarin teachers' views and

beliefs, especially regarding the students' perspectives. Moreover, because of the limited number of Mandarin teachers participated in my research, I could include more Mandarin teachers in the future, especially non-native Mandarin teachers, in order to make the further research more generalisable. If permission could be obtained for classroom observations in the future, I could also visit more schools in England, aiming to examine Mandarin teachers' pedagogical practices in depth. Additionally, it is also an interesting idea to expand this topic to a broader context, which means that in further studies, Mandarin teachers and schools might not be limited to England, but could also be expanded to Mandarin teachers in Scotland, Wales and North Ireland, since the education system and the situation in teaching Mandarin as a foreign language there may be different from the situation in England.

At the end of my thesis, I want to reflect on my research process as a researcher and also as a Mandarin teacher myself. As a researcher, this research offered me a chance to explore the particular topic of Mandarin teachers' beliefs and practices and make some contribution to the field. I also feel proud to show this study to other researchers in the field of second language teaching and learning, since as a native speaker of Mandarin, I still have the opinion that teaching and learning Mandarin needs more attention in research. Additionally, Mandarin seems to be a 'different' language to explore when compared with other commonly taught European languages in England, such as French and Spanish.

As a Mandarin teacher myself, especially a Mandarin teacher teaching secondary school students, this research also allowed me the opportunity to learn from other Mandarin teachers teaching in secondary schools. I was also able to build up relationships with more Mandarin teachers from the data collection process. By communicating with all the participants, I learned a lot about their teaching experiences and teaching methods, which will help me to improve my own teaching strategies in the future. It also made me reflect on my previous teaching experience teaching secondary school students and it allowed me to summarise my own thoughts and beliefs on teaching Mandarin as a foreign language in England. This was therefore a valuable experience, both as a researcher and as a Mandarin teacher. I believe that the future of teaching and learning Mandarin in England is bright, even though many schools in the UK are not able to offer Mandarin lessons at the moment.

Just like Teacher N19 in my study said, "in general, [Mandarin] Chinese is still a trend. I want students to learn Chinese and hope that the language can be promoted, accepted, and recognised in this country." Similarly, I hope that this study may help future researchers and Mandarin teachers to understand the beliefs and pedagogical practices of Mandarin teachers in England, thus making some contributions to the development and promotion of teaching and learning Mandarin in the UK in the future.

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Appendix 1 : Ethical Approval Letter

Xuexin Guo
Registration number: 130113698
School of Education
Programme: PhD in Education

Dear Xuexin

PROJECT TITLE: Exploring Mandarin Teaching and Learning in England: A Critical Examination of Native and Non-native Teachers views, beliefs and pedagogical practices in secondary schools
APPLICATION: Reference Number 007522

On behalf of the University ethics reviewers who reviewed your project, I am pleased to inform you that on 10/06/2016 the above-named project was **approved** on ethics grounds, on the basis that you will adhere to the following documentation that you submitted for ethics review:

- University research ethics application form 007522 (dated 06/05/2016).
- Participant information sheet 1014928 version 4 (06/05/2016).
- Participant consent form 1014929 version 1 (27/01/2016).

If during the course of the project you need to deviate significantly from the above-approved documentation please inform me since written approval will be required.

Yours sincerely

Professor Daniel Goodley
Ethics Administrator
School of Education

Participant Information Sheet
研究参与者信息表

1.   **Research Project Title: 研究题目：**

Exploring Mandarin Teaching and Learning in England: A Critical Examination of Native and Non-native Teachers' views, beliefs and pedagogical practices in secondary schools

中文教学在英国：研究中文为母语和非母语的在英中学的中文教师的教学理念以及教学实践

2.   **Invitation 邀请**

You are being invited to take part in a research project. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

您被邀请参加一个博士论文研究。在您决定参加与否之前，您一定要先了解这个研究的目的及内容。请您花费一定的时间仔细阅读以下信息，如果您愿意，也可与其他人讨论研究。如果您有什么问题或想要了解更多信息，请联系我。另外，请您认真考虑是否参与此项研究。感谢您的阅读。

3.   **What is the project's purpose? 研究目的是什么？**

The present study is being undertaken in partial fulfilment of the requirements for a PhD's degree course I am doing at the University of Sheffield. This means that the findings of the study will be used only for academic purposes. This research will focus on exploring native and non-native teachers' views and beliefs on teaching and learning Mandarin in secondary schools in England. Mandarin teachers' beliefs

towards teaching Mandarin as a second language will be examined in the study. Also, teachers' pedagogical practices will be explored in this research. Finally, the influence of teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices on students' learning of Mandarin will be discussed. This will help to understand and improve Mandarin teaching and learning in the secondary schools. The project shall be conducted between February 2016 and December 2016.

这项研究是谢菲尔德大学博士学位论文的一部分。这意味着研究结果只会用于学术研究。这项研究的目的是为了研究中文为母语和非母语的在英中文教师的教学理念和想法，以及在课堂上的教学实践和这些教学理念、实践对学生学习中文的影响。这对理解和加强英国中学的中文教学会有一定的帮助。这项研究将于 2016 年 2 月至 2016 年 12 月之间展开。

4.   **Why have I been chosen? 为什么会选择我？**

The Mandarin teachers who are teaching Mandarin curriculum in secondary schools were approached to participate in the project. I am working with some of the teachers in the Confucius Institute at the University of Sheffield or have personal contact with the teachers. Participation in this study is entirely on voluntary basis.

此次研究涉及在英国中学教学的中文老师和开设中文课的英国中学参与。我与部分老师在谢大孔院一起工作或者与一些老师有私人联系。这项研究的参与完全遵循自愿原则。

5.   **Do I have to take part? 我必须要参加吗？**

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep (and be asked to sign a consent form) and you can still withdraw at any time without it affecting any benefits that you are entitled to as a teacher in the school in any way. You do not have to give a reason if you decide to withdraw your participation.

参与与否由老师自己决定。如果您决定参与，您会收到这份信息表并被要求签一份确认表格。您可以随时退出这项研究，这并不会影响您在学校的正常教学。您不用为您的退出提供任何理由。

6.   **What will happen to me if I take part? 如果我参加会发生什么？**

I am interested in your views and pedagogical practices and this will be sought through the use of face to face interviews and classroom observations, which with your consent will be recorded. First, I will conduct an interview before I go to visit the school and then I will do classroom observation in class for 2 months. Finally, I will do a follow-up interview to each teacher again. Since the research will be for nearly 1 year, each of the interviews will last up to 40 minutes and it will take place twice. For the observation, it will take place for nearly 2 months for each teacher and I will visit the class every week. Each participant will be involved in the research for 2 months and a half. I will come and visit you during the working hours in the school, so there will be no travel expenses. During the interview, feel free to say anything you want according to the topic. Any audio recordings of the conversation made during this research and in the classroom observation will be used only for analysis and for writing the thesis. No other use will be made of them without your written permission, and no one outside the project will be allowed access to the original recordings except my supervisor and the examiners. In addition, the date for the researcher to conduct the interview and the observation will be negotiated with you in advance. You only need to attend the interview on time that day and teach your class as normal.

我对您的教学理念及实践很有兴趣，我会通过面对面的采访和听课来了解您的想法。如果您同意，我会进行录音。首先，我会在去学校听课之前采访您。然后我会进行为期两个月的听课。最后，我会再次采访您。由于研究将持续近一年，每个采访将会持续四十分钟左右，并且会采访两次。对于听课，我会每周去听课，持续近两个月。因此，每位参与者会参与这项研究两个半月。我会在您的工作时间去您的学校拜访您，所以您不会有任何交通支出。在采访期间，您可以随意阐述您的观点。任何在采访期间和听课期间所做的录音只会用来做数据分析和完成论文。不经过您的同意这些录音不会有其他用途。另外，采访和听课的日期我会和您提前商量，您只需按时参与采访并进行正常教学活动即可。

7. **Will I be recorded, and how will the recorded media be used? 我会被录音吗？**

录音会被怎样使用？

The audio and/or video recordings of your activities made during this research will be used only for analysis and for illustration in conference presentations and lectures. No other use will be made of them without your written permission, and no one outside the project will be allowed access to the original recordings.

您在研究过程中活动的录音或录像只会被用来做数据分析和在学术会议及演讲中匿名出现。未经您的许可这些数据不会有任何其他用途，并且研究项目以外的人也不会被允许接触到这些录音。

8. **What do I have to do? 我一定要做什么？**

Your participation in this study will not impose any restrictions on your lifestyle.

你如果参与此项研究，它不会对您的生活有任何约束或影响。

9. **What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part? 参与此项研究有何风险和问题？**

Your participation in this study will not expose you to any risks or disadvantages.

你参与此项研究不会给您带来任何风险或问题。

10. **What are the possible benefits of taking part? 我的参与有没有什么好处？**

Whilst there are no immediate benefits for those people participating in the project, it is hoped that this work will make a significant contribution to the teaching and learning of Mandarin in class in secondary schools since teachers are allowed to speak out their ideas regarding their views and beliefs of teaching Mandarin as a second language. It will also contribute to the pedagogical practices in teaching Mandarin in secondary schools. This information will be important to both educators in raising the quality of Mandarin teaching and learning in the school and teachers' teaching in class.

理论上您参与研究的益处不会马上出现。我们希望通过这项研究能够为中文在英国中学的教学提供一定的贡献，因为在这项研究中老师们可以提出他们对于中文作为第二语言的教学理念和想法。这项研究也会对在英国中学的中文教学实践有所帮助。这些信息对于教育研究者和老师来说都很重要，可以帮助他们提升中文教学质量和水平。

11. **What happens if the research study stops earlier than expected?** 如果研究比预计结束时间早，怎么办？

If this is the case the reason(s) will be explained to you (the participant).
如果此类事情发生，研究人员会把原因和您解释清楚。

12. **What if something goes wrong?** 如果出现问题怎么办？

If there is concern about any aspect of this project it should be addressed in the first instance to me (the researcher) or to the tutor supervising the work. However, if the participants feel their complaint has not been handled to their satisfaction, the participants can contact the programme director or the University's 'Registrar and Secretary'.

如果您对研究有什么问题，您可以首先找我或者我的博士导师。另外，如果您觉得您的意见或问题没有得到应有的解决或者您并不满意，您可以联系博士项目负责人或大学的注册部门。

13. **Will my taking part in this project be kept confidential?** 我的参与是匿名的吗？

All the information that we collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. You will not be identified in any reports or publications. Pseudonyms will be used in the project report.
所有我们在研究中收集的信息都是绝对匿名的。您的信息不会在任何报告或发表的论文中出现。我们会在报告中使用替代名字。

14. **What will happen to the results of the research project?** 研究结果会产生什么效果？

The research results will be published during the last month of the study and the report will be submitted to the University of Sheffield for assessment. Participants will be informed in due course how they can obtain a copy of the publication if they need one. You will not be identified in any reports or publications.

研究结果会在研究的最后一个月发表并且论文会被提交到谢菲尔德大学来打分评价。如果您需要，参加者会在研究的尾声被告知如何获得一份论文。您的信息不会在任何报告和发表的论文中出现。

15. **Who is organising and funding the research?** 谁组织和支持了这个研究？

The research is being organised and funded by the University of Sheffield.

这个研究是由谢菲尔德大学组织并支持的。

16. **Who has ethically reviewed the project?** 谁会对这个研究进行道德审查？

This project has been ethically approved via the School of Education' ethics review procedure. The University's Research Ethics Committee monitors the application and delivery of the University's Ethics Review Procedure across the University.

这个研究会被教育学院进行道德审查。大学的道德研究机构会监督这个项目的申请并在整个大学发放审查结果。

17. **Contact for further information** 联系信息和方式

Contact point for further information:

您如果需要更多信息，请联系：

Miss Xuexin Guo, School of Education, University of Sheffield, 388 Glossop Rd,

Sheffield, S10 2JA. Email: xguo8@sheffield.ac.uk. Telephone: 07907371810

Supervisor: Dr. Mark Payne, School of Education, University of Sheffield, 388 Glossop Rd, Sheffield, S10 2JA. Email: mark.payne@sheffield.ac.uk. Telephone: (0)114 222 8170

Each participant will receive a copy of the information sheet and a copy of the signed and dated participant consent form.

每位参与者都会收到一份信息表以及由您签名和日期的确认表。

Thank you for considering participating in this small scale study.

谢谢您考虑参与这项小规模的研究。

Appendix 3 : Participant Consent Form

Participant Consent Form

Title of Project: Exploring Mandarin Teaching and Learning in England: A Critical Examination of Native and Non-native Teachers' views, beliefs and pedagogical practices in secondary schools

Name of Researcher: Xuexin Guo

Participant Identification Number for this project:

	Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated *[insert date]* for the above project and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason. *Researcher contact details: xguo8@sheffield.ac.uk/ 07907371810.*

3. I understand that my responses will be anonymised before analysis. I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses.

4. I agree to take part in the above research project.

_____   _____   _____
Name of Participant   Date   Signature
(*or legal representative*)

_____   _____   _____
Name of person taking consent   Date   Signature

To be signed and dated in presence of the participant

Copies:

Once this has been signed by all parties the participant should receive a copy of the signed and dated participant consent form, the letter/pre-written script/information sheet and any other written information provided to the participants. A copy for the signed and dated consent form should be placed in the project's main record (e.g. a site file), which must be kept in a secure location.

Appendix 4 ： Information Letter for Secondary Schools

Information Letter for School

Dear Sir or Madam,

My name is Xuexin Guo and I am a PhD student in the School of Education, University of Sheffield. I want to seek consent from you to conduct my research in the Mandarin classes in your school.

I am doing a PhD study about exploring and understanding Mandarin teachers' views, beliefs and pedagogical practices in UK secondary schools. The title of my research is "Exploring Mandarin Teaching and Learning in England: A Critical Examination of Native and Non-native Teachers' views, beliefs and pedagogical practices in secondary schools". This research will focus on exploring native and non-native Mandarin teachers' views and beliefs on teaching and learning Mandarin in secondary schools in England. Mandarin teachers' beliefs towards teaching Mandarin as a second language will be examined in the study. Also, teachers' pedagogical practices will be explored in this research. Finally, the influence of teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices on students' learning of Mandarin will be discussed. By exploring Mandarin teachers' views, beliefs and pedagogical practices, it is hoped that this research will make a contribution to the teaching and learning of Mandarin in secondary schools. The information will be important to both educators in raising the quality of Mandarin teaching and learning in the school and teachers' teaching in class. The Mandarin teacher in your school has been invited to participate in this study. As part of the research, I am going to visit the Mandarin classes in your school and observe the Mandarin teacher's teaching methods and techniques.

The classroom observation will last for 2 months in your school and I will only visit the classes in the teaching hours. During my classroom observation, I will focus on the Mandarin teacher, not the students. I will not disturb or interrupt the normal teaching process and will not ask the students any questions. Any personal information about the students in the Mandarin class will not be included in the study. So you do not need to worry about the students' safety and this study will not influence the students' learning and life. The Mandarin teacher will always stay in the class when I do the observation.

I will also seek consent from the students themselves and their parents. I will explain my research orally to the students in a simple way with the teacher staying in the classroom at the same time, while an information letter of my project will be sent to the students themselves and another information letter will be sent to the students' parents as well. After that, the students and their parents can think whether they or their children would like to be observed or not. If the students and their parents are happy with it, I will then conduct my classroom observation in the class. If they are not willing to be observed, even if there is only one student or parent who does not feel comfortable about it, I will not visit the class.

I may use recording during the classroom observation. The recording will be treated confidential for the research. Nobody will have access to the recording apart from me and my supervisor and the recording will be destroyed after the project.

The study is being organised with the University of Sheffield. This project has been ethically approved via the School of Education' ethics review procedure.

If you are happy with the research project, you do not need to do anything. But if you do not feel comfortable for the students in the Mandarin classes to be observed, please tell me or the Mandarin teacher immediately. Then I will not go to observe the Mandarin classes. Even after the study starts, you can inform me or the Mandarin teacher at any time if you are not happy with the observation. In addition, if you have any other concerns or need more information related to the study, please do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisor. The contact details are below:

Miss Xuexin Guo, School of Education, University of Sheffield, 388 Glossop Rd, Sheffield, S10 2JA. Email: xguo8@sheffield.ac.uk. Telephone: 07907371810

Supervisor: Dr. Mark Payne, School of Education, University of Sheffield, 388 Glossop Rd, Sheffield, S10 2JA. Email: mark.payne@sheffield.ac.uk. Telephone: (0)114 222 8170

Thank you for your consideration.
Xuexin Guo

Information Letter for Pupils

Dear Everyone,

My name is Xuexin Guo and I am a PhD student in the School of Education, University of Sheffield. I want to seek consent from you to conduct my research in your Mandarin class. Please read this information letter carefully and if you have any questions, please ask me or your Mandarin teacher directly. There is another information letter of this study which is for your parents to read. Please give them that letter because I will also need to seek consent from your parents.

I am doing a PhD study about exploring and understanding Mandarin teachers' views, beliefs and pedagogical practices in UK secondary schools. The title of my research is "Exploring Mandarin Teaching and Learning in England: A Critical Examination of Native and Non-native Teachers' views, beliefs and pedagogical practices in secondary schools". The Mandarin teacher in your Mandarin class has been invited to participate in this study. As part of the research, I am going to visit your Mandarin class and observe the Mandarin teacher's teaching methods and techniques.

The classroom observation will last for 2 months and I will only visit the class in the teaching hours. During my classroom observation, I will focus on the Mandarin teacher, not you. I will not disturb or interrupt the normal teaching process and will not ask you any questions. Any personal information about you will not be included in the study. So you do not need to worry about your safety and this study will not influence your learning and life. The Mandarin teacher will always stay in the class when I do the observation.

I may use recording during the classroom observation. The recording will be treated confidentially for the research. Nobody will have access to the recording apart from me and my supervisor and the recording will be destroyed after the project.

The study is being organised with the University of Sheffield. This project has been ethically approved via the School of Education' ethics review procedure.

If you are happy with the research project, you do not need to do anything. But if you do not feel comfortable to be observed, please tell me or the Mandarin teacher immediately. Even after the study starts, you can inform me or the Mandarin teacher

at any time if you are not happy with the observation. In addition, if you have any other concerns or need more information related to the study, please do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisor. The contact details are below:

Miss Xuexin Guo, School of Education, University of Sheffield, 388 Glossop Rd, Sheffield, S10 2JA. Email: xguo8@sheffield.ac.uk. Telephone: 07907371810

Supervisor: Dr. Mark Payne, School of Education, University of Sheffield, 388 Glossop Rd, Sheffield, S10 2JA. Email: mark.payne@sheffield.ac.uk. Telephone: (0)114 222 8170

Thank you for your consideration.
Xuexin Guo

Information Letter for Parents

Dear Parents,

My name is Xuexin Guo and I am a PhD student in the School of Education, University of Sheffield. I want to seek consent from you and your children to conduct my research in your Mandarin class.

I am doing a PhD study about exploring and understanding Mandarin teachers' views, beliefs and pedagogical practices in UK secondary schools. The title of my research is "Exploring Mandarin Teaching and Learning in England: A Critical Examination of Native and Non-native Teachers' views, beliefs and pedagogical practices in secondary schools". The Mandarin teacher in your children's class has been invited to participate in this study. As part of the research, I am going to visit your children's Mandarin class and observe the Mandarin teacher's teaching methods and techniques. The classroom observation will last 2 months in your children's Mandarin class and I will only visit the class in the teaching hours. During my classroom observation, I will focus on the Mandarin teacher, not your children. I will not disturb or interrupt the normal teaching process and will not ask your children any questions. Any personal information about your children will not be included in the study. So you do not need to worry about your children's safety and this study will not influence your children's learning and life. The Mandarin teacher will always stay in the class when I do the observation.

I may use recording during the classroom observation. The recording will be treated confidential for the research. Nobody will have access to the recording apart from me and my supervisor and the recording will be destroyed after the project.

The study is being organised with the University of Sheffield. This project has been ethically approved via the School of Education' ethics review procedure.

If you are happy with the research project, you do not need to do anything. But if you do not feel comfortable for your children to be observed, please tell me or the Mandarin teacher immediately. Then I will not go to observe your children's class. Even after the study starts, you can inform me or the Mandarin teacher at any time if you or your children are not happy with the observation. In addition, if you have any

other concerns or need more information related to the study, please do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisor. The contact details are below:

Miss Xuexin Guo, School of Education, University of Sheffield, 388 Glossop Rd, Sheffield, S10 2JA. Email: xguo8@sheffield.ac.uk. Telephone: 07907371810

Supervisor: Dr. Mark Payne, School of Education, University of Sheffield, 388 Glossop Rd, Sheffield, S10 2JA. Email: mark.payne@sheffield.ac.uk. Telephone: (0)114 222 8170

Thank you for your consideration.
Xuexin Guo

Appendix 7 : Interview Questions

Interview Questions:
● Settling down Questions:
1.　　Could you briefly introduce your education background and pervious teaching experiences?

1a. How long have you been teaching Mandarin in England and in this secondary school?

1b. How many students are you teaching and what is the age group of the students?

1c. Why did you choose to work as a Mandarin teacher in this school/ in England?

1d. Are you satisfied with your job in the school now?

1e. Do you have any future plan to work as a Mandarin teacher in the UK? If yes, could you briefly describe it? If not, could you give me some reasons?

● Interview Question:
2.　　How many lessons are allocated for the Mandarin course per week in the school? Do you think that is enough for the students to learn the language?

3.　　As a Mandarin teacher, what are your views and ideas about teaching Mandarin as a second language in the UK? Are there any issues, experiences or understandings you want to talk about?

3a. Have your views about teaching and learning Mandarin changed or not? If yes, how have the views changed? Are they related to your experiences such as your education background (e.g. degrees, PGCE), teacher trainings, teaching experiences or other issues? What do you think is the most important element that influences your views and beliefs about teaching and learning Mandarin as a second language?

4.　　What will you prepare for the Mandarin lesson before you go into the class? How long does the planning take?

4a. What textbooks and teaching materials do you use in class?

5.　　What teaching methods or strategies are you using in the learning and teaching of Mandarin? Could you give some examples?

5a. Are the methods and strategies different according to different age groups of students?

5b. Do you think your views and beliefs about teaching and learning Mandarin as a

second language influence your teaching practices in class (e.g. teaching planning, teaching methods and so on)? If yes, how?

5c. How do you know that your methods are effective or not for students in learning the language?

5d. What language do you use in class while teaching? In what kind of occasions?

6.   What kind of assessment strategies are you using in class?

6a. What do you think about the effectiveness of the assessment strategies?

6b. How do you give students feedback?

6c. Are the students happy with the assessment methods you are using?

6d. If the student makes a mistake, what will you do?

7. Do you reflect on your teaching after each class? If yes, what kind of reflections do you do? To what extent do the reflections influence your future teaching?

8. What do you think makes a "good" Mandarin class? What elements do you think construct a "good" Mandarin teaching process?

9. What do you think makes a "good" Mandarin teacher? What elements do you think a "good" Mandarin teacher should have?

10. Are there any problems being faced in the teaching and learning of the language in the classrooms? If yes, what are the problems? Have problems been solved or not?

11.   Do you think your students are satisfied with their learning experience of Mandarin language in the school?

11a. Do you frequently collect your students' feedback regarding their learning in class? If yes, how often?

11b. What kind of feedback do the students give to you?

11c.   To what extent does the students' voice or feedback influence your planning and teaching of Mandarin?

12. Do you have any other experiences, stories or ideas about your teaching that what to share with me?

Appendix 8： Classroom Observation Layout

Observation Layout:

● General observation timetable:

There are four schools that are included in the research.

● Each Observation:

1. Time and Space

2. People: How many people are included and what are their identities? How many students attend in each class? What is the age group of the students? How many teachers and teaching assistant are stayed in the class?

3. Goals: What the teacher wants to achieve in each lesson?

4. Materials: What kind of teaching materials and textbooks are used in each lesson?

5. Teaching routine: What has happened in each lesson? What resources that the teacher use?

6. Events: What activities that has happened in each lesson? What and when does the event take place? How long does the event cost? What kind of teaching methods or techniques does the teacher use?

7. Language: What language does the teacher and the students use in class? In what kind of occasions?

8. Behaviour: What does the teacher do during the event? What does the student do in class? What are the interactions between the teacher and the students, and between the students themselves?

9. Feeling and Feedback: What do the teacher and the students feel about each lesson? How they express their feeling (verbal and non-verbal)? What are the student's reactions?

10. Assessment: What kind of assessment does the teacher give to the students? What are the students' responses?