Survive or Thrive: a Mixed Method Study of Visiting Chinese Language Teachers' Identity Formation in the U.S. Classrooms

Li Xiang
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Survive or Thrive: A Mixed Method Study of Visiting Chinese Language Teachers’ Identity Formation in the U.S. Classrooms

by

Li Xiang

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education
in
Educational Leadership: Curriculum and Instruction

Dissertation Committee:
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Portland State University
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Abstract

In recent years in the United States, an increasing number of people are learning Mandarin, the dominant Chinese language in China. Because of the shortage of Mandarin teachers, many visiting teachers from China with Chinese educational background are teaching Mandarin in the U.S. schools. In the U.S. classrooms, these teachers are challenged to adapt to a new setting. This experience can lead them to changing their teaching identity, that is, their basic beliefs, attitudes and practices about teaching. Understanding how Chinese teachers may form a new teaching identity in the U.S. context serves to inform future professional development activities designed to increase their competence as teachers in U.S. classrooms. The purpose of this study was to describe and explain what is visiting Chinese language teachers’ identity and how the identity changes might take place when they teach Mandarin in U.S. classrooms. The broader goal is to find ways to encourage Chinese language teaching competency in the U.S. classrooms and to foster cross-cultural communication.

In this study, I used mixed methods research to study 14 visiting Chinese language teachers with Chinese educational background to find out how they perceive their teaching and how they teach in the U.S. classrooms. My findings were: (a) visiting Chinese language teachers changed their teaching attitudes, beliefs, and teaching practice in U.S. classroom; (b) teachers with a high teaching identity on Teaching Identity Survey maintained a high level of teaching identity after four months of teaching in U.S. classrooms; and, (c) visiting Chinese language teachers who changed their teaching identity engaged in critical reflections on their teaching practice, and learned from both
Chinese and U.S. teachers. To have a positive impact on Chinese language teachers’ identity and increase the likelihood of success, two implications are evident. First, Chinese language teachers could benefit from the professional development program with a focus on cultural differences and U.S. classroom management strategies. Second, U.S. schools and Chinese language programs need to create opportunities for teachers to learn from each other and build a professional community.
Acknowledgements

I would not have completed my doctoral study without the support from my professors, friends, and families in China and U.S. I feel very fortunate to study in this doctoral program, get to know my professors, and work with my cohort members. Looking back, I have a lot of people to acknowledge.

First of all, I want to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor and committee chair, Dr. Dannelle Stevens, who taught me useful writing strategies and made me a better writer from the first day of this program. With her encouragement, writing has been a part of my daily life and become a lifelong habit. I also want to thank Dannelle for her thoughtful feedback and instructions on my journey of the doctoral study.

Dr. Micki Caskey, my cohort leader and committee member, also gave me continuous support and detailed feedback on my writing. I also want to express my sincere gratitude to the other two dissertation committee members, Dr. Esperanza De La Vega and Dr. Lynn Santelmann, for dedicating their time and energy to be engaged in my dissertation committee.

I am also indebted to Dr. Moti Hara and Dr. David Morgan for their support with my statistical analysis and the mix methods research methodology. Discussions with them helped me clearly write up my analysis and answer my research questions.

Many other people helped me along the way. I want to express special gratitude to the 14 participating teachers for their time and dedication in my study. Our similar backgrounds and experiences have gained these teachers’ support for my study on U.S. visiting Chinese language teachers. Without their participation, I would not have
accomplished this study. Meanwhile, completion of this dissertation is inseparable from the support from my cohort members, who gave me valuable suggestions to help me sort out my thoughts. We encouraged and supported each other at every small step we made on this academic journey.

Finally, I want to express my gratitude to my families in China, who have been very supportive and understanding for my absence from important family events in the past four years. My mother, in her 70s, came to Portland twice to help take care of my son during my busiest time of course work. My husband, Jun Chen, volunteered to take some clerical work for my research. My son, Xiangyu, being with me in U.S. in the past four years, has witnessed every stage of my doctoral study and supported me all the time.

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Chapter 1 Problem Statement

All over the world, it seems that China’s burgeoning economy has attracted an increasing number of people wanting to learn Chinese as a second language. The percentage of U.S. elementary and secondary schools offering Chinese language programs have increased from 0.3% to 4% from 1997 to 2008 (Pufahl & Rhodes, 2011). Yet, a shortage of qualified Chinese language teachers (CLTs) for U. S. schools exists. For example, in 2011, there were only 17 licensed Chinese teachers for 1304 public schools in Oregon’s 184 public school districts (Owen, 2011). To relieve the shortage of CLTs, a large number of licensed teachers as well as local immigrants from China with Chinese educational backgrounds who do not have teaching licenses in the U.S. are teaching Mandarin in the U.S. schools. Most teachers from China are selected and sent by the Chinese Language Council International (also called Hanban), a non-profit organization affiliated to Department of Education in China (Jia, 2014). The selected teachers, mostly college-graduate teachers teaching Chinese, foreign languages, or education-related fields in China, usually teach Mandarin in the assigned U.S. schools for 2 to 3 years (Sung, 2014). By the end of 2008, through the Volunteer Chinese Teacher Program alone, Hanban had sent over 5,000 Chinese language teachers to 48 countries in Asia, Europe, America, Africa, and Oceania (Jia, 2014).

Chinese language teachers provide substantial help in furthering the teaching of Mandarin in the K-12 schools in Oregon (Owen, 2011). However, when moving out of their comfort zone of the Chinese classroom and then teaching in the U.S. classrooms, these Mandarin teachers experience a dramatic change in the cultural, social and
educational context. On the one hand, in China, these teachers are accustomed to teaching in large classes with direct instruction with little student participation and student compliance to classroom rules (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998; Wang, Shen, Novak, & Pan, 2009). On the other hand, U. S. classrooms have fewer students and expect more student involvement. Compared to their experience in China, Chinese teacher perceptions toward teaching in U.S. classrooms will more than likely be challenged by their experiences in U.S. classrooms.

Considering the challenges these Mandarin teachers might encounter, there is a need to help them be better prepared for teaching in the U.S. classrooms. In the following section of Chapter 1, I examine the challenges for Mandarin language teachers, as well as the beliefs and attitudes toward teaching Mandarin in a different culture, and how these factors affect their teaching practice. I also propose a research study that addresses the problem of these Hanban-sent Chinese teachers’ inadequate preparation to teach Mandarin in the U.S. classrooms.

**Background of the Problem**

Chinese language teachers face challenges in U.S. classrooms. Changes in social, cultural, and political context might impact their perceptions of and attitudes towards teaching in a different culture. Teachers’ attitudes and perceptions will affect their teaching practice.

**Identify the problem and boundaries.** In this section, I examine the challenges visiting CLTs are facing and compare U.S. and Chinese classrooms. Then, I identify the problem of visiting CLTs’ lack of appropriate teaching identity in U.S. classrooms. I also
explore studies on visiting CLTs’ beliefs, attitudes, and teaching practice.

**Challenges encountered by visiting CLTs in U.S. classrooms.** Mandarin teachers teaching in a different culture encounter challenges (H. Xu, 2012; Jia, 2014). Studies show that visiting CLTs seem to lack adequate cross-cultural communication skills and seem to fail to adapt to U.S. students’ individual differences even though teachers are native Chinese speakers and qualified to teach the language. Visiting CLTs experience language barriers and lack effective strategies to manage American classrooms (Zhou & Li, 2015). Other researchers report that both students and teachers are frustrated after learning and teaching Mandarin for some time (Hua & Wei, 2014; Yao & Han, 2013). The teaching assignment is usually 2 to 3 years, but in my experience of working with the visiting CLTs, a large number of teachers chose to return to China after one year of teaching in U.S. classroom.

**Cultural mismatch between Chinese classrooms and U.S. classrooms.** The reason for the difficulties visiting CLTs experience might be the cultural mismatch between visiting CLTs’ expectation of U.S. students and the actual U.S. classrooms. Chinese classrooms are different from U.S. classrooms in student behavior, classroom size, assessment, curriculum design, and instruction (see Table 1).

Influenced by Confucianism, as a whole, Chinese schools highly value “collectivism” (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998, p. 757), hierarchical teacher-student relationship (Hofstede, 1986), and the concept of “saving face” in Chinese classrooms (Hue & Li, 2008). Therefore, Chinese teachers usually expect students to show conformity to the group they belong to and to demonstrate respect to teachers in classroom. Chinese
Table 1  
*Contrast Between Chinese and U.S. Education Systems*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>China</th>
<th>U.S.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assessment and</td>
<td>Set by National Ministry of Education.</td>
<td>Decided by local school districts; some state influence for testing which influences curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Well-behaved, school uniforms for important days; more homogeneous ethnicity</td>
<td>Student behavior is variable: students are independent regarding dress; more diverse ethnicity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classrooms</td>
<td>50-60 students per class; students remain in their own classroom; teachers come to the classroom; teachers have offices.</td>
<td>Only a few classes over 35 students; most are 24-35; teachers have their own classroom and students come to it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Based on my personal experience and my knowledge. Adapted from “U.S. Classroom Culture,” by M.B. Smithee, 2004, Retrieved from http://works.bepress.com/michael_smithee/1

teachers do not punish individual students publicly to save the students’ face unless the misbehavior is severely disruptive (Zhou & Li, 2015). The teacher-centered classroom in China is a good example of the expectation that students conform to the rules (Zhao, 2009). The instructor directs the class, clarifies and interprets the written test, while the students listen to the teachers, take notes, read texts, memorize content, demonstrate memorization in tests (Smithee, Greenblatt, & Eland, 2004). Technology is not commonly used in the Chinese classrooms.

The U.S. classrooms, on the other hand, usually adopt the learner-centered approach (Sinclair, Szabo, Redmond-Sanogo, & Sennette, 2013). Both the instructor and the students participate actively in the U.S. classroom. More instructors in U.S. classrooms use computers and iPads to engage students in both the in-class exploration of the topics and out of class discussions (Saine, 2012; Smithee et al., 2004).

The assessments and curriculum designs are different, too. In China, there is a nationwide assessment standard and curriculum set by the national ministry of education,
while in the U.S., although state departments of education have some influence over the curriculum of primary and secondary schools, local school districts take the main responsibility for guiding educational institutions (Smithee et al., 2004). Besides written and oral exams, presentation, class participation, group projects, and classmates’ evaluation combined account for students’ grade.

Given the huge differences, Chinese teachers might not be used to U.S. classrooms at the beginning and tend to regard U.S. students’ rebellious behavior and questioning of authority as negative and “disrespectful” of older people (Spring, 2009, p. 232). Compared to Chinese students, U.S. students are more individual, more culturally and ethnically diversified. Failing to acculturate themselves into U.S. schools, these Chinese language teachers may alienate themselves from their students, which might lead to declining enrollments and eventual program elimination (Ging, 1994; Schrier, 1994).

*Lack of appropriate teaching identity.* Teaching in a culturally, linguistically, and cognitively diverse classroom might be a great challenge to some Mandarin teachers because of the huge differences between Chinese teachers’ expectations and the actual U.S. classrooms (Feuerverger, 1997; Yamauchi, Ceppi, & Lau-Smith, 2000). It is important to help these Mandarin teachers become better prepared for their teaching in the U.S. classrooms as well as make smooth transitions in their perceptions and practice of teaching.

In discussion of supporting language teachers teaching in a different culture, one controversial issue has been what is the most effective way to improve their teaching. On the one hand, some argue that language teachers should be taught appropriate pedagogies
and strategies in teaching foreign languages. For example, Wu (2011) argued constructing culturally relevant pedagogy is very effective in improving teachers’ teaching. Language teachers need to integrate culture into curriculum design to develop students’ knowledge and identities (Wu, 2011). On the other hand, other researchers argue that language teachers need to change their teaching beliefs when they teach in a diverse culture context (Fang, 1996; Gay, 2010; F. Pajares, 1993; L. Xu, 2012). For example, Gay (2010) argued that examining teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about cultural diversity, along with developing cognitive knowledge and pedagogical skills, should be included as essential elements of teacher education.

While I admit that using appropriate pedagogies and changing teaching beliefs are important part in teacher education, I contend that changing language teachers’ teaching beliefs or using appropriate pedagogies is not sufficient in supporting language teachers teaching in a different culture. A combination of transforming teachers’ embedded beliefs, attitudes and teaching practice is key to their success because these factors as a whole impact the way they teach, the pedagogies and strategies they use in their classrooms. Previous studies use “teachers’ professional identity” to refer to a combination of these three components (see Figure 1). Studies on teachers’ professional identity indicate that teachers’ professional identity is represented by their embedded beliefs, attitudes and teaching practice (Cho, 2014; Hawkins, 2005; Nunan, 1988).

Moving from Chinese classrooms to U.S. classrooms, the visiting CLTs might need to change their teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practice.

To summarize, the challenges visiting CLTs face and the historical, cultural and

The educational contrast seems to indicate that it is important to help visiting CLTs transform their teaching identities in U.S. classrooms so that they can be more successful in teaching the language and culture of China (Spring, 2009; Wang, 2009).

**Context of the problem.** Based on the previous studies of teachers’ professional identity (Beijaard, Verloop, & Vermunt, 2000; Cho, 2014; Danielewicz, 2001; Gao, 2012; Gay, 2010; McCormick & Pressley, 1997; Mead, 1934), teachers’ teaching identity develops and changes over time. Identity formation involves the interpretation and reinterpretation of experiences as one lives through them (Kerby, 1991). Visiting CLTs form their professional identity (i.e., attitudes, values, teaching practices) through experience in a new social cultural context of U.S. classroom. Mandarin teachers seem to face many challenges in U.S. classrooms and, as a result, they may have to transform their teaching identity to be successful.

Teachers’ professional identity is the driving force that determines the way
teachers teach, and the environment and behavior have an influence on their professional identity—the “onion layer” (Korthagen, 2004). With an “onion model” (see Figure 2), Korthagen (2004) claimed that identity, being the inner layer of the onion, has an influence on the outer levels—environment, behavior and competencies, and in turn the outer levels will influence the inner layer of the onion. Because identity determines the way teachers teach, it is necessary to explore whether teachers adjust their teaching identity in a different cultural context and how the teaching identity is adjusted if there is a change.

Figure 2. The onion: a model of levels of change. Adapted from “In search of the essence of a good teacher: towards a more holistic approach in teacher education” by F. A. J. Korthagen, 2004, Teaching and Teacher Education, 20(1), 77–97. Copyright 2003 by Elsevier Ltd.

Teacher identity is a social matter, influenced by context, teachers’ experiences, and their teaching practice. In earlier days, there was an argument over whether teacher identity is an individual issue or a social matter (Danielewicz, 2001; Gao, 2012). Mead (1934) interpreted identity in relationship with the concept of self, which is developed
through transactions with the environment. McCormick and Pressley (1997) further defined that the concept of self as an organized representation of theories, attitudes, and beliefs about ourselves. Danielewicz (2001) contended that identity is “[our] understanding of who we are and of who we think other people are”, and reciprocally, “other people's understanding of themselves and others (which includes us)” (p. 10). Beijaard, Meijer, and Verloop (2004) reviewed studies on teachers’ professional identity and concluded that teaching identity is a social matter related to teachers’ images of self, their teaching practice and expectations of other people.

In studies on language teachers, teachers’ professional identity is considered a critical component in TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages), teachers’ professional development, and classroom teaching (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005). Researchers agreed that language teachers’ identity development is a multiple, shifting transformational process affected by social cultural and political context (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2011; Beijaard et al., 2000; Bukor, 2015; Danielewicz, 2001; Morrison, 2013; Varghese et al., 2005).

Recently, more studies have focused on Chinese language teachers’ identity formation. Most studies focus on the process of identity formation impacted by context change and teachers’ experiences. Gao (2012) studied the effect of the self-identification on sixteen Chinese language subject teachers’ teaching identity formation in terms of changes in vision and practice in Hong Kong. Sun (2012) investigated the effect of personal practical knowledge on three immigrant Chinese language teachers’ identity formation in New Zealand. The immigrant Chinese language teachers refer to those
Chinese teachers who have the citizenship of the country they work in. Sun found that an immigrant teacher’s awareness of her identity and her cultural heritage had a profound influence on shaping her personal practical knowledge and teaching practice. All these studies show that teaching identity is closely related to teaching context, teachers’ knowledge, teachers’ previous experiences, and teachers’ current teaching practice.

Despite these above studies on teaching identity of foreign language teachers and immigrant Chinese language teachers, who have the citizenship of the country they work, few studies deal with the visiting Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity in the U.S.

**Validation of the problem.** Language teachers’ teaching identity impacts their teaching practice. Throughout their teacher education and practice in China, visiting CLTs have constructed a teaching identity informed by their previous school experiences, the ideas and approaches promoted by their teacher education programs, and their own expectation of what they hope to become. Since identity is not static, it will change according to the context (Flores & Day, 2006; Gao, 2012; Gu, 2011; Sercu, 2006; Tsui, 2007). New teaching situations in the U.S. classrooms expose visiting CLTs to a different cultural context and different students with different needs.

As I noted previously, the different cultural and educational contexts might pose great challenges to Chinese teachers of Mandarin language in U.S. classrooms. Problems revealed by studies show that visiting CLTs might lack appropriate identity in teaching U.S. students (Jia, 2014; Hua & Wei, 2014; H. Xu, 2012; Yao & Han, 2013). Lack of context appropriate teaching identity in U.S. will challenge CLT’s previous notions of who they are as Chinese language teachers, possibly resulting in their identity change.
I worked as a visiting Mandarin teacher in a U.S. university from 2008 to 2009. My personal experiences made me believe the problem of a lack of an appropriate teaching identity for visiting Chinese teachers in the U.S. exists. In sum, I argue that because visiting Chinese teachers come from a different cultural and educational background, they may need to make significant adjustments to the new context, which can lead to a transformation of their basic teaching identity, characterized by their teaching attitudes, beliefs, and practices.

**Statement of the Research Problem**

My research problem is that visiting CLTs’ teaching identity developed in China is challenged when they enter the U.S. classrooms as visiting teachers of Chinese. Differences in cultural and educational background may make it urgent for visiting CLTs to adapt to the context of U.S. classrooms and to change their teaching beliefs, attitudes, and their teaching practice.

Understanding the processes of professional identity formation and transformation is central to understanding teacher professional development needs and their teaching practice (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2011; Mockler, 2011). These visiting Chinese teachers’ teaching identity, like others, is formed and influenced by their personal experiences, teaching context, and other external factors. Teachers’ teaching identity determines most of the decisions from curriculum design to pedagogy and to assessment. Teaching identity shifts all the time depending on the changing context and teachers’ personal experiences.

To be successful teachers in U.S. classrooms, visiting CLTs might need to transform their professional identities to the U.S. context because teacher identity has a
determining effect on teaching practices (Korthagen, 2004). The process of transforming teacher identity is also a process of learning (Mezirow, 2000). As adult learners, visiting Chinese teachers might be able to transform their teaching attitudes, beliefs, and practices through their personal experiences, critical thinking and learning from the other teachers.

**Significance of the Research Problem**

It is important to study how visiting CLTs develop their identity in U.S. context. In the previous section, I mentioned that visiting Mandarin teachers teaching in a different culture seem to encounter difficulties: lacking adequate teaching and cross-cultural communication skills, failing to adapt to students’ individual difference, and teaching stereotypical Chinese customs and traditions to students (Hua & Wei, 2014; Yao & Han, 2013).

Because professional identity is a social matter rather than an individual issue (Beijaard, et al., 2004), lack of context-appropriate identity will have a ripple effect on all the people involved—CLT themselves, students, parents, and school boards. On the part of teachers, lack of appropriate professional identity can lead to decreased job satisfaction and a drop in the level of motivation, self-efficacy, and occupational commitment identity (Canrinus, Helms-Lorenz, Beijaard, Buitink, & Hofman, 2011). If we do not help visiting CLTs to make a transition into a new cultural context, things will get worse and might lead to low enrollments in Chinese language classes and eventual program elimination (Ging, 1994; Hall Haley & Ferro, 2011; Schrier, 1994). Additionally, the problem is worthy of studying because foreign language teachers in general are often marginalized in teacher preparation programs (Hornberger, 2004; Johnston, 1997;
Visiting Mandarin teachers are a tiny fraction of foreign language teachers. With the increasing number of international exchange programs, it is important to hear the voice from this particular group of teachers.

When visiting CLTs fail to adapt to the norms of U.S. classrooms and transform their teaching identity to the new U.S. context, they place too much stress on rote learning and standardized tests with which they are most familiar with from their classrooms in China. However, these approaches might reduce U.S. students’ interest in learning Chinese language, which will lead to a decreasing number of interested students taking Chinese language as their elective course. Because Chinese language is one of the critical need languages (CNLs), learning Chinese is of strategic importance for the U.S. to keep pace in a rapidly changing global society (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

Positive beliefs and attitudes compatible with the U.S. classrooms could improve teachers’ competency (Fang, 1996). For teacher educators, awareness of the importance of visiting CLTs’ adjusted beliefs and pedagogy will help teacher educators adjust their pedagogy in teacher preparation programs. With more schools offering Mandarin classes, more teachers will get into the profession of Chinese language teaching. Because teachers play a huge role in the constitution of classroom practices, understanding the process of appropriate identity adjustment is important for the teacher educators and teachers themselves.

Last, it is worthwhile to study visiting CLTs’ identity development because there is a gap in literature regarding what happens to visiting CLTs identity with a context change. Although many studies have shed light on the complicated formation of ESL
teacher identity, studies on CLT identity construction are few. To date, despite the broad scope of literature about foreign language teachers, there is little research about identity development of the visiting CLTs teaching Mandarin abroad.

In sum, because the purpose of this study was to describe and explain what is visiting CLTs’ identity and how the identity changes might take place when they teach Mandarin in U.S. classrooms, an understanding of visiting CLTs identity formation in the U.S. classrooms might help the community, local school districts and teacher educators to better support CLTs.

Methods and Research Question

In this section, I present my research questions and briefly introduce the methods through which I answered the research questions. I also provide definitions of key concepts within the study and explain their relevance to the problem.

I studied Chinese language teachers’ identity because I wanted to find out about their perceptions and attitudes toward Mandarin teaching in the U.S. In addition, I wanted to understand what happens to teacher identity and what relationship identity might have to their teaching practice in the U.S. classrooms. I used a mixed methods design in my study because neither the quantitative nor the qualitative approach by itself is adequate to understand my research problem. I used the Preliminary Quantitative Design (quant→QUAL) followed by in-depth qualitative interviews (Morgan, 2013) and Draw-A-Teacher Test (DATT) with teachers. Draw-A-Teacher Test is adapted from Draw-A-Scientist Test (DAST) (Mason, Kahle, & Gardner, 1991). The mixed methods research revealed a richer understanding of construct of visiting CLTs’ teaching identity.
In the preliminary quantitative phase, I surveyed 14 visiting CLTs who came to teach Mandarin in U.S. K-12 schools in the Fall of 2015 to find out how they perceived teaching Mandarin in the U.S classrooms. After they had taught in U.S. classrooms for four months, based on the quantitative data, I interviewed four teachers who seemed to have made the greatest changes in their teaching identity. I framed my survey and interview question specific to the setting (U.S. classrooms) and participants (visiting CLTs) so that I can reveal the diversity of individuals among the CLTs.

I conducted all my surveys and interviews in Chinese. The advantage was that both the researcher and participants could feel comfortable with their native language in the process. On the other hand, translation of the transcripts into English could have influenced my inferences in relation to the research questions. Therefore, I had another naïve Mandarin speaker read the transcripts. My overall goals was to help the community and teacher educators have a better understanding of what is visiting CLTs’ professional teaching identity and how visiting CLTs changed their teaching identity in the U.S. classrooms. In addition, results from this study can possibly identify ways to address CLTs’ preparation, beliefs, and practices towards language instruction in the classrooms outside China. The following research questions guided my study:

1. What are visiting K-12 Chinese language teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about teaching in U.S. classrooms? (beliefs and attitudes)

3. How is CLTs teaching identity (beliefs, attitudes and behavior) transformed when they teach in U.S. classrooms?

In the next chapter, I look at the research literature on teacher identity and its formation. To understand Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity formation, it is essential to analyze and synthesize these prior studies.

**Key Concepts and Terms**

- *Chinese language teachers (CLTs)* are teachers who teach in China and are currently teaching Mandarin in other countries. In this study, I will be working with a sub-set of those teachers who have been chosen by the Chinese government to travel to the US to teach Chinese for a short period of time, one to two years. Chinese language teachers have emigrated from China and teach in a culture and school system in a different country. For example, several friends of mine, born and raised up in China, help to teach Chinese language in U.S. schools.

- *Teacher professional development* is a type of activity for teachers. Its aim is to cultivate high quality teachers through workshop, seminars, and activities. The assumption of professional development is that teaching is a lifelong learning activity. Professional development is an essential mechanism for deepening teachers’ content knowledge and developing their teaching practices.

- *CLTs’ teaching identity* is teachers’ conception of themselves, other people and their role as Chinese language teachers, which is characterized by teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, and practices. One important characteristic of teaching identity is that it is affected by the context in which the teacher works.
• *Teachers’ beliefs* are a set of perceptions that teachers hold towards their profession and classroom teaching. Teachers’ beliefs can inform teacher’s teaching practice (Beacham & Rouse, 2012; Pajares, 1993). Teachers’ belief is an important component of teachers’ professional identity. Teachers’ beliefs influence teachers’ teaching behavior (Fang, 1996; Pajares, 1992).

• *Teachers’ attitude towards teaching* is the outward manifestation of teachers’ feeling towards teaching. Teachers’ attitude, whether negative or positive, can have important implication for teacher student interaction, parent school relationship, and academic achievement of students. Teachers’ attitude is an important component of teachers’ professional identity. Teachers’ attitudes have a strong influence on their teaching practice—how teachers teach in the classroom (Fang, 1996; Pajares, 1992).

• *Cultural consciousness* is an example of human perception about people in other cultures. It becomes important when we interact with people from other cultures because we can better understand other people’s points of view and their way of life.
Chapter 2 Literature Review

In Chapter 1, I presented the problem with Chinese language teachers’ (CLTs) lack of adequate teaching identity in U.S. classrooms, represented by appropriate teaching beliefs, attitudes, and teaching practice. To address this problem, I proposed a study to explore the effect of a changing context on CLTs’ teaching identity and the process of visiting CLTs’ teaching identity development in U.S. classrooms. I emphasized the justifications for teachers needing to adjust their teaching identity (represented by their teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practice) to be successful in U.S. classrooms.

In this chapter, I first review three theoretical frameworks used by researchers to study identity and propose that transformative learning theory is suited to my problem. Then, I analyze my research problem through the lens of transformative learning to facilitate a deeper understanding of the problem. Next, I review literature relevant to foreign language teachers’ teaching identity and Chinese Language Teachers’ teaching identity to argue for the importance of my research because it accounts for a gap in the literature and that understanding visiting CLTs’ teaching identity helps improve teachers’ teaching practice and helps students to learn. I synthesize previous studies on identity formation to help us understand how other researchers describe the role of teaching identity and the factors that influence teachers, especially foreign language teachers’ identity formation. Last, I review the methodological literature to identify an appropriate way to study Chinese language teacher identity in the U.S.

Theoretical Framework
In this section, I review theoretical framework used by researchers to study identity and propose transformative learning theories as theoretical framework to address my research problem.

**Review of the theoretical frameworks.** Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson (2005) reviewed current studies on language teacher professional identity and summarized that three different theoretical frameworks are usually used in studying language teachers’ identity: Tajfel’s (1978) social identity theory, Lave and Wenger’s (1991) theory of situated learning, and Simon’s (1995) concept of the image-text. Multiple theoretical approaches allow a richer and more useful understanding of the processes and contexts of teacher identity. Next, I explain the advantage and limitations of using the three frameworks in studying language teacher identity.

Johnson (2001) used social identity theory to explore teachers’ self-identity based on the social categories (e.g., nationality, race, class) the individual teacher belongs to (Hogg & Abrams, 1998). Because social identity theory recognizes the membership of individuals in many groups (for example, a TESOL student can have multiple identities—a TESOL teacher and a student), identity can be a dynamic process depending on which membership is more predominant at different times. The limitation of using social identity theory to explore teacher identity is that it does not seem to reveal changes of teacher identity over time and that categorization of membership by social categories prevents a richer understanding of how identity might develop through interaction with other groups (Varghese et al., 2005).

Other researchers (Gu, 2011; Gu & Benson, 2015; Varghese, 2000) use situated
learning and look at teacher identity formation as a process of becoming part of a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Situated learning links teachers’ learning with identity development by viewing learning as an identification process. Learning occurs as teachers participate actively in community activities and share their experiences with other participants (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The limitation of studying language teacher identity through situated learning is that it focuses on the effect of group participation on individual identity development and ignores other ways that teachers might develop their identity (Varghese et al., 2005).

Still others (Morgan, 2004) look at teacher identity as image-text produced by the daily classroom practices and the relationship between teachers and students. The image-text is composed of both observable phenomena (e.g., teacher–student interactions, classroom instruction, evaluations, and so on) and indirect factors (e.g., students’ attitudes, students’ prior experience, a teacher’s life stories, expectations, and so on) (Simon, 1995). The limitation of viewing language teacher identity as image-text is that because teacher identity is viewed by students under the influences of observable phenomena and indirect factors, students’ image of teachers can be different, or even contradictory, before and after classroom instruction. Therefore, the contradictory image of teacher identity can lead to teacher’s self-doubt and confusion, especially in the field of language teaching (Varghese et al., 2005).

The three theoretical frameworks provide a richer understanding of language teacher identity, but none of them are suitable for my study. These studies on language teacher identity are point-in-time studies and these researchers did not look into the effect
of a changing context on the teacher identity. I wanted to study the effect of context change on the three components of teaching identity—teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practice. I also wanted to study how the visiting CLTs develop their identity over a period of time.

To achieve this purpose, I chose the theoretical framework Transformational Learning Theories because it focuses more on context change on CLT identity and reveal how changes might happen. In the next part, I analyze the Transformative Learning Theories, apply the framework to CLTs’ identity formation, and critique the framework.

**Transformational learning theories.** Teacher identity formation is “a learning process” during which teachers try to “construct [an identity] with the help of culturally available building materials” (Geijsel & Meijers, 2005, pp. 423-424). Mezirow (2000) and other researchers have characterized transformational learning as a learning process that teachers undergo through reflection and community learning. Mezirow explained that a number of aspects of adult learning make adults different from younger learners. Adult learners need a supportive environment that allows them to take risks and become critically reflective. Adults need to have discourse and dialogue to make sense of new information and how it fits into their schema and practice, and they need the time and space to have reflection and reflective discourse. Finally, because adults are old enough to be responsible for their actions, what the learners want to learn is important to the learning experience. Transformative learning theories stress the link between adults learning process and the context. In summary, adults learn by making meaning out of their personal experiences, reflecting critically, and engaging in reflective discourse.
Transformative learning framework is pertinent to Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity adjustment because visiting CLTs as adults may need to transform their teaching identity to be successful. Three common themes characterize Mezirow’s transformative learning theories—experience, critical reflection, and rational discourse (Brown, 2004; Mezirow, 1991). These three common themes are important to our understanding of language teachers’ teaching identity because they disclose how visiting CLTs might improve their teaching practice by transforming their teaching identity in the U.S. context. Life experiences provide a starting point for transformational learning. Critical reflection is a vehicle by which adults question the validity of their worldviews. Rational discourse is a catalyst for transformation because it induces the various participants to explore the depth and meaning of their various worldviews, and articulate those ideas to their community members.

**Linking the transformational learning theories to CLTs’ identity formation.**

Transformational learning theory is applicable to Chinese teachers’ teaching in the U.S. not only because identity adjustment is a process of adult learning, but because visiting CLTs can learn through experiences, critical reflection, and rational discourse. Visiting CLTs learn both individually and in community. By individually, I specifically refer to the CLT’s learning through reflection. Dewey (1910) argued, “Reflection involves not simply a sequence of ideas, but consequence” (p. 2). Thus, reflective thought is defined as “active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge” (Dewey, 1910, p. 6). Visiting CLTs could reflect on their own learning in relation to their teaching practice and their interaction with other teachers, and delve into
their unconscious beliefs. “The unconscious cannot be known directly,” but “its workings interfere with our intentions and our conscious perception of direct experience” (Fenwick, 2000, p. 251). To lessen this interference, teachers can engage in self-reflection, which illuminates the “breaches between acts, thoughts, wishes, and responsibility” (Fenwick, 2000, p. 251). Through self-reflection, CLTs can recognize the difference between the actual classroom teaching and their expectation so that their teaching identity is changed accordingly to improve their teaching practice.

Self-reflection is not the only factor that helps develop teachers’ teaching identity. Teachers learn in community. Knowledge is not fixed or “centered in any way within individual subjects” (Fenwick, 2000, p. 254), instead, it keeps in motion every moment. Teacher learning is rooted in the situation in which a teacher participates, not just in self-reflection (Lave, 1996). Knowing and learning are interpreted as engaging in changing processes of human activity in a particular community (Fenwick, 2000). Working with peers, colleagues and their students, teachers gain a deeper understanding in participating in discussions and arguments and by listening to the other teachers. By self-reflection and learning from other teachers, visiting CLTs form their current teaching identity that in turn has an impact on their teaching practice.

Mezirow (1978) argued that the driving forces behind adults’ transformative learning are their life’s dilemmas “which cannot be resolved by simply acquiring more information” (p.108), but require the adults to make meaning out of the “culturally dependency roles and relationships” to confront these dilemmas (Mezirow, 1981, pp. 6-7). Moved out of comfort zone of Chinese classroom, these visiting CLTs seem to be
facing some dilemmas in U.S. classrooms. As adult learners, to address these dilemmas, Mezirow argued that self-reflection and taking the perspective of others can begin to transform their prior beliefs and attitudes. These challenges can precipitate visiting CLTs’ transformative changes in their teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practices.

**Critique of transformational learning theory.** Transformative learning theories can explain visiting CLTs teaching identity adjustment because these theories apply to adult learning. However, it has its own limitations. Mezirow’s (1978) transformative learning theory assumes that all adults are the same and all adults learn the same way. However, due to potential cultural difference, each individual has unique life experiences, family background and educational background. Visiting CLTs may learn in other ways, which are not limited to self-reflection and taking perspective of other people. Each teacher might have different challenges and dilemmas in classroom teaching. Additionally, transformative learning does not account for potential cultural differences. The change of social-cultural context is an important factor that can facilitate visiting CLTs’ identity change. Hence, different school experiences and the cultural context require us to take both individual and cultural factors into consideration when we analyze visiting CLTs’ identity transformation.

In the next part, I review and synthesize previous studies on teachers’ teaching identity and the research methodology.

**Review of the Research Literature**

Given these theoretical frameworks above, in this section of Chapter 2, I look at the literature relevant to my problem and build an argument as to how to address the
problem of visiting CLTs’ lacking context appropriate teaching identity in U.S. classrooms. Because teacher identity formation is a complex, dynamic, discontinuous and multi-faceted learning process, it is constantly influenced by the context, teachers’ experiences, beliefs, and attitudes (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2011; Beijaard et al., 2000; Bukor, 2015; Danielewicz, 2001; Gu & Benson, 2015; Morrison, 2013).

In the next part, I review the research literature on how the cultural context affects teachers’ teaching identity. Specifically, I examine the studies focusing on the link between change of context and teachers’ teaching beliefs, attitudes, and teaching practice in the classroom because a change in cultural context could be an important factor influencing visiting CLTs’ teaching identity. I exclude studies that define identity only in terms of demographic features because identity is not just an individual issue, but a social issue, which means that its development is shaped by interaction with the context. I also exclude studies that only deal with K-12 students’ identity because I want to focus more on how teachers as adults learn. Last, I review and critique the methodological literature relevant to my study to justify my own selection of specific research methods.

**Link between teaching identity and context.** Studies show a close link between identity formation and the context. Previous studies (Alsup, 2006; Canrinus et al., 2011; Danielewicz, 2001; Gao, 2012; Gu & Benson, 2015; Williams, 2010) on teacher identity argued that professional identity research should put more emphasis on the relationship between relevant concepts such as “self” and “identity,” the role of the context in professional identity formation, and research perspectives. Since teacher identity is a social matter (Danielewicz, 2001; Gao, 2012), teachers’ life experiences, such as job
satisfaction, occupational commitment, self-efficacy and change in the level of motivation, all influence teachers’ sense of professional identity (Canrinus et al., 2011).

Moreover, identity is always in the process of shaping and reshaping. Alsup (2006) asserted that identity adjustment is “a space of continual becoming rather than an endpoint culminating in singular identity construction” (p. 7). With ongoing interplay between cultural, political, and personal ideology, teacher identity transcends the demographic features, involving cultural, political, and professional perspectives. Flores and Day (2006) found that past influence, pre-teaching identity, and classroom practice shape and reshape new teachers’ identity. Teachers who worked in a more supportive culture were more likely to develop and to demonstrate positive attitudes towards teaching.

Next, I focus on the studies that specifically describe the influence of context on the formation of language teaching identity in terms of changes in teachers’ teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practice (Gao, 2012; Sun, 2012; Trent & DeCoursey, 2011; Tsui, 2007; Urzúa & Vásquez, 2008; Y. Xu, 2014).

**Influence of context on language teachers’ beliefs.** Several studies (Gao, 2012; Gu, 2011; Gu & Benson, 2015) have focused on language teacher identity construction in terms of perception change. Gu (2011) specifically explored the influence of context on teaching identities of seven mainland Chinese preservice teachers of English in a teacher education institute in Hong Kong. Gu stressed the discursive formation of teachers’ identity from the following four contextual factors: particular linguistic and cultural backgrounds, immediate learning community of university, social discourses and
economic and political conditions in Hong Kong, and teaching environment in local classrooms on teachers. The study reached the conclusion that the pre-service teachers construct their teaching identity as English language teachers with particular linguistic and cultural backgrounds to gain “legitimacy” (Gu, 2011, p.144). Legitimacy is a essential for the novice teachers to “be treated as potential members” because with legitimacy teachers’ challenges can turn into opportunities for learning (Wenger, 1998, p.101). Because these pre-service teachers came from mainland China, they met with a different belief system in Hong Kong. To be part of the teaching community in Hong Kong, these adjusted their two differing belief systems regarding teaching and learning and position themselves in the setting of Hong Kong by stressing the teaching strategies to facilitate effective teaching and learning. Because Gu’s (2011) study explored how preservice language teachers from mainland China shaped their identity in Hong Kong, it also can shed light on my study of how visiting CLTs might reconcile their teaching identity with a different belief system in U.S. context.

Later in collaboration with another researcher, Gu (2011) continued the study on TESOL teacher identity by comparing identity development of these two groups of English language teachers from Guangzhou, mainland China and Hong Kong, a post-colonial city. Echoing the previous studies, Gu and Benson (2015) concluded that TESOL teacher identity is constructed individually, and shaped by teachers’ immediate contextual factors. Gu and Benson’s (2015) study informed me that there are similarities and contrasts in identity formation of two groups of teachers with different cultural backgrounds, and that teachers forms a set of beliefs about language teaching and
learning by transforming their perceptions of students’ motivation and self-esteem in a different sociocultural context. Gu and Benson’s (2015) study is useful to my study because the researchers indicate that a link exists between individual language teacher beliefs, teachers’ cultural background, and context change.

Similarly, in a study of 16 Chinese language subject teachers, Gao (2012) explored self-identification and subsequent effects on teachers’ actual teaching vision and practice in teaching Chinese as a second language to South Asians in Hong Kong. With data collected from classroom observations and interviews with the teachers, Gao’s study indicates that Chinese language subject teachers have stereotypical perceptions of South Asian students in Hong Kong: students’ linguistic deficiency is caused by students’ family’s “low educational aspirations and practice” (Gao, 2012, p. 93). At the same time, teachers realize the importance of understanding the culture of their South Asian students. Therefore, teachers negotiate with South Asian learners and construct their teaching in ways that lead to a change in their beliefs and attitudes—regarding themselves as linguistic torchbearers, Chinese cultural transmitters, and successful teachers (Gao, 2012). Gao’s (2012) study is useful to my study because this study suggests that foreign language teachers can change their beliefs through critical self-reflections on their own and students’ cultural contexts to enable success of the second language learners.

The above studies shed light on visiting CLTs’ identity development because CLTs share similar backgrounds with those language teachers, for example, all of them have a Chinese background and are lacking in local experience or understanding in a new context.
Influence of context on language teachers’ attitudes and practice. Other researchers focus on the influence of context change on teaching identity in terms of teachers’ attitudes and practice. Y. Xu (2014) argued that context also influences teachers’ attitudes. In a narrative study of Chinese university EFL teachers’ research practice and their professional identity construction, Y. Xu (2014) argued that Chinese university EFL teachers take a “passive and powerless attitudes” towards research due to practical constraints on research in China (p. 254). The practical constraints include the heavy workload, unfavorable policies towards teachers, and lack of support from institutions at the administrative levels. Although Y. Xu’s (2014) study described the impact of local context on teachers’ research identity, this study informs me that lack of external support in a new context might have adverse effect on teachers’ teaching attitude and practice.

In another study, Sun (2012) conducted four open-ended interviews over a period of two months with one immigrant CLT Wenying, teaching Chinese in a secondary school in New Zealand. Sun (2012) intended to examine the influence of an immigrant teacher’s identity and native educational traditions have on personal practical knowledge and teaching practice in a Western context. Sun found that the immigrant Chinese language teacher’s awareness of her identity and her cultural heritage had a profound influence on shaping her personal practical knowledge and teaching practice. Wenying, the teacher in the study, started teaching as an outsider because another teacher before her had established a Chinese program in that school. Wenying was an outsider because she was new both to the culture and to the students. Wenying’s Chinese background
influenced her teaching practice (emphasis on memorization and teachers’ authority in class). Sun’s study is pertinent to my study on Chinese language teachers because the participant’s experience is similar to that of visiting CLTs. Both of them bring their prior experience and culture to their teaching job in a different culture. I believe there will be teaching identity changes as a result of changes in their beliefs, attitudes, and practice.

All these previously described studies show evidence of a relationship among context, teachers’ experiences, and the three components of teaching identity (i.e., teacher beliefs, teacher attitudes, teaching practice) and suggest the importance of exploring teacher identity formation in visiting CLTs teaching in U.S.

To summarize, I provide a chronological overview of the studies on the influence of context on the three components of language teachers’ identity (see Table 2).

**Synthesis.** One commonality of the above analyzed studies (see Table 2) on teaching identity is that all the researchers agree that teaching identity is a trajectory and an ongoing learning process for the teachers (Flores & Day, 2006; Gao, 2012; Gu, 2011; Sun, 2012). Given these examples, one can see that teachers’ teaching identity does change in different contexts and that this change is reflected by changes in their beliefs, attitudes, and practice. Teachers’ personal experiences and contexts have played a very important role in shaping and reshaping their teaching identity. A new context seems to challenge teachers’ previous beliefs, attitudes towards teaching, and their teaching behavior. These challenges can precipitate teachers’ transformative change in identity only if they bravely meet these challenges, start to reflect on their previous beliefs, attitudes, and practice, and learn from other teachers (Gao, 2012; Gu, 2011; Sun, 2012).
Table 2

**Chronological Overview of the Studies on the Influence of Context on Language Teachers’ Beliefs, Attitudes, and Practice (Three Components of Teacher Identity)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author and year</th>
<th>Main data collection tools</th>
<th>Duration of study</th>
<th>Major findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, &amp; Johnson (2005)</td>
<td>3 studies on language teacher identity</td>
<td>No mention</td>
<td>This review article presents three data-based studies of language teacher identity and three different theoretical frameworks in studying identity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tsui (2007)</td>
<td>Narrative inquiry ($n = 1$)</td>
<td>6 months</td>
<td>EFL teacher Mingfang constructs identity by participation and mediating role of power relationships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trent (2010)</td>
<td>Interview ($n = 6$)</td>
<td>8 weeks</td>
<td>Pre-service English teachers’ identity is formed by their perceptions of teaching, images of teachers and teaching, and alignment with contemporary educational discourse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gu (2011)</td>
<td>Interview ($n = 7$)</td>
<td>3 months</td>
<td>Cross-border pre-service English teachers’ identity is shaped by a learning community, teaching practicum and self-positioning in a language teaching profession.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beauchamp and Thomas (2011)</td>
<td>Semi-structured interview ($n = 35$)</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>New teachers’ experiences and community participation influence their identity formation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gao (2012)</td>
<td>Classroom observations and interviews ($n = 16$)</td>
<td>No mention</td>
<td>Chinese language teachers form identity by changing their beliefs and attitudes—regarding themselves as linguistic torchbearers, cultural transmitters, and a successful teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sun (2012)</td>
<td>Open-ended interviews ($n = 3$)</td>
<td>2 months</td>
<td>The immigrant Chinese language teacher’s identity and cultural heritage teacher’s personal practical knowledge and teaching practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y. Xu (2014)</td>
<td>Survey ($n = 120$) and interviews ($n = 4$)</td>
<td>No mention</td>
<td>EFL teachers’ research identity is constructed through teachers’ increased level of research engagement, attitudes towards research, and external drive for conducting.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Besides the link between context and teaching identity, researchers in the above
studies agreed on the importance of common factors in shaping teaching identity: learning communities (Gu, 2011; Trent & DecCoursey, 2011), reflective activities (Tsui, 2007; Walkington, 2005), and professional experiences (Gu, 2011). Also in a review of 52 research papers on teacher educators’ identity from 2004 to 2014, and a review of 29 studies on student teachers’ teaching identities, Izadinia (2013, 2014) concluded that teaching identity is shaped by four broad factors: reflective activities, learning communities, context, and (prior) experiences. Izadinia’s (2013, 2014) and other researchers’ findings further corroborate my using Mezirow’s (2000) transformative learning theories to explore Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity because the above reviewed studies show how teachers transformed their identity (represented by beliefs, attitudes, and practice)—experiencing a different context, self-reflection, participating in community learning.

**Critique.** Although the concept of identity has been widely discussed in general education in recent decades (Beijaard et al., 2004), few studies have given a clear definition to teachers’ identity. Admittedly, given the fact that identity is generally accepted as situated and multidimensional, involving negotiation between the individual and socio-cultural contexts (Beijaard et al., 2004), it is hard to clearly define teacher identity. All the analyzed studies on teacher identity lacked a clear definition of identity and a clear explanation of its components.

Among the reviewed studies, Flores and Day (2006) defined teacher identity as “an ongoing and dynamic process which entails the making sense and (re)interpretation of one’s own values and experiences” (p. 220). Flores and Day (2006) explored teacher
identity from these four perspectives: teachers’ self-efficacy, motivation, commitment, and job satisfaction. Gu (2011) did not distinguish teachers’ professional identity from identity in general, vaguely referring to identity as “individuals’ self-perception, knowledge and naming of themselves” (p.140). Gao (2012) cited other researchers to define teacher identities as “the professional, cultural, political, and individual identities” (Varghese et al., 2005, p. 22), but did not give a clear definition of identity pertinent to the research problems.

Other researchers did not even define the term of teacher identity in their studies. In the conclusion Sun (2012) vaguely described that teachers’ professional identity is “related to teachers’ concepts or images of self”, and that teaching identity is influenced by “the expectation of other people” (p. 766). From the above examples, we can see that although all the researchers admitted that teacher identity is an important part in teachers’ professional development and that context, teachers’ experiences, and self-reflection have played a very important role in shaping teachers’ teaching identity, they failed to give a clear definition of what is teacher identity and what it is composed of. I define CLTs’ teaching identity as teachers’ conception of themselves, other people and their role as Chinese language teachers, which is characterized by teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, and practices. One important characteristic of teaching identity is that it is affected by the context in which the teacher works.

Secondly, most studies on language teachers’ identity deal with novice teachers’ teaching identity. Different from the novice teachers in those studies, visiting CLTs have been teachers in China for at least one to three years, but they might lack teaching
experience in the U.S. The cultural mismatch between Chinese classrooms and U.S. classrooms might force them to transform their embedded teaching beliefs and attitudes. I wondered how, as experienced teachers, these visiting CLTs deal with the challenges in the U.S. classrooms and whether they change their teaching behavior in U.S. classrooms. Thus, the above reviewed studies do not present a rich picture of how visiting, experienced language teachers shape and reshape their teaching identity within the new teaching context. Despite the fact that there are many studies on teacher identity formation, there are few studies on the phenomena of visiting Chinese language teacher identity formation in U.S. classrooms.

**Review of the Methodological Literature**

As I noted in the literature review in Chapter 2, previous studies on language teacher identity mostly deal with the novice teachers’ identity formation. A look at the methods used by these studies can reveal the research methodology in exploring teacher identity.

Izadinia (2013) reviewed 29 studies on student teachers’ identity and found that reflective practices and interviews are mainly used by researchers as data collection tools. In the context of language teachers, almost all the previously discussed studies (see Table 2) use qualitative methods to describe and explore language teachers’ teaching identity formation (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2011; Gao, 2012; Gu, 2011; Sun, 2012; Trent, 2010; Tsui, 2007). The exception is Sercu’s study (2006), which used quantitative methods. It seems that the majority of researchers have primarily used qualitative research methods to explore language teachers’ teaching identity. Therefore, there is a gap in literature of
using quantitative methods to study teacher identity. Using quantitative research methods to study teacher identity can help researchers identify main variables that might influence teacher identity formation (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative research methods may also help researchers identify the relationship between different variables and findings (Creswell, 2009).

**Measuring teachers’ professional identity.** Although surveys are commonly used to measure attitudes or behaviors, especially when researchers are determining whether or not participants change beliefs or attitudes over time as a result of taking part in a program (Vogt, Gardner & Haeffele, 2012), they are rarely used in studies on teacher identity. In the field of medicine, Starr et al. (2006) developed a survey instrument to measure teaching identities of the physicians based on seven elements such as job satisfaction, knowledge and skill about teaching, community belonging, responsibilities of teaching, sharing clinical expertise with learners, receiving rewards for teaching, and believing that being a physician means being a teacher. Starr et al. (2006) included the complete survey questions aiming at measuring the seven elements of physicians’ teaching identity. The limitation is that in designing the survey questions this researcher did not take the culture and context change into consideration.

In the context of studies of foreign language teachers’ teaching identity, only Sercu (2006) used web-based questionnaire to survey 424 foreign language teachers from 7 different countries. The survey questions addressed various facets of teachers’ knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Why is this study the only one using quantitative method to measure language teachers’ teaching identity? I assume it is because Sercu’s
CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHERS’ TEACHING IDENTITY

(2006) research was set up in an international context and that the aim of the study was to compare language teachers’ profiles in the different countries participating in the research. Although a survey was more pertinent to the purpose of the Sercu’s study, I contend that using qualitative methods such as unstructured interviews, journals, and the like can yield more in-depth data.

In a review of studies on student teachers’ identity from 1996-2010, Izadinia (2013) also admitted that there is a lack of due attention to the use of quantitative methods in the field of measuring teacher identity. Because it is very important to know if there are changes of visiting CLTs’ teaching identity over time (Research Question 1), I adapted Sercu’s (2006) survey questions and Starr et al.’s (2006) instrument to develop a Teacher Identity Survey (TIS) to measure visiting CLTs’ teaching identity during the first week of their arrival and four months after they started to teach in a U.S. classroom. I obtained teachers’ answers to structured questions regarding teachers’ teaching identity in U.S. classrooms at the beginning of their teaching and at the end of four months of teaching. As such, a survey represented an excellent method by which to answer the questions of whether there is a change in visiting CLTs identity and what their identity is like. However, a survey alone has limitations in my study because I also wanted to know more in-depth about how the changes happen to visiting CLTs.

The majority of the studies on foreign language teacher identity use qualitative methods, such as interviews, narrative inquiry and observations, to describe and explore teachers’ teaching identity. Among the above-analyzed studies, only two studies (Gao, 2012; Sun, 2012) focus on Chinese language teachers’ identity development. Gao (2012)
used individual interviews and classroom observations to explore how Chinese language subject teachers negotiate self-identity and teaching vision and practice within the context of discourse pertaining to South Asians in Hong Kong. Sun (2012) used interviews to explore the relation between immigrant Chinese language teacher's identity, cultural heritage, practical knowledge, and teaching practice. To explore the effect of contextual change on CLTs’ teaching identity, I used interviews and Draw-A-Teacher Test (DATT) in my study to answer Research Questions 2 and 3.

Justifying my selection of mixed methods research. Research questions determine what method we should use in our studies (Vogt et al., 2012). In the methods and research questions section of Chapter 1, I explained my intention to use a mixed methods research methodology because it is best suited to answering my research questions. In my study, I used sequential research methods to integrate qualitative and quantitative methods. I explicitly used results from the preliminary quantitative survey to enhance the effectiveness of qualitative research method. Because the purpose of this study was to describe and explain what visiting CLTs’ identity is and how the identity change might take place when they teach Mandarin in U.S. classrooms, a sequential research method can reveal a richer picture of CLTs’ teaching identity development in the U.S. classrooms (Morgan, 2013). In Figure 3, I present my three research questions with instruments and data analysis I used to answer them.

Research question one focused on visiting CLTs’ background and their overall teacher identity change in U.S. classroom. A quantitative measure (survey) captured this information. Research questions two and three are different types of questions because I
sought to understand how teachers’ teaching identity has changed. Because qualitative methods are more exploratory in nature, I explored the variables influencing CLTs’ teaching identity, and the relationship between teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, and practice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Instrument(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What are visiting K-12 Chinese language teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about teaching in U.S. classrooms? (beliefs and attitudes)</td>
<td>Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How is CLTs teaching identity (beliefs, attitudes and behavior) transformed when they teach in U.S. classrooms?</td>
<td>Survey, Interview, Draw-A-Teacher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 3.* Research questions with instruments and data analysis used to answer them.

**Summary**

In Chapter Two, I have analyzed my research problem through the lens of transformative learning to facilitate a deeper understanding of the problem. As adult learners, visiting CLTs might transform their teaching identity through their personal experience, self-reflection and taking the perspective of others.

Then, I reviewed literature relevant to foreign language teachers’ teaching identity and Chinese Language Teachers’ teaching identity to argue the importance for my research. Previous studies on foreign language teachers’ teaching identity showed that teachers’ identity is closely linked to the context. Context change impacted the three components of teaching identity — beliefs, attitudes, and practice. Researchers (Gu, 2011; Trent & DeCoursey, 2011; Tsui, 2007; Walkington, 2005) agreed on the importance
of common factors in shaping teaching identity: learning communities, reflective activities, and professional experiences. However, most of these studies dealt with novice teachers’ identity formation. Studies on the visiting CLTs who are not novices are few. The majority of the studies used qualitative methods to describe and explore the trajectory process of how foreign language teachers develop their teaching identity.

Last, I proposed the mixed methods research to study Chinese language teacher identity in the U.S. because the mixed method research can help answer my research questions better. Using the preliminary quantitative design, I selected those teachers with significant change in identity and explored how the changes took place, such as the variables influencing CLTs’ teaching identity, and the relationship between teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, and practice.
Chapter 3 Methodology

The purpose of this study was to describe and explain what is Chinese language teacher identity and how the identity changes might take place when they teach Mandarin in U.S. classrooms. As aforementioned, teachers’ teaching identity is characterized by their teaching beliefs, attitudes and teaching practice impacted by their changing beliefs and attitudes. The broader goal of my study is to find ways to encourage Chinese language teaching competency in the U.S. classrooms and to foster cross-cultural communication through more effective interactions in the classroom.

In light of the purpose of my study and the research questions I aspired to answer, in Chapter 1, I discussed the importance of exploring Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity in U.S. classrooms because teaching identity influences teachers’ decisions and teaching practice (Korthagen, 2004). The inability to modify teaching identity to a new context can lead to decreased job satisfaction and a drop in the level of motivation, self-efficacy, and occupational commitment identity (Canrinus et al., 2011). If CLTs fail to modify professional teaching identity to a different context, CLTs are at risk for getting burned out and may very well leave the profession completely. Modifying their teaching identity to the U.S. context, on the other hand, may improve teachers’ teaching practices.

In Chapter 2, I described the rationale for selecting Transformative Learning Theories (Mezirow, 1978) as a theoretical and methodological framework to explore CLTs’ teaching identity in U.S. classrooms. Transformative Learning Theories are pertinent to my study because I will study adults’ learning behavior. As adult learners, CLTs learn by their experiences, critical reflection, and reflective discourse. In Chapter
2, I presented a literature review on language teachers’ identity formation in the context of a different culture. The literature revealed that there is a link between context, teachers’ experiences, and teachers’ identity represented by their teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practice, and that teachers develop their teaching identity by learning from their experiences, reflecting critically on their practice, and gaining insight from their community (Flores & Day, 2006; Gao, 2012; Izadinia, 2013, 2014; Sun, 2012; Trent & DeCoursey, 2011; Tsui, 2007; Urzúa & Vásquez, 2008; Y. Xu, 2014). The literature review revealed that there is a gap concerning what happens to the teaching identity of the visiting CLTs in U.S. classrooms. In Chapter 2, I also reviewed the methodological literature to analyze and select appropriate methods.

In Chapter 3, I begin with the description of the methodology proposed for this study, articulating the research questions with the problem in practice and the rationale for a mixed methods research approach. Second, I describe the components of the research methodology in detail, the participants in this research study, context of the study, and procedures, including the use of data collection instruments. Third, I explain the procedures of data collection and analysis, including both quantitative and qualitative data, and the steps to coding qualitative data. I describe and justify steps taken to collect and analyze the data so I can answer the research questions in my study. Last, as a Chinese language teacher and researcher, I also explain my position with dual roles.

The following research questions guide my study:

1. What are visiting K-12 Chinese language teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about teaching in U.S. classrooms? (beliefs and attitudes)

3. How is CLTs teaching identity (beliefs, attitudes and behavior) transformed when they teach in U.S. classrooms?

Research Methods

In this section, I introduce the concept of paradigm. Then, I move on to the description of different philosophical assumptions that support the use of mixed methods research. I end this section with the rationale for the use of mixed methods research in studying Chinese Language Teachers’ teaching identity in U.S. classroom, under the pragmatic research paradigm.

Research paradigm: Pragmatic research approach. The purpose of introducing research paradigms is that I want to state my viewpoints in terms of my research. Different research paradigm determines what research methods I use in my study. Kuhn (2012) first brought this concept to collective awareness in academia in his book *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*. Kuhn (2012) argued that a scientific revolution is a noncumulative development in which an older paradigm is replaced in whole or in part by an incompatible new one. Guba (1990) further defined the concept of paradigms as a set of beliefs and assumptions that guide assumptions that guide action and research. Although paradigms are mostly implicit in research, they influence the practice of research and need to be identified.

Creswell (2009) summarized four worldviews shaping and guiding our notions of truth and knowledge: post-positivism, constructivism, participatory, and pragmatism. All
four worldviews represent different views on the nature of reality (ontology), how we gain knowledge of what we know (epistemology), the role values play in research (axiology), the process of research (methodology), and the language of research (rhetoric) (Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011). In research, the post-positivism tends to focus on determination, reductionism, empirical observation and measurement, and theory verification (Creswell, 2009). Post-positivism seeks to identify causal relationships between variables. Constructivism, another paradigm, stresses varied and complex experiences because constructivists regard reality as multiple, constructed, and holistic (Guba & Lincoln, 1985, 2005). Thus, constructivism does not seek to generalize, but to specify research problems as situated and contingent on the context. Constructivists tend to use qualitative research methods to reveal a richer and fuller understanding of a research problem. The third paradigm, the participatory paradigm, focuses on the needs of groups and individuals in the society that may be marginalized (Creswell, 2009). The participatory approach emphasizes active participation of the participants.

Last, pragmatism, another paradigm, is typically associated with mixed methods research. Pragmatists aim at problem solving because their focus is on the consequences of research and multiple methods of data collection to inform the problems under study (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011). In pragmatism, the approach combines deductive and inductive thinking, as the researcher mixes both qualitative and quantitative data to learn as much about the problem as possible. Morgan (2007) also proposed an alternative paradigm—the pragmatic approach—in the social sciences to address the anomalies in
the previous paradigms. Any research involves two-direction process of moving back and forth between theory and data (Morgan, 2007). The pragmatic approach focuses on “adductive” reasoning moving between “induction” and “deduction” —“first converting observations into theories and then assessing those theories through action” (Morgan, 2007, p. 71). Therefore, the pragmatic approach is designed to further an inquiry based on the results of prior data in order to predict other circumstances in the future (Morgan, 2007).

In pragmatic approach, the Sequential Contributions Model is a way of integrating qualitative and quantitative methods. Sequential Contributions Model uses the inductive results from a qualitative approach “as inputs to the deductive goals of quantitative approach”, and vice versa (Morgan, 2007, p. 71). The Sequential Contributions Model is a common design in mixed methods research. Pragmatism is not just context dependent as constructivism and participatory approach are, nor generalized as post-positivism is. Researchers can apply a study of the specific setting to a different context. I used a pragmatic paradigm in my study because I wanted my exploration of CLTs’ identity development in U.S. classrooms to be of some value to teacher identity development in other contexts.

**Type of research design and rationale.** An appropriate research design matches both the purposes of a study and the procedures of meeting those goals (Creswell, 2009). A mixed methods design matches the purpose of my study of visiting CLTs’ teaching identity because neither the quantitative nor the qualitative approach by itself is adequate to best understand my research problem. The strength of mixed methods approach is that
using multiple methods can produce richer knowledge necessary to inform practice and add insights that might be missed when only one single method is used. The limitation of mixed methods approach is that it is more time consuming because this approach involves both qualitative and quantitative research.

Among all the mixed methods approach, the sequential design approach explicitly uses the results of one method to enhance the effectiveness of another (Creswell, 2009). Morgan (2013) listed four types of sequential design approach: (a) qual→QUAN; (b) QUAL→quan; (c) QUAN→Qual; (d) quan→QUAL. The capitalized word refers to which specific method has been used as the core method in the mixed methods research. In my study of CLTs’ teaching identity, I used the Preliminary Quantitative Design (quant→QUAL) followed by in-depth qualitative interviews and Draw-A-Teacher Test with teachers with outlier data (see Figure 4).

![Diagram of Explanatory Sequential Design approach—Preliminary Quantitative Design (quan→QUAL). Adapted from “Integrating qualitative and quantitative methods: A pragmatic approach” by D. L. Morgan, 2013. Copyright 2013 by Sage.](image)

My study involved a small pre- and post-quantitative approach with 14 teachers and a qualitative approach over a period of four months. I chose to study CLTs’ teaching
identity change over a period of 4 month because four months account for half of the teaching year. I was curious to know if there were some changes in CLTs’ identity after half year of teaching. The limitation of my quantitative survey was the small number of participants, but it provided important resources for my qualitative data (Morgan, 2013). In the quantitative part of the study (Phase One), teachers’ teaching identity was measured by using Teacher Identity Survey (TIS) as a pre- and post-test. Surveys are effective measures because they offer choices from one extreme to another instead of a yes or no question. This allowed me to measure to what extent a CLT agrees or disagrees with a statement. Surveys can not only measure CLTs’ overall experience, opinion or satisfaction, but also give specific data about contributing factors related to attitudes and behaviors.

In the qualitative part of the study (Phase Two), the participants showing the most positive changes of teaching identity were asked to participate in the qualitative study through interview and Draw-A-Teacher Test (DATT). The DATT is adapted from the Draw-A-Scientist Test (DAST). The DAST is an open-ended test designed to investigate children’s perception of a scientist developed by Chambers (1983). I used the quantitative data results in selecting teacher participants for the qualitative part of the study. The integration of both quantitative and qualitative methods exposed a richer picture of how CLTs perceived teaching in U.S. and how visiting CLTs teach Chinese language in U.S. classroom.

In sum, I used mixed methods research to explore the visiting CLTs’ teaching identity formation in U.S. classroom. In Phase One, I conducted a small pre- and post-
quantitative study of 14 teachers and a qualitative study over a period of four months. In Phase Two, I used quantitative data results to select teacher participants for the follow-up interviews and Draw-A-Teacher Test (DATT) to find out what happened to visiting CLTs’ teaching identity in U.S. classrooms.

**Participants, context of the study, sampling, and rationale.** In recent years, a large number of visiting teachers from China are teaching Mandarin in the U.S. schools. Some teachers are sent as part of exchange programs by Chinese schools to teach Mandarin in their partner school in U.S., while other teachers are selected and sent by Chinese Language Council International (also called Hanban), a non-profit organization affiliated to Department of Education in China (Jia, 2014). According to Confucius Institute Headquarters (2014), in 2014, about 15,500 Chinese language teachers were sent to 139 countries all over the world, including 6300 teachers, 5,724 volunteer teachers, and 3,476 teachers from affiliated universities and provincial, regional and city educational departments. These teachers are usually assigned to teach abroad for two years.

**Participants and context of study.** This study concentrated on a small number \(n = 14\) of first year visiting Chinese language teachers who are teaching Mandarin in K-12 schools in a northwest state in US. These 14 teachers arrived in U.S. as a group in August 2015. I used purposive sampling as the sampling method for this study.

These visiting teachers are mostly college-graduated teachers teaching Chinese, foreign languages, or education-related fields in China (Sung, 2014). Usually the selection process starts in spring. The teacher candidates are usually selected from
teachers working in K-12 schools, colleges, and universities in China. Recommended and approved by their schools, these teachers can submit their application to Office of Chinese Language Council (Hanban). Then these teacher applicants need to go through a series of tests (including written exams on Chinese language, pedagogy, and a psychological test) and interviews before they are finally selected as Hanban-sent visiting Chinese language teachers. Based on the needs of local schools, these teachers have been assigned to teach Mandarin in schools all over the world, mostly in K-12 schools for 2 to 3 years. Each year, a group of 15-20 new visiting teachers are assigned to teach in a northwest state in U.S. that serves as the research site.

These 14 teachers signed yearly contracts with the local school districts. They could teach in U.S. for up to two years. These teachers worked with K-12 U.S. students who chose to Mandarin course. The majority of these students had no Chinese background.

Table 3 summarizes the demographic data of the survey. As noted in Table 3, 13 out of the 14 participants were female and only one out of the fourteen was male. All the fourteen participants have some teaching experience in China, and none of them have any experience of teaching in U.S. However, four teachers have some experience of either teaching in other Asian countries, such as Thailand, Indonesia, South Korea, or tutoring in U.S. Ten of the 14 participants have been teaching in primary and secondary schools in China and three of the thirteen participants have been teaching in colleges in China. All the 14 teachers were language teachers in China: Three were teaching Chinese language; and 11 were teaching English. All the 14 teachers have received formal education in
China: Seven have bachelor’s degree; seven have graduate degree. In terms of the participants’ age, nine are in their 20s, two in their 30s, and three in their 40s. Overall, the demographic background shows that all the participants are well-educated and experienced language teachers in China. However, few participants have overseas teaching experience, especially in western countries, such as U.S. The demographic background information also shows a disproportionate rate of male and female visiting Mandarin teachers in Oregon.

**Sampling.** In Phase One, all the 14 first year visiting teachers who came to U.S. volunteered to take the survey. In Phase Two, I used purposive sampling in my study. Purposive sampling is a way of “choosing participants deliberately” to “make the sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3</th>
<th>Teacher and School Characteristics of Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Characteristic</td>
<td>Number of Teachers ($n = 14$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female = ($n = 13$)</td>
<td>92.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male = ($n = 1$)</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years Taught in China</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-3 years = ($n = 5$)</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-10 years = ($n = 6$)</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years = ($n = 1$)</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20+ years = ($n = 2$)</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years Teaching Mandarin in U.S.</td>
<td>None = ($n = 14$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School in China</td>
<td>Primary School = ($n = 1$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School = ($n = 9$)</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College = ($n = 3$)</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non School = ($n = 1$)</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade in China</td>
<td>K-6 School = ($n = 1$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-9 Grade = ($n = 6$)</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-12 Grade = ($n = 3$)</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College = ($n = 3$)</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative =($n = 1$)</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Minority Students in China</td>
<td>None = ($n = 6$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 30% = ($n = 8$)</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects Taught in China</td>
<td>Chinese = ($n = 3$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English = ($n = 11$)</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Highest Degree Earned

- Bachelor’s Degree = (n = 7) 50
- Master’s Degree = (n = 7) 50

Major in College

- English = (n = 12) 85.7
- Chinese = (n = 1) 7.1
- Other (Chinese Cultural Related Major) = (n = 1) 7.1

Certificate of TCFL

- No = (n = 10) 71.4
- Yes = (n = 4) 28.6

Overseas Teaching Experience

- No = (n = 10) 71.4
- Yes = (n = 4) 28.6

Status of Graduating University in China

- Rank A University = (n = 8) 57.1
- Rank B University = (n = 6) 42.9

Age

- 20-30 = (n = 9) 64.3
- 31-40 = (n = 2) 14.3
- 41-50 = (n = 3) 21.4

Note. TCFL = Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language

more representative” (Vogt et al., 2012). Purposive sampling is often used in qualitative research to select those individuals who can better inform the researcher (Krathwohl, 2009).

In Phase One, with a quantitative study on the 14 first year visiting teachers, I can better see the effect of contextual change on teachers’ teaching identity. In Phase Two QUALITATIVE study, with purposive sampling of four participants with positive changes in teaching identity, I interviewed the four teachers and had them draw a teacher to explore their teaching identity formation in U.S. classroom.

Rationale. I use purposive sampling in Phase Two of my study because those visiting CLTs who taught Mandarin for the first time in a northwest state in the U.S. can represent thousands of visiting CLTs teaching abroad. Studying these teachers can better inform the researchers, the local schools, and teacher educators regarding how to support these visiting teachers. Additionally, purposive sampling can provide a richer and in-depth understanding of what might happen to teacher identity and how these changes might take place. The limitation of purposive sampling is that participants may or may
not be representative of the group to whom the research wishes to generalize (Krathwohl, 2009). But considering the purpose and research questions of my study, I think purposive sampling is appropriate.

**Procedures.** In Chapter 1 and 2, I argued that change of context might affect teachers’ teaching identity represented by their beliefs, attitudes, and practice. I used explanatory sequential mixed methods study (Quan→QUAL) to explore what happens to visiting Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity in U.S. classrooms.

**Pre-study preparation: mini-research and pilot study.** The mini-research I did in the spring of 2013 and the pilot study I conducted in the summer of 2015 have provided insights to this mixed methods study. The mini-research study approved by IRB related to this study. The title of the mini-research is *An Exploration of Chinese Language Teachers’ Feelings and Strategies Used in Teaching Mandarin in the US*. I conducted interviews with three CLTs to investigate how they felt about their teaching and what strategies they use in teaching Mandarin in the US classroom. Based on the research questions of this mixed methods study, I developed the mini-research interview questions and designed the interview question protocol in this study.

In the summer of 2015, I tested the Teaching Identity Survey (*TIS*), Draw-A-Teacher Test, and interview questions on two second-year visiting CLTs. According to these two teachers’ suggestion, I changed a few ambiguous Chinese words in the survey. I also found that teachers tended to take the neutral position (agree and disagree), so I changed the 4-point Likert Scale into 6-point Likert Scale to force teachers to make a choice between different levels of agreement and disagreement. Both the mini-research
project and pilot test helped me design a better study.

**Phase One.** In Phase One, I conducted a pre- and post-survey prior to and four months after their arrival in U.S. The purpose was to explore if the context change had an effect on teachers’ teaching identity during four months’ teaching in U.S. classrooms. Because these 14 teachers were assigned to U.S. schools through the Confucius Institute at Portland State University (CIPSU), I got these teachers’ contact information from CIPSU. In mid-August, the first week of their arrival, 14 teachers received recruitment letter to participate in a survey via email in Chinese. In the email, I briefed the teachers my intent of the study and the procedures, and invited teachers to participate. All 14 teachers were interested and contacted me via email shortly. Then, I used SuveyMonkey, a survey platform, to create the survey. In late August of 2015, I sent the survey link to these 14 teachers who had expressed interest in participating in my research. I included the initial consent form on the first page of the survey. The Informed Consent Form assured these incoming teachers that participation was voluntary and that participants may withdraw at any time. Confidentiality was maintained in data collection. The Informed Consent Form also assured them that they have the option not to participate in the study and/or to withdraw at any time throughout the course of the study without any negative consequences. The Informed Consent Form also indicated that they might be selected to take part in follow-up interviews and the drawing a teacher activity in four months. The survey is entitled *Teacher Identity Survey (TIS)* (see Appendix B and C) with demographic questions about their individual characteristics (such as their name, gender, age, and ethnicity), educational background, and work experience. The survey is
a modified version of Starr et al. (2006) and Sercu’s (2006) instruments.

After four months’ teaching in U.S. classrooms, in December 2015, the 14 participants received the same survey entitled *Teacher Identity Survey (TIS)* (see Appendix B) with demographic questions via email. I used SurveyMonkey to create the same survey but with slight grammatical adjustments in tense and I sent the post-survey link to the same teachers.

These two surveys collected teacher demographics. The pre- and post-results had been used to determine if there were changes in teachers’ teaching identity with the context change. Participants in Phase One were 14 adult teachers assigned to teach in a northwest state in U.S. in 2015-2016 School Year.

**Phase Two.** In Phase Two, first, I used SPSS software to analyze the data from the pre- and post-survey. Data analysis showed that four teachers’ teaching identity had changed positively. Then in January 2016, based on the quantitative data analysis of the survey, I sent out a second recruitment letter to these four participants. Then, based on their interest, I invited their participation in the final phase of the study, which is a follow-up interview and Draw-A-Teacher Activity. These teachers signed the second Consent Form before the Draw-A-Teacher Test and interview.

Interview questions (see Appendix C) were designed to explore identity change from these three aspects: beliefs, attitudes, and practice. Interview Questions 1-3 aimed at exploring visiting CLTs’ overall perceptions and attitudes toward Mandarin teaching in U.S. Interview Questions 4-5 were designed to explore the strategies the CLTs have used in U.S. classrooms. Questions 6-8 explored how visiting CLTs managed their
teaching practice with identity development in U.S. classrooms. I will explain these semi-structured interview questions in detail in the next part—instruments and measures.

Participants were also asked to participate in a Draw-A-Teacher Test (DATT) to show their perceptions of and attitudes toward U.S. teaching. The DATT is adapted from the Draw-A-Scientist Test (DAST). Developed by Chambers (1983), the DAST is an open-ended test designed to investigate children’s perception of a scientist. The idea was to learn at what age the stereotypical image of what a scientist first appeared. The main advantage of the DAST is for students who are unable to write their ideas or are at an age that written text has not fully developed, they can still supply their ideas through drawing.

The DAST can be used to study people of different ages (Chamber, 1983; Finson, 2002; Knight & Cunningham, 2004). I adapted the DAST to ask visiting CLTs to participate in a Draw-A-Teacher Test (DATT) because it gave another representation of CLTs’ perceptions of being a Mandarin teacher in U.S. classrooms. The disadvantage of DAST is that the researcher’s subjectivity and bias might interfere with the scoring of the drawings (Kehl, 2013).

Maintaining data. All the interview data, recordings, and transcripts were locked in the home or work office of the researcher. Results of the analyses will be shared with participants, presented at professional conferences, and published in professional journals. Participant confidentiality will be maintained throughout. All data and records from this project will be kept on file in the researcher’s home or work office for a minimum of three years. This study was approved by the Portland State’s Institutional Review Board (IRB) in August 2015.
**Instruments and measures.** Table 4 shows the instruments I used, constructs I measured, and timeline I administered in my study.

Table 4

**Instruments Selected and Constructs Measured**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruments in Phase I (quan)</th>
<th>Construct Measured</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Time Administered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-survey</td>
<td>Teacher demographics and teaching identity</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>August 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Adapted from Sercu, 2006 and Starr et al., 2006)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-survey</td>
<td>Teachers’ teaching identity</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>December 2015 (follow-up session)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Adapted from Sercu, 2006 and Starr et al., 2006)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruments in Phase II (QUAL)</th>
<th>Construct Measured</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Time Administered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Semi-structured interviews</td>
<td>Teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, strategies, and identity development</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>January 2016 (follow-up meetings)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draw-A-Teacher test</td>
<td>Teachers’ perceptions and teaching practice</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>January 2016 (follow-up session)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TIS and teacher demographic survey.** There were two parts of the survey (see Appendix B). The first part of the survey consisted of 12 items to identify demographic information (age, gender, educational background, and work experience) and institutional information (e.g., grade, school). The second part of the survey was Teacher Identity Survey (TIS). I modified the identity surveys developed by Starr et al. (2007) and Sercu (2006) to measure Chinese language teachers’ teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practice. For the purpose of this study, the TIS was modified in two ways. First, I kept the sections in Sercu’s survey (2006) that dealt with teachers’ perceptions of cross-cultural communicative competence and teaching practice. I eliminated the sections that deal with pupils’ perception of intercultural competence. Second, I added the Starr et al.’s
Survey that deals with teachers’ attitudes (e.g., feelings, job satisfaction) and sense of belonging to community.

I modified Sercu’s (2006) survey and Starr et al.’s (2006) survey to make it align with my definition of teaching identity and the theoretical framework (Table 5). I define teaching identity as teachers’ conception of themselves, other people and their role as Chinese language teachers, which is characterized by teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, and practices. One important characteristic of teaching identity is that it is affected by the context in which the teacher works. Additionally, the transformative learning theories indicate that teachers learn by personal experience, community learning, and critical reflection. Therefore, I kept the survey questions relevant to the impact of context change on teaching identity and the three components of teaching identity (teaching beliefs, teaching attitudes, and teaching practice). I added open-ended questions about how teachers may have changed their teaching identity. I eliminated those survey questions irrelevant to language teachers and language teaching. Because in my pilot study I noticed that teachers tended to take the neutral position (agree and disagree), I changed the 4-point Likert Scale into 6-point Likert Scale to force teachers to make a choice between agreement and disagreement.

In the second part of the TIS survey, Questions 13-16 measured teachers’ general identity. The rest of questionnaire (Questions 17-27) measured Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity in terms of their beliefs in cross-cultural communicative competence, attitudes towards teaching (including job satisfaction, knowledge of skills about teaching), and their teaching practice. Questions 13-25 were 6-point Likert Scale
questionnaire with values ranging as follows: 1= Disagree Very Strongly, 2= Disagree strongly, 3= Disagree, 4= Agree, 5= Agree Strongly, 6= Agree Very Strongly.

Table 5

Components of Teacher Identity Survey and Constructs Measured

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components of TIS</th>
<th>Survey questions</th>
<th>Constructs measured</th>
<th>Type of questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Part I Demographic Survey</td>
<td>1. What is your gender?</td>
<td>CLT’s teaching experiences (align with transformative learning theories)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. How long have you been teaching in China?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. How long have you been teaching Mandarin in U.S.?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. At what school are you teaching now?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. What grade are you currently teaching?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. What percentage of their school’s population were ethnic minority community students?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. What subject do you teach in your current school?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. What degree do you have?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. What is your major in college?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Do you have the certificate of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. Do you have any overseas teaching experience?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. Which university did you graduate from?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. What’s your age?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part II TIS</td>
<td>14. I see myself as a Mandarin teacher.</td>
<td>CLTs’ general identity (Beliefs, attitudes, and practice)</td>
<td>6-point Likert Scale questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15. I would miss teaching if I stopped doing it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16. I truly enjoy the role of being a Mandarin teacher.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17. I have looked for opportunities to teach abroad.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18. I know how to teach Mandarin to U.S. students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19. I find satisfaction watching my students make progress.</td>
<td>Job satisfaction (attitudes)</td>
<td>6-point Likert Scale questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20. Teaching Mandarin makes my job more rewarding.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21. Working with students from a different culture has its costs, but</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
22. I feel skilled as a Mandarin teacher.  
23. I often read journal articles about Chinese language teaching.  
24. I frequently talk to colleagues about teaching.  
25. I feel part of a community of teachers.  
26. It is helpful to be able to discuss the progress of students with colleagues.  
27. I enjoy sharing ideas about teaching.  
28. I am familiar with the U.S. cultural context where I am going to teach (Slight change in tense in post-survey).  
29. I am familiar with the Chinese language and culture that I teach in U.S. classrooms.  
30. What do you plan to teach to the students in U.S. classroom? (Slight changes in tense in post-survey).  
31. What methods will you use to teach in U.S. classroom? (Slight changes in tense in post-survey).  
32. What is a good teacher?  
33. What is a good student?  
34. What challenges do you have now?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22. I feel skilled as a Mandarin teacher.</td>
<td>CLTs’ teaching knowledge and skills (attitudes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. I often read journal articles about Chinese language teaching.</td>
<td>6-point Likert Scale questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I frequently talk to colleagues about teaching.</td>
<td>CLTs’ sense of community belonging (align with transformative learning theory)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I feel part of a community of teachers.</td>
<td>6-point Likert Scale questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. It is helpful to be able to discuss the progress of students with colleagues.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. I enjoy sharing ideas about teaching.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. I am familiar with the U.S. cultural context where I am going to teach (Slight change in tense in post-survey).</td>
<td>CLTs’ perceptions regarding intercultural communicative competence (cross-cultural communication)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. I am familiar with the Chinese language and culture that I teach in U.S. classrooms.</td>
<td>6-point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. What do you plan to teach to the students in U.S. classroom? (Slight changes in tense in post-survey).</td>
<td>Open-ended questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. What methods will you use to teach in U.S. classroom? (Slight changes in tense in post-survey).</td>
<td>CLTs’ perceptions of their culture teaching practices (practice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. What is a good teacher?</td>
<td>CLTs beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. What is a good student?</td>
<td>Open-ended questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. What challenges do you have now?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. TIS=Teacher Identity Survey

Specifically, questions 17-19 measured visiting CLTs’ job satisfaction. Questions 20-21 measured visiting CLTs’ teaching knowledge and skills. Questions 22-25 measured visiting CLTs’ sense of community belonging. Questions 26-27 measured teachers’ perceptions regarding intercultural communicative competence instead of
communicative competence and their language-and-culture teaching practice. Questions 28-29 were open-ended questions aimed at documenting teachers’ perceptions of their culture teaching practices, investigating both the contents of their teaching and the techniques used to teach Chinese language in U.S. classrooms.

**Semi-structured interviews.** I used a semi-structured interview (see Appendix C) to follow up the quantitative data to get an in-depth understanding of what challenges visiting CLTs might have in U.S. classrooms and how they developed their teaching identity. Interview questions protocol came from my mini-study in the spring of 2014, which was approved by IRB. I integrated more questions related to teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, and teaching practice.

All the interview questions were designed to answer my three research questions (see Table 6). Interview questions 1-3 aimed at answering Research Question 1 (Chinese language teachers’ perception of teaching in U.S.). Interview questions 4-5 aimed at answering Research Question 2 (Strategies CLTs use in U.S. classrooms). Interview questions 6-8 aimed at answering Research Question 3 (How visiting CLTs manage teaching practice with identity development in U.S. classrooms). The advantage of interview is that researcher can have a richer understanding of the research problem by sharing voice with participants through conversation (Janesick, 2004). The limitation of the less structured qualitative approach is that focus on a specific context lacks transferability and “trade generalizability and comparability for internal validity and contextual understanding” (Maxwell, 2013, p. 88). In addition, the interview process can be tricky or hard to deal with. In my study, I took all the above limitations into careful
thought and did not seek generalizability but a deep understanding of the experience of these four teachers in Phase Two.

Table 6

*Interview Questions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 1: What are visiting K-12 Chinese language teachers' beliefs and attitudes about teaching in U.S. classrooms?</th>
<th>1. Tell me about the reasons that you decided to teach Mandarin in the U.S.</th>
<th>Attitudes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. What was it like to teach in China?</td>
<td>Beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. What is it like to teach Mandarin language in U.S. classrooms?</td>
<td>Beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. What are the differences between a Mandarin teacher in U.S. and a teacher of other subjects in China?</td>
<td>Beliefs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| | 6. Describe a Mandarin class you teach in your current school. | Practice |

| Question 3: How is CLTs teaching identity transformed when they teach in U.S. classrooms? | 7. What does a successful Mandarin teacher look like? | Beliefs |
| | 8. What do you find helps you most in teaching Mandarin in U.S. classrooms? | Practice |
| | 9. What attitude should a Mandarin teacher take in teaching in U.S. classrooms? | Attitudes |
| | 10. What suggestions will you give to the other new visiting Mandarin teachers in U.S.? | Beliefs, attitudes, and practice |

*Draw-A-Teacher Test.* The Draw-A-Teacher Test (DATT) was conducted at the beginning of the interview. I hoped that the drawings helped the participants relax. After the CLTs finished drawing a teacher, I asked the participants to explain the drawing. I used the Data Collection Template (see Appendix D) to list and tally the elements in the participants’ drawing. The DATT Data Collection Template is adapted from the DAST Data Collection Template posted on the Action Research Action Wikispaces created by Professor Dannelle Stevens at Portland State University (PSU) (“DAST: Data Collection
Template,” 2015). Then, I categorized these elements. I worked with another doctoral student to identify the themes from the data. Because drawings are direct or symbolic expressions of one’s beliefs and attitudes, from this DATT I sought to answer research question 3 to find how CLTs transform their identity in teaching and the relationship between teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, and practice.

**Data collection and analysis.** Table 7 summarizes the instruments and data analysis I used to answer the three research questions in my study.

Table 7  
*Research Questions with Instruments and Data Analysis*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Data Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What are visiting K-12 Chinese language teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about teaching in U.S. classrooms? (beliefs and attitudes)</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Statistical analysis: paired-sample t-test; independent sample t-test; disaggregation of SA &amp; A of each question; individual teachers’ survey result</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. How is CLTs teaching identity (beliefs, attitudes and behavior) transformed when they teach in U.S. classrooms?</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>Thematic Network</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: SA: Strongly Agree; A: Agree

**Phase One.** The data collected from all participants were coded, entered into the SPSS spreadsheets and analyzed with the software package SPSS version accessible at PSU computer lab. I calculated the means as well as a t-test to see if there were any changes in visiting CLTs’ teaching identity over a period of four months teaching in U.S. classrooms.

**Phase Two.** I used thematic network to analyze and interpret my qualitative data
collected from interview and DAST. Attride-Stirling’s (2001) thematic network is useful
in analyzing and interpreting qualitative data because it provides detailed steps for me to
understand themes of the collected data at different levels, and to organize and visually
display themes while showing interconnections between these themes.

Six steps are involved to implement the thematic network analysis (Attride-
Stirling, 2001) (see Figure 5). First, the researcher devises a coding framework based
upon theoretical interests (Transformational Learning Theories) and recurring issues
within the text. The coding framework is then used to dissect the text into pieces (such as
passages, quotation, and single words). Second, the researcher identifies and refines
themes across. Third, the researcher organizes and arranges themes into thematic
networks. At this stage, the researcher deduces global themes out of the basic themes.
Fourth, the researcher describes and explores the networks. At this point, the researcher
goes back to the original text and explores themes through the established networks.
Fifth, the researcher summarizes the network by explaining main themes and patterns.
Finally, the sixth step is interpretation of the patterns.

In my analysis of interview data, I followed the six steps of thematic network to
understand, organize and identify themes from my data. I worked with another doctoral
student on the analysis of DATT data. We identified the elements in the drawing and
tallied the use of these elements (see Appendix D). Then, we used thematic networks to
categorize these elements. Themes of DATT data were identified and confirmed. In
addition, because the DAST is scored based on several categories, including physical
characteristics, facial expression, gender (of the scientist), signs or equipment included in
the drawing, and context (Ozel, 2012), I also adapted the rubric of Draw-A-Scientist Test (DAST) (Mason et al., 1991) to group all the symbols and signs in the drawing into different categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANALYSIS STAGE A: REDUCTION OR BREAKDOWN OF TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 1. Code Material</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Devise a coding framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Dissect text into text segments using the coding framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 2. Identify Themes</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Abstract themes from coded text segments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Refine themes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 3. Construct Thematic Networks</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Arrange themes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Select Basic Themes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Rearrange into Organizing Themes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) Deduce Global Theme(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e) Illustrate as thematic network(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(f) Verify and refine the network(s)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANALYSIS STAGE B: EXPLORATION OF TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 4. Describe and Explore Thematic Networks</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Describe the network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Explore the network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 5. Summarize Thematic Networks</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ANALYSIS STAGE C: INTEGRATION OF EXPLORATION</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 6. Interpret Patterns</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 5.** Steps in analyses employing thematic networks. Adapted from “Thematic networks: An analytic tool for qualitative research” by J. Attridge-Stirling, 2001. Copyright 2001 by Sage.

Role of the researcher. I have similar experiences as most Hanban-sent visiting Chinese language teachers. I was a language teacher in a Chinese university for more than 10 years. From 2008 to 2009, I was sent by my university in China to teach Chinese language in a partner university in U.S. as a visiting teacher. I have similar experiences to these visiting teachers, and I can understand the curiosity, excitement, and frustration that a newly arrived Chinese teacher might experience.

When these visiting teachers arrived in U.S. in August 2015, I was working part-
time for Confucius Institute at Portland State University that summer. Part of my job was to coordinate with local K-12 schools, J-1 visa issuing agency, and Confucius Institute Headquarters (also known as Hanban or Office of Chinese Language Council) to bring the visiting Chinese language teachers to teach in U.S. schools. Meanwhile, I was also a doctorate student in Graduate School of Education. Because of my personal experience as a visiting Mandarin teacher and my job working with the incoming CLTs, I felt obliged to help these CLTs make smooth transition in a new context.

There are some validity threats. Given my in-depth commitment and experience as a visiting CLT, I could be biased in my interpretation and analysis of the data. My values and expectations could influence the conduct and conclusions of the study. In my interpretation and analysis of the data, I might draw “unwarranted conclusions, ignoring potential validity threats such as participants’ deliberate or unintentional distortions of the actual effects on them” (Maxwell, 2013, p. 81), or I might have possible biases in inferring these questions.

Secondly, because all my surveys and interviews were conducted in Chinese, a language both the researcher and participants feel comfortable with, translation of the survey questions and transcripts into English might influence my inferences in relation to the research questions.

Third, because I once worked as a coordinator of the visiting CLTs program, these participants might have reservations about sharing with me their negative beliefs or attitudes toward Mandarin teaching because they do not want me to know about their frustrations or failures. These teachers might feel pressured when I invited them to
participate in the study. In my interview with them, these teachers might not tell me the truth because they do not want to reveal their frustration, anxiety or other negative feelings in front of me.

Despite the above validity threats, pragmatic philosophy urges the researchers to investigate issues in the real world that matter to them and to other people. I used the following methods in my study to decrease bias and increase validity.

**Validity.** Member checking—I had participants check my descriptions of their perceptions and attitudes toward Mandarin teaching in U.S. as an important way of identifying my biases and misunderstanding of what I have observed.

Data-coding—I worked with another doctoral student to code the DATT data to reduce my bias in interpreting and analysis of data.

Triangulation—A variety of methods (survey, interviews, and Draw-A-Person Test) can reduce the risk of chance associations and of systematic biases due to a specific method. I used multiple data resources in my study—both quantitative and qualitative methods. In Phase Two I not only interviewed teachers but also had them do a DATT. Use of multiple resources can increase validity of my study.

Intensive, long term involvement—Interviews and detailed field notes revealed fuller and richer research data, based on which I can infer how participants made sense of what has happened, and how this perspective informs their actions, rather than in determining precisely what happened or what they did.

**Timeline.** This section shows the timeline for this research study. Table 8 shows the study’s actual timeline for both phases: quantitative *Phase I* and qualitative *Phase II*.
This study started in August 2015 and was completed in Fall 2016.

During the first week after these CLTs arrived in U.S., I emailed the link of my survey questions to fourteen teachers interested in my study and invited them to participate in my pre-survey. Four months after these teachers arrived in the U.S., I invited them do the post-survey. Then, based on the survey results, I interviewed four teachers with higher teaching identity. I had them draw a Mandarin teacher during the interview. Meanwhile, iterative process of coding and analysis was underway. Eventually,

### Table 8

**Timeline of Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases</th>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Phase I: Quantitative Data Collection | • Submitting IRB  
• Informed consent | June-July 2015 |
| Phase I: Quantitative Data Analysis | • Statistical analysis of the pre- and post-survey  
• Writing up Quantitative results | August-December, 2015 |
| Connecting quan Phase One and QUAL Phase Two | • Purposefully selecting participants (n=14) from the group of teachers who have completed the online survey  
• Identifying teachers who show high/low level of teaching identity. | December 2015 |
| Phase II: QUALITATIVE data Collection | • Emailing invitation to participate in the interview  
• Individual in-depth interview (semi-structured)  
| Phase II: QUALITATIVE Data Analysis | • Coding and thematic analysis  
• Cross-thematic analysis  
• Writing qualitative results | January 2016 |
| Integration of the Quantitative and QUALITATIVE results | • Interpretation and explanation of the quantitative and qualitative results  
• Writing analysis, final discussion, and final report | February 2016-December 2016 |
by interpreting and analysis of data, I have found a model of how visiting CLTs formed their teaching identity in the U.S. classrooms.

Summary

In Chapter 3, I outlined the type of research methods used in my study. I selected an explanatory sequential mixed methods approach (quan→QUAL) for my study because it aligned well with the chronological aspect of how teacher identity changed. The qualitative phase of this approach was particularly significant because it followed up from quantitative data results to explore how the context might affect visiting CLTs teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practice. In Phase One I collected quantitative data to determine changes in teachers’ teaching identity in U.S. classrooms. In Phase Two, four participants who demonstrated positive changes in teaching identity were interviewed and asked to take a DATT to corroborate Phase One results and identify what aspects of their professional development experience influenced their teaching identity. During the process, triangulation, member check, and long-term involvement provided rich qualitative data. I conclude Chapter 3 by communicating my dual role as both researcher and a formal Chinese language teacher. I am confident data analysis conducted in both phases of my study provide evidence to answer my three research questions.
Chapter 4: Analysis

The purpose of this study was to describe and explain what is visiting Chinese language teachers’ (CLTs) identity and how the identity changes might take place when they teach Mandarin in U.S. classrooms. Teachers’ teaching identity is characterized by their teaching beliefs, attitudes and teaching practice (Beijaard et al., 2000; Cho, 2014; Danielewicz, 2001; Gao, 2012; Gay, 2010; McCormick & Pressley, 1997; Mead, 1934). Visiting Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity is impacted by their changing beliefs and attitudes. The broader goal is to find ways to encourage Chinese language teaching competency in the U.S. classrooms and to foster cross-cultural communication.

The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are visiting K-12 Chinese language teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about teaching in U.S. classrooms? (beliefs and attitudes)


3. How is CLTs teaching identity (beliefs, attitudes and behavior) transformed when they teach in U.S. classrooms?

In this study, I used mixed methods research to study fourteen visiting Chinese language teachers with Chinese educational background to find out how they perceive Mandarin teaching and how they teach in the U.S. classrooms. Understanding how Chinese teachers may form a new teaching identity in the U.S. context can inform future professional development activities designed to increase Chinese language teachers’ competence in U.S. classrooms. According to Transformative Learning Theories
(Mezirow, 1978), the conceptual framework I used in this study, teachers’ experiences, critical reflection, and reflective discourse in a changing context will lead to a change in their teaching identity represented by their teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practice.

In chapter 3, I overviewed the methodology of the study to answer the research questions and explained the rationale for a mixed methods research approach. I also described the participants, context of the study, procedures of data collection and analysis, and my position as a researcher. In Chapter 4, I reintroduce the participants, present and analyze data, interpret the data, and report my findings in terms of the purpose of my study and research questions. Because my research was a mixed-methods study conducted in two phases: Phase I (Quantitative) and Phase II (Qualitative), therefore, I present, analyze and synthesize my results chronologically. Finally, I identify the limitations of the study and analysis of data.

**Presentation and Analysis of Data**

**Participants.** Fourteen first-year Chinese language teachers in U.S. participated in the study. When the teachers arrived in mid-August 2015, the school year has not started. I sent the pre-survey to these teachers through SurveyMonkey. In December of 2015, four months after teachers’ teaching in U.S., the same survey with slight changes of tense was administered again through SurveyMonkey. The purpose of the pre- and post-surveys was to collect teachers demographic information and measure their teaching identity as shown by their overall experience, job satisfaction, and other contributing factors related to attitudes and behaviors. The surveys also show possible correlations between characteristics of the participants and teaching identity change.
As indicated in Table 3, all the participants were well educated and experienced language teachers in China. However, few participants have overseas teaching experience, especially in Western countries, such as U.S. The demographic background information also indicates that more women than men become visiting Mandarin teachers in this Northwestern state of U.S.

**Phase One: survey.** I used Morgan’s (2013) sequential contribution model to design my study. In the first phase of my study, I collected quantitative data. The objective of quantitative phase is to use *Teacher Identity Survey (TIS)* to measure CLTs’ teaching identity as a pre- and post-test over four months’ teaching in U.S. classroom. Surveys allowed me not only to measure to what extent a CLT agreed or disagreed with a statement about their overall experience, opinion, or job satisfaction, but also gave specific data about contributing factors related to attitudes and behaviors. Another purpose of quantitative study was to compare pre- and post- survey data to identify the participants who showed the most positive changes for a follow-up interview and Draw-A-Teacher Test (DATT).

*Introduction of pre- and post- surveys and four subscales in the survey.* The pre- and post- surveys were the same with slight changes of tenses in some questions in the post- survey. As shown in Table 9, the *Teachers’ Identity Survey* was a 34-item survey, composed of 13 demographic items, 16 six-point Likert-style close-ended questions focusing on teachers’ general teaching identity, beliefs and attitudes, and five open-ended questions focusing on teachers’ teaching practice. *Teachers’ Identity Survey (TIS)* was specific to the three components (i.e., beliefs, attitudes, practice) of visiting
Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity with a change of their teaching context from China to U.S. In the following section, I interpret and analyze the results through the constructs they measure: general teaching identity, attitudes and teaching beliefs.

Table 9

**Instruments Selected and Components of Survey in Phase One**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruments in Phase I (quan)</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Components</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-survey (Adapted from Sercu, 2006 and Starr et al., 2006)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>13 demographic items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16 Likert-style questions about general teaching identity, attitudes and beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 open-ended questions about teaching practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-survey (Adapted from Sercu, 2006 and Starr et al., 2006)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>13 demographic items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16 Likert-style questions about general teaching identity, attitudes and beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 open-ended questions about teaching practice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 16 Likert-style questions in the TIS were designed to measure teachers’ general teaching identity, teaching attitudes in terms of job satisfaction and pedagogical knowledge, and teaching beliefs in terms of community belonging and cross-cultural communication. The five open-ended questions in the TIS were designed to describe and explain teachers’ teaching practice in U.S. Table 10 shows the 16 questions and the four subscales.

Here is how I analyzed the 16 close-ended questions: After teachers took the pre- and post- surveys, I used SPSS to add up each teacher’s scores in the subscale of general identity, teaching attitudes, and teaching beliefs, compare the pre- and post-survey scores
for each subscale, and create three new variables of the change in each subscale. These three new variables are: (a) change in general identity, (b) change in teaching attitudes, and (c) change in teaching beliefs in pre- and post- surveys. For the five open-ended questions in TIS, I read all the data, identified distinct responses, counted these distinct responses across all participants, and used thematic network (Attride-Stirling, 2001) to develop themes across all the responses.

Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Questions</th>
<th>Subscale</th>
<th>Type of Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q 14: I see myself as a Mandarin teacher.</td>
<td>Subscale A: General teaching identity (beliefs, attitudes, and practice)</td>
<td>6-point Likert Scale questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 15: I would miss teaching if I stopped doing it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 16: I truly enjoy the role of being a Mandarin teacher.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 17: I have looked for opportunities to teach abroad.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 18: I know how to teach Mandarin to U.S. students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 19: I find satisfaction watching my students make progress.</td>
<td>Subscale B: Teaching attitudes (job satisfaction)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 20: Teaching Mandarin makes my job more rewarding.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 21: Working with students from a different culture has its costs, but it is worth it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 22: I feel skilled as a Mandarin teacher.</td>
<td>Subscale B: Teaching attitudes (teaching knowledge &amp; skills)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 23: I often read journal articles about Chinese language teaching.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 24: I frequently talk to colleagues about teaching.</td>
<td>Subscale C: Teaching beliefs (community belonging)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 25: I feel part of a community of teachers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 26: It is helpful to be able to discuss the progress of students with colleagues.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 27: I enjoy sharing ideas about teaching.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHERS’ TEACHING IDENTITY

Q 28: I am familiar with the U.S. cultural context where I am going to teach (Post-survey: I am familiar with the U.S. cultural context where I am teaching).
Q 29: I am familiar with the Chinese language and culture that I teach in U.S. classrooms.
Q 30: What do you plan to teach to the students in U.S. classroom? (Post-survey: What do you teach in U.S. classroom?)
Q 31: What methods will you use to teach in U.S. classroom? (Post-survey: What methods do you use in U.S. classroom?)
Q 32: What is a good teacher?
Q 33: What is a good student?
Q 34: What challenges do you have now?

Subscale C: Teaching Beliefs (cross-cultural communication)
Subscale D: CLTs’ teaching practices

Open-ended questions

Analysis of close-ended questions about teachers’ general identity, teaching attitudes, and teaching beliefs. The pre-and post-test data from the 16 close-ended questions were labeled as ordinal values and analyzed in SPSS to obtain grand means and standard deviations as shown in Table 12. Because the 16 close-ended questions were designed to measure teachers’ general identity, teaching attitudes, and beliefs, I used Subscale A to represent general identity, Subscale B to represent teaching attitudes, and Subscale C to represent teaching beliefs.

To analyze the 16 close-ended questions, first I ran paired t-test to see if there was a statistically significant change in teachers’ teaching identity in pre- and post-surveys. Next, I ran the independent sample t-test to see if teachers’ demographic background had any impact on teaching identity change. To understand teachers’ responses and individual teacher’s teaching identity change, I also analyzed individual
teacher’s teaching identity change and percentage of teachers’ responses to each individual close-ended question.

*Paired t-test analysis of the changes in pre- and post-surveys.* A paired sample *t*-test was used to analyze if there were any significant changes in teachers’ teaching identity in four months. I compared the pre-, post- test means, and mean difference of Subscale A, B, and C. Table 11 shows that the mean of Subscale A (teachers’ general teaching identity) has increased from 17.79 to 17.93, and the mean of Subscale B (teachers’ teaching attitudes) has also increased from 17.43 to 18.14, however, the mean of Subscale C (teachers’ teaching beliefs) has decreased from 21.13 to 20.64. Teachers’ general identity and teaching attitudes increased by an average of 0.14 (SD = 1.99) and 0.71(SD = 21.64), and teachers’ teaching beliefs decreased by an average of -0.5 (SD = 2.24).

Table 11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measured Construct</th>
<th>Pre-mean (SD)</th>
<th>Post-mean (SD)</th>
<th>Mean Diff (SD)</th>
<th><em>t</em></th>
<th>df</th>
<th><em>p</em>-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subscale A: General Identity</td>
<td>17.79 (2.39)</td>
<td>17.93 (2.02)</td>
<td>0.14 (1.99)</td>
<td>.268</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale B: Teaching Attitudes</td>
<td>17.43 (2.17)</td>
<td>18.14 (1.61)</td>
<td>0.71 (1.64)</td>
<td>1.632</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale C: Teaching Beliefs</td>
<td>21.14 (2.57)</td>
<td>20.64 (2.62)</td>
<td>-0.50 (2.24)</td>
<td>-.833</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.420</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* SD=standard deviation.

The results seem to reveal that after four months’ teaching in U.S. classrooms, these 14 visiting Chinese language teachers’ general identity and teaching attitudes have improved; however, the mean of their teaching beliefs decreased. Because the standard deviation for teaching attitudes change (SD = 1.64) is the smallest among Subscale A, B,
and C, it means there was a tighter distribution of change in teacher’s attitude than changes in general identity and teaching beliefs (i.e., the spread among the scores is smaller). The change in teachers’ teaching beliefs has a slightly larger shift compared to Subscale A and B because the standard deviation of mean change in beliefs was the largest (SD = 2.24).

Table 11 also shows the results of the $t$-test in the fifth column, the degrees of freedom in the sixth column, and the corresponding $p$-value in the seventh column. As shown in the seventh column of Table 11, the $p$-values in the three subscales are 0.793, 0.127, and 0.42. The critical threshold for a degree of freedom equal to 13 is 2.16. The $t$-test uses 0.05 (alpha level) as the conventionally accepted threshold in the social sciences. Because the $t$-values of the three subscales are less than the critical threshold of 0.05, the average changes of teachers’ general identity, teaching attitudes, and teaching beliefs are not statistically significant.

The result shows that there were no statistically significant differences between pre- and post- tests in teachers’ general identity, teaching attitudes, and teaching beliefs. This might be caused by the fact that these teachers already had a very high teaching identity at the beginning and kept the same level of teaching identity when they took the post-survey. This may also be caused by the fact that no intervention was made between the pre- and post- tests, so teachers’ teaching identity change was not significant. Another possible reason for the insignificant change is that the sample size is too small. In the next section, I analyze the data to see if teachers’ demographic background has an impact on their teaching identity change.
Correlational analysis of the close-ended questions in TIS. The intention of including teachers’ demographic information in the TIS survey was to examine if there was an association between teachers’ background and changes in teacher’s teaching identity. The purpose of this analysis was to examine whether these characteristics significantly impacted changes in teacher’s teaching identity. I only selected teachers’ educational degree, rank of the graduating university, and percentage of ethnic minority students in China to run an independent sample $t$-test, because the sample size in these demographic characteristics (such as gender, years of teaching in China, grade teaching in China, subjects teaching in China, major in college) is too small and disproportionate (see Table 3), therefore, an independent sample $t$-test on these demographic characteristics might not be reliable.

The purpose of Independent Sample $t$-test was to examine the association between teachers’ educational degree, graduation university, and number of ethnic minority students in China and their teaching identity change in Subscale A (general identity), Subscale B (teaching attitudes), and Subscale C (teaching beliefs). The descriptive statistics as shown in Table 12 show the number of teachers with bachelor’s and graduate degrees, mean change, and standard deviation of teachers with bachelor’s and graduate degrees.

Based on the means of pre- and post- surveys in the three subscales of seven teachers with a bachelor’s degree and seven teachers with a graduate degree, the average of mean changes in these three subscales are 0.1429 and 0.1429 in general teaching identity, 0.2857 and 1.1429 in teaching attitudes, -0.1429 and -0.8571 in teaching beliefs.
Table 12

**Descriptive Statistics of Teachers’ Educational Degree**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct Measured</th>
<th>Highest Degree</th>
<th>Mean Change</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subscale A: General Teaching Identity</td>
<td>Bachelor (n = 7)</td>
<td>.1429</td>
<td>2.34013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graduate (n = 7)</td>
<td>.1429</td>
<td>1.77281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale B: Teaching Attitudes</td>
<td>Bachelor (n = 7)</td>
<td>.2857</td>
<td>1.25357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graduate (n = 7)</td>
<td>1.1429</td>
<td>1.95180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale C: Teaching Beliefs</td>
<td>Bachelor (n = 7)</td>
<td>-.1429</td>
<td>2.41030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graduate (n = 7)</td>
<td>-.8571</td>
<td>2.19306</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* SD = standard deviation

The standard deviation of bachelors’ and graduates’ mean changes are 2.34013 and 1.77281 in general teaching identity, 1.2357 and 1.95180 in teaching attitudes, 2.41030 and 2.19306 in teaching beliefs, which indicates that the variance in the bachelors’ mean change of general teaching identity, the variance in the graduates’ mean change in teaching attitudes, and the variance in the bachelors’ mean change in teaching beliefs are broader than the graduates in general teaching identity, bachelors in teaching attitudes, and graduates in teaching beliefs respectively.

The Independent Sample *t*-test shown in Table 12 was run to measure if there is a statistically significant association between teachers’ educational degree and their teaching identity change. Table 13 shows two statistical tests: Levene’s test for equality of variances and *t*-test for equality of means. Levene’s test in Table 13 looks at the variability of the standard deviations of mean changes of teachers with bachelor’s degrees and teachers with graduate degrees, and examine if the distributions of bachelors’ mean change in the three subscales are statistically different from those of graduates’ mean change in the three subscales of teaching identity. In this study, the null hypothesis is that the distribution of teaching identity change of teachers with bachelor’s degrees is exactly
the same as that of teachers with graduate degrees, while the alternative hypothesis is that these two distributions are different, thus there is a variability of these two groups we are comparing. As shown in Table 13, the p-values of the three subscales are 0.689, 0.642, and 0.743, above the alpha level of .05, indicating that teachers’ educational degree is not statistically associated with their identity change in the pre- and post- survey. Therefore teachers’ previous educational background seems to have no impact on their teaching identity change.

Next, similar Independent Sample t-tests were run to examine if there was a statistically significant association (a) between teachers’ graduating university and teaching identity change, and (b) between the percentage of ethnic minority students in China and teachers’ teaching identity change. The purpose of these Independent Sample

| Table 13 |
| Association between Teachers’ Educational Degree and Teaching Identity Change |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct Measured</th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Post Change Subscale A: General Teaching Identity</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Post Change Subscale B: Teaching Attitudes</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Post Change Subscale C: Teaching Beliefs</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
t-tests was to find out if teachers’ demographic background had an influence on their teaching identity change in four months of teaching in U.S. Table 14 and Table 15 show the descriptive statistics of percentage of ethnic minority students in Chinese schools, and Independent Sample t-test result for the association between ethnic minority students in Chinese schools and teachers’ teaching identity change.

Descriptive statistics in Table 14 shows that six teachers had no experience of teaching students from diverse ethnic background in China and that eight teachers had some experience of teaching some minority students in China (below 30%). Levene’s test in Table 15 shows that p-value of mean change in Subscale A (General Teaching Identity) is 0.037, below the alpha level of 0.05, indicating that teachers’ past experience of teaching ethnic minority students is statistically associated with their general teaching identity change. Because the distributions of mean change in Subscale A of these two groups of teachers are statistically different, there is no such equal variance existing. The result of Levene’s test in Subscale A rejects the null hypothesis of equal variance between the distributions of mean changes in general teaching identity. Then, I moved on to the alternative hypothesis of unequal variance between these two groups to understand how statistically significant between percentage of minority students and teachers’ general teaching identity change.

As shown by Table 15, the result is $t(6.657) = .761, p = .473$

The $t$-value is .761 when the degree of freedom is 6.657. Because the $p$-value associated with the two-tailed Independent Sample $t$-test is 0.473, above the alpha-level of 0.05, it indicates that the association between the percentage of minority students in
CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHERS’ TEACHING IDENTITY

China and teachers’ general teaching identity change is not statistically significant.

Table 14

*Descriptive Statistics of Percentage of Ethnic Minority Students in China*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct Measured</th>
<th>Percentage of Ethnic Minority Students in China</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SEM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subscale A: General Teaching Identity</td>
<td>None (n = 6)</td>
<td>.6667</td>
<td>2.73252</td>
<td>1.11555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>below 30% (n = 8)</td>
<td>-.2500</td>
<td>1.28174</td>
<td>.45316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale B: Teaching Attitudes</td>
<td>None (n = 6)</td>
<td>.3333</td>
<td>1.21106</td>
<td>.49441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>below 30% (n = 8)</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>1.92725</td>
<td>.68139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale C: Teaching Beliefs</td>
<td>None (n = 6)</td>
<td>-1.0000</td>
<td>2.52982</td>
<td>1.03280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>below 30% (n = 8)</td>
<td>-.1250</td>
<td>2.10017</td>
<td>.74252</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* SD=standard deviation, SEM=standard error mean

Table 15

*Association between Percentage of Ethnic Minority Students in China and Teaching Identity Change*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct Measured</th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Post Change Subscale A: General</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>5.486 (.037)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Identity</td>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td>6.657 (.473)</td>
<td>.91667</td>
<td>1.20408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Post Change Subscale B: Teaching</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.173</td>
<td>.684</td>
<td>-.741</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>.767</td>
<td>-.708</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further examination of mean change in Subscale B (Teaching Attitudes) and C
(Teaching Beliefs) in Table 15 did not reveal the statistic association between percentage of ethnic minority students and teachers’ teaching attitude change and belief change because $p$-values of mean change in Subscale B and C in Levene’s test are .684 and .767, above the alpha-level of .05. This indicates that there is no statistically significant association between percentage of minority students and teachers’ attitude and belief changes.

Next, the third Independent Sample $t$-test was run to examine if there is a statistic association between rank of teachers’ graduating university and their identity change. Table 16 shows the descriptive statistics of teachers’ graduating universities. Table 17 shows the Independent Sample $t$-test of the association between teachers’ graduating university and their teaching identity change.

Descriptive statistics in Table 16 shows that eight teachers graduated from Rank A universities in China and that six teachers graduated from Rank B universities in China. Levene’s test in Table 17 shows that $p$-values in the three subscales are 0.203, 0.684, and 0.253, indicating that the distributions of mean change in all three subscales of these two groups have the equal variance. In other words, there is no statistically significant association between the rank of teachers’ graduating university and change in their general identity, attitudes and beliefs.

In summary, the Independent Sample $t$-test shows that teachers’ educational degree, past experience of teaching ethnic minority students in China, and their graduating university have no statistically significant impact on their teaching identity change in U.S. classrooms. In the next section, I look closely at individual teacher’s
Table 16

Descriptive Statistics of Graduating Universities in China

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct Measured</th>
<th>Graduating University</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SEM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subscale A: General Teaching Identity</td>
<td>Rank A (n=8)</td>
<td>.2500</td>
<td>1.48805</td>
<td>.52610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rank B (n=6)</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>2.68328</td>
<td>1.09545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale B: Teaching Attitudes</td>
<td>Rank A (n=8)</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td>1.92725</td>
<td>.68139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rank B (n=6)</td>
<td>.3333</td>
<td>1.21106</td>
<td>.49441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subscale C: Teaching Beliefs</td>
<td>Rank A (n=8)</td>
<td>-.6250</td>
<td>1.84681</td>
<td>.65295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rank B (n=6)</td>
<td>-.3333</td>
<td>2.87518</td>
<td>1.17379</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. SD=standard deviation, SEM=standard error mean

Table 17

Association between Graduating University and Teaching Identity Change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct Measured</th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Post Change Subscale A: General Teaching Identity</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>1.813</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>.223</td>
<td>.827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Post Change Subscale B: Teaching Attitudes</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.173</td>
<td>.684</td>
<td>.741</td>
<td>.473</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Post Change Subscale C: Teaching Beliefs</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>1.444</td>
<td>.253</td>
<td>-.232</td>
<td>.821</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

teaching identity change and identify teachers with the most positive changes for a follow-up qualitative study. In addition, I look at the factors contributing to teaching
identity change by analyzing the percentage of agreement and strong agreement of each close-ended survey question.

Analysis of individual teachers’ teaching identity in three subscales. In this section, I look at individual teacher’s responses to the pre- and post- surveys. The purpose of analyzing individual teachers’ responses is to identify three to four teachers for a follow-up qualitative study. Table 18, Table 19, and Table 20 respectively show the individual mean changes in teaching identity subscale A (General Teaching Identity), B (Teaching Attitudes), and C (Teaching Beliefs). In this section, I also disaggregated the close-ended survey results into Subscale A, Subscale B, and Subscale C to look at teachers’ overall percentage of agreement to each subscale of the survey questions.

Table 18 shows individual teacher’s general teaching identity in pre- and post-test, as well as the mean change in general teaching identity. It seems that the P5, P9, P11, and P10 have positive changes in general identity. These four teachers taught in middle and high schools in China. They also teach in U.S. middle and high schools. They might be very familiar with teenage students and know how to use effective teaching methods appropriate to this age group of students. These four teachers’ past experience of teaching similar age-group Chinese students might contribute to the positive change in their general teaching identity.

Among the items chosen to reflect teaching attitudes, Subscale B, participant 8 had the greatest change of 38.46%. When comparing pre- and post- test scores on teaching attitudes, I noticed that this teacher’s job satisfaction has greatly increased after four months’ teaching in U.S. classrooms and that this teacher has been actively seeking
### Table 18

*Changes in Teaching Identity for General Identity*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>gitt_pre (Total: 20)</th>
<th>gitt_post (Total: 20)</th>
<th>gitt_chng</th>
<th>Percentage Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>15.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>P11</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>11.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P10</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.00%</td>
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<tr>
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<td>13.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>P7</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>19.00</td>
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<td>-5.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3</td>
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<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-5.26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P13</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-5.26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P8</td>
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<td>16.00</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-5.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4</td>
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<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-6.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-2.00</td>
<td>-10.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P14</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>-2.00</td>
<td>-10.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* gitt_pre=teachers’ general teaching identity in pre-survey; gitt_post=teachers’ general teaching identity in post-survey; gitt_chng=change in teachers’ general teaching identity.

Effective teaching knowledge and skills by reading journal articles about Chinese language teaching. Participant 8 got her master’s degree in English at Chinese University of Hong Kong. Her educational background in Hong Kong might have exposed her to a more culturally and academically diverse context, which has prepared her for a similar context in the U.S., and as a result could have led to her positive changes in attitudes toward her teaching in U.S. (Cruickshank & Westbrook, 2013).

Among the items chosen to reflect teaching beliefs, Subscale C, three teachers (participant 5, 8, 10) have the positive changes. Because questions in Subscale C were designed about teachers’ sense of community belonging and their perceptions of intercultural communication, these teachers’ positive changes might be caused by their familiarity with the new teaching context after four months’ teaching in U.S. Among the
three teachers with the positive changes, participant 5 has the greatest increase of 20% in

Table 19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>attitude_pre (Total: 20)</th>
<th>attitude_post (Total: 20)</th>
<th>attitude_chng</th>
<th>Percentage Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>38.46%</td>
</tr>
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<td>19.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>11.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P11</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>11.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>7.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P9</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P10</td>
<td>18.00</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>19.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>P7</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P12</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-5.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P13</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-5.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-5.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-5.88%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. attitude_pre=teachers’ attitude in pre-survey; attitude_post=teachers’ attitude in post-survey; attitude_chng=teachers’ attitude change.*

teaching beliefs. When comparing the pre- and post- test scores in teaching beliefs, I found that after four months’ teaching in U.S., participant 5 started to enjoy sharing ideas about teaching and become more familiar with U.S. cultural context.

In subscale A (General Teaching Identity) and B (Teaching Attitudes), I considered a score of 16-20 as high, 10-15 as medium, and below 15 as low (total score is 20 for each subscale). In subscale C (Teaching Beliefs), I considered a score of 20-24 as high, 16-20 as medium, and below 16 as low. One interesting finding is that Table 18, Table 19, and Table 20 have shown a “ceiling effect” for some teachers who already scored high in the pre- survey, and maintained a high score in the post- survey. Another group of teachers had an average score in the pre-survey, and maintained almost the same
score in the post-survey. A third group of teachers scored low in the pre-survey, and maintained a low score in the post-survey. Therefore, for these three groups of teachers, it is hard to identity any changes of teaching identity between the pre- and post-surveys.

Only those teachers who scored low in the pre-survey and scored high in the post-survey, and those teachers who scored high in the pre-survey and scored low in the post-survey, have shown positive and negative changes in their teaching identity. Figure 6 shows the five different trends of teaching identity change on the 14 teachers over a period of four months’ teaching in U.S.

Next, to better understand how teachers change in the three subscales (general teaching identity, teaching attitudes, and teaching beliefs), I combined the strong agreement and agreement for each survey question and compared the percentage change

Table 20

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>belief_pre (Total: 24)</th>
<th>belief_post (Total: 24)</th>
<th>belief_chng</th>
<th>Percentage Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P5</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>20.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P8</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>16.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P10</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>9.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P11</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P12</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-4.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>22.00</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-4.55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-4.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P7</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>22.00</td>
<td>-2.00</td>
<td>-8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P14</td>
<td>22.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>-2.00</td>
<td>-9.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P9</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>-2.00</td>
<td>-10.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>-3.00</td>
<td>-15.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P13</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>-4.00</td>
<td>-16.67%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. belief_pre=teachers’ beliefs in pre-survey; belief_post=teachers’ beliefs in post-survey; belief_chng=change in teachers’ beliefs.*
in pre- and post-surveys. I ranked the data in the order of percentage change between the pre- and post-surveys. Table 21 shows the percentage difference of teachers who held strong agreement (SA) and agreement (A) in individual question in the order of percentage difference of SA & A in pre-survey. Table 21 indicates that the greatest

Figure 6. Five different trends of teaching identity change on the 14 visiting Chinese language teachers shown by pre- and post-surveys.

positive changes in the percentage of SA & A are those in Question 23 (21.4%), Questions16 (14.29%), Question 21 (14.29%), and Question 22 (14.29%). However, negative changes of 7.14% are identified in the percentage of SA & A for Question 24 and Question 26.

One interesting finding is that the most positive changes of SA & A of surveys questions fall into Subscale B (Teaching Attitudes) in terms of pedagogical knowledge and working with students from different backgrounds. The most negative changes of SA
& A of survey questions fall in to Subscale C (Teaching Beliefs) in terms of sharing with local teachers. Table 21 seems to indicate that pedagogical knowledge and learning from other teachers are two important factors that affect teaching identity change.

Analysis of SA and A percentage of individual survey questions shows that overall visiting teachers purposefully seek teaching knowledge and skills in U.S. and they are more satisfied to be Mandarin teachers and more confident to work with students with different cultural backgrounds. However, after four months’ teaching in U.S., visiting teachers still cannot get involved with the local community and discuss their teaching with local teachers. Finding from Table 21 are consistent with findings in Table 12 — general teaching identity and teaching attitudes have changed positively (General Teaching Identity change = 0.14, teaching attitudes change = 0.71), while their teaching beliefs have changed negatively (teaching beliefs change = -0.50).

Table 21

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs measured</th>
<th>Survey questions (Q 15-23)</th>
<th>Percentage of Agreement (pre)</th>
<th>Percentage of Agreement (post)</th>
<th>Percentage Difference of SA and A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subscale B:</strong> Attitudes in terms of knowledge and skills</td>
<td>23. I often read journal articles about Chinese language teaching.</td>
<td>57.14%</td>
<td>78.57%</td>
<td>21.43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subscale A:</strong> Teachers’ general teaching identity</td>
<td>16. I truly enjoy the role of being a Mandarin teacher.</td>
<td>85.71%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>14.29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subscale B:</strong> Attitudes in terms of job satisfaction</td>
<td>21. Working with students from a different culture has its costs, but it’s worth it.</td>
<td>85.71%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>14.29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subscale B:</strong> Attitudes in terms of knowledge and skills</td>
<td>22. I feel skilled as a Mandarin teacher.</td>
<td>78.57%</td>
<td>92.86%</td>
<td>14.29%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Note.** SA=strongly agree; A=agree.

In conclusion, the analysis of the 16 close-ended questions seems to indicate that the visiting CLTs without previous teaching experience in U.S. have changed their general teaching identity and teaching attitudes positively after four months’ teaching in U.S. However, visiting Chinese language teachers’ teaching beliefs seemed to change
negatively. Because teaching beliefs were mostly measured by teachers’ sense of
community belonging and cross-cultural communication, it seems that even after four
months’ teaching in U.S., these visiting teachers still had a hard time familiarizing
themselves with the local culture and involving themselves into local community.

In the next section, I will analyze the data results of the five open-ended questions
in *TIS*. These five open-ended questions were categorized as Subscale D, and were
designed to describe and explore a third component of teacher identity—how teachers
described their teaching practice.

*Analysis of open-ended questions about teachers’ teaching practice.* The five
open-ended questions were designed to describe and explain the way visiting teachers
teach and the effect of the context change from Chinese classroom on their teaching in
U.S. classrooms. In my analysis of the open-ended questions in *TIS*, I read all the data,
identified distinct responses, counted these distinct responses across all participants, and
then developed themes across all the responses (Attride-Stirling, 2001).

In this section, first I identify themes of participants’ responses to each question,
then I use Attride-Stirling’s (2001) thematic network to analyze the themes across all the
responses. The purpose for examining data through thematic network is to summarize and
compare their responses to identify if there are any changes in visiting teachers’ teaching
practice and if the context change has impacted teachers’ teaching practice in U.S.

*Responses to five open-ended questions.* Figure 7 is a summary of pre- and post-
responses to Open-ended Question 1 (What do you plan to teach/ have you taught the
students in U.S. classrooms?), the number of distinct responses decreased from 51 in pre-
survey to 39 in post-survey. In pre-survey, teachers’ responses center on three themes with a focus on the first two: Chinese culture, Chinese language, and moral education. In post-survey, Chinese culture and language were still teachers’ focus, but nobody mentioned moral education. The result shows that the visiting CLTs understand that teaching Chinese is not just about language itself, but also its culture. In addition, teachers seemed to realize that it is not applicable to transplant moral education, an important component in Chinese schools, to U.S. classroom after four months’ teaching in U.S. Moral education is a method of moral education embedded in curriculum in Chinese schools. The purpose of moral education is to build the character and well-being of the younger generation in China (Qi & Tang, 2004).

Figure 7. A comparison of teachers’ responses to teaching content in pre- and post-surveys.

Figure 8 shows teachers’ responses to Open-ended Question 2 (What methods will you / have you used in U.S. classrooms?). Three themes were identified: Using task-based methods, creating activity-based classroom, and relying on translation in Mandarin teaching. Thirty-two responses were identified in pre-survey and 34 responses were
identified in post-survey. In the pre-survey, teachers seemed undecided on what to teach because some responses were very vague, for example, “depend on context,” “based students,” “a combination of Chinese and western teaching methods,” however, in the post-survey all the 34 responses are very specific and clear, such as “games,” “songs,” “task-based teaching.” Both pre- and post- surveys show that visiting CLTs have some knowledge about Chinese teaching pedagogy and start to use it in U.S. classroom. Teachers prefer activity-based learning in their classroom. That is to say, they give students’ specific tasks, such as a presentation project on China map, to enhance students’ learning by engaging students in the group activities.

![Figure 8](image)

*Figure 8.* A comparison of teachers’ responses to teaching methods in pre- and post-surveys.

Figure 9 shows teachers’ responses to Open-ended Question 3 (What is a good teacher?). The number of responses decreased from 48 in pre-survey to 33 in post-survey. These responses center on four themes: seeking knowledge and skills, lacking cross-cultural competency, cultivating affective characteristics, and fostering critical thinking. It seems to indicate that upon teachers’ arrival in U.S., they understood that successful
teaching was based on teachers’ positive attitudes and love for students. However, the CLTs seemed to neglect the important role of cross-cultural communication and critical thinking in teaching in a different cultural context, because there is only one response in pre-survey about understanding cultural difference and two responses in post-survey about teachers’ reflective thinking. Knowledge and passion for teaching seem to be the two most important criteria to evaluate a good Mandarin teacher.

Figure 9. A comparison of teachers’ responses to the criteria of a good teacher in pre- and post-surveys.

Figure 10 shows teachers’ response to Open-ended Question 4 (What is a good student?). In pre-survey, 17 dealt with students’ intellectual capability; 8 dealt with students’ motivation; 10 dealt with respect for teachers; and 4 were concerned about critical thinking. In the post-survey, only 2 dealt with students’ intellectual capability; 22 dealt with students’ motivation; 4 dealt with respect; and 3 were concerned about critical thinking. The responses center on four themes: intelligence, motivation, respect for the teacher, and critical thinking. An interesting finding is that there is an increase from 8 responses to 22 responses about students’ motivation. Another interesting finding is that
there is a decrease from 17 responses to 2 responses about students’ intelligence.

The responses show that before teaching in U.S., the CLTs judged U.S. students by their intellectual capability and respectful behavior. In post-survey, teachers’ criteria for a good student focused more on students’ motivation in learning Mandarin. Compared to other aspects, in CLTs’ eyes, students’ critical thinking was not an essential characteristic of a good student in both pre- and post-survey.

**Figure 10.** A comparison of teachers’ responses to the criteria of a good student in pre- and post-surveys.

Figure 11 shows a summary of teachers’ responses to Open-ended Question 5 (What challenges do you have?). One interesting finding in teachers’ responses to Q 5 is that the number of responses has increased from 19 in pre-survey to 32 in post-survey. Another interesting finding is that teachers had different challenges at the beginning of their teaching and after four months’ teaching in the U.S. In pre-survey, teachers challenges center on unfamiliarity with the new context, lack of Chinese language teaching pedagogical knowledge, and language difficulty. However, in post-survey, teachers seemed to be more concerned about students’ motivation, classroom management, cross-cultural competency, and external support. The shift of themes of
challenges indicates that teachers have more practical teaching related challenges. In the post-survey, teachers were no longer confined in their own world, instead, they seemed to care more about “the others” than “I” because they tried to motivate students, manage the classroom in a more effective way, communicate with other people, and seek support from the school and parents.

These five figures summarize the themes of responses to the five open-ended questions. The Appendix E shows the detailed examples of these responses in pre- and post-surveys. Next, I use thematic network analysis to examine themes across Draw-A-Teacher Test data and classify themes into three levels: basic, organizing, and global. Data from the five open-ended questions were analyzed to identify themes and expose

![Diagram of Q 5: What challenges do you have? (Pre-survey)](image)

![Diagram of Q 5: What challenges do you have? (Post-survey)](image)

*Figure 11.* A comparison of teachers’ responses to challenges in pre- and post- surveys.
how themes are connected in a network.

Themes across the responses to the five open-ended questions. Across all the responses to the five open-ended questions, the following themes are identified in terms of teachers’ teaching practice change in U.S. classrooms: teaching content, teaching methods, critical thinking, and room for improvement. Figure 12 displays the thematic network of responses to the five open-ended questions in pre- and post-surveys. Figure 12 shows teachers’ teaching practice change after four months’ teaching in U.S. classrooms.

Figure 12. Thematic network of teachers’ responses in terms of how they viewed their practice change.
In Figure 12, rectangles stand for the basic themes and ovals stand for organizing themes. In teaching, CLTs have integrated culture into language learning. They have also learned to use more activities in their classrooms. They reflected on their teaching methods, qualities of a good student and how to seek support from parents to achieve an effective teaching. However, visiting CLTs seemed to have felt that they still have room for improvement in their teaching. They need support in terms of more pedagogical knowledge and cross-cultural communication skills in their teaching; they also felt they needed to reflect more on their own teaching behavior and learn to encourage students’ critical thinking.

**Summary of analysis of Phase One.** Survey results in Phase One showed that the visiting CLTs were satisfied with their teaching in U.S. and that they attempted to use activities in their teaching, but they felt they needed support for more pedagogical knowledge and cross-cultural communication skills in the new context. The visiting CLTs also felt they needed to get themselves involved in the local teachers’ community. After four months’ teaching in the U.S., the survey results showed that visiting teachers seemed to have made some positive changes in their teaching attitudes, but their teaching beliefs have changed negatively. Over the four months, visiting CLTs seemed to have adjusted themselves to the new context and started to change their teaching beliefs, attitudes, and teaching methods. They seemed to start to reflect on their teaching, seek effective pedagogy from the teachers’ community, and improve their teaching practice.

Result of Phase One showed that changes in teachers’ teaching identity was not as significant as I expected. But it does not mean that four months of teaching in U.S. has
no effect on visiting CLTs’ teaching identity. Morgan (2013) argued that in the situation of “averaging these outcomes produces a small positive effect,” “a follow-up qualitative study can make a major contribution by investigating the possible sources of poorly understood results” (p.162). To better understand the Phase One result, I did a follow-up qualitative study. In the next section, I explain the criteria of selecting the teachers for a follow-up qualitative study and interpret the Phase Two Data.

Selection of four teachers for Phase Two: a follow-up Draw-A-Teacher Test (DATT) and interview. The first three subscales in TIS survey (i.e., general teaching identity, teaching beliefs, teaching attitudes) were examined to pinpoint the teachers having the most positive changes in teaching identity as a result of four months’ teaching in U.S. Four teachers qualify for the interviews and DATT. Selection of these teachers was based on having the highest mean changes in at least two of the three subscales of general teaching identity, teaching beliefs, and attitudes (see Tables 18, 19, and 20).

Based on the data analysis of teachers’ general identity, teaching attitudes, and beliefs, I selected participant 5, 8, 10, 11 for the follow-up qualitative study, because I want to find out how teachers made the positive changes in their teaching identity. These four teachers have made positive changes in at least two out of the three constructs measured in the pre- and post-surveys: general teaching identity, attitudes, and teaching beliefs. Next, I present and analyze my interview data and the Draw-A-Teacher Test result with these four teachers.

Phase Two: Draw-A-Teacher Test and interview. The purpose of my study was to explain and describe what might happen to visiting CLTs’ teaching identity and how
the context change might impact teachers’ teaching identity in the U.S. classrooms. I used Preliminary Quantitative Design (quan→QUAL) to study this problem. In Phase One, I used surveys to measure and statistically analyze the three components of teachers’ teaching identity (teaching attitudes, beliefs and practice). The results showed that there was no statistically significant change between pre- and post- survey. However, some individual teachers showed positive changes in their teaching identity overall after four months’ teaching in U.S. In the qualitative Phase Two part of the study, I selected participants 5, 8, 10, 11 for a follow-up interview and Draw-A-Teacher Test to find out how the positive changes have taken place on these four teachers (see Table 22). In this section, I use pseudonyms to refer to these four teachers. They are Alice (participant 5), Betty (participant 8), Carol (participant 10), and Daisy (participant 11). All four teachers were asked to draw a Chinese language teacher before the interview. I will present and interpret data in the chronological order: first data of Draw-A-Teacher Test, then data of interview.

Table 22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruments in Phase II (QUAL)</th>
<th>Construct Measured</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Time Administered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Draw-A-Teacher test</td>
<td>Teachers’ perceptions and attitudes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>January 2016 (follow-up session)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-structured interviews</td>
<td>Teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, strategies, and identity development</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>January 2016 (follow-up session)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Draw-A-Teacher Test.** The Draw-A-Teacher activity was adapted from the Draw-A-Scientist Test (DAST). The DAST is an open-ended test originally designed to investigate children’s perceptions of a scientist developed by Chambers (1983). The
The purpose of the Draw-A-Teacher Test was to explore visiting Chinese language teachers’ perceptions of themselves as a Mandarin teacher, attitudes towards teaching, and teaching practice after four months of teaching in U.S. classrooms. Additionally, I wanted to investigate factors that have influenced teachers’ teaching identity in U.S. classroom. As part of follow-up qualitative study, I felt that the DATT could also help teachers relax and become more engaged in the subsequent interview. In this section, I present, interpret, and analyze the Draw-A-Teacher Test.

Presentation and interpretation of Draw-A-Teacher Test. To analyze the drawing data, first I developed a coding scheme with another doctoral student at Graduate School of Education at Portland State University. We used the Draw-A-Teacher Test Analysis Template to identify elements that characterize a Mandarin teacher in the drawings, then gather them into several clusters, and finally sort them into categories. I identified the following five categories: body, dressing, location, gender, and prop. Then, under each category, I developed a checklist that examines the components of each image. Table 23 shows the checklist of Draw-A-Teacher Test.

Table 23

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Draw-A-Teacher Text Checklist in Phase Two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Body</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dark hair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big eyes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>smile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-human</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dressing</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal Dressing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
By identifying, tallying, and analyzing the elements in the drawing in terms of physical characteristics, dressing, gender (of the teacher), location and props included in the drawing, context, and so on, I had a visual picture of how these four teachers perceive a teacher of Chinese language.

*Analysis of Draw-A-Teacher Test.* As seen in Table 23, I examined each drawing using the checklist for each of the five categories. In this section, I explain and discuss the findings as they relate to two categories of data: (a) the most frequent elements in the drawings, and (b) the individual stories about their drawings at the beginning of interview.

First, I looked at the most frequent elements in the drawings. The most frequent elements in the drawings were teachers’ physical characteristics. Except for Alice (see Figure 13), all the other three teachers drew an actual Mandarin teacher (see Figure 14, Figure 15, and Figure 16). All the teachers in the drawings were friendly Asian women teachers in formal dressing, such as skirts, neat clothing. Another interesting finding

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draw self-gender</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Location</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White board</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inside</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prop</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Textbook</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional pointer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
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</table>

**Total**

| 2 | 10 | 12 | 10 |

*Notes: X = Evidence*
from these drawings was the absence of students or vague images of the students. In Betty, Carol, and Daisy’s drawings, the teacher was standing at the center of the drawing, while students were either absent or vague in the background. Sinclair et al. (2013) used a similar Draw-A-Teacher checklist to study drawings of 150 U.S. preservice teachers. Sinclair et al.’s (2013) Draw-A-Teacher checklist were composed of four parts: teacher appearance, student appearance, the physical appearance of the classroom, and actions of teachers and students. The teacher-centered approach identified by Sinclair et al. (2013) indicated typical aspects of teacher-centered drawings: traditional teacher physical appearance and dress, the front of the classroom, and no students in the drawings. Betty, Carol, and Daisy’s drawings were very similar to the teacher-centered drawings in Sinclair et al.’s study (2013).

In terms of the stories in their drawings, all the four teachers explained their drawings briefly at the beginning of interview. Different from the other three teachers,

![Figure 13. Alice’s drawing.](image-url)
Alice used metaphor to represent a Mandarin teacher (see Figure 13). The tree is the Mandarin teacher deeply rooted in the soil, and all the fruits are students. Teachers’ patience, kindness, open-mindedness, creativity, and flexibility nurture all these fruits.

Compared to the other three teachers, only two elements were identified in her drawing: non-human and outside context. Alice gave an explanation to her drawing in the follow-up interview:

I drew a tree to represent the teacher because the process of teachers’ development is just like the growth of trees—absorbing nutrition from soil and the environment, and then producing various fruits. Fruits are students. By interacting with the students, I also learn and grow, so that I can cultivate a variety of fruits—students with different specialty and personality.

*Figure 14. Betty’s drawing.*

Because other three teachers did not use metaphors in their drawings, their drawings are easier to understand (see Figure 14, Figure 15, and Figure 16). In the follow-up interview, all the teachers explained that the picture represents how they teach in classroom.

*Findings from Draw-A-Teacher Test.* Three themes were identified from the analysis of the most frequent elements and teachers’ stories. First, in terms of teaching attitudes, all the teachers seemed satisfied with and enjoying their teaching job because
there is a big smile on their faces. Alice expressed her devotion to Mandarin teaching in U.S. Second, in terms of teaching beliefs, the majority of teachers still perceived teachers as the authority in the classroom. Betty, Carol, and Daisy’s drawings showed a lack of students’ participation. Except for Alice’s drawing (Figure 13), all the other three drawings are self-portraits, with teachers working alone in the classroom. In teachers’ subsequent explanation of the drawing, they did not mention collaborating and learning from other teachers. There seemed to be a lack of community learning in visiting Mandarin teachers’ teaching practice.

Figure 16. Daisy’s drawing.
These drawings showed that visiting CLTs may still adopt a teacher-centered classroom in their teaching practice because students can hardly be seen in background and that formally dressed teachers take up the center of the picture. Third, in terms of teaching practice, teachers’ drawings did not show they have used a lot of interactive teaching methods in classroom. In the drawings, two teachers used the instructional pointer with “Hello, China” on the whiteboard as the background, and all the three teachers were just standing in the classroom with an absence of student-teacher interaction. This finding is interesting because there is an inconsistency between survey results and Draw-A-Teacher Test in terms of teaching strategies. Survey results showed that visiting CLTs used a lot of activities in their teaching, but from the drawings, I cannot see teachers’ interaction with the students. Maybe teachers were still at the early stage of transforming their teaching identity in U.S. classroom. They knew the importance of interactive strategies and may start to use them, but these strategies have not become their habitual practice in classroom teaching, therefore, interacting with students in a variety of activities was not yet part of their image of a Chinese language teacher.

In summary, from analysis of these four teachers’ drawings, I identified three themes: (a) teachers were satisfied with their teaching job in U.S.; (b) teachers have not acclimated themselves to the student-centered classroom in U.S., and (c) teachers started to use some interactive teaching strategies in their teaching. These themes indicate that there was a lack of learning from other teachers and interaction with students, which is a very important component of teachers’ transformative learning.

In the next section, I use thematic network analysis to examine themes across
interview data sets and classify themes into three levels: basic, organizing, and global. Data from the interview were analyzed to identify themes and expose how these themes were connected in a network.

**Interview.** In Phase Two, after the Draw-A-Teacher Test, the four visiting CLTs participated in a semi-structured interview. Eight interview questions were designed to measure teachers’ teaching beliefs, teaching attitudes, teaching strategies, and teaching identity development. The purpose of the interview was to explain and describe how the four visiting CLTs who have made positive changes in their teaching identity development talked about the following three aspects: teaching beliefs, teaching attitudes, and teaching practice. In this section, I recap the thematic network analysis and the three levels of themes (basic theme, organization themes, and global themes) in the thematic analysis. Next, I identify and present the three levels of themes I developed from my interview data. Then, I analyze, interpret, and synthesize these themes to describe and explore how the four visiting CLTs made the positive changes in U.S.

**Presentation and interpretation of interview data.** The reason to examine interview data through Attride-Stirling’s (2001) thematic network was to identify how the four visiting CLTs might have made changes in teaching identity (teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practice) over four months’ teaching in U.S. The thematic network is “an analytic tool for qualitative research” (Attride-Stirling, 2001, p. 385). Thematic network analysis uses web-like maps to examine themes at three different levels: Basic Themes, Organizing Themes, and Global Themes. In my analysis of the interview data, first I transcribed the interview data, then I read the interview data closely, and color-coded the
basic themes. These Basic Themes are the concrete and specific themes derived directly from the text. Next, I clustered these basic themes into eight broader themes—Organizing Theme. The Organizing Themes were identified from the Basic Themes of similar issues and significance. Lastly, I developed the three Global Themes out of the eight Organizing Themes. The Global Themes give concluding claims that summarize the main points in the interview data. These three Global Themes are personal experience, critical reflection, learning from other teachers.

Figure 17 displays the final thematic analysis network of the interview data of the four visiting CLTs. I labelled global themes with ovals, organizing themes with rounded rectangles, and basic themes with rectangles. Based on thematic network analysis, I identified the existence of three global themes: personal experience, community of practice, and critical reflection. The three global themes align with the transformative learning theoretic framework. Transformative Learning Theories contend that teachers, as adults, make transformative learning by personal experience, interaction within the learning community, and critical thinking (Mezirow, 2000). Global theme one (personal experience) was identified based on the two organizing themes: system differences and students’ difference. Global theme two (learning from other teachers) was identified from two organizing themes: lack of communication between CLTs and local community’s help. Global theme three (critical reflection) was identified from four organizing themes: qualities of a good teacher, improved teaching practice, motivation of teaching in U.S., and changed attitudes.

In the following sections, I describe this web-like network of themes and present
Figure 17. Final thematic framework—Phase Two.
evidence supporting these themes. Next, I discuss my findings from the interview data.

Personal experience. The global theme of personal experience comes from teachers’ experience about students and educational systems. Work pressure and class size are the two basic themes supporting the organizing theme of educational system difference. Motivation, studying habits, and students’ “disrespectful” behavior support the organizing theme of students’ differences.

In the coding process, I found 20 instances of work pressure, five instances of class size, eleven instances of U.S. students’ “disrespectful” behavior, five instances of students’ motivation, and nine instances of U.S. students’ studying habits. Examples of these were recorded in Table 24.

Teachers concluded from their personal experience that the educational systems and students in U.S. and China were very different. One of the biggest differences is that they were under greater pressure in their daily work in China. The pressure came from testing and school principals. All the teachers mentioned that in China they were assessed by students’ test scores and students’ graduation rate, whether they worked in high schools or colleges. Therefore, they had to inundate students in numerous tests in preparation for the important nation-wide test. Teachers were busy with teaching and grading students’ test papers every day. Another pressure came from school leaders in China because school principals and their colleagues often came to observe and assess their class to see if their teaching is effective in raising students’ test scores.

The four interviewed teachers felt less pressured in U.S., but at same time a sense of loss. They found that Mandarin class was just an elective course for the students and
### Table 24

**Examples of Global Theme of Teachers’ Experience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizing Themes</th>
<th>Basic Themes</th>
<th>Participant Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational system</td>
<td>Work pressure</td>
<td>Alice: “The nationwide College Entrance Exam is considered as a turning point of students’ whole life. As a teacher in China, I must exert all my efforts to help my students get a high score in the exam... Chinese students have tests every day, every week, every quarter, and every term. I have to grade their test paper all day long.” Betty: “I feel that too much pressure has been put on Chinese students and teachers, and too little pressure on U.S. students... but in U.S., I have to teach six classes every day. The workload is very heavy.” Carol: “In China, other teachers will come to observe my class, evaluate my teaching, and see if I follow the standardized four-step procedure in my teaching.” Daisy: “I feel pressured in China because I have to help students to get a satisfactory score in HSK test (Chinese language proficiency test) and that every term my students fill out the course evaluation form.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class size</td>
<td></td>
<td>Alice: “It’s hard to teach a class of 25 students.” Betty: “Class size in China is usually 60 students, but Chinese students are very cooperative. They follow teachers’ instructions in class.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ differences</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Alice: “I overheard students’ complaints. One student complained about if there’s anything they can do in class. The other student said: ‘what do you expect? It’s special. Mandarin class is just an optional class. Unimportant.” Daisy: “Half of those students who take Mandarin are those who cannot select Spanish because the space of Spanish class is full.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study habits</td>
<td></td>
<td>Carol: “Students seem to have a poor memory. They don’t spend time after class reviewing and practicing Mandarin.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Disrespectful” behavior</td>
<td></td>
<td>Alice: “Students in U.S. will not sit quietly in the classroom and listen to you. Instead, they will leave the classroom whenever they feel like it, for example, drink water, go to the bathroom, etc.” Daisy: “Students from China, Japan, or Thailand respect their teacher. But in U.S., students don’t even say hello to me when they see me. Of course, they don’t say hello to the U.S. teacher either.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
that students just looked at it as a “special” class—something not important. They felt a sense of loss because in China students attached great importance to their class.

Compared to the workload in China teachers felt less pressured in U.S. classroom because there was no testing pressure. However, most teachers felt that they had a heavier workload in U.S. because they were teaching more classes. Betty felt very exhausted every day because she “had to teach six classes every day.” In addition to the work pressure, teachers experienced the different class sizes. They claimed that smaller class size in U.S. had not relieved their burden at all because U.S. students were not as cooperative as Chinese students. Alice reported:

In a class of 26 students, no matter what methods you tried, such as changing seats every week, two students keep making trouble in class. If I try to stop the trouble-makers, the other 24 students will be distracted and start to make trouble. If I call the school principal for help, then things will get even worse.

Alice is not alone in talking about difficulty of classroom management with a small class size, something they have never experienced in China. In China, normally there are about 60 students in a class, but these teachers are able to “control” the class. The four teachers further described their different experiences with U.S. and Chinese students in terms of their motivation, study habits, and “respect” for teachers. All the four teachers mentioned that U.S. students were “disrespectful” to them, for example, they freely walk in and out of classroom during class time; they like to challenge the teacher and make trouble in class; they do not voluntarily greet their teachers in school, etc. However, it seems that all the four teachers adjusted to students “disrespectful” behavior after four months of teaching in U.S. Alice realized that cultural difference has caused this misunderstanding. She concluded that because of the influence of
Confucianism, Chinese teachers usually expect students to respect them. However, in the U.S., students have a different concept for respect. U.S. students do not regard listening to the teacher quietly as a way to show respect.

These examples corroborate that there is a cultural mismatch between visiting CLTs’ expectation and U.S. students’ behavior. In Literature Review in Chapter 2, I argued that cultural mismatch might be a reason that the visiting CLTs cannot get used to U.S. classroom at the beginning. Besides the “disrespectful” behavior, the teachers also complained that U.S. students do not review and practice Mandarin after class. Teachers’ frustration also comes from students’ lack of motivation of learning Mandarin. Students did not attach great importance to Mandarin learning because they looked upon it as a “special” class, “not even as important as PE or Music class,” as one teacher put it.

In summary, without teaching experience in U.S., these four visiting CLTs have experienced educational system and students’ differences between China and U.S. over four months of teaching in U.S. classrooms. In these four months, teachers learned to lower their expectations and view the differences from the perspectives of both U.S. and China. The context change has deepened teachers’ cross-cultural understanding and has forced them to change their previous teaching ideas to adjust to the new context. Teachers’ personal experience of the U.S. and Chinese differences may contribute to their teaching identity change. In the next section, I describe and analyze the thematic network of the second global theme: learning from other teachers.

Learning from other teachers. The global theme of community of practice comes from two organization themes: help from China and help from local community. I
developed the first organization theme from two basic themes: Hanban’s training and interaction with other visiting CLTs. I identified five instances of Hanban’s training and three instances of interaction with the other visiting CLTs. I developed the second organizing theme of local community’s help from the following two basic themes: interaction with local teachers and training organized by local schools. I identified twenty instances of interaction with local teachers and three instances of training organized by local schools. Examples of these were recorded in Table 25.

In the first four months of teaching in U.S., these four teachers reported that they have changed their teaching idea, learned effective classroom management strategies, and local teachers, teachers realized that the purpose of teaching is to have students enjoy the learning process and apply what they learn in daily life. After observing a math class, Carol found an interesting phenomenon: The U.S. teaches may spend the whole class time on a simple math problem which will only take about 5 minutes in a math class in China. Instead of demonstrating the solution to students on the whiteboard, the math teacher had students explore the solution by trial and error. Observing local teachers’ class has changed these teachers’ teaching idea from focusing on test results to focusing on learning process. As Betty said, “Now I don’t pay much attention to the test result. Students can retake the test if they want. It is unimaginable in China.” The change of teaching beliefs is the direct result of teachers’ learning from the local teachers.

Second, from local teachers, the visiting CLTs also learned the effective ways to manage their classroom. Betty, Carol, and Daisy all mentioned that local teachers, especially local Mandarin teachers, gave them useful suggestions regarding classroom
Table 25

*Examples of Global Theme of Learning from Other Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizing Themes</th>
<th>Basic Themes</th>
<th>Participant Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help from China</td>
<td>Hanban’s training</td>
<td>Alice: “Hanban has different training class for teachers working in different regions. But since I was reassigned to U.S. from England, I had the training designed for teachers working in Europe. I feel that I need more training in classroom management. I wonder if Hanban’s training for teachers working in U.S. is the same as the training we had.”</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Betty: “As for Hanban’s pre-departure training, I feel the small class on language teaching by professors from Beijing Language University was very useful. I also like the English language class by a U.S. college student. I don’t like the lecture-style class. The topic is very boring and abstract to us.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interaction with other visiting teachers</td>
<td>Betty: “I don’t have a lot of contact with the other teachers, except we three teachers teaching in the same school district. The other visiting teachers live far apart from each other.” (The three teachers mentioned by Betty are living in the same house provided by the school district.)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Carol: “When I first came, some visiting teachers were already teaching for some time in this school district. So I ask them for some advice and suggestions. These teachers shared their experience with me.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local community’s help</td>
<td>Interaction with local teachers</td>
<td>Betty: “I often chit-chat with my American Colleague at school. In our conversation, I noticed that the U.S. teachers often remind the students to pay attention to the use of punctuation, capitalization of letters, space in writing. I didn’t know the importance of reminding students, so my students have made a lot of mistakes in these aspects.”</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Carol: “I want to observe all the classes in my school. One time, after I observed a math class, I shared the classroom pictures with my friends in China. Their math class is closely related to students’ daily life and arts. For example, in geometry class, students drew all kinds of shapes and decorate their classroom with these shapes. It looked so amazing!”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|                   |                               | Daisy: “The local Mandarin teacher David helped me a lot at the beginning. Before I started to teach, David told me what the U.S. students were like and how to design and teach my class in U.S. David is an American and has been a Mandarin teacher in local school for 7 or 8 years. He is very experienced teacher. He knows what is the hardest part for an American to learn Mandarin, such as a specific
training organized by local schools

Alice: “Local school district has regular trainings for us visiting teachers. During the training, the local Mandarin teacher will usually lead the discussion. I can learn a lot from other teachers. Sometimes, the school district invite experienced teachers or experts to share their experience with us. All these are very useful.”

Betty: “I once attended a training organized by my school district. An expert of Mandarin teaching told us that the purpose of teaching is to help student learn, and that students can retake the test if they didn’t do well in that test. So, now in my teaching, I focus more on the learning process. Students can retake the test if they want.

management. Daisy said, “The local teacher David will say “Hello” to students in Mandarin whenever he notices that students become distracted. Then all the students will say “Hello” in Mandarin in response. That way, students’ attention will be drawn back to learning.” Daisy applied this strategy to her students, and found that it proved to be a very effective way for classroom management. In addition, Daisy was very creative to develop the draw-students’-attention strategy by adding or changing the words, such as “Good morning, students,” “Good morning, teacher” in response. Daisy explained that by changing the greeting words, she could not only bring students’ attention back to classroom, but also had students practice the new vocabulary words.

In terms of effective classroom management, teachers also reported that various trainings organized by school districts also gave them an opportunity to learn from the local community and from each other. Alice mentioned:

At the training, experienced local teacher will share their experience and success with us. Teachers have an opportunity to communicate with each other. Sometimes new ideas will come up in our discussion.

From the interview data, I concluded that interaction with the local community and
participating in the local trainings have enabled the visiting teachers to change their teaching beliefs and adopt effective methods of classroom management.

Compared to local community’s help with teaching beliefs and pedagogy, trainings organized by Hanban gave teachers support in content related teaching and Chinese language teaching pedagogy, for example, certain grammatical structures and language points. Teachers mentioned two professional trainings provided by Hanban: pre-departure training in Beijing and middle-of-the-year-training in Boston. The pre-departure training focused more on content related teaching, while the mid-of-year training focused more on pedagogy. However, teachers pointed out room for improvement for pre-departure training in Beijing: There is a lack of training of classroom management targeted toward U.S. classroom. Two of the four teachers, such as Alice and Carol, originally assigned to England, were reassigned to U.S. The pre-departure training they received was designed for teachers working in England. In the interview, these two teachers hoped that there could be more hands-on practice and instructions on effective classroom management in U.S. classrooms in their pre-departure training in Beijing.

The other Hanban-organized training mentioned by teachers is the mid-of-year training in Boston. Local teachers and experts on Chinese language teaching were invited to give lectures and workshops at the Boston meeting. However, because of the time conflict with the school schedule, out of the four interviewed teachers, only Alice went to Boston to attend the event. She highly recommended the mid-of-the-year training and said that she had a lot of hands-on practice in the training. The mid-of-year
training provided a platform for teachers from different parts of U.S. to share with and learn from each other.

Another important source of help came from other visiting teachers. Betty, Carol, and Daisy either worked in a school district with other second-year visiting teachers or lived with other first-year visiting teachers. Because they can see other visiting teachers every day, they have formed a teacher community of themselves. Carol said, “When I first came to school, the second-year visiting teachers, Min Zhang and Huamin Xu, were still teaching in school. They shared with me their teaching experience.” Betty lived with other two new visiting teachers. She also reported that three of them often discussed their daily teaching and learned from each other. Constant discussion with other Hanban teachers gave these first-year visiting CLTs support, therefore these new CLTs can adjust to the U.S. context better by changing their teaching ideas and practice.

To conclude, active involvement in local community and interaction with other visiting teachers help teachers change their teaching beliefs, learn effective classroom management methods, and learn content-related Chinese language pedagogies. Local community’s help is indispensable for the visiting teachers’ adjustment to U.S. context. Hanban’s pre-departure training has helped teachers with content-related Chinese language pedagogy, but lacked culture-related and classroom management training targeted at U.S. students. The mid-of-the-year training organized by Hanban managed to fill the gap of culture and classroom management. In the next section, I present and analyze the thematic network of the third global theme: Critical reflection.

*Critical reflection.* I identified the global theme of critical reflection from the
following four organizing themes: qualities of a good teacher, improved teaching practice, changed attitudes, and motivation of teaching in U.S. Each organizing is identified from several basic themes. Table 26 recorded the examples of these. Compared to the global theme of personal experience, all the organizing themes categorized in critical reflection are teachers’ internal reflection on their teaching, their teaching beliefs, and attitudes. In this section, I describe and analyze the network of critical reflection.

Table 26

*Examples of Global Theme of Critical Reflection*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizing Themes</th>
<th>Basic Themes</th>
<th>Participant Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Qualities of a good teacher</td>
<td>Knowledge (3 quotes)</td>
<td>Betty: “I think a qualified Mandarin teacher should be very knowledgeable in his/her area. I don’t think I’m qualified because my major is not Chinese language. I don’t know much as Chinese culture and phonetics.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disposition (responsible, patient,</td>
<td>Alice: “At the beginning, I intended to impact a group of people by promoting Chinese culture. I also wanted to improve students’ Chinese language proficiency level. But now, I think that if even a small step (each carefully designed, planned, and taught class) is a testimony of your success.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reflective, open-minded, optimistic,</td>
<td>Daisy: “A good teacher is a responsible teacher. Be responsible for teaching and students. Be optimistic. Don’t feel discouraged at one student’s behavior. Every day is a new day.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>practical) (12 quotes)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation of teaching in U.S.</td>
<td>Different cultures (6 quotes)</td>
<td>Betty: “… I think this is an opportunity experience a different culture.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Practice English (4 quotes)</td>
<td>Daisy: “Although my major is Chinese, I love English…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Love for teaching (2 quotes)</td>
<td>Betty: “I love teaching…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bottleneck in career (4 quotes)</td>
<td>Alice: “I felt bored and pressured as a high school teacher in China.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Carol: “I feel that there was a bottleneck in my career in China. I want to take the opportunity to give myself a break, to reflect on my previous teaching, and make future”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Improved teaching practice

| Cultural difference (Unfamiliarity) (5 quotes) | Alice: “Teachers should lower their expectation for teaching in U.S. and get prepared for the difference between Chinese classroom and U.S. classroom.” |
| Effective teaching strategies (Strategies of classroom management) (44 quotes) | Alice: “Having students participate in classroom activities is the most important thing. Another important thing is that we need to relate students’ learning to daily life.” |

**Quotes from Alice:**
- “Teachers should lower their expectation for teaching in U.S. and get prepared for the difference between Chinese classroom and U.S. classroom.”

**Quotes from Betty:**
- “At first, I asked my students to stop talking in class, then I found that it’s useless because it just silenced them for 3-4 minutes. They will start to talk again. Now I have a new method. Whenever they start to talk, I will stop talking and wait for them to be quiet. At this moment, some students will volunteer to help keep the classroom in order. It is effective in my class.”

- Carol: “I gave students stickers and gifts as rewards...I found that using games such as Bingo in teaching vocabulary is very effective”

- Daisy: “I will check students’ attendance first. While I’m doing the attendance, students become quiet.”

### Changed attitudes

| Complaints of students’ “disrespectful” behavior (12 quotes) | Alice: “I felt that I was not respected in my class here...Chinese students respect their teacher because there is a tradition from Confucianism (Confucianism stresses the hierarchy of social status.) My students in China will not make trouble in class.” |
| Respect for students’ “disrespectful behavior” (5 quotes) | Alice: “…I understand that American kids have different notion for “respect”. In U.S. culture, for them, respect doesn’t mean sitting there quietly and following your instructions. Walking about in the classroom or going to bathroom in the middle of class is something...” |

**Quotes from Betty:**
- “U.S. students are less obedient than Chinese students. They make trouble in class, and don’t listen to you.”

- Daisy: “U.S. students are different from the Korean or Japanese students I taught in China. I felt that my status was lowered immediately in U.S...Sometimes, I feel helpless and ask myself, “How come the U.S. students are so disobedient?””
they are allowed to do. It has nothing to do with disrespect…I think U.S. students do respect other people. For example, they listen carefully when other people are talking. This is their respect.”

Daisy: “New teachers should be prepared for the “disrespect” the American students might show for them. The fact that they don’t say hello to you doesn’t mean they don’t respect you. They treat the U.S. teacher the same way.”

Seeking external support (parent, school district) (2 quotes)

Betty: “We asked the superintendent of our school district for support to attend the training in Boston.”

Carol: “Starting from this semester, I email parents every week about what we have covered and what assessment test we will have to seek parents’ support for Mandarin teaching.”

The interview data show that all the four visiting teachers made reflections on their teaching motivation, criteria of a Mandarin teacher, their teaching practice, and attitudes. Teachers’ motivation of teaching in U.S. is closely related to their background as language teachers. Teachers mentioned four main reasons for teaching Chinese language in U.S.: experiencing different cultures (6 quotes), practicing English (4 quotes), loving teaching (2 quotes), having a bottleneck in career in China (4 quotes).

Because all the four interviewed teachers are language teachers in China, they all wanted to experience a different culture and practice English. Also, because all the four teachers have been teaching for at least three years under high pressure in test-oriented educational system, they felt that there is a bottleneck in their career development. Teachers believed that exposure to a different culture will give them a chance to get away from work pressure in China, broaden their view and eventually improve their teaching in
As Alice said:

I feel much pressured to be an English teacher in China, and I feel bored of teaching the same thing year after year. In all these years of teaching in China, I feel that I need something new in my specialization to motivate myself. I feel that teaching in China is like being immersed in the lukewarm water, same life every day. I want a change. I heard that there is a big difference between the educational system in China and that in U.S. or European countries. As an English teacher, I want to personally experience the difference. Of course, I also have personal reasons for teaching abroad: See the world and broaden my view.

Beside Alice, Betty, Carol and Daisy expressed similar reasons for teaching in U.S. Additionally, the interview data showed that in the first four months, teachers have changed their teaching attitudes and improved their teaching practice in the context of U.S classrooms. A notable finding is teachers’ changed attitude toward U.S. students’ “disrespectful” behavior. There are 12 quotes of complaints about U.S students’ “disrespect” when teachers talked about their experience of teaching in U.S. at the beginning. According to the interview data, these are the evidence of U.S. students’ “disrespectful” behavior: Walking out of classroom in the middle of class; wondering about in the classroom, not listening to the teacher, not greeting teachers in the hallway, not following teachers’ instructions in class. The four teachers admitted that they felt their status as teachers was challenged and felt distressed because there is a huge gap between how teachers are treated in China and in U.S. However, by the time of interview, these teachers seemed to have changed their attitudes towards U.S students’ “disrespect” behavior.

There are 5 quotes about teachers’ respect for students’ “disrespectful behavior”. Both Alice and Daisy realized that U.S. students have a different definition to “respect” and that U.S. students show their respect in a different way from the Chinese students. In
U.S. students’ eyes, respect is not to follow teachers’ orders without questioning, nor to
greet teachers in the hallway, nor sitting quietly in the classroom, but as Alice put it,
“respect, to the U.S. students, is to give attention to your classmates after their
presentation and congratulate them on their good work.” From her U.S. students, Alice
has realized that respect is a recognition of other people’s hard work in completing a task.
Interestingly, the other two teachers, Betty and Carol, suggested the new visiting teachers
lower their expectations to teach in U.S. and get prepared for the students “disrespectful”
behavior.

Besides teachers’ changed attitudes towards the “disrespectful” behavior, visiting
teachers started to take active actions to get themselves involved in local schools: They
seek support from parents and school principals in Chinese language teaching; they sent
weekly emails to update parents about the class progress and Mandarin curriculum; they
asked the school district for professional development opportunities. From my personal
experience in Chinese schools, I do not think these CLTs would actively seek community
support for their teaching because everything has been decided and pre-arranged by their
schools and what the teachers need to do is to follow these decisions. Teachers’ change
from passively following school authorities to actively seeking support indicates that
CLTs has transformed their attitudes towards teaching in U.S.

Changed attitudes towards teaching may lead to improved teaching practice. The
organizing theme of improved teaching practice summarizes the basic themes of effective
teaching strategies and cultural differences. Similar to the organizing theme of changed
attitudes, teachers experienced cultural barrier at the beginning of teaching. Betty said
that at first, she tried to silence the kids by continuing to say “stop” to them and found that it was useless because students would not listen to her. But in China, this method will work. Seeing the difference Betty figured out another way to attract students’ attention—she will pause classroom instruction if kids are making noises.

Betty’s example is just one of the different strategies that visiting teachers have figured out in classroom management. Other classroom management strategies include greeting in Chinese, sticker rewards, and attendance checking at the beginning of class. Attendance checking at the beginning of class helps to get students calm down and get ready for class. Teachers greet students in Chinese in the middle of class when they notice students no longer focus on their teaching. Teachers give students stickers and small gifts as rewards to motivate students. All these methods prove to be very effective in classroom management.

Additionally, visiting teachers also report the use of effective teaching strategies in content related teaching. Although teachers admitted that they did most of the talking in class in China, in U.S. classroom they started to engage students by games, songs, group projects, drawings, contest, presentation, and videos about culture and Chinese language. When they teach vocabulary, they use “Bingo” and “Bombing” games. They teach students to sing “Jingle Bells” to learn the pronunciation of “j”, “q”, “x”. They have students do group presentation based on the topic of “Cities in China” instead of just learning the basic information from the textbooks.

In four months of teaching, these four CLTs have realized the importance of “learning by doing”, clear instruction, and preparation of Plan B in U.S. classrooms.
Alice said that she gave students rubric on each assignment and clearly stated requirements of the assignment, something she did not do in China. All the teachers mentioned flexibility of their teaching. They usually prepare several plans for a lesson. Based on students’ reaction, if Plan A does not work, they will quickly switch to Plan B to achieve a better result.

Findings from interview data. To conclude the analysis of interview data, the visiting Chinese language teachers have experienced a different educational system and students in U.S. classroom. Since their arrival, visiting CLTs have actively participated in the professional development training organized by local schools and Hanban. Teachers also interact with local teachers and other visiting teachers. With personal experience and learning from other teachers, visiting teachers make reflections on their teaching practice and explore effective teaching strategies in U.S. classrooms.

Analysis of the interview data showed that four participants have changed their teaching attitudes, transformed their teaching perceptions, and improved their teaching practice through personal experience, community of teachers, and critical reflection. However, these teachers might still need more interaction with local teachers and learning from them. Reading across the interview data, I noticed an opposition between “I” and “the otherness” when teachers mentioned how they have learned from the local teachers. They used “they” instead of “we” to refer to the local teachers. These visiting teachers are actually part of the local communities. Mandarin class is one course embedded in the school curriculum. Visiting Chinese language teachers follow the same work schedule as the local teachers. The visiting CLTs, along with the local teachers, are part of the
There are two other interesting findings regarding the trainings teachers participated in. One finding is that teachers felt that trainings in U.S. are more useful than the pre-departure trainings organized by Hanban in China. Teachers reported that they learned more effective classroom management strategies and teaching pedagogy appropriate to U.S. K-12 schools at the U.S. workshop. The second interesting finding is that despite of various trainings there is a lack of professional development opportunities at the local level. The nationwide mid-of-the-year training was held in Boston in November 2015. The timing and location are not appropriate to most visiting teachers. Because it was held in the middle of school year and in east coast (Boston), not all the school districts would allow all the Hanban-sent teachers to leave school for 3 to 4 days, considering the fact these schools rely heavily on the Hanban teachers in Mandarin teaching.

In the next section, I synthesize the findings across all the data sets and apply the findings to the three research questions.

**Synthesis and Application to Research Questions**

In this section, I summarize my data analysis and synthesize the findings to answer the three research questions from the three components of teaching identity—teaching beliefs, teaching attitudes, and teaching practice.

To show the way I analyze the data and my findings in Phase One and Phase Two, I summarize each test and analysis I used in Table 27. In quantitative phase, survey results show that after four months of teaching teachers have an increase in general
teaching identity and teaching attitudes, and a decrease in teaching beliefs. Although survey results did not display statistically significant changes in all the three subscales of survey, some teachers have positive changes in their general teaching identity, teaching beliefs, and teaching attitudes.

Table 27

Analysis of Data and Findings in Phase One and Phase Two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instruments</th>
<th>Test/Analysis</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q 1: What are visiting K-12 Chinese language teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about teaching in U.S. classrooms?</td>
<td>Running paired t-test</td>
<td>To identify if there is a statistically significant change in teachers’ TI.</td>
<td>• Increase in general teaching identity and teaching attitudes; decrease in teaching beliefs • No significant change in 3 subscale: general identity, teaching attitude, and teaching beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Running independent sample t-test (Correlational analysis)</td>
<td>To identify if there is an association between teachers’ demographic background and TIC</td>
<td>No statistically significant association between: • Teachers’ educational degree and TIC • Rank of graduating university and TIC • Experience of teaching minority students and TIC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disaggregating the close-ended results into Subscale A, B, and C for each question</td>
<td>To look at teachers’ overall percentage of agreement to each question in the three subscales</td>
<td>• The most positive changes of SA &amp; A of surveys questions fall into Subscale B in terms of pedagogical knowledge and working with students from different backgrounds. • The most negative changes of SA &amp; A of survey questions fall into Subscale C in terms of sharing with local teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ranking individual teacher’s survey results</td>
<td>To identify teacher with the most positive TIC</td>
<td>Identify four teachers (P5, P8, P10, and P11) who have made positive changes in at least two subscales in the subscales for a follow-up qualitative study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 2: What strategies do visiting K-12 Chinese language teachers use in U.S. classrooms?</td>
<td>Identifying themes across all responses and using thematic network.</td>
<td>To explain and explore if the context change impact teachers’ teaching practice</td>
<td>• In teaching, CLTs have integrated culture into language learning. • They have also learned to use more activities in their classrooms. • They reflected on their teaching method, qualities of a good student and how to seek support from parents to achieve an</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The visiting CLTs still have room for improvement in their teaching in pedagogy and cross-cultural communication.

- CLTs still adopt the teacher-centered classroom teaching style in their teaching practice.
- Inconsistency between survey results and Draw-A-Teacher Test in terms of teaching strategies.
- Lack of learning from other teachers and interaction with students.


Q 3: How is CLTs teaching identity (beliefs, attitudes and behavior) transformed when they teach in U.S. classrooms?

Disaggregation of survey results into three subscales shows that there are five different possibilities of teacher identity change. Among them, there is a possibility of “ceiling effect” for some teachers who already scored high in the pre-survey, and still maintained a high score in the post-survey. That may indicate that teachers teaching identity were not eroded with a context change if they had a high teaching identity at the beginning. Disaggregation of survey results also shows that over four months of teaching in U.S. visiting teachers have made the most positive changes in pedagogical knowledge and working with students from different backgrounds. However, survey results show that overall visiting teachers need to have more interaction with local teachers.

Thematic Network Analysis of open-ended survey questions further revealed the impact of context change on visiting teachers teaching identity change. Analysis of open-ended questions shows that visiting CLTs purposefully seek teaching knowledge and
skills in U.S. and they are more satisfied to be Mandarin teachers and more confident to work with students with different cultural backgrounds. However, after four months’ teaching in U.S., visiting teachers still cannot get involved with the local community and discuss their teaching with local teachers.

The purpose of qualitative study in Phase Two was to describe and explain how visiting CLTs might have changed their teaching identity in U.S. context. Analysis of Draw-A-Teacher Test shows that CLTs still adopted the teacher-centered classroom teaching style in their teaching practice. It also showed an inconsistency between what teachers reported about their teaching strategies and what Draw-A-Teacher Test showed in their teaching. Teachers reported various teaching strategies in surveys, but the Draw-A-Teacher Test still showed a teacher-dominant classroom. The discrepancy between survey results and Draw-A-Teacher Test might indicate that teachers were at the beginning stage of transforming the teacher-centered classroom into student-centered classroom. The change was slow because there was no structured professional training on teaching pedagogy and classroom management since teachers’ arrival, and also because four months might not be long enough for teachers to make complete transformation.

**Limitation of Study**

Although there are exciting findings in this study, this study has some limitations. First, this study used a small sample size (N = 14). Larger sample sizes can reduce the standard error and increase the generality of the study (Krathwohl, 2009). However, because the purpose of this study was to describe and explore what is CLTs’ teaching
identity and how the identity change might take place, the smaller sample size provided insight in helping visiting teachers change the context appropriate teaching identity. Additionally, because my study is the Preliminary Quantitative Design (quant→QUAL) with capitalized QUAL, the focus of my study was interpretation and analysis of in-depth qualitative interviews and Draw-A-Teacher Test with teachers.

Second, the design of Phase Two of the study was to do a follow-up qualitative study with teachers who have made most positive changes in at least two subscales of the survey. Previous research showed that context change has an impact on language teachers teaching identity (Gao, 2012; Sun, 2012; Trent & DeCoursey, 2011; Tsui, 2007; Urzúa & Vásquez, 2008; Y. Xu, 2014). Therefore, in my research design, I assumed that without previous experience of teaching in U.S., these fourteen visiting teachers had a lower teaching identity upon their arrival in U.S. I anticipated that over four months the visiting teachers would make positive changes in teaching identity. The follow-up qualitative study is to explore how these teachers made positive changes in teaching identity. However, after the preliminary analysis of the survey data, I noticed that visiting teachers changed differently (See Figure 6). Some teachers already had a very high teaching identity in the pre-test and maintained the high teaching identity in the post-test. Some had a comparatively high teaching identity in the pre-test, but had a decrease in teaching identity in the post-test. Other teachers’ teaching identity did not change over four months of teaching. I am very interested in those teachers who had a high teaching identity and maintained the high teaching identity throughout the four months of teaching. How did these teachers get the high teaching identity and how did they
maintain their high teaching identity? As to those teachers whose teaching identity did not change or decreased, I want to learn more about the reason and their experience. I think more studies on these teachers can provide richer data about visiting CLTs’ teaching identity. But in Phase Two of my study, I only focused on one subset of teachers who have made positive changes. In a future study, I will study those teachers to find more about visiting CLTs’ teaching identity change.

Last, a limitation to this study is that my role as both a researcher and a Chinese language teacher might lead to my biased judgment in my interpretation and analysis of teachers’ interview data and Draw-A-Teacher Test. Because I was working as a visiting Chinese language teacher in U.S. several years ago, I had similar experience to the fourteen visiting CLTs. With similar experience, I might sympathize with the visiting teachers and identify the themes based on my preference. To minimize my bias in interpreting the qualitative data, I invited one of my cohort member to help with identifying the elements and themes in Draw-A-Teacher Test. But still my interpretation and analysis might have bias.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this mixed method research described and explored 14 visiting Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity formation and the impact of context change on their teaching identity over four months of teaching in U.S. classroom. Phase One of the study showed that after four months of teaching in U.S. classrooms, except for the three teachers who scored high on the pre- and post- surveys in teaching beliefs, most of the visiting Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity changed in some way. Of the
three components of teaching identity (i.e., teaching beliefs, teaching attitudes, teaching practice), teachers’ teaching attitudes have improved in terms of their efforts of seeking pedagogical knowledge. Teachers’ teaching beliefs have decreased in the aspect of lacking community interaction. In teaching practice, survey results in Phase One showed that teachers reported using interactive teaching methods to motivate students.

Interview data and Draw-A-Teacher Test in Phase Two of this study further explored how visiting CLTs made these changes in their teaching identity. After experiencing differences in U.S. classrooms, visiting CLTs were aware of the importance of having students take over the classroom. Teachers learned to use various teaching strategies and classroom management methods by learning from local teachers, participating in local professional trainings, and reflecting on their teaching practice.
Chapter 5: Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to describe and explain what happens to visiting Chinese language teachers’ identity when they teach Mandarin in U.S. classrooms. A broader goal of the study is to find ways to encourage Chinese language teaching competency in the U.S. classrooms and to foster cross-cultural communication. I based this study on a review of literature indicating that because of cultural mismatch and challenges of a new context visiting Chinese language teachers may lack a teaching identity that would be more appropriate in U.S. classrooms. The literature review seemed to indicate that social and cultural context change impacts language teachers’ teaching identity, which is composed of teaching attitudes, teaching beliefs, and teaching practice. Teaching identity has an influence on teachers’ behavior and competencies, and in turn, these outer levels influence teachers’ teaching identity (Korthagen, 2004). A large number of visiting Chinese language teachers without U.S. teaching experience are teaching Mandarin in K-12 school in U.S. Moved out of their familiar social and cultural context, visiting CLTs’ teaching identity might change. Therefore, forming context appropriate teaching identity in U.S. classroom is important to improve their teacher competency. The following research questions guided my study:

1. What are visiting K-12 Chinese language teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about teaching in U.S. classrooms?

3. How is CLTs teaching identity transformed when they teach in U.S. classrooms?

I used Preliminary Quantitative Design to describe and explore fourteen first-year visiting K-12 Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity. The focus of my study was to interpret and analyze the qualitative data to further explain the quantitative findings (Morgan, 2013). In Phase One, I conducted a pre-survey after these teachers arrived in U.S. in mid-August 2015, then I conducted a post-survey in December, 2015. In Chapter four, I presented, interpreted, and analyzed the survey data, interview data, and Draw-A-Teacher data. Based on the analysis of the survey results, I selected four teachers who made the most positive changes in at least two subscales of Teaching Identity Survey for the Phase Two of interview and Draw-A-Teacher Test.

In Phase Two, between January 2016 to February 2016, I conducted a Draw-A-Teacher Test and an interview with four teachers to explore how the context change impacted three components of teachers’ teaching identity (beliefs, attitudes, and practice) and how they changed their teaching identity in U.S.

In this section, I synthesize my findings, relate my findings to research literature and theoretical frame, and suggest a more structured professional development training for future visiting teachers.

Synthesis of Findings

In this section, I summarize visiting CLTs’ teaching identity change. Then, I align the synthesis of finding with the three research questions. Figure 18 is a summary of the findings. Figure 18 indicates what has happened to visiting CLTs’ teaching identity and
CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHERS’ TEACHING IDENTITY

how the changes have taken place over four months’ teaching in U.S. classrooms.

As shown in Figure 18, most of the visiting Chinese language teachers experienced some change in their teaching identity. The results of SPSS show that teachers’ general teaching identity and teaching attitudes improved, however, teachers’ teaching beliefs have decreased over four months’ of teaching in U.S. classroom. Although analysis of the pre- and post- survey result shows that changes in general teaching identity, teaching beliefs, and teaching attitudes were not statistically significant, it still indicated positive changes in visiting CLTs’ teaching identity. The follow-up

Figure 18. Visiting Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity change over four months’ teaching in U.S. classroom.
Draw-A-Teacher Test and interview further explained how the changes took place over these four months. By personal experience, critical thinking, and learning from others, visiting CLTs seemed to be able to adjust their teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practice to U.S. context.

Transformative learning theories indicate that adult learners learn by their personal experience, critical reflection, and rational discourse (Brown, 2004; Mezirow, 1991). Figure 18 shows that visiting CLTs have improved their teaching practice by transforming their teaching identity in the U.S. context. Teaching experiences have provided a starting point for transformational learning. Teachers have reflected on the teaching experience and changed their teaching beliefs. Learning from other teachers is a catalyst for their identity transformation because with the support and help from other teachers, visiting CLTs have involved themselves in various discussion and workshops to be successful in U.S. classrooms.

**Improved attitudes and decreased teaching beliefs (RQ 1: What are visiting K-12 Chinese language teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about teaching in U.S. classrooms?).** Analysis of data shows that at the beginning of teaching in U.S., visiting CLTs had positive attitudes towards teaching, but they retained the beliefs of top-down Chinese classroom. CLTs were not aware of the importance of inter-cultural communication in U.S. After four months of teaching in U.S. classroom, overall teachers maintained positive attitudes towards teaching Mandarin in U.S., but their teaching beliefs changed negatively because two important indicators of teaching beliefs, teachers’ sense of community belonging and cross-cultural communication, have decreased after
four months of teaching in U.S. Although visiting CLTs liked teaching in U.S., they had not really integrated themselves into the community of local teachers and they lacked cross-cultural communication with other people.

Previous studies have shown that Mandarin teachers teaching in a different culture seem to encounter three major difficulties: the lack of adequate teaching and cross-cultural communication skills, a failure to adapt to students’ individual differences, and the tendency to oversimplify the diverse Chinese customs and traditions and present a stereotypical views to U.S. students (Hua & Wei, 2014; Yao & Han, 2013; Zhou & Li, 2015). My study findings seemed to indicate that when visiting CLTs sought to improve their cross-cultural communication abilities and increase their interaction with others teachers, they seemed to be able to address the above three difficulties. In turn, their actions led to a more contextually appropriate teaching identity.


Visiting CLTs are experienced teachers in China. Upon their arrival they planned to use various interactive teaching methods, but the survey results show that they seemed not very confident in teaching in U.S. After four months of teaching in U.S., by personally experiencing the different cultures, learning from other teachers, and reflecting on their own teaching, visiting CLTs started to use more activities and use various effective and more active teaching methods. The positive effect of these strategies, in turn, has boosted CLTs’ confidence in teaching Mandarin in U.S. classrooms.

**Teaching identity transformed by personal experience, learning from other**
teachers, and critical reflection (RQ 3: How is CLTs teaching identity transformed when they teach in U.S. classrooms?). The follow-up Draw-A-Teacher Test and interview with the four teachers showed that changes in visiting CLTs’ teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practice seemed to be made through teachers’ personal experience, interacting with the other teachers, and making critical reflections on their teaching. How CLTs’ improved teaching identity seemed to align with the three themes of Mezirow’s (2000) transformative learning theory. Mezirow (2000) and other researchers explained that adults learn by making meaning out of their personal experiences, critical reflection, and community learning. Analysis of data indicated that visiting CLTs seemed to have improved their teaching practice by transforming their teaching identity in U.S. context. Personal experiences of different cultures and educational systems provided a starting point for teachers’ transformational learning. Critical reflection made CLTs question their own teaching practice. Learning from other teachers was a catalyst for CLTs’ teaching identity transformation because teachers explored the depth and meaning of their various worldviews, and articulate those ideas to their community members.

At the beginning, visiting CLTs were challenged by a lack of pedagogical knowledge, cultural difference, and unfamiliarity with new context. After four months of learning, visiting CLTs have become more skillful and culturally cognizant Mandarin teachers in U.S. classroom. Teachers who had a high teaching identity at the beginning maintained a high level of teaching identity after four months’ teaching in U.S. classroom. Their high teaching identity was not eroded after four months teaching in U.S. classrooms.
Link between teaching identity and context. This study indicated that CLTs’ teaching identity change is closely related to the context change. Before these fourteen teachers were assigned to teach in U.S., all of them were experienced language teachers in China with a teaching identity compatible to the Chinese context. However, identity is always in the process of shaping and reshaping (Alsup, 2006). In a new context, teachers’ experience, pre-teaching identity, and classroom practice shape and reshape new teachers’ identity (Flores & Day, 2006). Since teacher identity is a social and contextual matter (Danielewicz, 2001; Gao, 2012), U.S. classroom could play a very important role in CLTs teaching identity change.

As this study showed, moving out of comfort zone of Chinese classroom, visiting CLTs faced some dilemmas, such as language barriers, students’ disrespectful behavior, and lack of effective strategies in classroom management. As adult learners, especially the four teachers interviewed in Phase Two, these visiting CLTs addressed these dilemmas actively and the result was that their teaching beliefs, attitudes, and classroom teaching changed.

Implication and Recommendations

The study was a mixed methods research about visiting Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity. This study fills a gap in literature regarding what might happen to visiting CLTs identity with their context change.

First, visiting CLTs adjusted their teaching identity to the new context. Although the changes in their teaching identity were not statistically significant, visiting CLTs started to make positive changes in their teaching beliefs, teaching attitudes, and practice.
The results showed that the visiting CLTs had their own teaching identity upon their arrival in U.S. Overall, the visiting CLTs had positive attitudes toward and perceptions of their teaching. However, in terms of Chinese language teaching pedagogy and intercultural communicative competence, the visiting CLTs seemed to lack knowledge of effective teaching methods and cross-cultural communication. At the end of four months’ teaching, teachers had made some positive changes in their teaching attitudes and teaching practice, but their teaching beliefs had not changed a lot. The results called for greater support for visiting Chinese language teachers in pedagogical knowledge, intercultural communication, and learning from other teachers that will lead to successful teaching of these visiting Chinese language teachers in U.S. Designing special teacher preparation coursework for the visiting CLTs might help them form the student-centered view in U.S. (Sinclair et al, 2013).

Second, teachers’ high teaching identity did not seem to be eroded by context change. That means if there is an effective teacher professional development program aiming at improve teaching identity before teachers’ assignment, visiting teachers’ teaching identity might maintain at the same level through their teaching in a culturally different context. Since Hanban (Office of Chinese Language Council) usually takes responsibility for the pre-departure training, Hanban needs to design the training program in a more effective way to prepare CLTs for teaching in a different context. More context specific language teaching pedagogy should be included in the training program. Additionally, during the pre-departure training, CLTs should be encouraged to sharing their teaching with both teachers from China and other countries to foster their cross-
Third, the study indicated three important factors contributed to transformative changes in CLTs’ teaching identity: personal experience, learning from other teachers, and critical reflection (Mezirow, 2000). This study may provide more information and insights on how to support the visiting teachers teaching in a different social and cultural context.

The study showed that even though school districts have some trainings and that CLTs have learned from local teachers, there is a lack of teachers’ interaction with other CLTs because most teachers live and work far away from each other. The local Hanban organization needs to purposefully create more opportunities for training to bring visiting CLTs together to talk and share their teaching experience.

For those who organize teacher training programs, such as local school districts and teacher training organizers, this study may provide more information and insights on how to support the visiting teachers teaching in a different social and cultural context. Understanding how visiting Chinese teachers transform their teaching identity in the U.S. context may serve to inform future professional development activities designed to increase Chinese teacher competence in U.S. classrooms and shed light on how to better prepare these Chinese language teachers for the teaching job in a diverse classroom outside of their homeland.

Local school districts and teacher training organizers can develop CLTs professional programs based on the three core themes of Mezirow’s transformative learning theories—experience, critical reflection, and rational discourse (Brown, 2004;
Mezirow, 1991) because the study indicates that CLTs have modified their teaching identity in the U.S. by experiencing their teaching, making critical reflection, and learning from other teachers.

This research also has the potential to contribute to the professional literature by becoming a resource that describes how visiting Chinese language teacher identity might be transformed in the U.S. schools. The research findings may be valuable resources for improving visiting Chinese language teaching competency and fostering CLTs’ cross-cultural communication in U.S. classrooms.

**Future Study**

This study motivated me to do more research in related fields. I would like to conduct the Draw-A-Teacher Test and interviews on those teachers who maintained a high teaching identity to explore their teaching identity and explain how they adjusted to U.S. classrooms. Also, in the future study, I want to extend the research time from four months to one year. I saw some positive changes in CLTs’ teaching identity in four month, but I wonder if a longer time of teaching in U.S. can make CLTs make more changes. I would also like to share my study findings with the local school districts and help them design a series of teaching training workshops aimed at improving teaching identity, so as to better help visiting CLTs adjusted to U.S. classroom. I would like to study if these workshops have an impact on visiting CLTs’ identity change.

My future study could also address the problem of lack of context appropriate teaching identity of visiting teachers in other countries. Giving the large number of teaching assigned overseas to teach Chinese language (Jia, 2014), I would like to describe
and explain what might happen to their teaching identity and how their teaching identity might change in a different cultural context. Therefore, my future study may inform future professional development activities designed to increase Chinese teacher competence and foster cross-cultural communication in other countries.
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Appendix A

Teacher Consent Form

The Portland State University
Consent to Participate in Research

An Exploration of Chinese Language Teachers’ Identity
Formation in the U.S. Classrooms

July 1, 2015

Introduction

You are being asked to participate in a research study that is being done by Li Xiang, who is the Principal Investigator, from the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Graduate School of Education, at Portland State University in Portland, Oregon. This research is studying Chinese language teachers’ teaching identity in U.S. classrooms.

You are being asked to participate in this study because teaching in U.S. classroom might influence your teaching identity and that appropriate teaching identity is key to successful classroom teaching.

This form will explain the research study, and will also explain the possible risks as well as the possible benefits to you. We encourage you to talk with your family and friends before you decide to take part in this research study. If you have any questions, please ask one of the study investigators.

What will happen if I decide to participate?

If you agree to participate, the following things will happen:

- Respond to surveys pertaining to your demographic information, your teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practice (30 minutes).
- Participate in a 30 minute draw a teacher activity in December 2015 (only a subset of teachers will be selected to participate in this activity).
- Participate in a 60 minute interview in January 2015 that will be audio-taped (only a sub-set of teachers will be selected to participate in interviews).

How long will I be in this study?

Participation in this study will take a total of 2 hours over a period of 4 months.
What are the risks or side effects of being in this study?

There are risks of stress, emotional distress, inconvenience and possible loss of privacy and confidentiality associated with participating in a research study. To safeguard this, all participants’ names will be removed and numbers substituted for the names from any interview audio transcripts. There is a risk of relationships with colleagues being damaged if teachers learn that a colleague is experiencing negative feelings in his/her teaching. For more information about risks and discomforts, ask the investigator.

What are the benefits to being in this study?

The study will give insight into how Chinese language teachers perceive teaching Mandarin in the US. Participants will have an opportunity to describe their perceptions of and attitudes towards their teaching experience in U.S. Since these participants are from China, a different cultural and educational background, the research will benefit them directly by exploring the strategies they can use to get adjusted to the teaching position. This study will also shed light on how to better prepare these Chinese language teachers for the teaching job in a diverse classroom outside of their homeland.

How will my information be kept confidential?

We will take measures to protect the security of all your personal information, but we cannot guarantee confidentiality of all study data. All the interview data, recordings, and transcripts will be locked in the home or work office of the researcher. Results of the analyses will be shared with participants, presented at professional conferences, and published in professional journals. Participant confidentiality will be maintained throughout. All data and records from this project will be kept on file in the researcher’s home or work office for a minimum of three years.

Information contained in your study records is used by study staff. The Portland State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) that oversees human subject research and/or other entities may be permitted to access your records, and there may be times when we are required by law to share your information. It is the investigator’s legal obligation to report child abuse, child neglect, elder abuse, harm to self or others or any life-threatening situation to the appropriate authorities, and; therefore, your confidentiality will not be maintained.

Your name will not be used in any published reports about this study.

Will I be paid for taking part in this study?

No.
Can I stop being in the study once I begin?

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You have the right to choose not to participate or to withdraw your participation at any point in this study without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Whom can I call with questions or complaints about this study?

If you have any questions, concerns or complaints at any time about the research study, Li Xiang, or his/her associates will be glad to answer them at 971-400-9209.

If you need to contact someone after business hours or on weekends, please call 971-400-9209 and ask for Li Xiang.

Whom can I call with questions about my rights as a research participant?

If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, you may call the PSU Office for Research Integrity at (503) 725-2227 or 1(877) 480-4400. The ORI is the office that supports the PSU Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB is a group of people from PSU and the community who provide independent oversight of safety and ethical issues related to research involving human participants. For more information, you may also access the IRB website at https://sites.google.com/a/pdx.edu/research/integrity.

CONSENT

You are making a decision whether to participate in this study. Your signature below indicates that you have read the information provided (or the information was read to you). By signing this consent form, you are not waiving any of your legal rights as a research participant.

You have had an opportunity to ask questions and all questions have been answered to your satisfaction. By signing this consent form, you agree to participate in this study. A copy of this consent form will be provided to you.

____________________________
Name of Adult Subject (print)

____________________________
Signature of Adult Subject

____________________________
Date

INVESTIGATOR SIGNATURE

This research study has been explained to the participant and all of his/her questions have been answered. The participant understands the information described in this consent form and freely consents to participate.
Appendix B

Teacher Identity Survey (TIS) and Teacher Demographic Survey

My name is ___________
我的姓名是__________

Part I Demographic Survey

1. What is your gender?
   a) Female
   b) Male

2. How long have you been teaching in China?
   a) 0 to 3 years
   b) 4 to 10 years
   c) 11 to 20 years
   d) 20+ years

3. How long have you been teaching Mandarin in U.S.?
   a) None
   b) 0-1 year
   c) 1-2 years
   d) 3-5 years
   e) More than 5 years

4. At what school are you teaching now?

5. What grade are you currently teaching? (Choose all that apply)
   a) Kindergarten
   b) Primary school
   c) Middle school
d) High school
e) College
f) Other (please specify__)

6. What percentage of their school’s population were ethnic minority community students?
a) None
b) Below 30%
c) Between 30% to 50%
d) Above 50%

7. What subject do you teach in your current school?
a) Chinese
b) English
c) Math
d) Science
e) Other (please specify ____)

8. I have a _____ degree.
a) Bachelor’s degree
b) Master’s degree
c) Doctor’s degree
d) Other (please specify ___)

9. What is your major in college? ______________

10. Do you have the certificate of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language?
a) Yes   b) No

11. Do you have any overseas teaching experience?
12. Which university did you graduate from? 

13. Your age is ____________.
   a) 20-30
   b) 31-40
   c) 41-50
   d) 51-60

**Part II Teacher Identity Survey**

This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of your perceptions, attitudes, and teaching in U.S. classrooms. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. Your answers are confidential.

14. I see myself as a Mandarin teacher.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
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<td>Strongly</td>
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15. I would miss teaching if I stopped doing it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
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16. I truly enjoy the role of being a Mandarin teacher.

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<tr>
<th>Disagree</th>
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</table>
17. I have looked for opportunities to teach abroad.

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<thead>
<tr>
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<td>Strongly</td>
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18. I know how to teach Mandarin to U.S. students.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly</th>
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19. I find satisfaction watching my students make progress.

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20. Teaching Mandarin makes my job more rewarding.

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21. Working with students from a different culture has its costs, but it’s worth it.

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22. I feel skilled as a Mandarin teacher.

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<tr>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
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23. I often read journal articles about Chinese language teaching.

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<th>Disagree</th>
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24. I frequently talk to colleagues about teaching.

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<tr>
<th>Disagree</th>
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25. I feel part of a community of teachers.

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<th>Disagree</th>
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26. It is helpful to be able to discuss the progress of students with colleagues in my school.
27. I enjoy sharing ideas about teaching with other local teachers.

28. I am familiar with the U.S. cultural context where I am going to teach. (Change of tense in post-survey).

29. I am familiar with the Chinese language and culture that I teach.

30. What do you plan to teach to the students in U.S. classroom? (Change of tense in post-survey).

31. What methods will you use to teach in U.S. classroom? (Change of tense in post-survey).

32. What is a good teacher?

33. What is a good student?
Appendix C

Interview Questions

Question 1: What are visiting K-12 Chinese language teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about teaching in U.S.?

1. Tell me about the reasons that you decided to teach Mandarin in the U.S. (Attitudes)
2. What was it like to teach in China? (Beliefs)
3. What is it like to teach Mandarin language in U.S. classrooms? (Beliefs)
4. What are the differences between a Mandarin teacher in U.S. and a teacher of other subjects in China? (Beliefs)


5. What challenges do you have in teaching in U.S. classrooms? How do you deal with the challenges? (Practice)
6. Describe a Mandarin class you teach in your current school. (Practice)

Question 3: How is CLTs teaching identity (beliefs, attitudes and behavior) transformed when they teach in U.S. classrooms?

7. What does a successful Mandarin teacher look like? (Beliefs)
8. What do you find helps you most in teaching Mandarin in U.S. classrooms? (Practice)
9. What attitude should a Mandarin teacher take in teaching in U.S. classrooms? (Attitudes)
10. What suggestions will you give to the other new visiting Mandarin teachers in U.S.? (Beliefs, attitudes, and practice)
Appendix D

Data Collection Template (DAST)

Date administered: ______________
Topic for research: ____________________________________________________________

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Conclusions and Implications:
________________________________________________________________________
______________________________________________________________________

Notes/Trends:______________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
## Appendix E

### Responses of 5 Open-ended Questions in Pre- and Post-Surveys

Open-ended Question 1: What do you plan to teach to the students in U.S. classroom?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8/2015 (Total: 51 responses)</th>
<th>31 Culture in General: 13</th>
<th>Chinese culture, cultural difference between China and U.S., Chinese history</th>
<th>19 Chinese characters, spoken Chinese, how to read and write in Chinese, daily dialogue, basic Chinese</th>
<th>1 Teach students how to be moral people</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specific Traditional Culture &amp; Crafts: 13</td>
<td>Yue Opera, Poem in Tang Dynasty, Kungfu, Paper-cuts, Taichi, Calligraphy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspects of Modern Chinese Life: 5</td>
<td>Chinese food and diet, Chinese family, School life, Chinese customs</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>12/2015 (Total: 39 responses)</th>
<th>19 Culture in General: 12</th>
<th>Chinese Culture</th>
<th>20 Language points, and skills, etc. 10 of the 20 responses are specifically about developing speaking skills, such as daily conversation, introduction about daily life</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Chinese festivals, paper-cuts, Taichi, Kungfu</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chinese Songs: 3</td>
<td>Chinese Songs</td>
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</table>

Open-ended Question 2: What methods will you use to teach in U.S. classroom?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Task-based</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Activity-based Classroom</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Traditional</th>
<th>Vague Responses</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8/2015 (Total: 51 responses)</td>
<td>31 Culture in General: 13</td>
<td>Chinese culture, cultural difference between China and U.S., Chinese history</td>
<td>19 Chinese characters, spoken Chinese, how to read and write in Chinese, daily dialogue, basic Chinese</td>
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<th>20 Language points, and skills, etc. 10 of the 20 responses are specifically about developing speaking skills, such as daily conversation, introduction about daily life</th>
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<tr>
<td>7 Task-based method, task-based classroom, task-based teaching method</td>
<td>19 Various activities, communicative approach, multimedia, TPR, more participation, learning by doing</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>19 Various activities, communicative approach, multimedia, TPR, more participation, learning by doing</td>
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<td>21 Communicative, activity, multimedia classroom, games, songs</td>
<td>6 Translation</td>
<td>21</td>
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<tr>
<td>21 Communicative, activity, multimedia classroom, games, songs</td>
<td>6 Translation</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
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<tr>
<td>21 Communicative, activity, multimedia classroom, games, songs</td>
<td>6 Translation</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
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<td>6 Task-based teaching, projects, task-orientated classroom</td>
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Open-ended Question 3: What is a good teacher?

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<tr>
<th>Examples of quotes about Teaching Knowledge and Skills</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Cross-cultural Communication</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Loving Students</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Teachers' Affective Characteristics</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about critical reflection</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12 Know what to teach, knowledgeable, professional skills and knowledge, professional background, skillful, artful, love teaching</td>
<td>1 Understand Chinese culture and the cultural difference between U.S. and China</td>
<td>12 Love students, help students grow, like to stay with the students, be a teacher loved by students, ensure students' full development</td>
<td>23 Competent, confidence, attitude, good at communicating, creative, caring, responsible, flexible, inspiring</td>
<td>2 Be reflective, update teaching philosophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Know what to teach, knowledgeable, professional skills and knowledge, professional background, skillful, artful, love teaching</td>
<td>1 Understand Chinese culture and the cultural difference between U.S. and China</td>
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<td>12 Love students, help students grow, like to stay with the students, be a teacher loved by students, ensure students' full development</td>
<td>23 Competent, confidence, attitude, good at communicating, creative, caring, responsible, flexible, inspiring</td>
<td>2 Be reflective, update teaching philosophy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Open-ended Question 4: What is a good student?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Total Responses</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Intellectual Capability</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Students' Personality</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Respect for Teachers</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Critical Thinking</th>
<th>Not related to the question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8/2015</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>17 Smart, love to learn, active learning, understand the study goal</td>
<td>8 Friendly, never give up, curious, motivated</td>
<td>10 Respectful, be polite, be grateful to others' help, be well-behaved</td>
<td>4 Critical thinking, be innovative, have one's own opinion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12/2015</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2 Smart</td>
<td>22 Interested, never give up, inquisitive, attentive, eager to learn</td>
<td>4 Polite, respect Chinese class</td>
<td>3 Students who love to think and question, ask good questions</td>
<td>2 No criteria for a good student, no bad or good students</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Open-ended Questions 5: What challenges do you have now?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Total Responses</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Unfamiliarity with the New Environment</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Lack of Chinese Language Pedagogy</th>
<th>Examples of quotes about Language Difficulty</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8/2015</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11 Cannot adapt to U.S. teaching, don't know the students, lack information of syllabus and school system, too few students in my class, hard for me to get used to the new environment, school days start in a rush, differences in cultures and educational background</td>
<td>5 Lack of teaching experience, change of teaching methods from Chinese classroom to U.S. classroom, classroom management, multilevel teaching</td>
<td>2 Language, communication with the local teachers, don't understand some terminologies</td>
<td>1 Living place is too noisy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12/2015</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Examples of quotes about how to engage students</td>
<td>Examples of quotes about classroom management</td>
<td>Examples of quotes about cultural differences</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Challenges faced by Chinese language teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Challenges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Students are not interested in Chinese language learning; How to encourage students to continue learning Mandarin; how to attract students’ attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Classroom management; how to maintain an orderly class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Educational differences between China and U.S.; communication with the local teacher about different cultures; school principal doesn't understand cultural difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Heavy workload; lack of support from school, parents, and the students; whether I should extend my visa for the next school year</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>